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## The impact of globalisation on labour legislation related to employees in Zimbabwe

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### Abstract

*While there is widespread agreement that globalisation has affected developments across the globe and that it brought with it foreign direct investment and employment creation, there is no consensus on the nature and significance of its impact on labour legislation relating to employees. With specific reference to Zimbabwe, one view is that globalisation brought about employee rights. Another is that the advent of globalisation led to high liberalisation of the labour market through labour legislation deregulation to the disadvantage of employees. It is against this backdrop that the objective of this article is buttressed on the need to understand the impact of globalisation on labour legislation relating to employees in Zimbabwe. To achieve this objective, the study adopted a qualitative research approach based on the interpretivist research paradigm entrenched within a phenomenological research strategy. Being a qualitative study, the article relied on interviews and participants memoirs, which were thematically analysed. It was shown that globalisation has both positive and negative impact on legislation relating to employees. The positives are provision of workplace democracy; employees' rights; protection against unfair labour practices; and promulgation of anti-discrimination laws. The identified negatives included the increase of casual and temporal employment contracts; rising retrenchments; non-compliance with labour laws, particularly in the special economic zones (SEZ); use of cheap labour through outsourcing and labour brokering; and breach of minimum wages regulations. Findings showed that the negative effects outweigh the positives. This article therefore recommends that employee involvement, training and education on globalisation dynamics is necessary for employees to appreciate emerging issues in the world of work and be equipped to meaningfully engage employers in collective bargaining to improve their plight at workplace and industry level.*

**Keywords:** Globalisation, labour legislation, employee, International Labour Organisation (ILO), transnational companies

**Jel classification:** J53; K31

### 1. Introduction and Background

Globalisation created porous borders through integration of international economic systems, financial markets, labour legislative frameworks, and human capital exchange. The conceptualisation of globalisation, and its definition in literature, is somewhat clouded with controversy and acrimonious debate between its advocates and critics (Lee & Vivarelli, 2006). The global connectivity and integration in all spheres created international institutional frameworks, increasing pressure on countries and societies to assimilate towards international standards (Wait & Thibane, 2015). The globalisation phenomenon led to the rise of transnational companies, which, in their search for raw materials, markets and cheap labour, established themselves in different countries through acquisitions, mergers, and opening new plants (Collings, 2007).

Even the behemoths of communist and socialist economies in the 1990s capitulated to this new world order (Heng, 2000; Kishore, 2002; Sklair, 2002). In this regard, Ukpere (2014, p.158) notes:

*“This development saw nations, particularly developing ones, rushing to infuse themselves into the capitalist global system, which was reflected by the opening of borders to the transnational juggernaut of capitalism.”*

As the tidal waves of globalisation grew, Zimbabwe joined the globalisation bandwagon. Backed by the World Bank’s policy of Economic and Structural Adjustment Program (ESAP), and through the influence of the Tripartite Negotiating Forum (TNF) and direct lobbying by employer boards like the Employers’ Confederation of Zimbabwe (EMCOZ), transnational companies in Zimbabwe contributed to formulation of the employment relations policy, which led to formulation of labour legislative changes in 1992 (Sachikonye, 1990). Nonetheless, failure of the Economic and Structural Adjustment Program widened the rift between the poor’s needs and the rich’s plenty. The anti-climax of this initiative was that, it threw Zimbabwe into an economic downward spiral, characterised by accelerated poverty and negative growth. This was described by the United Nations Development Programme (2008) as jobless growth, future-less growth, voiceless growth also known as the end of workplace democracy, and ruthless growth in form of increased poverty.

There are several global factors that impact on labour legislation and when it comes to employees, it is pertinent to understand the nature and significance of such impact from the perspective of employees and their employers.

### **1.1 Problem statement, research questions and objectives**

Labour legislation is pertinent in guiding both employer and employee conduct at the workplace. Workplace, regulations, policies and procedures are useful for a number of reasons, which include setting parameters of interaction among employees and between the employer and its employees by creating acceptable standards of workplace relations. For employees, labour legislation work as a buffer and protection tool against errant employers whilst the same legislation is expected to protect business. Zimbabwe relaxed its employee protection mechanism in order to increase labour market flexibility in 1992 in line with the World Bank's Economic Structural Adjustment Policy. Workers feel unsafe and perceive employment regulations and national labour policies as divorced from the challenges that globalisation occasioned. In 2008, Zimbabwe was on the ILO agenda for breaching the declaration on the Fair Globalisation Protocol and breaching ILO convention 87 and 89 by infringing workers' rights to organise when it barred industrial demonstrations and arrested workers who had participated in industrial job action. These perceived deficiencies in the Zimbabwean labour legislation and national labour policy have now become a challenge worth exploring and this article attempts to understand this phenomenon.

### **1.2 Research question**

The above problem statement triggered the research question below:

- What is the impact of globalisation on labour legislation for employees in Zimbabwe?

### **1.3 Research objective**

The objective of this article is:

- To understand the impact of globalisation on labour legislation for employees in Zimbabwe.

## **2. Literature review**

Particularly emblematic in the study of globalisation and labour legislation, has been the widening of the range and deepening of the depth of legislative interventions to provide adequate covering of workplace regulations in the face of the changing methods of production and globalised markets (Tiraboschi, 2014). Whether or not legislative intervention impacted positively on employment relationships in Zimbabwe, and perhaps

across nations, is a subject of debate. Blanpain (2006) contends that current challenges in the global labour market are so drastic that the existing legislative framework needs remodelling. He argues that:

*“The changes that are taking place are so radical that they lead to a rethinking, and sometimes, an identity crisis for national systems of labour law and industrial relations. Rules, practices and expectations of yesterday are less relevant for tackling problems of today and tomorrow in the new world of work. In a sense, we need to start from scratch”* (Blanpain, 2006, p. 41).

Regulations and practices governing labour relations world-wide are undergoing serious re-regulation in line with business changes, technological advancement, as well as social evolution (Biagi, Tiraboschi, & Rymkevitch, 2002). Globalisation in economic, social, political and ideological dimensions is a key determinant of labour legislative changes (Fenwick, Kalula & Landau, 2007). The changing patterns of work organisation, the weakening role of the nation state over regulations of labour relations, and the fading capacity of trade unions in collective representation and collective bargaining, have crippled the protective function of labour laws (Kim & Zurlo, 2009). Perhaps to put this discussion into perspective it is pertinent to briefly define globalisation.

## **2.1 Globalisation defined**

It has been widely accepted that globalisation is an ongoing catalytic process, responsible for changing local and regional phenomena into global ones (Giddens, 2004). Steger (2017, p.19) states that globalisation was used in academic literature in the 1960s to “describe a process, a system, a force and an age.” Regarding its effects on society, Giddens (2004) argues that globalisation strengthened international relations, obliterating the barrier of distance to enable societal developments in different societies to influence events in others far away. In industrial relations terms, Macdonald (1997) defines globalisation as a reduction of barriers between countries, leading to intensified economic competition among nations, and the increasing trend of migrant workers, and sharing of international best standards in labour relations and workplace management. Friedman (1999) focused much of his work on identifying drivers of globalisation and their impact. He identified propellers of globalisation to be trade, outsourcing, technology, and political forces. Robinson and Harris (2000) add that economic actors, namely transnational firms,

banks, and capitalist countries are drivers of economic globalisation and these influence labour legislation in countries they invest. The next section defines labour legislation.

## **2.2. Definition of labour legislation**

Biagi, Tiraboschi and Rymkevitch (2002, p.5) defined labour legislation as “*regulations governing industrial relations.*” Similarly, Salamon (2000) describes it as determining and regulating employment relations both within and outside the workplace. Macdonald (1997) describes labour legislation as the legal framework that governs the employment relationship derived from national policy, taking into account global changes, and the need for flexibility and security. The formulation and very nature of existence of labour legislation is therefore not devoid of external factors but, it is an inclusion of both global and national interests possibly ahead of the concerns of the proletariats, and this is elucidated in the following section.

## **2.2. Globalisation and labour legislation relating to employees**

### **2.2.1. Early forms of labour legislation in Zimbabwe**

Zimbabwean labour law backdates to colonial rule, when colonial settlers organised and controlled the indigenous labour force for colonial and capitalistic advancement, according to British common law and later codified legislation of the Master-Servants Ordinances of 1901, which criminalised worker disobedience (Gwisai, 2006). Furthermore, the Compulsory Native Labour Act of 1943 forced black workers to work, while the Industrial Conciliation Act of 1934 restricted trade union participation and workplace democracy (Fenwick, Kalula & Landau, 2007).

In post-independence Zimbabwe, labour legislation did not immediately change, at least not until the 1985 Labour Relations Act. Sachikonye (1990) contends that during the first four years of independence, government tacitly suppressed workplace democracy. Raftopoulos (1995) mentions that the maintenance of oppressive labour laws by the ZANU PF administration was based on the need to advance the interests of the dominant capitalist and imperialist powers for economic purposes, as it owned the entire industrialisation and farming industry.

The suppression attracted resentment, leading to formulation of the 1985 Labour Relations Act, which immediately triggered acrimonious debate between critics and supporters. The



criticism from global capitalists and castigation regarding the 1985 Act from the World Bank and International Monetary Fund (IMF) forced government to relent. The influence of global capitalists indeed controlled the state of labour relations development in Zimbabwe. Hence, Fenwick *et al.*, (2007) observed that international financial institutions (IFIs) implored governments to enact laws that promote labour-market flexibility in order to enhance productivity and economic growth. Zimbabwe responded by promulgating the Labour Act of 1992, which replaced the 1985 Labour Relations Act (Sachikonye, 1990).

## **2.2.2. The 1992 Labour Act and deepening globalisation**

Gwisai (2006) postulates that the Labour Act of 1992 has features that form current employment relations through provisions or employment contracts, employee rights, dispute resolution mechanisms, and collective bargaining.

### **2.2.2.1. Employment contracts**

In terms of employment contracts, the Labour Act categorised contracts of employment into five distinct categories, namely permanent, fixed-term, casual, seasonal, and specific-task contracts. In the last decade, Zimbabwe's labour market witnessed a rise in casual and fixed-term contracts (Luebker, 2008). Casualisation is the increase of non-permanent employees, who are usually not protected by labour legislation, and who are hence at the mercy of their employers (Klerck, 2009). For example, in a dispute involving casualization of labour in *Magodora and Others v Care International Zimbabwe* (2014), the Court gave new meaning to continual renewal of contracts by concluding that fixed-term contracts have a start date and an end date. In this respect, the Court warned:

*“In principle, it is not open to the Courts to rewrite a contract entered into between the parties or to excuse any of them from the consequences of the contract that they have freely and voluntarily accepted, even if they are shown to be onerous or oppressive”* (Magodora & Others v Care International Zimbabwe, 2014, p. 5).

The advent of globalisation influenced legislative policies adopted in employment contract law. Kanyenze (2011) argues that the World Bank (WB) and the International Monetary Fund (IMF) pressured Zimbabwe to yield by liberalising the labour market and introducing casual labour and fixed-term contracts, which extended to provisions guiding termination

of employment. Provisions regarding termination of employment are provided for in the Labour Act [Chapter 28:01] under section 12, which, at its inception in 1992, returned the right to hire and fire, to employers.

#### **2.2.2.2. Retrenchment regulations**

With regard to retrenchment laws, global capitalists called for the setting of clear retrenchment guidelines through legislative amendments (Madhuku, 2015). USAID (2014) warns that restrictive labour legislation was one of the main causes of Zimbabwe not being investment-friendly. At this stage, benchmarking of industrial practices against international standards took centre stage, leading to new retrenchment rules in the Labour Amendment No. 5 (2015), which introduced a default retrenchment package that gave two weeks' salary for each year worked. USAID (2014) commented that the 2015 retrenchment provisions were in line with regional practices, comparing the new Zimbabwean provisions to South Africa's law that gives a minimum of one week's pay for each year that an employee would have worked, and Zambia's labour law, which provides a maximum of two months' salary for each year worked.

#### **2.2.2.3. Minimum wages**

Regarding minimum wages, Zimbabwe did not have minimum wage regulations, as these were abolished by the Labour Act of 1992 (Saunders, 2007), but this changed from 27 March 2020, when government introduced the Statutory Instrument 81, Labour Relations (Specification of Minimum Wages), (2020). Before this new law, according to Gwisai (2006), the Labour Act of 1992 gave all authority to the works councils and national employment councils to facilitate industry-based collective bargaining, and to set minimum wages. Hence, the country experienced different minimum wages across the labour market (Labour Economic Development Research Institute Zimbabwe, 2008). USAID (2014) declares that the liberalisation of collective bargaining was necessary to help organisations to deal with global and viability challenges like economic recessions through employer-employee agreements on wage reduction.

#### **2.2.2.4. Collective job action**



When it comes to collective job action, Zimbabwe's labour law does not grant this right without restrictions. The Labour Act [Chapter 28:01] under section 104 set stringent procedures, which, according to Madhuku (2015), rendered legal strikes virtually impossible. Gwisai (2006) states that employees intending to strike are required to first refer their dispute to a labour officer. If the dispute is not resolved within 30 days, they should give the employer fourteen days' notice of their intention to strike. Furthermore, before they can carry out the collective job action, they should hold a referendum through a secret ballot, in which more than 50% of the employees should vote in favour of the strike.

#### **2.2.2.5. Workplace democracy**

With reference to workplace democracy, Brione and Nicholson (2012, p. 11) describe it as *"the idea that employees should be given a greater voice in the firms that employ them."* Bendix (2007, p.654) calls it "industrial democracy," and argues that it takes the form of *"increased employee participation, both in the decision making process and in profits of the undertaking."* The ILO ensures globally acceptable labour standards by promulgating conventions to ensure that employee rights and workplace democracy are benchmarked internationally (ILO, 2003). The ILO conventions that are fundamental to workplace democracy are "Convention 87," which provides for "freedom of association," and "Convention 98" *that* gives the right to "organise and collective bargaining" (ILO, 2003, p. 2). Globalisation contributed immensely in shaping Zimbabwe's current labour legislative system from being government-controlled to a liberalised system (Gwisai, 2006). Zimbabwean conformed to the ILO dictates by providing for employee democracy in its Labour Act. Figure 1 below illustrates the provisions occasioned by need to adhere to ILO standards of workplace democracy.

### **7. Protection of employees' right to democracy in the work place**

*(1) No person shall –*

- (a) Hinder, obstruct or prevent any employee from forming or conducting any workers committee for the purpose of airing any grievances, negotiating any matter or advancing or protecting the rights or interests of employees;*
- (b) Threaten any employee with any reprisal for any lawful action taken by him in advancing or protecting his rights or interest.*

*(2) Every employer shall permit a labour officer or representative of the appropriate trade union, if any, to have reasonable access to his employees at their place of work during working hours for the purpose of –*

- (a) Advising the employees of the law relating to their employment; and*
- (b) Advising and assisting the employees in regard to the formation or conducting of workers committees and trade unions; and*
- (c) Ensuring the rights and interests of employees are protected and advanced*

Source: Labour Act [Chapter 28: 01], Section 7 (1992)

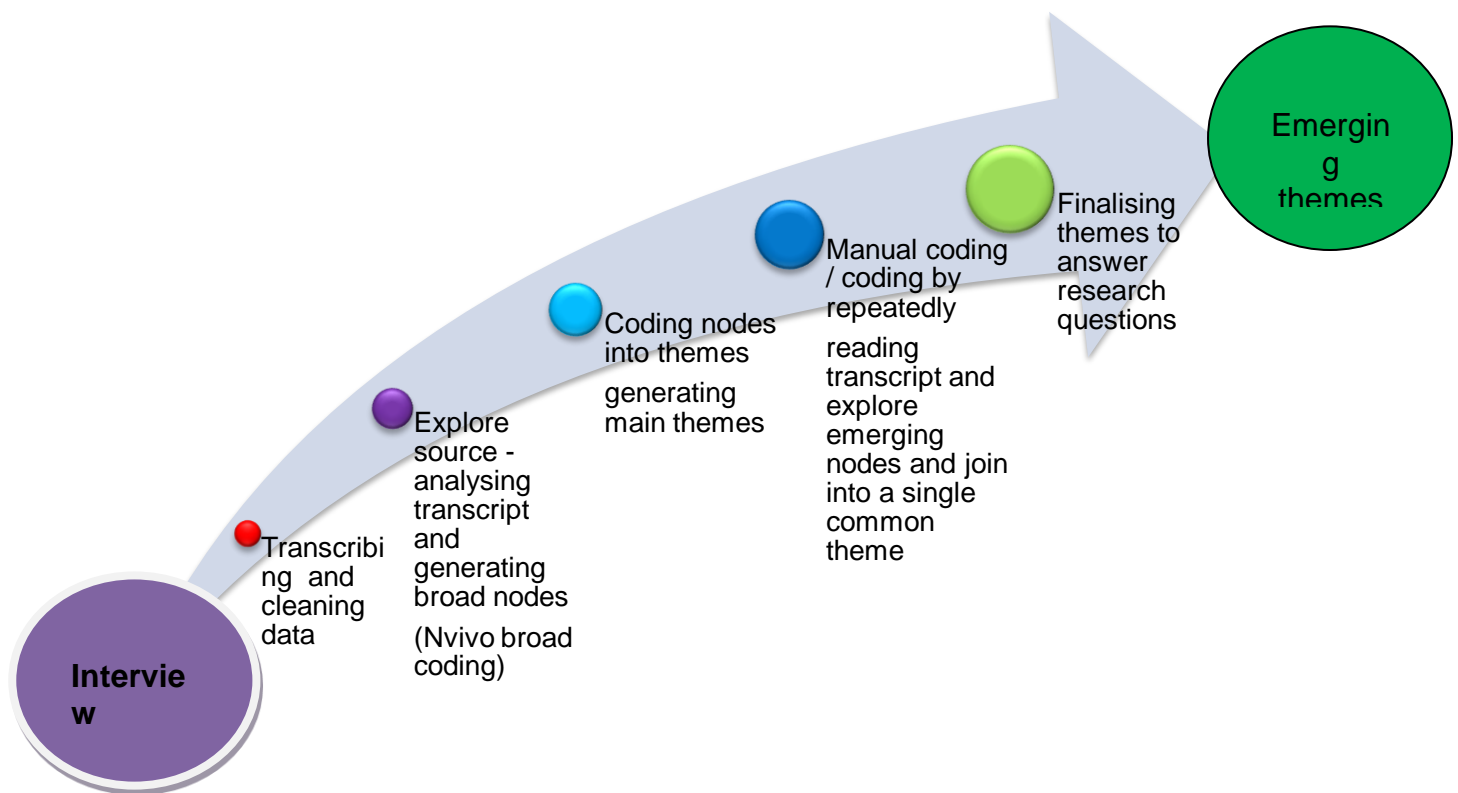
### **2.3. Intensifying globalisation and the role of the worker's committee**

Workers' committees comprise elected employee representatives who work as vehicles to achieve workplace democracy through engagement with management to address employee interests (Sambureni & Mudyawabikwa, 2003). They are established under sections 23 and 24 of the Zimbabwean Labour Act, and their duties and responsibilities are outlined in the same proviso. The involvement of workers' representatives in disciplinary committees, safety committees, pension boards, and grievance committees in Zimbabwe aligns with Bendix's (2007) description of task-centred participation. Task-centred participation restricts employee involvement by confining the worker's committees to issues of less significance, whilst high-level decisions are left to management's prerogative.

Mamba, Jordaan, and Clance (2015) note that the coming of globalisation and the influence of transnational firms brought about global best standards, which increased worker participation at enterprise level, whilst destroying organised labour. Mucheche (2017) concurs that management and worker's committees never hold the same power although legislation assumes that they hold equal power. In practice, labour is highly inferior to capital, and with the advent of globalisation, worker democracy and power is under siege. Sweeney (2004, p. 102) sums it up by stating that, "*with the dawn of globalisation, democracy clearly stops at the workplace door.*"

### 3. Research methodology

This article adopted the interpretivist paradigm, and as a qualitative phenomenological enquiry, the article relied primarily on interviews and participants memoirs. Using purposive sampling and snowballing technique, fourteen participants who were sufficiently knowledgeable about the phenomenon of enquiry were chosen as sample from the population. The fourteen participants were adequately briefed about the purpose of the study and they duly gave their consent to participate in the study. Twelve participants were interviewed and two wrote memoirs detailing their experiences with the phenomenon. The interviews were semi-structured, which gave participants the opportunity to freely air their views on the issues of discourse, though they were guided with relevant questions to allow some form of standardisation. The transcripts of responses of the interviewees were coded using both electronic coding through Nvivo 10 and manual coding. Participants were given code names like "Simon" which were not their real names. From data coding, common themes emerged. Views of the participants were reflected as expressed in their verbatim quotes in line with each emerging theme. Steps taken in data collection and analysis are summarised in Figure 2 below.



**Figure 2: Steps taken from data collection to analysis**

**Source: Author's fieldwork**

#### **4. Data presentation and discussion of findings**

The objective of the study was to discover the impact of globalisation on labour legislations relating to employees in Zimbabwe. Consequently, the theme that emerged is, ***globalisation has impact on labour legislation relating to employees***. Two sub-themes, namely the International Labour Organisation and transnational corporations proved instrumental in shaping labour legislation, which relates directly to employees in the Zimbabwean context.

##### **4.1 Role of the International Labour Organisation (ILO) as an agent of globalisation**

Zimbabwe's labour legislation predominately follows the basic guidelines of ILO standards. The labour Act is crafted in line with the main ILO conventions and Zimbabwe ratified the

majority of ILO conventions. Hence, the Zimbabwean labour law provides for workplace democracy, anti-discrimination, employee rights, freedom of association and fair labour practice. ILO played a critical role to influence labour relations reforms in Zimbabwe and adherence to its standards. It is therefore imperative for Zimbabwe as a member state to comply with ILO set standards. In fact, one of the research participants, whilst referring to anti-discrimination laws in the Zimbabwean Labour Act, argued that the provisions in the Zimbabwean labour act *“were borrowed from ILO conventions against discrimination, right to organise, prohibition of forced labour, and prohibition of employment of under aged employees* (Ben, 12 April 2019, p. 1). Madhuku (2015) notes that the main task of the ILO is to formulate and supervise implementation of international labour standards to ensure human dignity in workplaces.

Another participant, Patience observed:

*“Section 7 subsection 12 of the Labour Act provides employee protection by giving employee rights like the right to organise thus promoting workplace democracy. This came about because the country wanted to follow global trends set by the International Labour Organisation”* (Patience, Transcript, 8 May 2019, p.1).

Although literature and research findings agree that the ILO showed significant influence regarding the promulgation of labour legislation in Zimbabwe, the research findings further demonstrated that compliance with ratified ILO conventions is a challenge, as observed by one participant:

*Despite ILO standards, employees’ rights are very limited... There is no standardisation even for employees in the same transnational companies working in different countries,”* (Tracy, Transcript, 14 July 2019, p. 2).

Another noted:

*“...currently there is global pressure to move towards unlimited maternity leave for female employees, ILO has already come up with Convention 189 on maternity leave. In Zimbabwe, maternity provisions do not cover fixed-contract employees and the same apply to permanent employees who still had not completed a year of service with the organisation”* (Ray Transcript, 14 July 2019, p. 4).

This lack of implementation of the ILO conventions goes against the ethos of anti-discrimination in the Zimbabwean labour legislation especially given the fact that Zimbabwe ratified the Maternity Protection Convention 183 of 2000 (ILO, 2003). Zimbabwe's maternity provisions are outlined in Section 18 of the Labour Act [Chapter 28:01]. Its implementation was done selectively, omitting casual and fixed-term contract workers. The Zimbabwean Labour Act also introduced a one year waiting period for all new employees in spite of the fact that some of the employees might not be new in the labour market, and some might already have been contributing to the national security fund and state revenue for years in previous engagements.

Pursuant to this finding, it can be argued that some ILO recommendations face resistance and non-compliance from employers who, for example, find it unreasonable to recruit a pregnant employee on a fixed-term contract, and accord maternity leave on full pay and benefits after some few months at work. In case of a contract employee, the contract may expire whilst the maternity is still in force. Such downtime factors on business operations result in silent or unpronounced salient discriminations like not hiring pregnant women. In cases where a pregnant woman is hired, she is not given maternity leave. In fact, the Zimbabwean Labour Act (Chapter 28:01) under Section 12 does not compel employers to allow maternity leave to employees who have worked for less than a year (Labour Act, 2002).

#### **4.2. The role of transnational corporate**

Transnational companies are major drivers of globalisation, and Sklair (2002) argues that such companies have massive wealth that make them dictate conditions of doing business within nation states they operate in. Shore *et al.* (2004) viewed transnational companies and their current approaches of outsourcing and replacement of humans with technological machines as a new form of 'Taylorism', worse than original scientific management. In Zimbabwe, transnational corporations outsourcing, casualization of labour, long working hours, technological changes, fixed-term contracts, and subcontracting. Research participants shared similar views as stated below:

- *"Indian and Chinese employers subject employees to long working hours with little remuneration" (Sarah Transcript, 15 September 2019, p.2).*



- *“The high casualisations of labour and fixed-term contracts have affected the industry... The other issue that is on the rise is the issue of subcontracting. Employers are now subcontracting or outsourcing services from labour brokers”* (Ryan Transcript, 14 July 2019, p. 3).

Luebker (2008) points out that in Zimbabwe, outsourcing, transferring of asserts to satellite enterprises, and the use of labour brokers increased since early 2000. Fenwick *et al.* (2007) maintains that the prevalence of outsourcing, as well as fixed-term and casual contracts in Zimbabwe brought challenges to the labour legislation system, where employees were/are either not covered by the law or, if covered, they are not able to enforce their rights, using the same law because they are not protected by it. In some extreme cases, employees who work for the same company were/are paid different wages although they perform similar duties, because the first group was employed under a labour broker, while the company employs the other group directly.

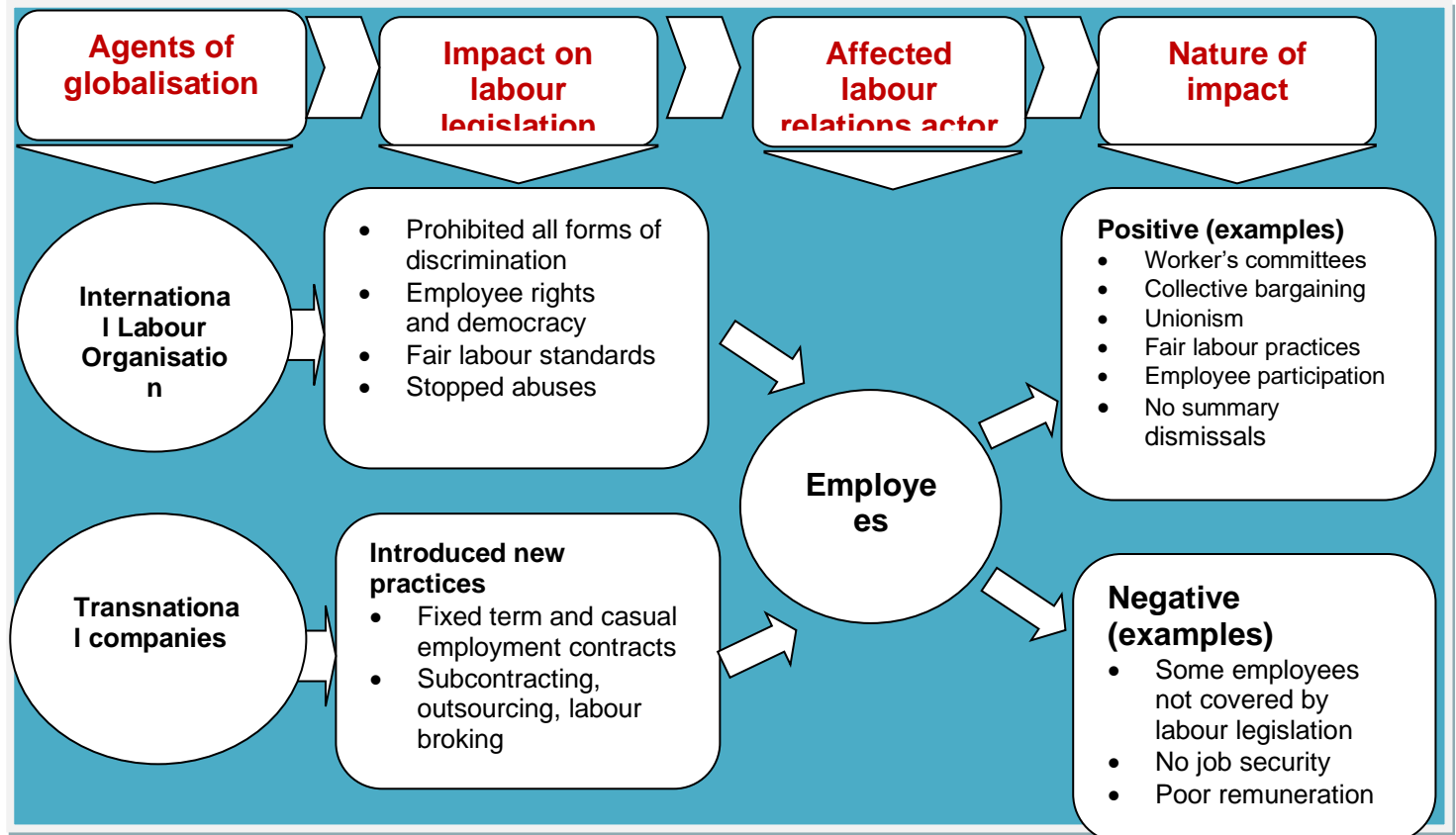
*“The employees engaged directly by the company are paid differently from those ones employed by the broker yet performing the same functions. Employees from brokers are paid in line of the commercial sectors industry and their wages are very low... Labour brooking and outsourcing are emerging concepts borrowed from globalisation as they emanated from developed countries and transnational companies bring these concepts in the labour market”* (Ryan Transcript, 14 July 2019, p. 3).

In terms of why employees from labour brokers do not have a workers committee, and are treated differently, one of the participants argued: *“There is no need for employee representation, we do not need one. If any they do it at the broker’s offices or at the premises of the out-sourced company. If it causes an issue to the company, we simply terminate the contract with the broker”* (Mark Transcript, 10 August 2019, p. 4). In view of this, employee disciplining, grievance procedure, conditions of service, and governance, in accordance with the company’s code of conduct, do not apply to employees from a labour broker or outsourced services. Such employees remain uncovered by the labour laws, and their concerns remain unaddressed, because there is no forum to address such issues at the workplace and in labour legislation.

Perhaps the role of transnational corporations and the extent of the economic power that they wield help them to force their way on host nations, which one of the research participants summed up in the statement below. She noted that transnational corporations advance globalisation by “*forcing their systems into companies in different countries they operate in*” (Tracy Transcript, 14 July 2019, p. 2). In Zimbabwe’s context, globalisation brought with it new practices such as outsourcing, labour broking, fixed-term contracts and casual employment, making it impractical to administer the labour laws in situations where these new concepts were practiced. Franklin (2015) states that many workers globally are not protected by labour laws.

#### 4.3. Summary of participants’ perceptions regarding flow of impact

Agents of globalisation namely international labour organisations and transnational companies were/are instrumental in influencing labour market legislation in Zimbabwe. Figure 3 below provides an illustrative summary of the flow of the impact of globalisation on labour legislation relating to employees and further highlights participants’ perceptions regarding the nature of impact.



### Figure 3. Impact of globalisation on labour legislation relating to employees

Source: Author's fieldwork

## 5. Recommendations

The negative impact of globalisation on employees in Zimbabwe showed that the negatives are significantly more pronounced and possibly outweigh the positives, thus creating a significant unfairness and exploitation of employees that require correction. Ukpere (2011, p. 93) suggests that there is a need to move “*towards building of a more inclusive and fairer globalisation that could ameliorate the plight of global workers, while promoting industrial democracy for the benefit of humanity.*” Hence, the study's recommendations are necessary to assist Zimbabwe's organisations, managers and employees to adaptation methods in response to, the advent of globalisation.

### 5.1 A need for employees to collaborate with their employers

Unions and employees need to be accountable for ensuing labour relations culture at their respective workplaces through collaboration with their employers. In fact, each work environment faces different challenges, and there is no single prescription to deal with such challenges. The behaviour and attitude of unions and employee representatives towards issues arising from globalisation, which affect the workplace, prompt them to either collaborate or conflict with their employer.

### 5.2 Government to oversee institution of industrial democracy at all workplaces

Each Zimbabwean workplace should comprise basics that build the main ethos of a sound labour relations environment by affording employee participation through worker's committees, collective bargaining, and involving employees in discussing challenges that globalisation poses, and to collectively work with them to find solutions. Workplace democracy is a fundamental employee right, regardless of whether or not an organisation operates under a special economic zone, or uses outsourcing or not, such global rights are absolute to the extent that an employee should enjoy them.

### 5.3. A need to educate and train employees on globalisation dynamics

There is need for more awareness, as well as constructive training and education programs regarding globalisation, where both employers and employees are trained and informed about major global changes that affect the world of work. It also helps to ensure that employees and their representatives do not receive completely divergent information and interpretation from unreliable sources.

## 6. Conclusion

In conclusion, it is observed that globalisation has significant impact on labour legislation relating to employees. Two main drivers of globalisation namely the ILO and transnational companies are instrumental in shaping labour legislation in Zimbabwe. The positive impact occasioned by globalisation include promulgation of anti-discrimination laws, provision of industrial democracy, promotion of fair labour practice and employee rights. The negative impact brought about by the influence of transnational companies include introduction of practices like fixed-term contracts, casual employment, subcontracting, outsourcing and labour broking. This new phenomenon led to loss of job security, low remuneration and poor conditions of service. In worse case scenarios, some employees are not covered by the labour legislation as in the case of female employees and provision of maternity leave.

The participants generally agreed that the negative impact of globalisation on labour legislation relating to employees were more pronounced as compared to the positives it occasioned. However, there is room for improvement since the general foundation of Zimbabwean's labour legislation is built on the basic principles of ILO conventions. Perhaps, more effort is required from government to seriously work on institutionalising workplace democracy and unpacking globalisation factors and set the pace when it comes to adaptation to global trends.

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## **The impact of globalisation on employment statute related to employers in Zimbabwe**



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**Abstract**

*Globalisation led to reduction of barriers between countries and intensified international interdependency such that developments unfolding in a far away country now affect the rest of the world in economic, political and social aspects (Giddens, 1990). The Zimbabwean labour market and its national labour legislation has not been spared from the impact of globalisation. Zimbabwean labour legislation had had several amendments from its inception in 1985 to date. The amendments done at each epoch had caused serious outcry from both labour and business with the main accusations arising from unions who claimed that the effects of globalisation and government's desire to lure foreign direct investment (FDI) led to serious bias towards employers. It is against this background that this article's objective is to interrogate the impact of globalisation on labour legislation for employers. The article adopted a qualitative paradigm and made use of interviews and participants memoirs to understand this phenomenon. Results were analysed thematically by use of both Nvivo 10 and manual coding. Results showed that globalisation has impact on labour legislation for employers. Foreign direct investment and special economic zones were identified as drivers of globalisation responsible for positive impact on labour legislation for employers by influencing deregulation of unfriendly employment laws, instituting flexible contract of employment, easy termination of contracts of employment and giving immunity from dictates of the labour laws for employers operating in special economic zones. The positives for employers resulted in direct negatives for employees. The article recommends that employers need to put into context both globalisation dynamics and dictates of the labour legislation to ensure employee dignity and fair globalisation.*

**Keywords:** Globalisation, labour legislation, employers, special economic zones, foreign direct investment

**Jel Classification:** F6; F60

## **2. Introduction and Background**

Globalisation is characterised by international economic inter-dependence in trade, foreign direct investment (FDI), technology, and flow of goods and services (Jaumotte & Tytell, 2007). According to Scholte (2005), globalisation involves supra-territorial relationships among people, fostered by cultural, political, economic and social infusion. The impact of

globalisation on labour legislation in Zimbabwe for employers has had a dual effect (Sachikonye, 1990). Arguably, the development of labour legislation and labour relations in Zimbabwe from 1980 can be placed in two distinct phases. In the first phase, Zimbabwe's employment relations, during the inception of the country's independence in 1980, were associated with extremely low job security, poor salaries, deplorable living conditions, and high-income differentials between lowly and highly paid workers, but the economy was relatively developed with high levels of employment opportunities (Chiripanhura & Makwawarara, 2000). The government was forced to correct this dualistic development without deterring global, investor and transnational companies, all of which Zimbabwe's newly-born nation needed for FDI injection.

Following independence, a new principle act, namely the Labour Relations Act (1985), replaced colonial labour laws (Industrial Conciliation Act, Employment Act, and the Minimum Wage Act) (Sachikonye, 1990). This new piece of law was too protective of employees and, according to Madhuku (1998), it made employee disciplining and dismissal virtually impossible. Dispute resolution and disciplinary procedures were cumbersome, whilst retrenchment was barred. Government set minimum wages to close salary disparities, and in the process obliterated an old principle in industrial relations, which was to consider the employer's ability to pay and employees' right to collective bargaining (Shelton & Bingay, 1946). The effect of this conundrum was that contracts of employment were no longer under the control of the parties within the contract (employers and employees). On the one hand, companies failed to react effectively to global changes in the market, as they could not lay off redundant employees, leading to over-staffing.

The second phase was the 'labour reformation phase', when the Zimbabwean government succumbed to globalisation pressure and reformed the labour laws by introducing the Labour Act of 1992. Unemployment had risen from 12% in the mid-1980s to 26% by the end of 1990 (Dansereau & Zamponi, 2005). It became apparent that the protective rigidity of the 1985 labour law reforms had suffocated economic growth. Markets were liberalised by opening international trade through the Economic Structural Adjustment Program (ESAP). Deregulation of the labour market gave back the power to employers to hire and fire, introducing minimum wage flexibility, while all labour market constraints such as government and union intervention were removed (Ncube, Collier, Gunning & Mlambo,

1995). Employers welcomed these reforms, and immediately massively retrenched, and casualised labour. This article interrogates the impact of globalisation on labour legislation for employers in Zimbabwe.

### **1.1. Problem statement, research questions and objectives**

The general assumption regarding the efficacy of labour legislation is its anticipated inherent nature of regulating the work environment by protecting actors to the labour relations interaction from abuse against each other. In the case of Zimbabwe, FDI empowered transnational companies to influence country policies and labour laws leading to unstandardised forms of employment regulations. Zimbabwe relaxed its employee protection mechanism in order to increase labour market flexibility. Employers yielded far-reaching power in employment relations with abilities to terminate employment contracts on notice without need to give reasons, and this led to over 30,000 employees losing their jobs in 2015 alone. A situation the Supreme Court Chief Justice termed, “*genocide of jobs*” (Malaba, 2017, p. 1). The labour market depicted a perpetuated marginalisation of the proletariat as far back as 1992, a scenario that is still rising to unprecedented levels as government recently adopted the “*ease of doing business*” mantra. This phenomenon requires probing to understand the impact of globalisation on labour legislation for employers.

### **1.2. Research question**

The above problem statement precipitated the research question below:

- What is the impact of globalisation on labour legislation for employers in Zimbabwe?

### **1.3. Research objective**

The objective of this article is:

- To understand the impact of globalisation on labour legislation for employers in Zimbabwe.

## **2. Literature review**

### **2.1. Conceptualisation of globalisation and its distinctive nature**

Giddens (2004) argues that globalisation strengthened international relations, obliterating the barrier of distance to enable societal developments in different societies to influence events in others far away. Perhaps the most mystifying conceptualisation of globalisation

is the one by Scholte (2005), who propounds five different possible definitions of globalisation: **(1) Internationalisation**, which, in general, refers to cross-border relations between nations, driven by the need for trade in all respects; **(2) liberalisation**, which entails removing government restrictions and opening trade to international markets; **(3) universalisation**, which is described as spreading various objects and experiences to all people everywhere; **(4) westernisation**, explained as the spread of European and American modernity in the form of capitalism, colonisation, neo-imperialism and industrialism to the rest of the world and, in the process, destroying existing cultures, religions and ways of life; and lastly, **(5) de-territorialisation**, defined as the creation of homogeneous environments by the reconfiguration of geographical barriers through the infusion of societies, social relations and culture.

While demystifying the distinctive nature of globalisation, Ukpere (2014) observes:

*“Therefore, it can be said that globalisation is capitalism, however capitalism is not globalisation; globalisation is internationalisation, however, internationalisation is not globalisation; globalisation is technological explosion, however, technological explosion is not globalisation; globalisation is deterritorialism, however, deterritorialism is not globalisation; and, finally globalisation is supraterritorialism, however, supraterritorialism is not globalisation”* (Ukpere, 2014, p. 159).

Ukpere (2014) suggests that since globalisation represents all these facets, whilst each one of these concepts inadequately represents it, one must, therefore, satisfactorily explain and define globalisation according to its unique experience and influence on any concept. Hence, this study contextualises globalisation as it relates to labour legislation for employers in Zimbabwe.

## 2.2. Labour Relations Act (1985) and the advent of globalisation in Zimbabwe

Pre-independent Zimbabwean labour relations were preoccupied with legislative promulgation to advance colonial capitalism. A scenario explained by Khor's (2000) definition of globalisation, as cited by Shojai and Christophers (2004, p. 4), *“globalisation is what we in the Third World have for centuries called colonisation.”* Mhone (2001) notes

that Zimbabwe's colonial past shaped its current labour legislation. Soon after independence in 1980, the newly elected government sought to rebuild the war-torn country through reconciliation of the warring parties in order to retain and lure foreign direct investment (Thata, 2016). The Robert Mugabe-led black government had learnt from the mistakes of its predecessors (Mozambique, Malawi, Tanzania and Zambia), whose economies had crumbled when they tried to immediately undo the effects of colonisation, and were accused by the international community of "*pervasive violations of human rights and breach of international labour standards*" (Fenwick *et al.*, 2007, p. 3). Hence, the government was under pressure to build the nation, and at the same time reverse the deleterious effects of colonialism without offending global capitalists. In 1985, Zimbabwe promulgated a new labour law (Labour Relations Act of 1985).

As Sachikonye (1990) mentions, it may be argued that the delay to introduce a new labour law and continued use of oppressive colonial labour laws was based on the need to advance the interests of dominant capitalists and imperialist powers for economic purposes, as they owned the entire industrialisation and farming industry in Zimbabwe. Collins (1982), as cited by Raftopolous and Sachikonye (2001, p. 7), whilst describing the historical materialism theory as the foundation from which law emerges, explained how superior powers use the law to gain what they want from the weak. The author notes:

*"The class instrumentalist approach shows how the economic relations that determine the class structure of society eventually exercise their influence on the law through mediation of the state apparatus. In short, the economic base determines the legal superstructure, not instantaneously and mechanically, but through a process of class rule in which participants further their interests through the legal system"* (Collins, 1982, in Raftopolous & Sachikonye, 2001, p. 7).

Fenwick *et al.* (2007) argue that enactment of the 1985 Labour Relations Act was owing to ensuing pressure from employees, and the union to regulate the labour market. Sibanda (2002) notes that even after the promulgation of the 1985 Labour Relations Act, though it tried to extend some rights to workers and the union, it had its own flaws. Major issues that affected the labour market remained unresolved, for example, the Minister of Labour was given extensive powers to the extent of determining wages, define what unfair labour practice is, register or deregister trade unions, approve/disapprove dismissals, and allow

or disallow industrial action (Raftopolous & Sachikonye, 2001). Consequently, the Labour Relations Act caused more harm than good, as the state dictated workplace relations from the terraces without hands-on appreciation of the needs of both employers and employees.

Saunders (2007) claims that as long as the Zimbabwean government remained oppressive towards the proletariats whilst advancing transnational companies and imperialists' interests, it attracted admiration across the globe. Indeed, the influence of global capitalism, driven by imperialism and industrialism, derailed the Zimbabwe African National Unity's (ZANU) PF revolutionary communist self-determination that propelled it to power in 1980, as it considered a possible backlash from the international community, had it adopted an exclusively communist and socialist approach after independence. Sutcliffe (2013) argues that the 1985 Labour Bill was lukewarm, as it neither addressed political issues nor investment concerns. He notes that whilst the bill introduced a new labour relations system, it also did not disturb the prevailing economic structures of the country. Its mediocrity resulted in both the capitalists and proletariats criticising it extensively. The criticisms were bordered on two composites; the first one was capitalist in nature, coming from the capitalist bourgeoisies backed by foreign investors, whilst the second one was a socialistic approach, motivated by the need to continue communist ideologies to ensure equality in Zimbabwean workplaces (Sachikonye, 1990).

### **2.3. A clash of ideologies and triumph of globalisation over socialism**

Raftopolous and Sachikonye (2001), citing Parliamentary Debate (1985), note the Labour Relations Act of 1985 was criticised for seeking to terminate capitalism and private enterprise in Zimbabwe, and urge that the Minister of Labour failed to realise that socialism was a utopia that was not going to happen in Zimbabwe. Fobanjong (2001) adds that the minister responsible for labour was literally afforded all powers, including making regulations on various aspects. The Labour Relations Act was viewed by business to be harmful to the economy by its provisions that protected the interests and rights of workers at the expense of business. Sachikonye (1986) claims that whilst it was pertinent to protect employees from unprincipled and dishonest employers, it was also crucial to protect the industry. Exceeding advocacy continued to come from employers' associations, investors and parliamentary debates, increasingly calling for the need to review the Labour Relations Act (Madhuku, 2001).



Conversely, the ZCTU also criticised the Labour Relations Act, its concerns founded on the need to afford adequate employee democracy through collective bargaining (Saunders 2007). According to Sachikonye and Raftopoulos (2018), a leader of the ZCTU argued:

*“While in one vein the Act seeks to encourage the formation and consolidation of trade union movement, it appears to me that in another vein we are pulling the carpet from underneath the ZCTU, how can the union be effective when in actual fact its powers are undermined as a trade union movement by the Bill itself?”* Sachikonye and Raftopoulos (2018, p. 8).

Amidst these hot debates denouncing the Labour Relations Act, government defended the law, arguing that it resembled the ethos of the Zanu PF government, and its commitment to save the people. The then-Minister of Labour, Mr. Obey Shava, blamed the criticism on sympathisers of capitalism, as he noted: *“The recent debates, comments and criticism of the Act clearly indicate who the proponents and apologists for capitalism and exploitation are, and who the champions of the workers are”* (Sachikonye, 1986).

Clearly, the debate and criticism of the 1985 Labour Relations Act exposed a crush in philosophical views between business capitalists and those who advocated for more workers' rights. In the midst of all the criticism from both camps, Madhuku (2001) states that the 1985 Act was pro-employee, and took away the employers' rights of managing the workplace, and vested such rights in the minister, who exercised his state-vested bureaucratic powers to intervene in industrial relations in the workplace. Kanyenze (2011) concurs observing that implementation of the legislation became an impediment on productivity. Disputes took long to be resolved, and the minister's unilateral setting of minimum wages, incommensurate to industrial performance exacerbated the situation. This resulted in reduced investment, which caused economic decline from 1989, and pressure increased on government to pursue labour market deregulation in line with recommendations from the World Bank, aimed at attracting Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) (Saunders, 2001).

At this period, globalisation had accelerated, and it was the collapse of the Berlin Wall in Germany, the collapse of the Soviet Union, and the victory of capitalism envisaged with

the end of the Cold War in 1989 that moved the new world order towards adoption of global collaboration and neo-liberal strategies (Brahm, 2002). Governments became inclined, more than ever, to solve international problems through constructive engagement and dialogue, and to create free trade systems by promoting the liberalisation of markets and deregulation (Schiphorst, 2001). The abatement of ideological conflicts and the triumph of globalisation over socialism left Zimbabwe with one choice to adopt World Bank trade liberalisation and labour market deregulation to save its declining economy (Saunders, 2007). This resulted in promulgation of the Labour Act of 1992, and its hallmarks are quite evident in the current labour legislation in spite of several amendments to it to date.

In order to ensure a better appreciation of the Zimbabwean Labour Act, and to build a foundation for the direction of this discussion, Table 1 below highlights the chronological order of developments that took place in the Zimbabwe's labour legislation.

**Table 1: Development of the Labour Act from 1985 to 2015**

Year	Name	Comments
1985	Labour Relations Act (Act 16 of 1985)	Original name
1992	Labour Relations Amendment Act (1992)	Deregulation
1996	Labour Act [Chapter 28:01] of 1996	Revised edition and change of name
2001	Labour Relations Amendment Act (24 of 2000)	Increased workplace democracy
2002	Labour Relations Amendment Act (17 of 2002)	Changed general employment conditions
2005	Labour Amendment Act (No. 7 of 2005)	Changed general employment conditions
2015	Labour Amendment Act (No. 5 of 2015)	Protecting employees against dismissals

Source: (ILO, 2016)

## 2.4. Globalisation and its mark on the Labour Act for employers

The change in labour legislation witnessed in 1992 was a complete labour market deregulation that gave birth to a completely new piece of legislation, which epitomised the existing Labour Act [Chapter 28:01], and indeed the current labour legislative system. The hallmark of the 1992 labour legislation was based on liberalisation of the labour market and

affording some flexibility to employers. Accordingly, this section considers the influence of globalisation on basic characteristics of the 1992 Labour Act, as amended, namely employment contractual provisions, termination of contracts, dispute resolution mechanisms, and collective bargaining.

#### **2.4.1. Provision of employment contracts**

The Labour Act provides for five types of contracts that the employer and employee can enter into (Sambureni & Mudyawabikwa, 2003). The two most common types are permanent and fixed-term contracts. Mariwo (2008) defined a permanent contract as one that does not have a time limit, and whose termination can only be through death, retrenchment, resignation, retirement, mutual separation and dismissal for misconduct. In some instances, it terminates by closure of operations by the employer, or owing to other supervening circumstances like natural disasters or war. In contrast, a fixed-term contract of employment has a known termination date, which means that it ends by the flux of time, thus naturally expires as per the timeframes given in the contract (Gwisai, 2006).

Two other types of employment contracts, which have historically been uncommon, but have suddenly become popular with employers, are seasonal contracts and specific tasks contracts. In a seasonal employment relationship, employment is only available at specific times of the year (Madhuku, 2015). For example, the agriculture industry in Zimbabwe depends mainly on seasonal contracts, since the majority of farming companies operate during the rainy season. In terms of specific task contracts, Statutory Instrument 15 (2006), Section 5(d), defines it as a contract that binds the employer and employee relationship, based on a specific task or work (Statutory Instrument, 15, 2006). The employment relationship chinchess on a specific work assignment and the contract will expire automatically upon completion of the job (Mariwo, 2008).

The last type of employment contract permissible under Zimbabwean labour law is the casual contract of employment. The rationale of a casual contract of employment under Zimbabwean law is to allow employers to engage employees for ad-hoc jobs, usually for a small period (Madhuku, 2015). This reasoning was outlined by the Labour Act, Section

12(3), in its definition of this type of contract, when it provided that a casual contract should not exceed six weeks' engagement in four consecutive months. Should it exceed this limit, the employee automatically becomes a permanent employee (Labour Act, 1992). Casual contracts in Zimbabwe are less formal, usually verbally endorsed, and employees who have these contracts are not protected by labour legislation most of the time. With the dawn of globalisation, employment contract law assumed a paradigm shift with employers increasingly preferring other forms of contracts compared to permanent employment (Nyamapfene, 2015).

Mariwo (2008) claims that the increase in other forms of contracts of employment ahead of permanent contracts led to unprecedented rises in casual labour. Barrientos (2013) postulates that casual labour is, in a way, a form of informalisation, which is predominately influenced by corporates' desire to be flexible, and yet, at the same time, be able to compete in the world market. Von Holdt and Webster (2005) argue that companies the world over are more interested in reducing costs of labour and liabilities involved with hiring permanent employees. In fact, the influence of transnational firms and increasing pressures on existing global trends forced states to liberalise to conform to global market changes by adopting fixed-term employment contracts (Godfrey, Maree, & Theron, 2006b). Kanyenze (2011) contends that World Bank's ESAP imposed preconditions on Zimbabwe to deregulate its labour laws for it to receive much-needed financial assistance from international financial institutions, while transnational investors played a central role in bringing new forms of contracts to the 1992 labour law reforms.

#### **2.4.1. Termination of employment contracts**

The Labour Act [Chapter 28:01], as amended under section 12, dictates various ways of legally ending an employment relationship. Prior to 17 July 2015, the Labour Act allowed the dismissal of permanent employees through a notice without the need to provide a reasonable cause (Mucheche, 2017). Hence, for a permanent employment contract, the required notice period was three months, while other forms of termination include natural expiration of a contract, retrenchment, dismissal in terms of the employment code, and resignation (Gwisai, 2006).

Upon repealing the termination of notice on 1 September 2017 by enactment of the Labour Amendment Act, No. 5 (2015), only four forms of termination of employment contract are permissible in Zimbabwe presently (Uzhenyu, 2016). The four methods of terminating an employment contract, albeit that resignation was conspicuously omitted, are outlined in Table 3 below, and for comparison purposes, to provide a better appreciation of the antecedents leading to the changes at each stage, Table 2 shows termination of employment contract.

**Table 2: Labour Act [Chapter 28:01] - Employment termination on notice**

12(4) Except where a longer notice has been provided for under a contract of employment or in any relevant enactment, and subject to subsection (5), (6) and (7), notice of termination of the contract of employment to be given by either party shall be –

- (a) three months in the case of a contract without limit of time or a contract for a period of two years or more;
- (b) two months in the case of a contract for a period of one year or more but less than two years;
- (c) one month in the case of a contract for a period of six months or more but less than one year;
- (d) two weeks in the case of a contract for a period of three months or more but less than six months;
- (e) one day in the case of a contract for a period of less than three months or in the case of casual work or seasonal work.

Source: Labour Act [Chapter 28:01] (1992)



**Table 2: Labour Amendment No. 5 of 2015 - termination of employment contract**

Section 12 (Duration, particulars and termination of employment contract) of the principal Act is amended –

(b) By insertion after subsection (4) of the following subsections –

(4a) No employer shall terminate a contract of employment on notice unless –

- (a) the termination is in terms of the code or in the absence of an employment code, in terms of the model code under section 101(9); or
- (b) the employer and employee mutually agree in writing to the termination of the contract; or
- (c) the employer was engaged on a period of fixed duration or for the performance of some specific service; or
- (d) pursuant to retrenchment in accordance with section 12C.

(4b) Where an employee is given notice of termination of contract in terms of subsection (4a) and such employee is employed under the terms of a contract without limitation of time; the provisions of section 12C shall apply with regard to compensation for loss of employment.

*Source:* Labour Amendment No. 5 (2015)

A plethora of scholars agree that the 1992 labour law reforms were necessitated by government's need to attract FDI and market liberalisation (Fenwick, Kalula, & Landau, 2007; Raftopolous & Sachikonye, 2001). Consequently, the 1992 reforms gave employers the right to hire and fire, which encompassed the authority to terminate on notice, even if the employee did not commit any offense (Kwaramba & Uzhenyu, 2017). This right was evoked in 2015, and caused arbitrary dismissals of employees following the Supreme Court judgement in *Don Nyamande & Anor v Zuva Petroleum (Pvt) Ltd* (2015), which upheld the legality of the provisions to terminate on notice. This led to mass termination of contracts of employment across the entire labour market, including parastatals (Malaba, 2017). Sutcliffe (2013) notes that privation of proletariats in Zimbabwe was because of the neo-liberalism approach taken by its government in labour market policies.



Harrison (2010) claims that the domination of superior nations and multi-billion dollar transnational companies have gained power within governments, and business international financial institutions to an extent that they influence global labour market policies. With this in mind, one can argue that Zimbabwe's labour legislative framework cannot stand in isolation and against the dictates of global investors whom it needs for FDI and to recapitalize its industries. In fact, from 2015, Zimbabwe started to move on a new path of 'ease of doing business' to lure investors, which amongst others, relates to friendly labour laws that do not stifle investment (Countouris, 2019).

#### 2.4.2. Collective bargaining legal framework at the dawn of globalisation

Gernigon, Odero and Guido (2000) argue that collective bargaining is integral in workplace democracy, as it allows employee participation in issues that affect them directly, creating an opportunity for management and labour to jointly resolve workplace problems. The Zimbabwean Labour Act under Section 25A, through the works council, and under section 74 by use of the National Employment Councils, provide for collective bargaining. Grogan (2000, p. 263) defines collective bargaining to be a process by which *“employers and employees collectively seek to reconcile their conflicting goals through a process of mutual accommodation.”* The Zimbabwean High Court in the case of the Metal and Allied Workers Union v Hart Ltd (1985) explained this process clearly; *“there is a distinct and substantial difference between consultations and bargaining. To consult means to have counsel or seek information or advice from someone and does not imply any kind of agreement, whereas to bargain means haggle or wrangle so as to arrive at some agreement on terms of give and take. The term negotiate is akin to bargaining and means to confer with a view to compromise an agreement”.*

In Zimbabwe, collective bargaining is conducted at workplace level (works council), and through industry bargaining (National Employment Council). NECs are sector specific collective bargaining chambers, created in 1992, following labour market liberalisation. The NEC is a product of the Labour Act [Chapter 28:01], section 62. It is formed by a registered trade union(s) and employers' organisation(s) falling under a specific industry, which combine to form an NEC for the purpose of determining and regulating wages and conditions of employment in their respective undertaking/s (Kamidza, 2017). NECs were

and are still funded by employers' organisations and sector employees through a monthly 50/50 contribution, agreed upon by the parties (Madhuku, 2015).

It is not deniable that the dawn of globalisation influenced the Zimbabwean labour legislative system from a government-controlled to a liberalised system, where parties negotiate conditions of service, and generally anything affecting them in their employment relationship. NECs provides for employee full participation, since unions challenge management decisions and minimise management prerogatives. Agreements reached in the NEC are Collective Bargaining Agreements (CBAs) that are binding upon the concerned parties (Madhuku, 2015).

Conversely, NECs created space for employers and shielded them from direct union interference in the workplace's daily management, while union contributions to labour relations are confined to collective bargaining at the NEC, and the majority of workplace democracy activities involve works councils (Gwisai, 2006). New trends of employer dominance in workplace democracy have been witnessed by provisions of exemptions, where unions have been faced with a dilemma of how to deal with works council agreements that the NEC has had to ratify, and where, for example, the employer would have agreed with its employees to apply for exemption from paying minimum wages (Madhuku, 2015).

## **2.5. Emerging concepts**

The debate regarding Zimbabwe's labour legislation, particularly the Labour Act [Chapter 28:01], is characterised by unending union critics, with concerns that the Labour Act does not afford necessary employee rights and freedoms (Gwisai, 2006). Conversely, business view labour legislation in Zimbabwe as being counter-productive, epitomised by employee protective provisions (Sachikonye & Raftopoulos, 2018). Although it would be naive for one to expect any labour legislation to be flawless and free of criticism, the law should at least seek to uphold social justice and fairly address concepts and issues of common interest between employers and employees. In fact, Biagi, Tiraboschi and Rymkevitch (2002) argue that, law in itself cannot determine an outcome for every possibility, but it should be able to provide basic guidelines and principles within the auspices of moral reasoning. The severe criticism that the Zimbabwean Labour Act suffered from both sides of the divide,

only point to some failures in basic requirements and such a flaw require probing. Hence, the next section presents the methodological strategies used to explore this phenomenon.

### **3. Research methodology**

Data was collected from primary sources, that is, directly from the participants. The article adopted a qualitative research approach, using a purposive sampling approach and snowballing technique. Fourteen participants who had the requisite characteristics were identified, selected and interviewed to generate necessary primary data. Out of this number, seven were experienced worker's committee members and union representatives and the other seven were seasoned human resources practitioners. Participants were given code names like "Tracy; Takunda" which were not their real names. The interviews were semi-structured and the participants were able to freely air their views. The interviewer was also able to probe further on an issue that lacked clarity or that needed further elucidation. Out of the fourteen participants, two opted to write memoirs detailing their experiences with the phenomenon following the guidelines of the semi-structured interview questionnaire. Data gathered was analysed and presented through narrative discourse detailing the perceptions and views of the participants regarding the phenomenon. Below is Figure 1 illustrating the methodological stages taken in collecting and analysing data.

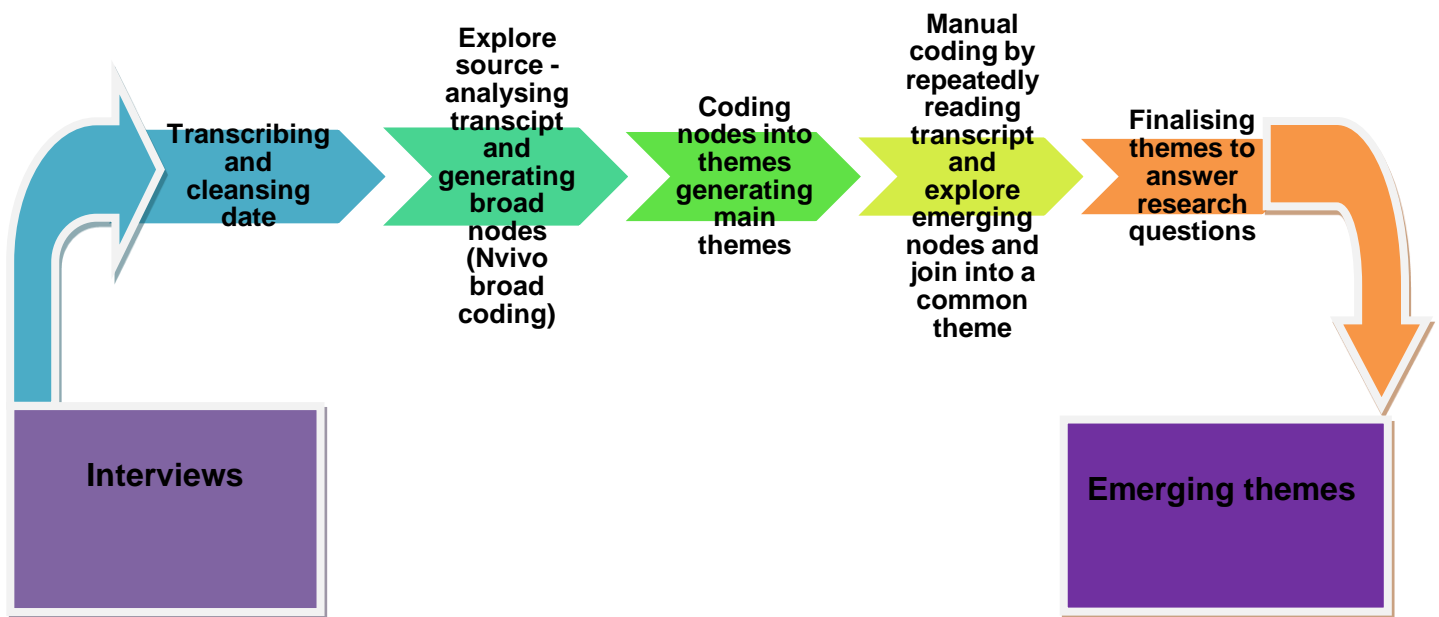


Figure 1: Steps taken from data collection to analysis

Source: Author's fieldwork

#### 4. Data presentation and discussion of findings

The article's objective was to interrogate the impact of globalisation on labour legislation for employers in Zimbabwe. The emerging theme from the findings is that, **globalisation has impact on labour legislation relating to employees**. Two sub-themes namely Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) and Special Economic Zones were identified to be involved in shaping labour legislation relating to employers in Zimbabwe.

##### 4.1. The role of foreign direct investment

The impact of globalisation on labour legislation for employers in Zimbabwe was driven by the country's need to lure foreign direct investment, such that government desire for FDI occupied a central role in directing national labour legislation policy and re-regulations. Table 2 below presents the participants' views.

**Table 3: FDI and investor pressure and its impact on labour legislation**

Participant name	Interviewee discourses
Ben	<i>"I think section 12C on retrenchment...was greatly influenced by global pressure to have a clear-cut retrenchment package for employers to plan well in advance and budget for retrenchment of employees. The new provisions favour employers. Retrenchment is now a prerogative of the employer. The employer is the one who gives the reasons to retrench. Even if the reasons are absurd, the retrenchment will proceed" (Ben Transcript, 12 April 2019, p. 1).</i>
Kuda	<i>"IMF versus National Governments, employees have not benefited. Employees have been heavily taxed in order to pay back loans. Governments have been forced to beg and nil down to the demands of World Bank and IMF in policy direction as conditions to get money or loans. You remember ESAP in Zimbabwe and massive change in labour laws and retrenchments" (Kuda Transcript, 12 June 2019, p.2).</i>
Patience	<i>"There is high liberalisation of labour laws to promote ease of doing business. You will find that government legislative trend is that it does not want to burden employers as they bring employment, investment and generate revenue for the nation" (Patience Transcript, 8 May 2019, p. 2).</i>
Ryan	<i>"For the investors to invest, they would then dictate conditions to safeguard their investment ..." (Ryan Transcript, 14 July 2019, p.1).</i>
Takunda	<i>"The Chinese approach is becoming global to African states and in Zimbabwe...and we have accommodated these investors by allowing their practices" (Takunda, Transcript, 14 November 2018, p. 2).</i>
Sarah	<i>"Indian and Chinese employers subject employees to long working hours with little remuneration. When Chinese investors come to Zimbabwe, they enforce the cheap labour culture and because Zimbabwe is in great need of investors, these investors are given leeway to do as they please" (Sarah Journal, 15 September 2019, p. 1).</i>
Ben	<i>"For example, the laws to do with collective job action are there but in practice, they do not give the right to strike to employees. This was crafted in a way to fence the interest of employers, as the conditions are so strict and not practical to follow" (Ben, Transcript, p. 2).</i>

Source: Author's Fieldwork (2020)

The concept of FDI and its influence on labour legislation was evident in most of the participants' responses. Kishore (2002) considers FDI to be the pick of globalisation and also warned that the impact of globalisation on each subject nation's labour laws is relative, and requires discussion from the perspective of actors in the labour market. Hence, from

the perspectives of employers and employees in Zimbabwe, participants were able to itemise certain exact legislative provisions, which in their view were either changed or introduced owing to FDI. For example, some participants listed retrenchment regulations, strict collective job action laws, long working hours, and termination of contracts of employment.

However, most participants observed that the legislative changes favoured employers, and had no or little benefits to employees. Whilst commenting on the advent of labour broking, casual and fixed-term contracts, one participant who is a human resources business partner, said:

*“The FDI concept is the one that makes companies come with demands and conditions, which are changing the Zimbabwean labour market, values and culture... With such precedence, the employers can do what they want and employees can belong to nowhere”* (Mark Transcript, 10 August 2019, p. 4).

Mlambo (2009) contends that with the Economic Structural Adjustment Programs of 1990 to 1995, which deregulated the labour market, employees in Zimbabwe came out the worst losers, with quite a number having suffered oppressive legislation, and losing their jobs. Only one divergent view emerged from amongst the research participants, particularly on the issue of retrenchment regulations. An employer participant, (a senior human resources officer) noted that retrenchment laws favour employees. He proffered that such bias is unwarranted, noting that employees do not deserve to be paid severance packages.

*“The Labour Act is more of a tool to protect employees rather than employers. I have given you an example of maternity leave and retrenchment laws. Why should an employer pay retrenchment or severance package at the termination of an employment contract especially when the employer honoured all the terms and conditions of the contract of employment before termination?”* (Ray Transcript, 14 July 2019, p. 1).

Although one participant raised this issue, and in spite of clear awareness that, generally, employees are entitled to severance pay in Zimbabwe and perhaps in most countries upon premature termination of employment contracts, this issue require further discussion. With massive changes happening in the labour market globally, and the concept of severance pay sporadically dwindling slowly, with some European states like Finland and Sweden deciding not to regulate this provision (European Foundation, 2015), with time, severance packages may vanish in the same manner that permanant contracts are dissapearing. In



fact, the European Foundation (2015, p. 1) warns that: *“Even in those countries where a legal baseline exists (baseline regarding severance pay), collective or company agreements and individual contracts may result in different provisions”*.

The next section considers the impact of globalisation on labour legislation relating to employers focusing on the role of Special Economic Zones.

#### 4.2. The role of Special Economic Zones (SEZ)

While FDI is instrumental in shaping or changing labour legislation, the impact of SEZs ultimately disregarded labour legislation in all facets. SEZs exempted all companies in this category from adherence to labour legislations. Results showed that companies in SEZs do not follow industry minimum wages, while contracts of employment do not follow dictates of the Labour Act, and workplace democracy and employee rights are not given.

Ryan’s discourse is insightful in this regard:

*“When it comes to Zimbabwean labour relations you will realise that there is this issue called special economic zones which is actually an import borrowed from globalisation. Zimbabwe adopted this notion looking for Foreign Direct Investment. You will find out that the countries that will be investing require liberalisation of labour laws so that it will be ease and cheaper for them to do business. ...*

*For example, in the food industry, we have some companies that were placed under special economic zones with an aim to attract investment. This had a direct negative impact on employees. As a trade union, we are not even allowed to represent employees in these particular companies. You would realise that even in the same company, some certain departments may be placed under special economic zones thereby allowing the employer to be free to do what it deems necessary and can go away with anything even if it violates worker rights”* (Ryan Transcript, 14 July 2019, p.1).

Dannenberg, Kim, and Schiller (2013) note that SEZs are a globalisation strategy aimed at funding conditional loans with specific concessions required from host nations and exploitation of natural resources, whilst mollycoddleing foreign investors with preferential treatment. This article identified various forms of privileges afforded to investors in special economic zones, namely exemptions from paying prescribed minimum wages, liberalised

contracts of employment provisions, no workplace democracy, none-provisions of union representation, and no major employee rights. In summary, it can best be described as giving investors considerable immunity from adhering to labour legislation. By according all these immunities, the aim of the host nation will be to industrialise, create employment, grow its exports, increase government revenue, improve technological exchange, and upgrade employee skills (Zeng, 2015).

Participants in this study, both workers and employer representatives highlighted outright negative effects of SEZ in Zimbabwe. Farole (2011) established similar findings in his study of six special economic zones in African countries (Ghana, Kenya, Lesotho, Nigeria, Senegal and Tanzania). Evidence from a study by Zeng (2015) established that even in other general terms, special economic zones have failed in Africa. *“In terms of investment, exports and employment generation, the African zones are generally falling behind their peers in other continents”* (Zeng, 2015, p. 8). In Zimbabwe, SEZs have not brought benefits to workers as one participant observed.

*“Even companies that are making profits and can afford to pay better wages, they are also giving unfair wages by virtue of them being placed under special economic zones... Special economic zones might be working elsewhere but they are not compatible to our environment here in Zimbabwe”* (Ryan Transcript, 14 July 2019, p. 2);

A reason why Zimbabwe is failing to realise meaningful fruits from SEZs rests in one of the research participant’s observation, as shown below.

*“The problem now is that some companies that are given special economic zone licences are transnational companies that operate in various countries and continents... They, therefore, copy and implement without adjustment the way they handle labour administration in special economic zones outside Zimbabwe”* (Ryan Transcript, 14 July 2019, p. 2).

The challenges imposed by globalisation can be ameliorated and the following section highlight recommendations.

## 5. Recommendations

It is the duty of companies and their managers to ensure that the work environment, the job, and relations within the workplace create a stable labour relations environment.

Ukpere (2011, p. 93) suggests that there is a need to move “*towards building of a more inclusive and fairer globalisation that could ameliorate the plight of global workers, while promoting industrial democracy for the benefit of humanity.*” The following recommendations are necessary in improving managers and employers’ perception on globalisation and need to ensure a fair work environment free from employee exploitation.

## **5.2 Willingness to put globalisation dynamics into context**

Employers’ perceptions, behaviours, and attitudes should indicate that they are ready to work with employees to find solutions to challenges that globalisation poses on employer-employee workplace relations. Employers should desist from constructing policies that adversely affect employees’ welfare, whilst forcing them on employees without prior information or education on such changes. Zimbabwean employers and their managers need to contextualise changes coming from globalisation and offer better conditions than those provided for by the basic dictates of the Labour Act.

Furthermore, transnational companies operating in Zimbabwe should handle globalisation dynamics in the context of the Zimbabwean environment in line with the country’s laws, culture, norms and values. Company policies copied from the head-offices of transnational companies abroad should not be implemented in Zimbabwe’s context without assessing their applicability in terms of the country’s laws, economics, politics and social factors.

## **5.2 A need to train and educate both managers and employees on globalisation dynamics**

There is need for more awareness, as well as constructive training and education programs regarding globalisation, where both employers and employees are trained and informed about major global changes that affect the world of work. Employers should not only educate their managers and leave the employees outside the matrix. Instead, where necessary and applicable, both parties should receive similar educative information, especially in the interpretation of new laws and global phenomenon.

## **6. Conclusion**

In conclusion, it is observed that the two drivers of globalisation, (FDI and SEZs) showed positive benefits for employers, namely liberalisation of employment laws, flexible contract of employment, easy termination of contracts of employment and provision of immunity for employers operating in special economic zones. The positives that globalisation occasioned for employers impacted on employees negatively. The nature of labour legislation showed that employers have more support from the laws governing employment relations and this only increases the already inherent power they have in managing the workplace. As such, it is recommended that employers need to put into context both globalisation dynamics and dictates of the labour legislation to ensure employee dignity and fair globalisation.

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## **Rice Production, Consumption and Economic Development in Nigeria**

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**Abstract**

*In recent times, rice production has become a topical issue in national discourse in Nigeria. Rice is a major staple food in all the regions of Nigeria. Over the years, Nigeria has imported rice from different countries to supplement local production, thereby putting pressure on the Nigeria foreign exchange. Since 2018, the Central Bank of Nigeria made policies aimed at curtailing the importation of some agricultural products including rice, by ordering the closure of land borders till further notice. The aim of the policy was to restrict the dumping of products such as rice into the country, which could generate an unfair competition with local rice producers. It is against this backdrop that this work investigated the effect of rice production and consumption on economic development in Nigeria, from 1986 to 2018. The data were sourced from the Central Bank of Nigeria Statistical Bulletin. To establish the empirical nexus between rice production, consumption and economic development in Nigeria, the work used the following econometrics tools of data analysis OLS, Unit root test, Johansen Cointegration and Vector Error Correction Model (VECM). The findings of the study prove that there is a significant relationship between rice production, consumption and economic development in Nigeria. In addition, the OLS result established that the relationship between rice import and the gross domestic product in Nigeria is statistically significant. The unit root test results justifies that all the model variables were non-stable at levels but gained stationarity after first difference. The Johansen Cointegration test empirically established that there is a long run convergence between the variables in the model, while the VECM result attested that the model variables are jointly instrumental in eliciting long-run equilibrium. From the foregoing, government is encouraged to support the mechanization and modernisation of rice production in Nigeria, including the introduction of modern equipment, pesticides and improved seedlings needed by rice farmers to increase rice production. This may be achieved through the provision of cheap credits to rice farmers.*

**Keywords:** Real gross domestic product, Rice Production, Consumption, Economic Development

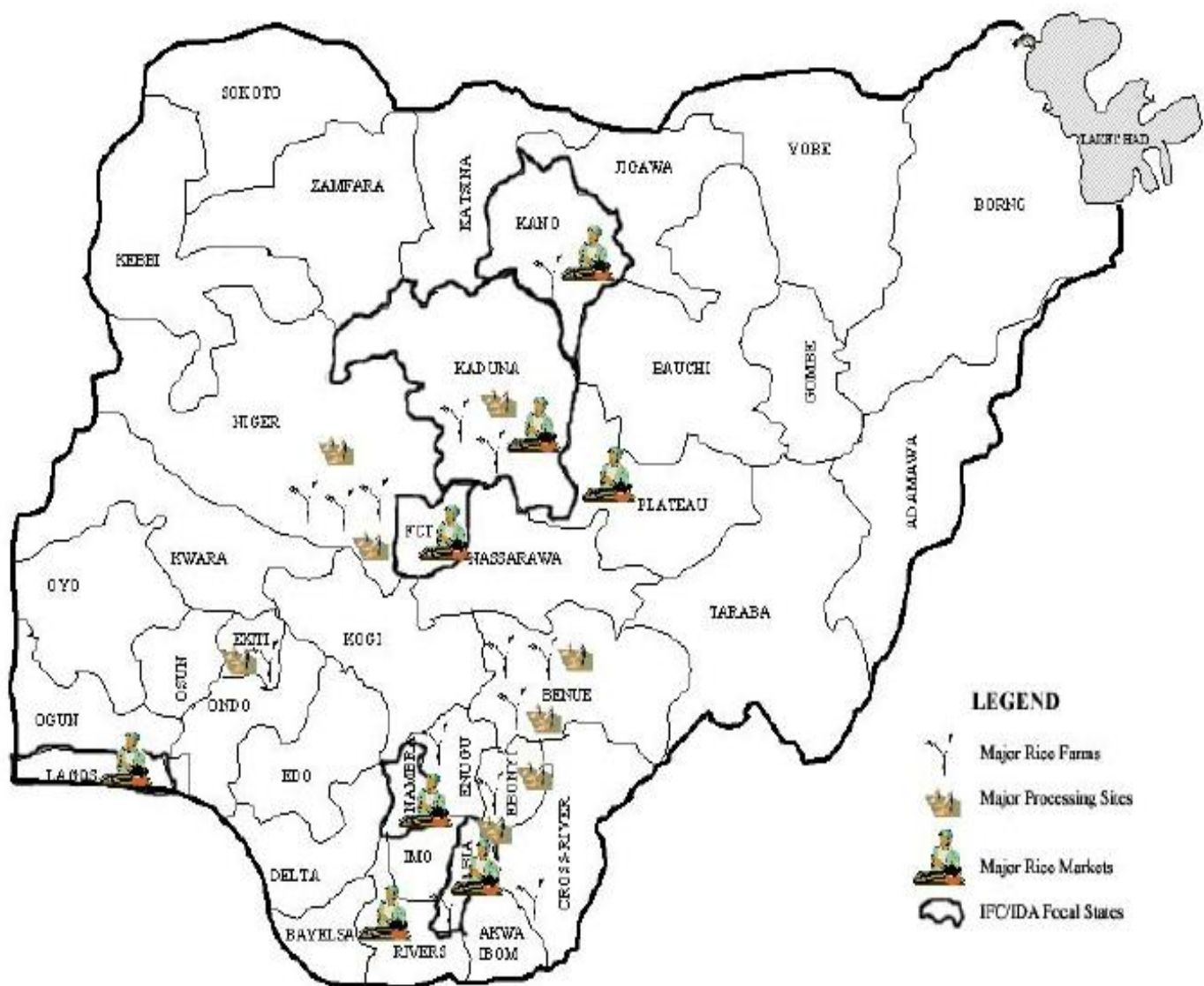
**Jel Classification:** Q1

## Introduction

Rice has become a topical issue in recent times in Nigeria. The Federal Government of Nigeria has recently placed embargo on its land borders with a view to restricting imports of rice through neighbouring West African countries. The belief is that restricting imports of rice will minimize unfair competition against the locally produced rice in Nigeria, encourage local producers to increase production of rice and improve their production skills among other reasons. The policy effect will ultimately enhance the welfare of Nigerians through the consumption of more healthy local rice, which is believed to be relatively fresh from the farms. It was also believed that the income of farmers will rise, consumption habits would change from foreign to local consumption and the overall effect would be an enhanced economic growth and improved welfare as well as impact on its citizens, which may technically be defined as economic development. This work attempts to see how the situation in Nigeria had been *ex-ante*. The result will provide a better basis to advise policy makers on the desirability of closure of the border or otherwise. For instance, if the country was already doing well in terms of production, marketing and consumption of the product, there would be no need for a new policy that may involve costs. Besides, there is already a debate on the desirability of the policy now given the fact that Nigeria has signed the African Continental Free Trade Area (AFCTA) agreement which encourages the free flow of goods, services and persons across Africa.

## Literature Review

Rice is an agricultural cereal with the botanical name, *oryza sativa*. Rice is a staple food in Nigeria and the most widely consumed staple across the different regions in Nigeria. According to the United Nations Foods and Agriculture Organisation (FAO ) data in 2017, rice was the third highest product in demand globally, behind sugarcane and maize. Nigeria is also known to be the third highest importer of rice globally. About 800 thousand metric tonnes of rice are smuggled into the country annually in addition to about 5 million metric tonnes officially imported. Local demand for rice is about 7 million tonnes annually ( Russon, 2019). Rice imports to Nigeria flow from countries as India, Thailand, Republic of Benin, Brazil and China among others.



**Figure 1: Map of Nigeria Showing Rice Production and Markets**

**Source:** Phillip, Nkonya, John & Oni (2009).

The Food and Agricultural Organization (2017) deposed that Nigeria is the second largest producer of rice in Africa. Current production of rice in Nigeria is 3.7 million tonnes of rice annually. According to the report, 1 hectare produces 2-3 tonnes of rice. This is below the global average of about 4 tonnes and by far much lower than the average output in Egypt. Rice may be grown three times a year in Nigeria and production is largely in the hands of small holder farmers. The few large

organised rice farmers that constitute about twenty percent of the total output in Nigeria include, Coscharis Group, Olam, Quarra, and Dangote among others. For instance, Coscharis as at 2019 could produce 8 metric tonnes per hectare with its hybrid variety. According to the former honourable minister of Agriculture, Chief Audu Ogbeh (2019), rice production in Nigeria between 2014 and 2018 rose by 19 percent. He also noted that the market value of local (Nigerian) rice was 684 billion naira, making Nigeria the sixteenth largest producer of rice in the world (Odutan, 2019). This position was corroborated by the Governor of the Central Bank of Nigeria, who described as ‘remarkable success’ that has been achieved in stimulating the production of local goods such as rice (Emefiele, 2018). In fact, George (2020) has noted that production of rice in Nigeria has risen to 4.9 metric tonnes, which is an increase of about sixty percent from the situation in 2013.

Nigeria has a land mass of about 923,968 square kilometres. Out of which a total of 71.2 million hectares are available for farming. How much of this has been farmed and how has the availability and consumption of rice generated a rise in the real gross domestic product, which is the proxy for development in this discourse. The demand for rice is high among the different regions in Nigeria and has been rising with the years. In fact, Terwase and Madu (2014) noted that while the demand for rice in the local economy was high, its production was low. These scholars also observed that the import demand for rice is inelastic. The paper therefore recommended that deliberate attempts should be made by government to improve local rice production. The former Federal Minister of Agriculture, Ogbeh (cited in Russon 2019) noted that Nigeria expends about one billion naira daily in importing rice into the country. This huge sum simply creates employment in countries that export rice to Nigeria. Nigeria is the third largest importer of rice in the world (Russon 2019). Rice is also in high demand across the world. It is the third most important staple food. About half of the population of the world eat rice as a primary source of caloric intake.

Rice is currently food for the masses in Nigeria; it is in almost every ceremony and consumed in almost every home at least once a week. Rice has a consumption rate of 32 kilogram per capita per annum (Businessday, 2018). In many places in Southern Nigeria before the 1980s, this was not the situation. It was then eaten as a ceremonial food. Rice was eaten occasionally either at Easter, Christmas or on some special events. Even then, it was largely the local brand of rice until post-Nigerian civil war and the oil boom era, when importation of food became so pronounced. The demand for rice is high among the different regions in Nigeria and has been rising with the years. In fact, Terwase and Madu (2014) noted that while the demand for rice in the local economy was

high, its production was low. These scholars also observed that the import demand for rice is inelastic. The paper therefore recommended that deliberate attempts should be made by government to improve local rice production. According to PriceWaterhouse Coopers (PWC) (2017), current mechanisation of agriculture in Nigeria is about 0.3 horse power (hp) per hectare (ha) and this could improve to 0.8 hp/ha in the next five years. Rice is relatively easy to produce and to grow.

Economic development may simply be defined as a fundamental rise of human welfare in an economy. According to Bentham (1917), it is the greatest good to the greatest number in society and to Nnoli (1981), it has to do with the inherent capacity of a people to interact with nature and their inter-human environment with a view to optimizing the use of scarce resources. To be more precise, development is a dialectical occurrence which enables men and society to relate with their biological, physical and inter-human environments, through transformation for better human conditions. In other words development in Nigeria could be defined as the increasing capacity to interact with nature. In this case, labour, land and rice towards enhancing human satisfaction, which is indexed in this work by rising real gross domestic product. This theory relates to the capacity to understand nature, which revolves around the study of natural science and how to transform nature for the betterment human lives (technology). According to Ake (1981), development is the ability to create and recreate out of nature for the sake of human satisfaction. This is what may be referred to as capacity model (Okowa, 1994).

### **Theoretical and empirical foundations of the study**

The place of agriculture and food specifically to enhance human welfare has long been acknowledged. Malthus had long posited that food had great impact on development, stating explicitly that where food is insufficient to meet the population needs, the outcome could impact on development negatively. Food insufficiency could lead to ailments, wars and other situations that will reduce population size to equilibrate with the level of food supply. This is usually referred to as the Malthusian trap (Okowa 1994). Malthus had noted that population had tendency to grow at geometric progression while food supplies grow at arithmetic progression. Otto (2008) empirically confirmed that population growth in Nigeria has been high especially in urban areas. Food supply has a nexus with human welfare or development. Lewis (1954) in his Dual Sector Model reinforced



the Malthusian theory by showing that agriculture was a major source of food and raw materials for the industrial sector. A viable agricultural sector and food supply was a major key to viable industrial sector. In fact, a hungry society cannot be said to be a happy or developed society. This explains why hunger and food has always been an instrument for peace and war between societies. Nigeria will enjoy greater welfare if the production and consumption of rice increases. If local output is insufficient, rice could be imported to supplement local output. However, as more of the product is imported, unemployment will rise, so development or welfare is inversely related to importation of rice theoretically while local production is positively related to development or welfare.

Several studies had been done on the impact of agriculture on economic development and growth. There are also studies done specifically on the production or consumption of rice on economic growth and economic development. For instance, Nkoro and Otto (2018) examined the impact of Agriculture on Economic growth in Nigeria between 1980 and 2017. The study noted that agriculture exacts a positive and significant impact on economic growth in Nigeria. Similarly, Osabuohien, Okorie and Osabuohien (2018) examined rice production and processing in Ogun State, Nigeria. This paper used a conceptual framework built on the theory of New Institutional Economics, where Institutions, significantly influence outcomes of economic and social activities. The paper noted that in general terms institutions may be formal or informal. These institutions could include moral codes, values, norms and conducts that influence individuals and group activities. New institutional economics attempts to broaden economics to include roles that neo-classical economics might ignore (Coarse 1998). The concept ‘New Institutional Economics’ was introduced by Williamson (1975). Polycarp, Yakubu, Salishu, Joshua and Ibrahim (2019) analysed producer price of rice in Nigeria. The objectives of the paper were among others to examine the behaviour of producer’s price of rice and government policies in order to forecast the price of rice in Nigeria. The analytical tools were based on a three years moving average with ordinary least squares regression analysis technique. The projected price of rice from the study in 2020 was put at N1290.75 per tonne of rice. Using the Ordinary least squares technique, Afeez (2019) examined the impact of rice production on economic growth in Nigeria. The study covered the period between 1999 and 2018. The results of the study showed that local rice production had positive and significant relationship with economic growth. This study builds on Afeez (2019), by increasing the explanatory variables as well as the time span. Adedeji, Jayeola and Owolabi (2016) investigated the growth trends of rice productivity in Nigeria. The study used the Data Envelop Analysis (DEA)

and attempted to identify the impact of economic reforms on efficiency in the productivity of rice at the different regions in Nigeria. The outcome of the study suggested a negative growth impact during the reform period in Nigeria as whole but increased total factor productivity in some ecological zones. The study covered 1995 to 2010. Ajala and Gana (2015) did an analysis of challenges facing rice processing in Nigeria. The study noted that rice is economically important to developing countries. The study also noted that there is growing demand for the product across the globe.

## Methodology

This section of the work presented an empirical framework for data analysis of this study, which includes the model specification, scope of the data set and method of data analysis. In sum, Time series data of rice production, rice import and exchange rate from 1986-2018 were used as the explanatory variables, while the real gross domestic product as proxy for economic development for the same period was used as the dependent variable. The time series data were obtained from Central Bank of Nigeria Statistical Bulletin (2018). The data set covers thirty-three year period

## Model Specification

The model for this study is deduced from capacity theory and modelled after Nkoro & Otto (2018) and Afeez (2019). Rice consumption in Nigeria is simply Nigerian produced rice and imported rice. A key influencing factor is exchange rate of the naira. From the foregoing the model for this paper is built as follows:

$$RGDP = f(RPN, RIM, EXR) \dots\dots\dots 1$$

Where:

RGDP= Real gross domestic product

RPN = Rice production in Nigeria

RIN= Rice Importation in Nigeria

Equation (1) can be reproduced in a linear function as follows

$$RGDP = \beta_0 + \beta_1 RPN + \beta_2 RIM + \beta_3 EXR + U_t \dots\dots\dots 2$$

While the Log-Linear model adopted for this study in other to unify the data is given below

$$\text{LOGRGDP} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{LOGRPN} + \beta_2 \text{LOGRIM} + \beta_3 \text{LOGEXR} + U_t$$

Where

$\beta_0$  = Intercept

$U_t$  + Stochastic variable

$\beta_1 - \beta_3$  = coefficient estimates of the independent variables

The Theoretical assertions underlying the relationship between the variables in the model are as stated below.  $\beta_1 > 0$ ,  $\beta_2$  and  $\beta_3 < 0$

## Results and Discussion

**Table 1: Descriptive Statistics**

	RGDP	RPN	RIM	EXR
Mean	36646129	2281.485	1366.818	101.9097
Median	28957710	1979.000	1448.000	118.5400
Maximum	69799942	3941.000	3200.000	306.0800
Minimum	15237987	630.0000	164.0000	3.760000
Std. Dev.	19449574	850.8508	900.6854	85.89983
Skewness	0.568655	0.587722	0.238456	0.664939
Kurtosis	1.764113	2.546979	1.877726	2.906650
Jarque-Bera	3.878723	2.181982	2.044546	2.443773
Probability	0.143796	0.335884	0.359776	0.294674
Sum	1.21E+09	75289.00	45105.00	3363.020
Sum Sq. Dev.	1.21E+16	23166306	25959493	236121.0
Observations	33	33	33	33

A probe into the descriptive statistics of the time series data show the mean values of 36646129, 2281.485, 1366.818 and 101.9097 for the variables. The median values of the variables are 28957710, 1979.00, 1448.000 and 118.5400 for RGDP, RPN, RIM and EXR respectively. The range of the individual variables following the above order, which is simply define by the difference between the maximum and the minimum values are 54561755, 3311, 3036 and 302.32. In measuring the skewness of the variables, the result shows that the four variables are normally skewed. An evaluation of the series kurtosis, which explores the flatness or peakness of the data set, portrays that EXR and RPN most of the values of the individual variables lay around their mean values. Comparably, most of the series of RGDP and RIM fall below the mean value and are said to have a flat curve implying that the series is platycurtic. Finally, the Jarque-Bera statistics and their individual probability values depicts that the model data set are normally distributed.

## OLS Regression Test Result

The OLS regression test result is presented below.

$$\text{LOGRGDP} = 9.928931 + 0.6969445\text{LOGRPN} + 0.273829\text{LOGRIM} + 0.029198\text{LOGEXR}$$

P-Values= 0.0000; 0.0000; 0.0008; 0.6217

$R^2 = 0.906681$ ; F-Stat= 93.92121; Prob (F-Stat)= 0.000000

The OLS result above indicates that the coefficient of determination ( $R^2$ ) of the model is 0.906 implying that the natural logarithm of the model variables; rice production in Nigeria (RPN), rice importation (RIM) and Exchange rate (EXR) jointly accounts for over 90% of the overall variations in the annual growth of the real GDP of Nigeria and the error term account for the remainder of about 9% of other variables not inputted into the model. A further review of the result of the estimated parameters to validate the significant of the coefficient of the individual variables whether they aligned with their a-priori and statistical assertions shows that the estimated coefficient of the LOGRPN is both a-priori and statistically significant at 5% probability level, indicating that 1% change in rice production in Nigeria will elicit about 61% change in the Real GDP of Nigeria. However, the coefficient of the LOGRIM is rather not theoretically significant but is statistically significant. Finally, the estimated coefficient of the LOGEXR is neither statistically nor theoretically significant. The model F-Statistic of 93.92121 with the corresponding P-value of 0.000000 portrays that the overall model is systematically well fitted and specified.

### Unit Root Test.

This study adopted the Augmented Dickey-Fuller test in evaluating the stationarity of the model variables given that time series variables are non-stable in nature.

**Table 1: Result of Unit Root Test**

Variables	Level			First Difference			
	Critical-V	ADF-Stat	P-value	Critical – V	ADF-Stat	p-Value	Order
LOGRGPD	-2.960411	-0.691648	0.8345	-2.960411	-3.158482	0.0325*	I(1)
LOGRPN	-2.960411	-1.765488	0.3899	-2.960411	-9.798263	0.0000*	I(1)
LOGRIM	-2.957110	-1.014697	0.7360	-2.960411	-4.497341	0.0012*	I(1)
LOGEXR	-2.957110	-1.672568	0.4351	-2.960411	-5.316318	0.0001*	I(1)

\*indicate 5% prob Level

The result of the unit root test above indicates that all the variables in the model were non-stationary at levels however they became at stationary at first difference, when their critical values became greater than the ADF- statistics at 5% probability level. Therefore, the study went on to evaluate the long-run relationship among the model variables deploying the Johansen cointegration test.

### Johansen Cointegration Test

Following justification by ADF-Fuller unit root test that the variables in the model are all integrated of order one, thus, the need to assess the long-run relationship among the variables is expected.

**Table: 2. Result of Johansen Cointegration Test**  
Unrestricted Cointegration Rank Test (Trace)

Hypothesized No. of CE(s)	Eigenvalue	Trace Statistic	0.05 Critical Value	Prob.**
None *	0.758847	87.19296	47.85613	0.0000
At most 1 *	0.549397	43.10087	29.79707	0.0009
At most 2 *	0.413215	18.38863	15.49471	0.0178
At most 3	0.058315	1.862635	3.841466	0.1723

Unrestricted Cointegration Rank Test (Maximum Eigenvalue)

Hypothesized No. of CE(s)	Eigenvalue	Max-Eigen Statistic	0.05 Critical Value	Prob.**
None *	0.758847	44.09209	27.58434	0.0002
At most 1 *	0.549397	24.71224	21.13162	0.0150
At most 2 *	0.413215	16.52600	14.26460	0.0216
At most 3	0.058315	1.862635	3.841466	0.1723

Empirical evidence from the Johansen cointegration test results in table 2 above as encapsulated by Trace statistics and their corresponding P-Values indicate that there are at least three (3) cointegrating equations at 5% probability level. Similarly, the Max-Eigen Statistics and their P-Values clearly corroborate and unequivocally aligned with that. Indeed there are at least three (3) cointegrating equations among the variables in the model. The justification by both Trace statistics and Max-Eigen Statistics show that there are at least three cointegrating equations among the variables is an overt verification that the short run divergences among the variables are incidentally converged in the long run. In other words, there is an association, relationship and equilibrium in the long run between the variables in the model. Having validated the long run relationship among the variables, the Vector Error Correction Model was employed to explore the short and the long run dynamics of the model.

### Result of Vector Error Correction Model Test (ECM)

A critical appraisal of VECM test result of the study show an  $R^2$  of 0.716435; meaning that about 72% of the total variation in the GDP of Nigeria is accredited to RPN, RIM and EXR. And 29% of the remainder is explained by other factors not included in the model but have been accounted for by the error term. Furthermore, the VECM test result infers an error correction term (ECT) of - 0.035753; which attest that there is a long run causality running from the independent variables to

the GDP, although the causality is however not statistically significant. More importantly, the ECT indicates that the short run disequilibrium in the model is corrected by an annually adjustment speed of 3.6% in the long run, thereby necessitating equilibrium in the long run. And the Durbin-Watson statistics of 2.020828 prove that the entire model is free from autocorrelation problem.

## Conclusion and recommendations

This study assessed the effect of rice production on economic development using the real domestic product as proxy in Nigeria. The data covered the period 1986-2018. To establish the empirical nexus between rice production and economic development in Nigeria, the work used the following econometrics tools of data analysis: OLS, Unit root test, Johansen co integration and Vector Error Correction Model (VECM). The findings of the study prove that there is a significant link between rice production and economic development in Nigeria. In addition, the OLS result established that the relationship between rice import and economic development in Nigeria is statistically significant but did not align with economic theory. The unit root test results justifies that all the model variables were non-stable at levels but gained stationarity after first difference. The Johansen co integration test empirically established that there is a long run convergence between the variables in the model. However, the VECM result attested that the model variables are jointly instrumental in eliciting long-run equilibrium. From the foregoing, the government should support the mechanization of rice production in Nigeria, through policies that support the ease of access to capital equipment, pesticides and improved seedlings needed by rice farmers to increase production. Government should also encourage and persuade financial institutions to provide credit facilities to rice farmers.

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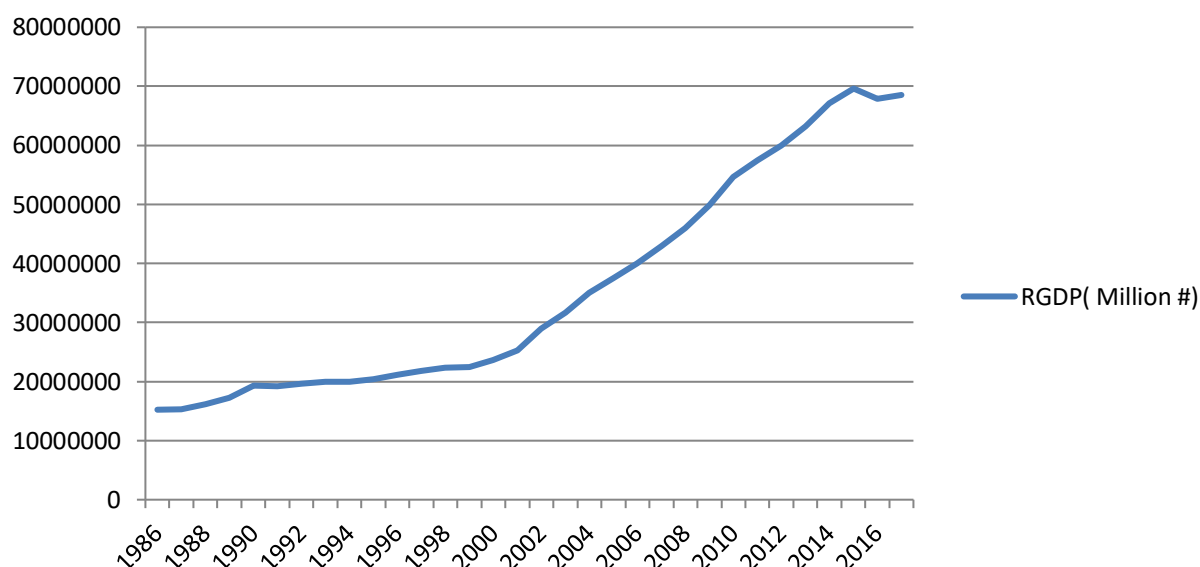
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## APPENDICES

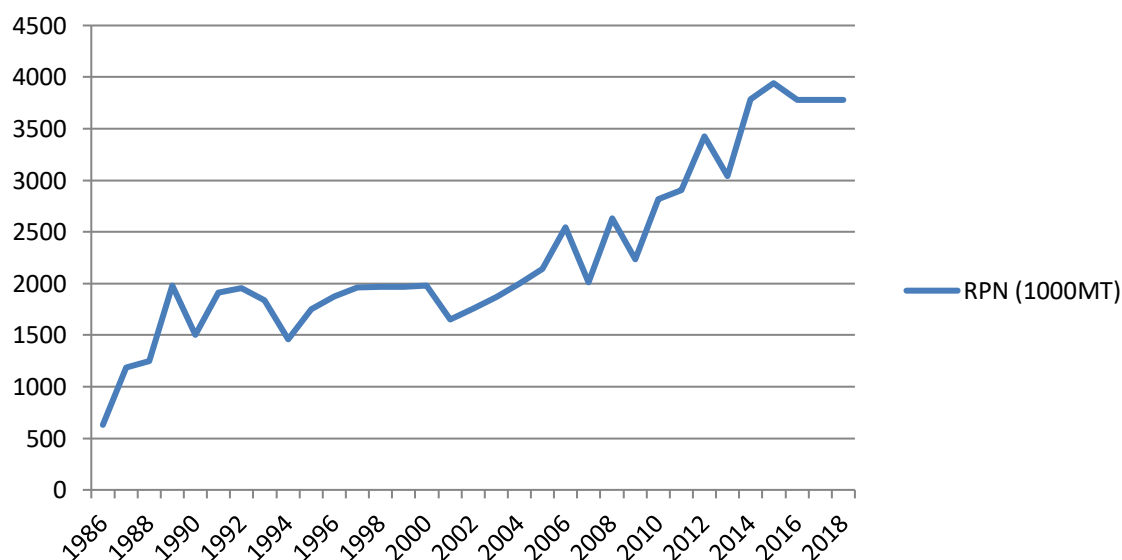
year	RGDP( Million #)	RPN (1000MT)	RIM (1000MT)	EXR (N;USD)
1986	15237987.29	630	462	3.76
1987	15263929.11	1184	642	4.08
1988	16215370.93	1249	344	4.59
1989	17294675.94	1982	164	7.39
1990	19305633.16	1500	224	8.04
1991	19199060.32	1911	296	9.91
1992	19620190.34	1956	440	17.29
1993	19927993.25	1839	382	22.06
1994	19979123.44	1456	300	21.99
1995	20353202.25	1752	300	21.89
1996	21177920.91	1873	350	21.88
1997	21789097.84	1961	731	21.88
1998	22332866.9	1965	900	21.88
1999	22449409.72	1966	950	92.33
2000	23688280.33	1979	1250	101.69
2001	25267542.02	1651	1906	111.23
2002	28957710.24	1757	1897	120.57
2003	31709447.39	1870	1448	129.22
2004	35020549.16	2000	1369	132.88
2005	37474949.16	2140	1650	131.27
2006	39995504.55	2546	1500	128.65
2007	42922407.93	2008	1800	125.8
2008	46012515.31	2632	1750	118.54
2009	49856099.08	2234	1750	148.9
2010	54612264.18	2818	2400	150.29

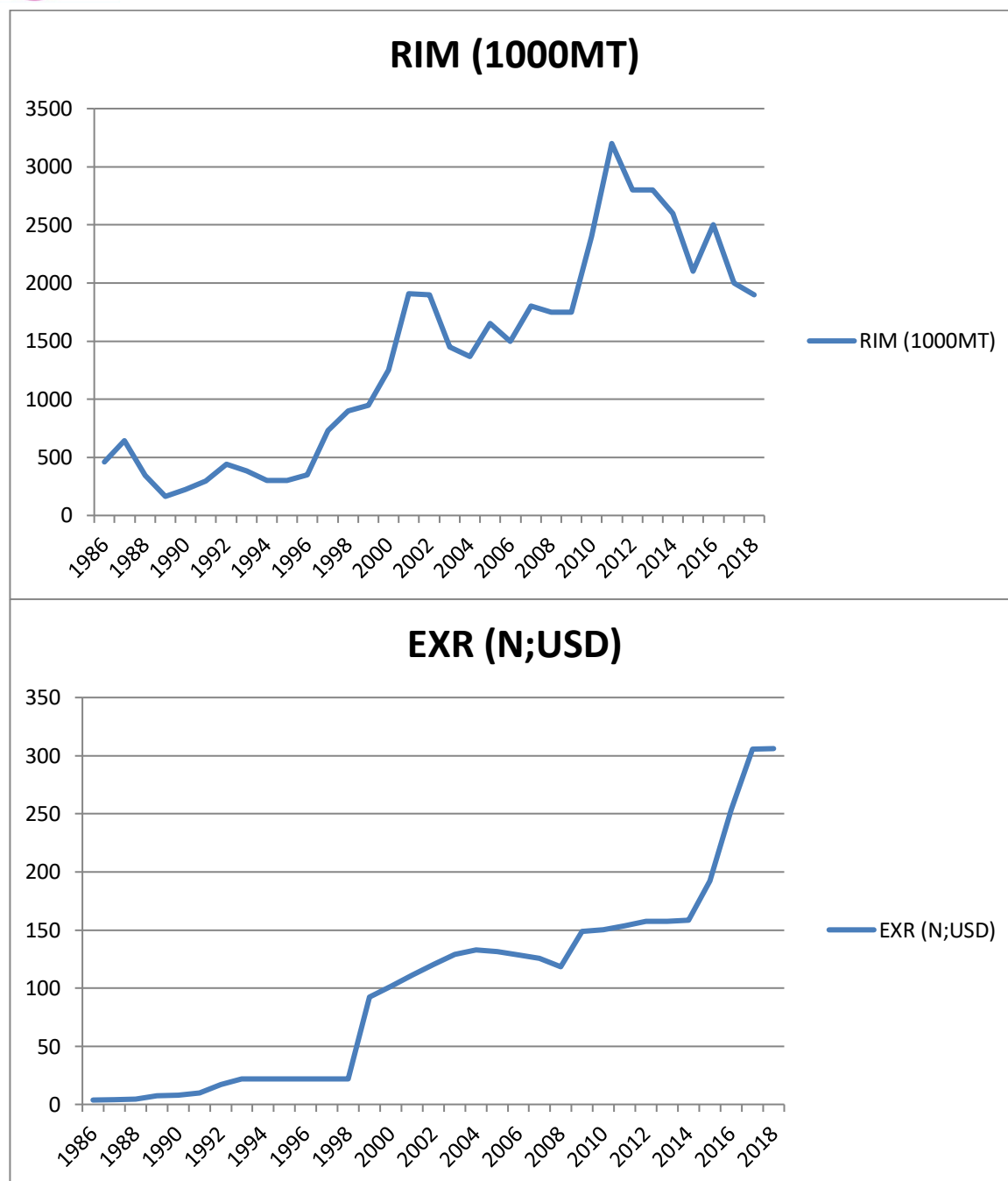
2011	57511041.77	2906	3200	153.86
2012	59929893.04	3423	2800	157.49
2013	63218721.73	3038	2800	157.31
2014	67152785.84	3782	2600	158.55
2015	69623929.94	3941	2100	192.44
2016	67931235.93	3780	2500	253.49
2017	68490980.34	3780	2000	305.79
2018	69799941.95	3780	1900	306.08

### RGDP( Million #)



### RPN (1000MT)





## Descriptive Statistics

	RGDP	RPN	RIM	EXR
Mean	36646129	2281.485	1366.818	101.9097
Median	28957710	1979.000	1448.000	118.5400
Maximum	69799942	3941.000	3200.000	306.0800
Minimum	15237987	630.0000	164.0000	3.760000
Std. Dev.	19449574	850.8508	900.6854	85.89983
Skewness	0.568655	0.587722	0.238456	0.664939
Kurtosis	1.764113	2.546979	1.877726	2.906650
Jarque-Bera	3.878723	2.181982	2.044546	2.443773
Probability	0.143796	0.335884	0.359776	0.294674

Sum	1.21E+09	75289.00	45105.00	3363.020
Sum Sq. Dev.	1.21E+16	23166306	25959493	236121.0
Observations	33	33	33	33

**Dependent Variable: LOGRGDP**

**Method: Least Squares**

Date: 04/17/20 Time: 08:58

Sample: 1986 2018

Included observations: 33

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
C	9.928931	0.975382	10.17953	0.0000
LOGRPN	0.696945	0.127212	5.478596	0.0000
LOGRIM	0.273829	0.073281	3.736720	0.0008
LOGEXR	0.029198	0.058542	0.498742	0.6217
R-squared	0.906681	Mean dependent var		17.28051
Adjusted R-squared	0.897028	S.D. dependent var		0.529360
S.E. of regression	0.169868	Akaike info criterion		-0.594382
Sum squared resid	0.836796	Schwarz criterion		-0.412987
Log likelihood	13.80730	Hannan-Quinn criter.		-0.533348
F-statistic	93.92121	Durbin-Watson stat		0.899683
Prob(F-statistic)	0.000000			

**Null Hypothesis: LOGRGDP has a unit root**

Exogenous: Constant

Lag Length: 1 (Automatic - based on SIC, maxlag=8)

	t-Statistic	Prob.*
Augmented Dickey-Fuller test statistic	-0.691648	0.8345
Test critical values:		
1% level	-3.661661	
5% level	-2.960411	
10% level	-2.619160	

\*MacKinnon (1996) one-sided p-values.

**Augmented Dickey-Fuller Test Equation**

Dependent Variable: D(LOGRGDP)

Method: Least Squares

Date: 04/12/20 Time: 11:39

Sample (adjusted): 1988 2018

Included observations: 31 after adjustments

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
LOGRGDP(-1)	-0.008013	0.011585	-0.691648	0.4949
D(LOGRGDP(-1))	0.519212	0.159612	3.252971	0.0030
C	0.162324	0.199404	0.814048	0.4225
R-squared	0.275612	Mean dependent var		0.049037
Adjusted R-squared	0.223870	S.D. dependent var		0.036430

S.E. of regression	0.032094	Akaike info criterion	-3.948532
Sum squared resid	0.028841	Schwarz criterion	-3.809759
Log likelihood	64.20224	Hannan-Quinn criter.	-3.903295
F-statistic	5.326665	Durbin-Watson stat	2.026173
Prob(F-statistic)	0.010955		

**Null Hypothesis: D(LOGRGDP) has a unit root**

Exogenous: Constant

Lag Length: 0 (Automatic - based on SIC, maxlag=8)

	t-Statistic	Prob.*
Augmented Dickey-Fuller test statistic	-3.158482	0.0325
Test critical values: 1% level	-3.661661	
5% level	-2.960411	
10% level	-2.619160	

\*MacKinnon (1996) one-sided p-values.

**Augmented Dickey-Fuller Test Equation**

Dependent Variable: D(LOGRGDP,2)

Method: Least Squares

Date: 04/12/20 Time: 11:40

Sample (adjusted): 1988 2018

Included observations: 31 after adjustments

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
D(LOGRGDP(-1))	-0.495263	0.156804	-3.158482	0.0037
C	0.024567	0.009509	2.583537	0.0151
R-squared	0.255953	Mean dependent var		0.000556
Adjusted R-squared	0.230296	S.D. dependent var		0.036251
S.E. of regression	0.031804	Akaike info criterion		-3.996107
Sum squared resid	0.029333	Schwarz criterion		-3.903592
Log likelihood	63.93966	Hannan-Quinn criter.		-3.965949
F-statistic	9.976011	Durbin-Watson stat		1.976619
Prob(F-statistic)	0.003689			

**Null Hypothesis: LOGRPN has a unit root**

Exogenous: Constant

Lag Length: 1 (Automatic - based on SIC, maxlag=8)

	t-Statistic	Prob.*
Augmented Dickey-Fuller test statistic	-1.765488	0.3899
Test critical values: 1% level	-3.661661	
5% level	-2.960411	
10% level	-2.619160	



\*MacKinnon (1996) one-sided p-values.

Augmented Dickey-Fuller Test Equation

Dependent Variable: D(LOGRPN)

Method: Least Squares

Date: 04/12/20 Time: 11:41

Sample (adjusted): 1988 2018

Included observations: 31 after adjustments

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
LOGRPN(-1)	-0.143492	0.081276	-1.765488	0.0884
D(LOGRPN(-1))	-0.367514	0.134801	-2.726351	0.0109
C	1.161143	0.625005	1.857813	0.0737
R-squared	0.274169	Mean dependent var		0.037446
Adjusted R-squared	0.222324	S.D. dependent var		0.162513
S.E. of regression	0.143314	Akaike info criterion		-0.955797
Sum squared resid	0.575086	Schwarz criterion		-0.817024
Log likelihood	17.81485	Hannan-Quinn criter.		-0.910560
F-statistic	5.288232	Durbin-Watson stat		1.833336
Prob(F-statistic)	0.011264			

**Null Hypothesis: D(LOGRPN) has a unit root**

Exogenous: Constant

Lag Length: 0 (Automatic - based on SIC, maxlag=8)

	t-Statistic	Prob.*
Augmented Dickey-Fuller test statistic	-9.798263	0.0000
Test critical values:		
1% level	-3.661661	
5% level	-2.960411	
10% level	-2.619160	

\*MacKinnon (1996) one-sided p-values.

Augmented Dickey-Fuller Test Equation

Dependent Variable: D(LOGRPN,2)

Method: Least Squares

Date: 04/12/20 Time: 11:42

Sample (adjusted): 1988 2018

Included observations: 31 after adjustments

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
D(LOGRPN(-1))	-1.368168	0.139634	-9.798263	0.0000
C	0.058726	0.027858	2.108070	0.0438
R-squared	0.768011	Mean dependent var		-0.020353
Adjusted R-squared	0.760011	S.D. dependent var		0.303034
S.E. of regression	0.148452	Akaike info criterion		-0.914765
Sum squared resid	0.639105	Schwarz criterion		-0.822250
Log likelihood	16.17886	Hannan-Quinn criter.		-0.884607
F-statistic	96.00596	Durbin-Watson stat		1.972192
Prob(F-statistic)	0.000000			

**Null Hypothesis: LOGRIM has a unit root**

Exogenous: Constant

Lag Length: 0 (Automatic - based on SIC, maxlag=8)

	t-Statistic	Prob.*
Augmented Dickey-Fuller test statistic	-1.014697	0.7360
Test critical values:		
1% level	-3.653730	
5% level	-2.957110	
10% level	-2.617434	

\*MacKinnon (1996) one-sided p-values.

**Augmented Dickey-Fuller Test Equation**

Dependent Variable: D(LOGRIM)

Method: Least Squares

Date: 04/17/20 Time: 09:04

Sample (adjusted): 1987 2018

Included observations: 32 after adjustments

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
LOGRIM(-1)	-0.061446	0.060556	-1.014697	0.3184
C	0.468062	0.421033	1.111698	0.2751
R-squared	0.033182	Mean dependent var		0.044189
Adjusted R-squared	0.000954	S.D. dependent var		0.297746
S.E. of regression	0.297604	Akaike info criterion		0.474356
Sum squared resid	2.657046	Schwarz criterion		0.565965
Log likelihood	-5.589700	Hannan-Quinn criter.		0.504722
F-statistic	1.029610	Durbin-Watson stat		1.540244
Prob(F-statistic)	0.318364			

**Null Hypothesis: D(LOGRIM) has a unit root**

Exogenous: Constant

Lag Length: 0 (Automatic - based on SIC, maxlag=8)

	t-Statistic	Prob.*
Augmented Dickey-Fuller test statistic	-4.497341	0.0012
Test critical values:		
1% level	-3.661661	
5% level	-2.960411	
10% level	-2.619160	

\*MacKinnon (1996) one-sided p-values.

**Augmented Dickey-Fuller Test Equation**

Dependent Variable: D(LOGRIM,2)

Method: Least Squares

Date: 04/17/20 Time: 09:05

Sample (adjusted): 1988 2018

Included observations: 31 after adjustments

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
D(LOGRIM(-1))	-0.807960	0.179653	-4.497341	0.0001
C	0.025923	0.054070	0.479434	0.6352
R-squared	0.410881	Mean dependent var		-0.012268
Adjusted R-squared	0.390567	S.D. dependent var		0.380849
S.E. of regression	0.297315	Akaike info criterion		0.474289
Sum squared resid	2.563483	Schwarz criterion		0.566804
Log likelihood	-5.351478	Hannan-Quinn criter.		0.504447
F-statistic	20.22607	Durbin-Watson stat		1.507778
Prob(F-statistic)	0.000102			

#### Null Hypothesis: LOGEXR has a unit root

Exogenous: Constant

Lag Length: 0 (Automatic - based on SIC, maxlag=8)

	t-Statistic	Prob.*
Augmented Dickey-Fuller test statistic	-1.672568	0.4351
Test critical values:		
1% level	-3.653730	
5% level	-2.957110	
10% level	-2.617434	

\*MacKinnon (1996) one-sided p-values.

#### Augmented Dickey-Fuller Test Equation

Dependent Variable: D(LOGEXR)

Method: Least Squares

Date: 04/17/20 Time: 09:06

Sample (adjusted): 1987 2018

Included observations: 32 after adjustments

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
LOGEXR(-1)	-0.059901	0.035814	-1.672568	0.1048
C	0.374298	0.149354	2.506106	0.0179
R-squared	0.085296	Mean dependent var		0.137482
Adjusted R-squared	0.054806	S.D. dependent var		0.276583
S.E. of regression	0.268897	Akaike info criterion		0.271487
Sum squared resid	2.169173	Schwarz criterion		0.363096
Log likelihood	-2.343794	Hannan-Quinn criter.		0.301853
F-statistic	2.797485	Durbin-Watson stat		2.031313
Prob(F-statistic)	0.104811			

#### Null Hypothesis: D(LOGEXR) has a unit root

Exogenous: Constant

Lag Length: 0 (Automatic - based on SIC, maxlag=8)

	t-Statistic	Prob.*
--	-------------	--------

Augmented Dickey-Fuller test statistic	-5.316318	0.0001
Test critical values:	1% level	-3.661661
	5% level	-2.960411
	10% level	-2.619160

\*MacKinnon (1996) one-sided p-values.

#### Augmented Dickey-Fuller Test Equation

Dependent Variable: D(LOGEXR,2)

Method: Least Squares

Date: 04/17/20 Time: 09:06

Sample (adjusted): 1988 2018

Included observations: 31 after adjustments

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
D(LOGEXR(-1))	-0.990529	0.186319	-5.316318	0.0000
C	0.137938	0.057732	2.389309	0.0236
R-squared	0.493567	Mean dependent var		-0.002604
Adjusted R-squared	0.476104	S.D. dependent var		0.394795
S.E. of regression	0.285755	Akaike info criterion		0.394977
Sum squared resid	2.368022	Schwarz criterion		0.487492
Log likelihood	-4.122144	Hannan-Quinn criter.		0.425135
F-statistic	28.26324	Durbin-Watson stat		1.991403
Prob(F-statistic)	0.000011			

#### Johansen Cointegration Test Result

Date: 04/17/20 Time: 09:09

Sample (adjusted): 1988 2018

Included observations: 31 after adjustments

Trend assumption: Linear deterministic trend

Series: LOGRGDP LOGRPN LOGRIM LOGEXR

Lags interval (in first differences): 1 to 1

#### Unrestricted Cointegration Rank Test (Trace)

Hypothesized No. of CE(s)	Eigenvalue	Trace Statistic	0.05 Critical Value	Prob.**
None *	0.758847	87.19296	47.85613	0.0000
At most 1 *	0.549397	43.10087	29.79707	0.0009
At most 2 *	0.413215	18.38863	15.49471	0.0178
At most 3	0.058315	1.862635	3.841466	0.1723

Trace test indicates 3 cointegratingeqn(s) at the 0.05 level

\* denotes rejection of the hypothesis at the 0.05 level

\*\*MacKinnon-Haug-Michelis (1999) p-values

#### Unrestricted Cointegration Rank Test (Maximum Eigenvalue)

Hypothesized No. of CE(s)	Eigenvalue	Max-Eigen Statistic	0.05 Critical Value	Prob.**
None *	0.758847	44.09209	27.58434	0.0002
At most 1 *	0.549397	24.71224	21.13162	0.0150
At most 2 *	0.413215	16.52600	14.26460	0.0216

At most 3      0.058315      1.862635      3.841466      0.1723

Max-eigenvalue test indicates 3 cointegratingeqn(s) at the 0.05 level

\* denotes rejection of the hypothesis at the 0.05 level

\*\*MacKinnon-Haug-Michelis (1999) p-values

Unrestricted Cointegrating Coefficients (normalized by b'S11\*b=l):

LOGRGDP	LOGRPN	LOGRIM	LOGEXR
2.366469	-4.770845	1.989376	-1.264009
9.119961	-8.035232	-2.946044	0.203742
-0.995813	5.601407	1.209930	-2.029010
1.463379	0.687043	0.704379	-0.419271

Unrestricted Adjustment Coefficients (alpha):

D(LOGRGDP)	D(LOGRPN)	D(LOGRIM)	D(LOGEXR)
0.009397	-0.005603	-0.015647	-0.002053
0.091250	0.061389	0.015249	-0.008163
-0.202987	0.037669	-0.022186	-0.034890
0.041144	-0.095803	0.123088	-0.031851

1 Cointegrating Equation(s):      Log likelihood      101.1846

Normalized cointegrating coefficients (standard error in parentheses)

LOGRGDP	LOGRPN	LOGRIM	LOGEXR
1.000000	-2.016018	0.840651	-0.534133
	(0.27248)	(0.14427)	(0.11603)

Adjustment coefficients (standard error in parentheses)

D(LOGRGDP)	D(LOGRPN)	D(LOGRIM)	D(LOGEXR)
0.022237	0.215941	-0.480363	0.097365
(0.01296)	(0.05011)	(0.09195)	(0.12638)

2 Cointegrating Equation(s):      Log likelihood      113.5407

Normalized cointegrating coefficients (standard error in parentheses)

LOGRGDP	LOGRPN	LOGRIM	LOGEXR
1.000000	0.000000	-1.226392	0.454326
		(0.15476)	(0.10764)
0.000000	1.000000	-1.025310	0.490303
		(0.13770)	(0.09578)

Adjustment coefficients (standard error in parentheses)

D(LOGRGDP)	D(LOGRPN)	D(LOGRIM)	D(LOGEXR)
-0.028862	0.775806	-0.136825	-0.776357
(0.05052)	(0.16257)	(0.35914)	(0.46969)
0.000192	-0.928615	0.665743	0.573512
(0.05010)	(0.16123)	(0.35620)	(0.46585)

3 Cointegrating Equation(s): Log likelihood 121.8037

Normalized cointegrating coefficients (standard error in parentheses)

LOGRGDP	LOGRPN	LOGRIM	LOGEXR
1.000000	0.000000	0.000000	-0.470620 (0.04690)
0.000000	1.000000	0.000000	-0.282988 (0.03667)
0.000000	0.000000	1.000000	-0.754201 (0.04645)

Adjustment coefficients (standard error in parentheses)

D(LOGRGDP)	-0.013281 (0.04125)	-0.087455 (0.04743)	0.016268 (0.01635)
D(LOGRPN)	0.760622 (0.16090)	-0.843201 (0.18502)	0.019126 (0.06377)
D(LOGRIM)	-0.114732 (0.35869)	0.541472 (0.41247)	-0.541635 (0.14216)
D(LOGEXR)	-0.898930 (0.41070)	1.262979 (0.47228)	0.513019 (0.16278)

Vector Error Correction Estimates

Date: 04/17/20 Time: 09:11

Sample (adjusted): 1989 2018

Included observations: 30 after adjustments

Standard errors in ( ) & t-statistics in [ ]

CointegratingEq:	CointEq1	CointEq2	CointEq3
LOGRGDP(-1)	1.000000	0.000000	0.000000
LOGRPN(-1)	0.000000	1.000000	0.000000
LOGRIM(-1)	0.000000	0.000000	1.000000
LOGEXR(-1)	-0.476898 (0.05532) [-8.61999]	-0.283695 (0.03745) [-7.57603]	-0.797996 (0.05304) [-15.0442]
C	-15.33618	-6.532738	-3.645619

Error Correction:	D(LOGRGDP)	D(LOGRPN)	D(LOGRIM)	D(LOGEXR)
CointEq1	-0.035753 (0.06529) [-0.54759]	0.871644 (0.24000) [ 3.63178]	-0.297148 (0.65377) [-0.45452]	-0.610408 (0.67436) [-0.90516]
CointEq2	-0.119239 (0.07685) [-1.55154]	-1.214745 (0.28251) [-4.29990]	0.673133 (0.76954) [ 0.87472]	1.111716 (0.79378) [ 1.40054]
CointEq3	0.061121 (0.02723) [ 2.24462]	0.125865 (0.10010) [ 1.25744]	-0.451070 (0.27266) [-1.65433]	0.499313 (0.28125) [ 1.77534]
D(LOGRGDP(-1))	0.010119 (0.22285)	-1.331968 (0.81918)	1.549203 (2.23142)	0.219214 (2.30172)



	[ 0.04541]	[-1.62598]	[ 0.69427]	[ 0.09524]
D(LOGRGDP(-2))	-0.069507 (0.17145) [-0.40541]	-0.705135 (0.63024) [-1.11884]	0.938891 (1.71675) [ 0.54690]	1.218483 (1.77083) [ 0.68809]
D(LOGRPN(-1))	0.100211 (0.05808) [ 1.72534]	0.015687 (0.21351) [ 0.07347]	0.262017 (0.58159) [ 0.45052]	-0.829845 (0.59991) [-1.38328]
D(LOGRPN(-2))	-0.011689 (0.03867) [-0.30226]	0.059423 (0.14215) [ 0.41802]	0.183620 (0.38722) [ 0.47420]	-0.359656 (0.39942) [-0.90044]
D(LOGRIM(-1))	-0.032372 (0.02196) [-1.47442]	0.070358 (0.08071) [ 0.87174]	0.467866 (0.21985) [ 2.12810]	-0.258995 (0.22678) [-1.14207]
D(LOGRIM(-2))	-0.050654 (0.02580) [-1.96331]	-0.119059 (0.09484) [-1.25535]	-0.088455 (0.25835) [-0.34239]	0.196675 (0.26649) [ 0.73803]
D(LOGEXR(-1))	0.006957 (0.02209) [ 0.31491]	0.108230 (0.08121) [ 1.33274]	0.004061 (0.22121) [ 0.01836]	0.009721 (0.22818) [ 0.04260]
D(LOGEXR(-2))	-0.013814 (0.02070) [-0.66728]	-0.055483 (0.07610) [-0.72907]	0.017233 (0.20730) [ 0.08313]	-0.019459 (0.21383) [-0.09100]
C	0.053448 (0.01467) [ 3.64458]	0.130791 (0.05391) [ 2.42618]	-0.104187 (0.14685) [-0.70950]	0.121984 (0.15147) [ 0.80533]
R-squared	0.716435	0.808044	0.490868	0.493051
Adj. R-squared	0.543145	0.690737	0.179731	0.183249
Sum sq. resids	0.011252	0.152039	1.128137	1.200330
S.E. equation	0.025002	0.091905	0.250348	0.258234
F-statistic	4.134321	6.888313	1.577661	1.591505
Log likelihood	75.75859	36.70410	6.641287	5.710855
Akaike AIC	-4.250573	-1.646940	0.357248	0.419276
Schwarz SC	-3.690094	-1.086461	0.917726	0.979755
Mean dependent	0.048656	0.036913	0.056966	0.139999
S.D. dependent	0.036990	0.165264	0.276418	0.285739
Determinant resid covariance (dof adj.)	1.42E-08			
Determinant resid covariance	1.84E-09			
Log likelihood	131.4088			
Akaike information criterion	-4.760586			
Schwarz criterion	-1.958192			

System: UNTITLED  
Estimation Method: Least Squares  
Date: 04/17/20 Time: 09:12  
Sample: 1989 2018  
Included observations: 30  
Total system (balanced) observations 120

	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
C(1)	-0.035753	0.065290	-0.547594	0.5857
C(2)	-0.119239	0.076852	-1.551544	0.1252
C(3)	0.061121	0.027230	2.244620	0.0279
C(4)	0.010119	0.222847	0.045410	0.9639
C(5)	-0.069507	0.171448	-0.405410	0.6864
C(6)	0.100211	0.058082	1.725337	0.0888
C(7)	-0.011689	0.038671	-0.302261	0.7633
C(8)	-0.032372	0.021956	-1.474420	0.1447
C(9)	-0.050654	0.025801	-1.963309	0.0535
C(10)	0.006957	0.022092	0.314911	0.7537
C(11)	-0.013814	0.020702	-0.667284	0.5067
C(12)	0.053448	0.014665	3.644584	0.0005
C(13)	0.871644	0.240005	3.631776	0.0005
C(14)	-1.214745	0.282505	-4.299903	0.0001
C(15)	0.125865	0.100096	1.257440	0.2127
C(16)	-1.331968	0.819178	-1.625981	0.1083
C(17)	-0.705135	0.630237	-1.118841	0.2669
C(18)	0.015687	0.213507	0.073471	0.9416
C(19)	0.059423	0.142154	0.418020	0.6772
C(20)	0.070358	0.080709	0.871744	0.3862
C(21)	-0.119059	0.094842	-1.255347	0.2134
C(22)	0.108230	0.081209	1.332743	0.1868
C(23)	-0.055483	0.076101	-0.729071	0.4683
C(24)	0.130791	0.053908	2.426178	0.0178
C(25)	-0.297148	0.653768	-0.454516	0.6508
C(26)	0.673133	0.769538	0.874723	0.3846
C(27)	-0.451070	0.272660	-1.654331	0.1024
C(28)	1.549203	2.231425	0.694267	0.4897
C(29)	0.938891	1.716752	0.546900	0.5861
C(30)	0.262017	0.581590	0.450518	0.6537
C(31)	0.183620	0.387223	0.474196	0.6368
C(32)	0.467866	0.219851	2.128103	0.0368
C(33)	-0.088455	0.258347	-0.342389	0.7331
C(34)	0.004061	0.221211	0.018359	0.9854
C(35)	0.017233	0.207298	0.083133	0.9340
C(36)	-0.104187	0.146845	-0.709505	0.4803
C(37)	-0.610408	0.674362	-0.905163	0.3684
C(38)	1.111716	0.793779	1.400536	0.1656
C(39)	0.499313	0.281249	1.775341	0.0801
C(40)	0.219214	2.301715	0.095239	0.9244
C(41)	1.218483	1.770830	0.688086	0.4936
C(42)	-0.829845	0.599910	-1.383282	0.1709
C(43)	-0.359656	0.399421	-0.900442	0.3709
C(44)	-0.258995	0.226776	-1.142074	0.2572
C(45)	0.196675	0.266485	0.738035	0.4629
C(46)	0.009721	0.228179	0.042602	0.9661
C(47)	-0.019459	0.213828	-0.091001	0.9277
C(48)	0.121984	0.151471	0.805330	0.4233
Determinant residual covariance	1.84E-09			

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Equation: } D(\text{LOGRGDP}) = & C(1) * (\text{LOGRGDP}(-1) - 0.476897780174 \\ & * \text{LOGEXR}(-1) - 15.336176739) + C(2) * (\text{LOGRPN}(-1) - \\ & 0.283694509108 * \text{LOGEXR}(-1) - 6.53273767835) + C(3) * (\text{LOGRIM}(-1) \\ & - 0.797995566772 * \text{LOGEXR}(-1) - 3.64561858053) + C(4) \\ & * D(\text{LOGRGDP}(-1)) + C(5) * D(\text{LOGRGDP}(-2)) + C(6) * D(\text{LOGRPN}(-1)) + \\ & C(7) * D(\text{LOGRPN}(-2)) + C(8) * D(\text{LOGRIM}(-1)) + C(9) * D(\text{LOGRIM}(-2)) + \end{aligned}$$

$$C(10)*D(LOGEXR(-1)) + C(11)*D(LOGEXR(-2)) + C(12)$$

Observations: 30

R-squared	0.716435	Mean dependent var	0.048656
Adjusted R-squared	0.543145	S.D. dependent var	0.036990
S.E. of regression	0.025002	Sum squared resid	0.011252
Durbin-Watson stat	2.020828		

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Equation: } D(\text{LOGRPN}) = & C(13)*(\text{LOGRGDP}(-1) - 0.476897780174 \\ & * \text{LOGEXR}(-1) - 15.336176739) + C(14)*(\text{LOGRPN}(-1) - \\ & 0.283694509108 * \text{LOGEXR}(-1) - 6.53273767835) + C(15)*(\text{LOGRIM} \\ & (-1) - 0.797995566772 * \text{LOGEXR}(-1) - 3.64561858053) + C(16) \\ & * D(\text{LOGRGDP}(-1)) + C(17)*D(\text{LOGRGDP}(-2)) + C(18)*D(\text{LOGRPN}(-1)) \\ & + C(19)*D(\text{LOGRPN}(-2)) + C(20)*D(\text{LOGRIM}(-1)) + C(21)*D(\text{LOGRIM} \\ & (-2)) + C(22)*D(\text{LOGEXR}(-1)) + C(23)*D(\text{LOGEXR}(-2)) + C(24) \end{aligned}$$

Observations: 30

R-squared	0.808044	Mean dependent var	0.036913
Adjusted R-squared	0.690737	S.D. dependent var	0.165264
S.E. of regression	0.091905	Sum squared resid	0.152039
Durbin-Watson stat	1.764092		

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Equation: } D(\text{LOGRIM}) = & C(25)*(\text{LOGRGDP}(-1) - 0.476897780174 \\ & * \text{LOGEXR}(-1) - 15.336176739) + C(26)*(\text{LOGRPN}(-1) - \\ & 0.283694509108 * \text{LOGEXR}(-1) - 6.53273767835) + C(27)*(\text{LOGRIM} \\ & (-1) - 0.797995566772 * \text{LOGEXR}(-1) - 3.64561858053) + C(28) \\ & * D(\text{LOGRGDP}(-1)) + C(29)*D(\text{LOGRGDP}(-2)) + C(30)*D(\text{LOGRPN}(-1)) \\ & + C(31)*D(\text{LOGRPN}(-2)) + C(32)*D(\text{LOGRIM}(-1)) + C(33)*D(\text{LOGRIM} \\ & (-2)) + C(34)*D(\text{LOGEXR}(-1)) + C(35)*D(\text{LOGEXR}(-2)) + C(36) \end{aligned}$$

Observations: 30

R-squared	0.490868	Mean dependent var	0.056966
Adjusted R-squared	0.179731	S.D. dependent var	0.276418
S.E. of regression	0.250348	Sum squared resid	1.128137
Durbin-Watson stat	1.891354		

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Equation: } D(\text{LOGEXR}) = & C(37)*(\text{LOGRGDP}(-1) - 0.476897780174 \\ & * \text{LOGEXR}(-1) - 15.336176739) + C(38)*(\text{LOGRPN}(-1) - \\ & 0.283694509108 * \text{LOGEXR}(-1) - 6.53273767835) + C(39)*(\text{LOGRIM} \\ & (-1) - 0.797995566772 * \text{LOGEXR}(-1) - 3.64561858053) + C(40) \\ & * D(\text{LOGRGDP}(-1)) + C(41)*D(\text{LOGRGDP}(-2)) + C(42)*D(\text{LOGRPN}(-1)) \\ & + C(43)*D(\text{LOGRPN}(-2)) + C(44)*D(\text{LOGRIM}(-1)) + C(45)*D(\text{LOGRIM} \\ & (-2)) + C(46)*D(\text{LOGEXR}(-1)) + C(47)*D(\text{LOGEXR}(-2)) + C(48) \end{aligned}$$

Observations: 30

R-squared	0.493051	Mean dependent var	0.139999
Adjusted R-squared	0.183249	S.D. dependent var	0.285739
S.E. of regression	0.258234	Sum squared resid	1.200330
Durbin-Watson stat	1.992362		

**SUSTAINING PSYCHOLOGICAL WELLBEING AMONGST MARRIED CAREER  
WOMEN: PSYCHOLOGICAL DISTRESS, SOCIAL SUPPORT, DOMESTIC VIOLENCE,  
AND FAMILY CONFLICT RESOLUTION AS INFLUENCERS**

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## Abstract

*The current paper aims to examine the influencing factors in sustaining psychological wellbeing amongst married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria. Hence, this paper plans to propose ways of increasing and sustaining psychological wellbeing amongst married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria. The paper espoused a quantitative research approach based on a survey research design. The results showed that psychological distress, social support, domestic violence, and family conflict resolution significantly jointly and independently influence the sustenance of psychological wellbeing amongst married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria. The results show that family conflict resolution is a noteworthy moderator of the negative influence of psychological distress and domestic violence in sustaining psychological wellbeing amongst married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria. Besides, the outcomes indicate that religion significantly influences psychological wellbeing amongst married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria. Therefore, developmental psychologists, organizational managers, human resources practitioners, counselors, and religious organizations should encourage ways of reducing psychological distress, by increasing social support, reducing domestic violence, and achieving consistent conflict resolution within families, as a way to sustain psychological wellbeing amongst married career women in Nigeria. Thus, this paper has recognized psychological distress, social support, domestic violence, family conflict resolution, and demographic factors (for instance, religion) as significant influencers in sustaining psychological wellbeing amongst married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria.*

**Keywords:** Sustenance, marriage, career, women, influence, psychological wellbeing, Ibadan, Nigeria.

**Jel Classification:** I31

## Introduction

The psychological wellbeing of employees has sustained the attraction of significant concern and attention by psychologists and human resources managers because every organization needs employees who are in an excellent psychological state to flourish and endure the constant changes in the world of work (Ferreira, 2012). However, psychological wellbeing among married career women remains a determining factor influencing the success and failure of various homes today as the world is experiencing changes in the organizational structure. As George (2001) said, marriage is the institution exclusively suitable for conceiving and raising children by obtaining both parents' input in the enduring union. Besides, marriage plays a part in shielding loving relationships (Brake, 2011); therefore, any condition that is not favorable to couples' wellbeing will intensely and adversely hit the family health and relationship (Hartley & Watson, 2012). The Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English (2017) noted that psychological wellbeing is an optimistic state of physical, mental, and social wellbeing. Psychological wellbeing is the absence of illness and a complete state of mental, physical, and social wellbeing (World Health Organization, 2012). Therefore, this led to a change in focus from an overemphasis of the medical model towards developing a public health model (Edmondson & Macleod, 2015). Findings indicate that working women face intense, stressful conditions as they need to live up to the duties of faithful wives, obedient daughters-in-law, sacrificing mothers, and simultaneously struggle to become dynamic, committed, and competitive career women (Parveen, 2009). Harshpinder (2006) opined that a significant number of working women experienced more psychological and physiological stress. Besides, the research noted women's employment as either detrimental or beneficial to women's psychological wellbeing. Therefore, a stable form of day-to-day lifestyle and jobs positively influences career women (Srimathi, 2010).

Psychological distress is an unpleasant feeling or emotion that can unfavorably impact one's functioning, encompassing depression, distraction, anxiety, and states of marked impairment (Mirowsky & Ross, 2007). It is the emotional suffering in a stressful situation that makes it challenging to cope with usual daily activities and negatively impacts focus and social activities (Mirowsky & Ross, 2007). Also, Lorenzo-Blanco *et al.* (2017) opined that it is quite disturbing that

stress is present in just about everyone, but it is common for couples because they are still learning to adjust to marital life. Psychological distress can impact overall health and put one at a higher risk of chronic diseases, including cardiovascular. One of the possible consequences of severe psychological distress is the increased risk of suicide (Brandberg, Bolund & Sigurdardotti, 1992). Besides, research indicated that most married couples with reports of psychological distress, and people with severe depression are significantly more at risk of developing suicidal thoughts, which implies that psychological distress should be more of a clinical issue than social (Brandberg *et al.*, 1992).

Furthermore, social support is the perception and actuality that an individual receives some assistance and care from people and is involved in an active social system. These practical means can be in the form of information (for instance, pieces of advice), companionship (for instance, sense of belonging) emotion (nurturing), or financial assistance (Thomas, Liu & Umberson, 2017). This care or help can come from several sources, for instance, friends, family, government, and organizations. For instance, the government could provide social care in public aid. Nevertheless, studies on social support have gone across disciplines, including psychology, public health, medicine, nursing, human resources management, and social work. Besides, social support inspires many physical and mental health benefits (Mone *et al.*, 2011). Hence, social support among married career women in this paper is the self-perception of overall family, friends, and relatives' supports for individual survival or social aspects. The provision of social support positively adds to the wellbeing of working women in all settings. Besides, working women depend on social support they get through various relationships, developed in both their professional and personal roles, to achieve work-family balance as social support mitigates work-family conflict, positively improves health, and reduces stress (Cutrona *et al.*, 1994; Deelstra *et al.*, 2003).

Domestic violence denotes offensive behavior, physical and psychological, by a significant other against another in a close relationship, such as family, cohabitation, marriage, or dating (Cunradi *et al.*, 2014). Domestic violence is a significant public wellbeing worry for women living in developed and developing nations across the globe (Tjaden & Thoennes, 2000). Golding's (1999) study on the relationship between domestic violence and psychological wellbeing amongst 640 women indicated that on the average, occurrence rates for quantifiable depression amongst abused women were 48% across 18 studies. Besides, the severity of violence is linked with the pervasiveness of depression and worsening psychological wellbeing (World Health Organization, 2000). Also, Fawole, Aderonmu, and Fawole (2005) concluded that exposure to domestic violence is a common phenomenon in Ibadan, Nigeria, across the low-density areas, and that exposure to domestic violence is as psychologically debilitating to witness and the victim.

Moreover, family conflict resolution remains a social circumstance where disagreeing parties in a voluntary agreement decide to peaceably live with one another, dissolving their fundamental inharmoniousness and henceforth stop to raise forces against one another (Wallenstein, 2015). Resolving family conflict teaches kids how to negotiate and reach compromises, setting them up for healthy relationships. Therefore, disagreements are a normal part of family life. Lee and Lee (2015) concluded that a devastating conflict resolution style in the family always harms psychological wellbeing and reduces inputs from both parties. Besides, Dreu and Beersma (2005) believe that when not appropriately resolved, family conflict may affect one's self-esteem and emotions connected to the conflict, such as hatred, anger, fear, and need.

As earlier indicated, the psychological wellbeing of married working women remains an essential factor to consider, as every organization needs its employees to be in an excellent psychological state to flourish and endure the constant changes in the world of work. Besides, there are many determinants of variations in women's psychological wellbeing, specifically the married career women (Ryff, 2014). However, there are virtually very few published investigations on achieving and sustaining the psychological wellbeing of married career women in Nigeria through the



combination of psychological distress, social support, domestic violence, and family conflict resolution as influencers. Hence, indicating factors that could influence the sustenance of psychological wellbeing amongst married career women in Nigeria demands scholarly attention.

## Aims

The current paper aims to look into sustaining the psychological wellbeing of married career women in Nigeria by examining psychological distress, social support, domestic violence, and family conflict resolution as influencers, with an intent to propose strategies for achieving and sustaining the psychological wellbeing of married career women in Nigeria. Hence, the objectives of the current paper are:

- To examine relationships among psychological distress, social support, domestic violence, family conflict resolution, and psychological wellbeing amongst married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria;
- Investigate psychological distress, social support, domestic violence, and family conflict resolution as influencing factors for sustaining psychological wellbeing amongst married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria;
- Find out if family conflict resolution will significantly moderate psychological distress, social support, and domestic violence in achieving and sustaining psychological wellbeing amongst married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria; and
- To determine demographic factors (such as age, religion, marital status, and educational qualifications) as influencing factors for sustaining psychological wellbeing amongst married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria.

## Literature Review

The literature review of this paper deals specifically with constructs such as psychological distress, social support, domestic violence, family conflict resolution, and psychological wellbeing.

### Psychological Distress, Social Support, Domestic Violence, Family Conflict Resolution, and Psychological Wellbeing

Research has established that psychological distress is a significant predictor of psychological wellbeing, having harmful effects on individuals' health and well-being (Frone *et al.*, 1997). Mark and Smith (2012) studied the relationship between psychological distress and coping in predicting levels of employees' psychological wellbeing. They posited that poor wellbeing correlates with increased levels of psychological distress. Besides, deep psychological distress negatively correlates with psychological wellbeing, while high motivation positively associates with it. Hence, their findings demonstrated the importance of employees' psychological distress in predicting their psychological health. Research has shown that psychological distress significantly reduces psychological wellbeing while work-life balance significantly and positively predicts psychological wellbeing and a healthy lifestyle (Jackson & Slater 2016). Empirical evidence also confirms that psychological distress and work-family balance predicted a 67.3% variance in psychological wellbeing (Karatepe & Tekinkus, 2006). Employees with a low level of psychological distress perform splendidly at work and report healthy lifestyles and improved psychological wellbeing (Maslach & Leiter, 2014). Mohammed *et al.* (2010) found that physical exercise, deep psychological distress, and work-life balance were predictors of psychological wellbeing (PW). Besides, the study of Lee, Tzeng, and Chiang (2019) indicated reduced psychological distress (PD) as the primary predictor of nurses' psychological wellbeing. Caverley (2005) indicated that distressed employees are more likely to be weak and less motivated less safe at work, and unhealthy, affecting their psychological and emotional wellbeing.

The above literature has, therefore triggered the following hypothesis:

**H<sub>1</sub>:** Psychological distress significantly influences the sustenance of psychological wellbeing amongst married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria.

Regarding social support, a study conducted by Mone *et al.* (2011) concluded that when divorced parents remarry, apart from its positive psychological impact, several changes influence the children

involved in the relationship. Hence, the step-parent's additional support can help an individual's emotional wellbeing (Mone *et al.*, 2011). Besides, their study indicated that social support predicted psychological wellbeing among married women. Studies showed that social support (SS) from friends and family increases physio-psychological wellbeing and decreases stress among working women (Ryska & Yin, 1999; Reed & Giacobbi, 2004; Malinauskas, 2010). Specifically, women's social support systems seriously influence their psychological wellbeing in different ways (Feldman *et al.*, 2000). In addition, numerous parts of significant social care, such as emotional bonds, attending social events, family/friends contacts, couple focused, and remittances from children, are significantly related to improved psychological wellbeing (Gyasi *et al.*, 2018). Adejumo (2008) noted a significant independent influence of SS on the PW of career women in Ibadan, Nigeria. Social support positively impacts the occupied roles of women at workplaces by creating an equilibrium between family and work, making them ardently proficient, thus abolishing family-work struggles and enhancing psychological wellbeing (Afroz, 2016). The findings of Oluwagbemiga (2016) indicated that social support (companionship, emotional support, financial support, and information access) has a significant effect on the psychosocial wellbeing of the elderly in older peoples' homes in Ibadan, Nigeria.

The following hypothesis comes from this literature:

**H<sub>2</sub>:** Social support significantly influences the sustenance of psychological wellbeing amongst married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria.

Concerning domestic violence, it has contributed significantly to the low level of psychological wellbeing among married couples in the southwestern part of Nigeria (Adebayo, 2014). Besides, Afolabi and Aina (2014) concluded that a high level of family stress and domestic violence contributed to a low level of wellbeing among spouses and children. Also, Scott and Marshall (2009) examined the relationship between domestic violence and psychological wellbeing among married couples and indicated a substantial negative correlation between the two variables. Their findings indicated that increased domestic violence reduced psychological wellbeing. Also, Sugarman and Hotaling (1997) reported that as family dysfunction and domestic violence increase, psychological wellbeing becomes significantly reduced. When individuals fail to achieve their goals due to perceived domestic violence or restraint by family or society, they encounter an increased level of stress, leading to psychological distress (Field & Caetano, 2004).

Hence, the information above has prompted the following hypothesis:

**H<sub>3</sub>:** Domestic violence significantly influences the sustenance of psychological wellbeing amongst married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria.

Regarding family conflict resolution, psychological wellbeing research and the introduced social interaction studies on family lifestyle showed that family conflict resolution was a moderating factor that suppressed partner violence and aggression on psychological wellbeing (Cole *et al.*, 2002). Family conflict causes disturbance and the disintegration of relationships in the family, but its ineffective management causes undesirable results (Kreitner & Kinicki, 2005). According to Sori (2007), family conflict resolution had a significant independent effect on married women's psychological wellbeing, enhancing their sense of security, trust, and psychological wellbeing due to support received and conflict resolution therapy. Panatik *et al.* (2011) noted a substantial positive correlation between conflict resolution and the psychological wellbeing of the family, and Reich *et al.* (2007) noted a significant relationship between the right conflict management style and psychological wellbeing within the family. In addition, in his study, Amiri (2006) indicated that family conflict resolution was a moderator of psychological wellbeing.

The above literature has thus elicited the following hypothesis:

**H<sub>4</sub>:** Family conflict resolution significantly influences the sustenance of psychological wellbeing amongst married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria.

Furthermore, the pieces of literature stated above have inspired the following hypotheses:

**H<sub>5</sub>:** There are significant relationships amongst the psychological distress, social support, domestic violence, family conflict resolution, and psychological wellbeing of married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria.

**H<sub>6</sub>:** Family conflict resolution significantly moderates psychological distress, social support, and domestic violence in sustaining psychological wellbeing amongst married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria.

Concerning demographic factors, Al-Windi *et al.* (1999) noted that the occurrence of most symptoms of declining psychological wellbeing increased with age. Hence, the older the participants, the more they experience declining psychological wellbeing. In contrast, Lincoln *et al.* (2010) opined that respondents of advanced age reported higher levels of psychological wellbeing than their younger counterparts. Dorji, Dunne, and Gurung (2020) posited a statistically significant relationship between marital status and psychological wellbeing. They further indicated that higher psychological wellbeing means score was reported amongst married participants compared to single, separated, or widowed participants. In addition, Khumalo, Temane, and Wissing (2012), in their study, noted a positive correlation between education and psychological wellbeing. They opined that people with some tertiary level education obtained the highest mean scores on psychological wellbeing while those without lower education level or those without any formal education scored the lowest. Besides, Keyes (2002) indicated that education is positively associated with psychological health. Moreover, the relationship between religion and psychological wellbeing has been the center of many empirical investigations over the last 20 years. Several studies have indicated that many forms of religious experience are associated with improved psychological health (Francis & Kaldor, 2002; Keyes & Reitzes, 2007). Moreover, the frequency of attendance at religious services correlated with greater psychological wellbeing in most studies (Francis & Kaldor 2002; Keyes & Reitzes 2007; Greenfield & Marks 2007). Hence, religion has been linked to physical and psychological wellbeing (Pargament *et al.*, 2001; Wink *et al.*, 2005; Greenfield & Marks, 2007; Keyes & Reitzes, 2007).

The above literature has, therefore, prompted the following hypothesis:

**H<sub>7</sub>:** Demographic factors (such as age, religion, marital status, and educational qualifications) jointly and independently influence the sustenance of psychological wellbeing amongst married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria.

## Methods

The current paper adopted a cross-sectional survey research design and a quantitative research approach to investigate how the sustenance of psychological wellbeing of married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria, is influenced by psychological distress, social support, domestic violence, and family conflict resolution. Therefore, the present researcher gathered data through a self-administered instrument, namely, a questionnaire (Babbie & Mouton, 2010). Furthermore, the participants of this paper included 300 participants (married career women) attending religious and social gatherings such as churches, mosques, and open/closed markets within Lagelu Local Government Area in Ibadan, Oyo State, and some other Ibadan locations. Hence, the research locations include Anifalaje and Akobo Ojuirin areas in Ibadan - during a religious and social gathering), Olorunredo, off Olorundaaba, Ibadan, Adamasingba, Dugbe, Ibadan, Jegede, off Olorunsogo, Ibadan, and Akobo, Ibadan.

### Instrumentation

The questionnaire used in measuring the constructs under study comprised different segments.

#### Section A: Demographic Questions

This section is for the participants' demographic data (for instance, age, educational qualification, profession, ethnicity, and family system - joint and nuclear).

#### Section B: Psychological Distress (PD)

The present researcher adapted a 10-item scale of psychological distress developed by Kessler *et al.* (2002) and validated by Bougie *et al.* (2016). The initial Cronbach's alpha of the 10-item scale was 0.89. This scale consists of a five-scale Likert format of all of the time (4), most of the time (3), some of the time (2), a little of the time (1), and none of the time (0); respondents will indicate how often they experienced these symptoms using this measure. In the current investigation, the researcher realized a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of 0.93 for the reliability of this scale.

#### *Section C: Perceived Social Support (PSS)*

This 12-item measure of perceived social support system was developed by Zimet *et al.* (1988), having a Cronbach's alpha of 0.85. The response format for the scale consisted of a 5-point Likert type ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). The reliability of this scale, in this paper, is Cronbach's alpha coefficient 0.97.

#### *Section D: Domestic Violence (DV)*

In measuring domestic violence in the present investigation, the present investigator adopted a 42-item Self-Report Inventory developed initially by Abolmaali *et al.* (2014), which comprises a five-point Likert format ranging from 0 to 4. The initial Cronbach's alpha of the 42-item scale was 0.84, while the Cronbach's alpha coefficient for the reliability of this scale in the present investigation is 0.98.

#### *Section E: Family Conflict Resolution (FCR)*

The present researcher adopted a 17-item self-report measure developed by Tyler, Paul, and Megan (2010), to assess the rate of family conflict resolution. The initial Cronbach's alpha of the 17-item scale was 0.82. This scale consists of a five-scale Likert format rated from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). In the current investigation, the researcher realized a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of 0.98 for the reliability of this scale.

#### *Section F: Psychological Wellbeing (PW)*

This 22-item measuring instrument developed by Flanagan, Van Heck, and Vingerhoets (2001) was adopted to measure married career women's psychological wellbeing. It had a Cronbach's alpha of 0.86. The scale's response format contained a 5-point Likert type stretching from a little of the time (1) to all of the time (5). The reliability of this instrument, in this paper, is Cronbach's alpha coefficient 0.87.

To validate the efficiency of the measuring scales, the current researcher adopted a pilot study to detect, beforehand, any possible hitches. Besides, the current researcher assured that participants' anonymity was well-maintained in the inquiry process as inclusive of the primary research. The current researcher retrieved a total number of 280 valid questionnaires, and these questionnaires were analyzed.

The study adopted a multi-stage sampling technique. A multi-stage sampling method involves using different sampling techniques, which include: purposive method in which only married women were involved. In contrast, the current researcher applied a randomized questionnaire administration (for instance, a situation whereby the participants come in an organized manner, odd, and even number) method in the current study. However, on another occasion, where the current researcher accidentally identified potential participants, the accidental sampling technique was used.

## **Results**

The current researcher utilized the statistical package for social sciences (SPSS v 26) in analyzing the data sieved from the respondents. The current researcher inspected and cleaned the retrieved data before proceeding to the analysis. This paper presents the current results:

### **Inferential Statistics (Hypothesis testing)**

**Table 1: Multiple regressions showing the sustenance psychological wellbeing of married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria, as influenced by psychological distress, social support, domestic violence, and family conflict resolution**



Influencers	B	T	P	R	R <sup>2</sup>	F(4,275)	P
Psychological Distress	.107	2.125	.009	.478	.229	20.40	<.01
Social Support	.677	8.123	.000				
Domestic Violence	.099	1.809	.016				
Family Conflict Resolution	.361	4.394	.000				

Dependent Variable: Psychological Wellbeing

### Hypothesis one

This proposition stated that psychological distress significantly influences the sustenance of psychological wellbeing amongst married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria. This hypothesis was tested using multiple regression analysis. The results are in Table 1 above.

The results in Table 1 showed the significant independent influence of each independent variable on the variance in the psychological wellbeing of married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria. The current results show that psychological distress contributed to an 11% variance in psychological wellbeing ( $\beta = .107$ ,  $t=2.125$ ;  $p<.01$ ). Therefore, the overall results of this paper largely supported its first hypothesis.

### Hypothesis two

This hypothesis stated that social support significantly influences the sustenance of psychological wellbeing amongst married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria. This conditional statement was tested using multiple regression analysis, and the results are stated in Table 1 above.

Nonetheless, the results in Table 1 revealed the significant independent influence of each independent variable on the variance in the psychological wellbeing of married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria. However, the present results show that social support contributed about a 68% change in psychological wellbeing ( $\beta = .677$ ,  $t=8.123$ ;  $p<.05$ ). Thus, the overall results of the current study factually supported its second hypothesis.

### Hypothesis three

This hypothesis stated that domestic violence significantly influences the sustenance of psychological wellbeing amongst married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria. This proposition was tested using multiple regression analysis, and the results are stated in Table 1 above.

The results in Table 1 showed the significant independent influence of each independent variable on the variance in the psychological wellbeing of married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria. Nevertheless, the current results show that domestic violence contributed about a 10% variation in psychological wellbeing amongst married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria ( $\beta = .099$ ,  $t=1.809$ ;  $p<.01$ ). Therefore, the general results of this paper supported its third hypothesis.

### Hypothesis four

This proposition stated that family conflict resolution significantly influences the sustenance of psychological wellbeing amongst married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria. This hypothesis was tested using multiple regression analysis, and the outcomes are stated in Table 1 above.

However, the results in Table 1 showed the significant independent influence of each independent variable on the variance in the psychological wellbeing of married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria. Nevertheless, the current results indicate that family conflict resolution contributed about a 36% change in psychological wellbeing amongst married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria ( $\beta = .361$ ,  $t=4.394$ ;  $p<.01$ ). Hence, the overall findings of this paper supported its fourth hypothesis.

Results showed in Table 1 further indicated that psychological distress, social support, domestic violence, and family conflict resolution significantly and jointly influence the sustenance of psychological wellbeing amongst married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria ( $R = .478$ ,  $R^2 = .229$ ,  $F$

(4, 275) = 20.40,  $p < .01$ ). This result infers that psychological distress, social support, domestic violence, and family conflict resolution accounted for 23% of the observed changes in the self-reported level of psychological wellbeing amongst married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria. In comparison, the remaining 76.7% is attributed to other factors that were not considered in this study.

**Table 2: Zero Order Correlations showing the relationship amongst the psychological distress, social support, domestic violence, family conflict resolution, and psychological wellbeing of married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria.**

Variables	Psychological Distress	Social Support	Domestic Violence	Family Conflict Resolution	Psychological Wellbeing	Mean	SD
Psychological Distress	1	-.207**	.237**	.085	-.126*	30.55	9.00
Social Support		1	-.077	.758**	.410**	36.48	18.72
Domestic Violence			1	-.106	.111	95.35	38.73
Family Conflict Resolution				1	.162**	48.55	26.46
Psychological Wellbeing					1	64.48	15.13

\*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (1-Tailed)

\*\*Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (1-Tailed)

### Hypothesis five

This hypothesis stated that there are significant relationships between psychological distress, social support, domestic violence, family conflict resolution, and the psychological wellbeing of married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria. This study tested this hypothesis using a Zero-Order correlation, and results are in Table 2 above.

From Table 2, the result matrix shows that psychological distress has a significant negative relationship with psychological wellbeing at ( $r = -0.13$ ;  $p < .05$ ). Hence, an increase in the psychological distress of married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria, will decrease their psychological wellbeing. Results also reveal that social support has a substantial positive correlation with an individual's psychological wellbeing ( $r = 0.41$ ;  $p < .01$ ). This outcome means that an increase in the social support married career women in Nigeria receive, the higher their psychological wellbeing. However, the current results indicate that domestic violence had no significant relationship with psychological wellbeing at ( $r = 0.11$ ;  $p > .01$ ). Besides, the results reveal that family conflict resolution has a noteworthy positive correlation with psychological wellbeing at ( $r = 0.16$ ;  $p < .01$ ), showing that resolving conflict among conflicting parties in the families of married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria increases the level of their psychological wellbeing. This paper confirms the fifth hypothesis due to the above-stated results.

### Hypothesis six

This hypothesis stated that family conflict resolution significantly moderates psychological distress, social support, and domestic violence in sustaining psychological wellbeing amongst married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria. This paper tested this hypothesis using stepwise multiple regression analysis. The results are in Table 3.

**Table 3: Summary of stepwise regressions showing the moderating effect of family conflict resolution on psychological distress, perceived social support, and domestic violence as factors influencing the sustainability of psychological wellbeing amongst married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria.**

Predictors	Beta( $\beta$ )	T	Sig	R	R <sup>2</sup>	F	P
1 (Constant)		42.238	.000				
Social Support	.410	7.485	.000	.410 <sup>a</sup>	.168	56.018	.000 <sup>b</sup>



- Dependent Variable: Psychological Wellbeing
- Predictors: (Constant), Social Support
- Predictors: (Constant), Social Support, Conflict Resolution
- Predictors: (Constant), Social Support, Conflict Resolution, Psychological Distress
- Predictors: (Constant), Social Support, Conflict Resolution, Psychological Distress, Domestic Violence

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4.081;  $P < .01$ ). This result implies that age, ethnicity, marital status, religion, and highest educational qualifications accounted for about 7% variance in psychological wellbeing amongst married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria. Furthermore, the results revealed that only religion had a significant independent (main) influence on the sustenance of psychological wellbeing ( $\beta = -.170$ ,  $t = -2.891$ ,  $p < .01$ ) amongst married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria. Therefore, the results largely support the stated hypothesis. However, this result requires further clarifications on the influence of religion on psychological wellbeing using a one-way ANOVA, as presented in table 5 below:

**Table 5: Summary of the one-way ANOVA showing the influence of religion in sustaining psychological wellbeing among married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria.**

Psychological Wellbeing					
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	2493.937	2	1246.968	5.628	.004
Within Groups	61369.935	277	221.552		
Total	63863.871	279			

Table 5 indicates that religion had a significant influence on psychological wellbeing amongst married career women in Ibadan at ( $F(2, 277) = 5.628$ ;  $P < .01$ ). Besides, this paper conducted a Post-Hoc analysis of HSD- Highest Significant Difference.

**Table 6: Summary of HSD multiple comparison analysis showing the influence of religion on psychological wellbeing amongst married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria.**

Religion I-J	1	2	3	$\bar{X}$
1. Christian	1	-6.20225*	1.01337	63.94
2. Islam		1	-5.18888	66.96
3. Others			1	64.75

\* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

The post-hoc results presented in table 6 indicate that married career women who practice Islamic religion reported significantly highest psychological wellbeing (Mean=67;  $p < .05$ ) compared to the married career women who practice Christianity and Others. Thus, the result established the influence of religion on psychological wellbeing amongst married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria, and thus confirmed the seventh hypothesis.

## Discussions

The results stated above showed that the psychological distress of married career women does not sustain their psychological wellbeing; it also reduces the psychological wellbeing of married career women in Ibadan. Besides, the stated results confirmed that the psychological wellbeing of married career women increases and remains sustained with adequate social support and family conflict resolution. As mentioned above, Mark and Smith (2011) investigated the relationship between psychological distress and coping in predicting employees' psychological wellbeing, and they opined that poor wellbeing correlated with increased levels of psychological distress. The current study also supports the findings of Caverley (2005), who indicated that distressed employees are more likely to be weak and less motivated, less safe at work, and unhealthy, negatively affecting their psychological and emotional wellbeing. Besides, the results stated above confirmed that an increase in the social support married career women in Nigeria receive, the higher their psychological wellbeing. Hence, the current investigation confirms the position of Gyasi *et al.* (2018), who opined that numerous parts of significant social care: emotional bonds, attending social events, couple focused, family/friends contacts, and remittances from children significantly relate to improved psychological wellbeing. The above-stated results indicated that resolving conflict among conflicting parties in the families of married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria, increases their psychological wellbeing. Hence, this paper confirms the submissions of Panatik *et al.* (2011) who

discovered a noteworthy positive relationship between conflict resolution and the psychological wellbeing of the family, and Reich *et al.* (2007) who noted a significant relationship between the right conflict management style and psychological wellbeing within the family. Therefore, reduced psychological distress increases social support, and consistent family conflict resolution will increase and sustain the psychological wellbeing of married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria. Hence, this paper has achieved its first objectives to examine relationships among psychological distress, social support, domestic violence, family conflict resolution, and psychological wellbeing among married career women in Nigeria.

Furthermore, the results specified above showed that psychological distress, social support, domestic violence, and family conflict resolution jointly predicted psychological wellbeing among married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria. They imply that psychological distress, social support, domestic violence, and family conflict resolution accounted for 23% of the changes observed in the self-reported level of psychological wellbeing among married career women. In comparison, the remaining 76.7% is attributed to other factors that were not considered in this study. Further findings showed the significant independent contributions of each independent variable to the variance in the dependent variable: psychological distress contributed about 11% variance in psychological wellbeing, social support contributed about 68% variance, domestic violence contributed about 10% variance, while family conflict resolution contributed about 36% variance in the psychological wellbeing of married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria.

As stated earlier, Frone *et al.* (2013) established that psychological distress is a significant predictor of psychological wellbeing, having harmful effects on individuals' health and wellbeing. Besides, this paper corroborates Jackson and Slater (2016), who stated that psychological distress and work-life balance significantly and independently predict psychological wellbeing and a healthy lifestyle. The earlier-stated results also support Mohammed (2010) position that physical exercise, psychological distress, and work-life balance were significant predictors of psychological wellbeing; the results also support Lee, Tzeng, and Chiang (2019), who indicated psychological distress as the primary predictors of nurses' psychological wellbeing. Also, the earlier-stated results of this paper verify the position of Ryska & Yin (1999); Reed & Giacobbi (2004); and Malinauskas (2010), who indicated that social support predicted psychological wellbeing among married women as social support from friends and family increases physio-psychological wellbeing and decreases stress among working women. The current results also validate Feldman *et al.* (2000) findings, who specified that women's social support systems seriously influence their psychological wellbeing in different ways. As aforementioned, Adejumo (2008) noted a significant independent influence of social support on the psychological wellbeing of career women in Ibadan, Nigeria. The current results corroborate Afroz's (2016) position, who opined that social support positively impacts the occupied roles of women at workplaces by creating an equilibrium between family and work, making them ardently proficient abolishing family-work struggles and enhancing psychological wellbeing.

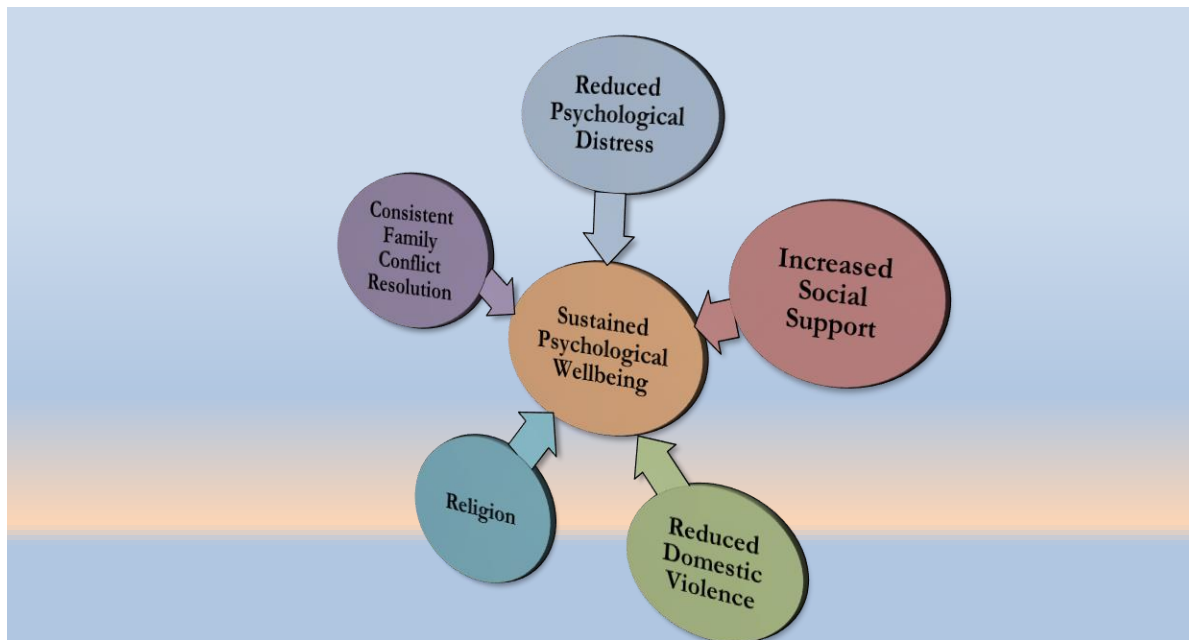
Furthermore, the current results validate the findings of Adebayo (2014) which indicated that domestic violence has significantly influenced the low level of psychological wellbeing among married couples in the southwestern part of Nigeria; and of Sugarman and Hotaling (1997) which indicated that as family dysfunction and domestic violence negatively influence psychological wellbeing. This paper also confirms the position of Cole *et al.* (2002), who noted that family conflict resolution was a moderating factor that suppressed partner violence and aggression on psychological wellbeing. Besides, Amiri (2006) confirmed that family conflict resolution was a moderator of psychological wellbeing. Therefore, reduced psychological distress, increased social support, reduced domestic violence, and consistent family conflict resolution are significant influencers in sustaining the psychological wellbeing of married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria. Hence, this paper has achieved its second objective, which is to investigate psychological distress, social

support, domestic violence, and family conflict resolution as influencing factors for sustaining psychological wellbeing amongst married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria.

Moreover, this paper shows that the first result model, including social support, contributed to a 16.8% variance in the psychological wellbeing of married women in Ibadan, Nigeria. In the second model, adding family conflict resolution to social support in examining variance in psychological wellbeing yielded a higher variance of about 21.9% in psychological wellbeing among married career women. This result infers that the psychological wellbeing of married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria, is better sustained by intensifying conflict resolution within their families. Besides, in the third model, introducing psychological distress yielded a 22% variance in psychological wellbeing among married women in Ibadan, Nigeria, which is not significantly different from the variance achieved by introducing family conflict resolution. Hence, psychological distress had lost its influence in the model, and it was not significant due to the moderating role of family conflict resolution. Also, the fourth model, including domestic violence, indicates that both psychological distress and domestic violence did not predict psychological wellbeing among married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria, as a result of the presence of family conflict resolution; having the model yield a 23% variance in their psychological wellbeing. Notably, the current study has established family conflict resolution as a significant moderator of the harmful influence of psychological distress, social support, and domestic violence in sustaining psychological wellbeing amongst married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria. Family conflict resolution remains the most influential significant influencer in sustaining psychological wellbeing amongst married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria. This paper has also achieved its third objective, finding out if family conflict resolution will significantly moderate psychological distress, social support, and domestic violence in sustaining psychological wellbeing amongst married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria.

Besides, this paper affirms that out of the socio-demographic factors (age, marital status, religion, and educational qualification) examined as influencers in sustaining psychological wellbeing amongst married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria, only religion had a significant independent influence in sustaining psychological wellbeing. This paper confirms the position of (Francis & Kaldor, 2002; Keyes & Reitzes, 2007; Greenfield & Marks 2007), who posited that the frequency of attendance at religious services correlated with greater psychological wellbeing. It also corroborates (Pargament *et al.*, 2001; Wink *et al.*, 2005; Greenfield, & Marks 2007; Keyes & Reitzes 2007) in their assertion that religion has been linked to both physical and psychological wellbeing. Also, the present researcher conducted a Post-Hoc analysis of HSD (Highest Significant Difference), and the results indicate that married women who are practicing Islamic religion reported the highest psychological wellbeing compared to those who practice Christianity and other religions. The current study has also achieved its fourth objective, which is to determine demographic factors (such as age, religion, marital status, and educational qualifications) as influencing factors for sustaining psychological wellbeing amongst married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria.

**Figure 1: Practical model of sustaining psychological wellbeing amongst married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria.**



### *Practical implications*

The current findings have several implications for further research and appropriate clinical and developmental strategic intervention necessary for reducing psychological distress, improving family therapy, social support, marital counseling, and health promotion among families in every society. These results will also have direct implications on the entire family's wellbeing, including husband and children.

### **Conclusion**

This paper's main goal was to examine how to sustain the psychological wellbeing of married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria, by looking into psychological distress, social support, domestic violence, and family conflict resolution as influencers. Based on its results, reduced psychological distress, social support, reduced domestic violence, and consistent family conflict resolution jointly and independently influenced the sustenance of psychological wellbeing amongst married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria.

Moreover, this study has found that family conflict resolution significantly played a moderating role in the influence of psychological distress, social support, and domestic violence on the sustenance of psychological wellbeing amongst married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria. The current findings established that the effect of psychological distress and domestic violence on psychological wellbeing amongst married career women came to a non-significant level in the presence of family conflict resolution as the moderating influence. Therefore, this study concludes that family conflict resolution has a significant moderating influence on negative predictors of the psychological wellbeing of married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria. The paper further concluded that married career women's religion significantly influences the sustenance of psychological wellbeing amongst married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria.

Hence, this paper would like to assert that reduced psychological distress, increased social support, reduced domestic violence, and consistent family conflict resolution significantly supports the sustenance of psychological wellbeing amongst married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria. At the same time, their religious beliefs also influence their psychological wellbeing.

### **Recommendations**



This paper recommends that the leadership and management of work organizations should always endeavor to make every work environment more conducive and ensure that workload and work culture do not induce psychological distress.

Also, social support tends to improve the sustenance of psychological wellbeing amongst married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria. This finding suggests that both family, friends and significant others should always notice that a little social support in the form of advice, useful information, experiences sharing concerning happy family and how to handle family issues would go along the way in helping married couples in maintaining a healthy relationship that can improve and sustain their psychological wellbeing.

More than that, it is imperative to propose that all hands be on deck to ensure adequate support for married career women through other means, not limited to information or material support alone. This support may include financial support and counseling, education, modeling excellent and workable family conflict resolution techniques. Hence, this paper recommends that developmental psychologists should incorporate the use of intervention containing family conflict resolution methods in their services to married individuals and the ones in courtship, to reassure them of better psychological wellbeing before long.

Furthermore, domestic violence's devastating effects on psychological wellbeing have become one major area of intervention useful for both career men and women in marriage in the pursuit of healthy family development. Hence, the government, at every level, should focus on intervention programs that reduce domestic violence within society. This study also recommends that further investigations should replicate the current study by combining interview methods with a survey method to widen the scope of the present study. Also, future researchers should include both men and women in replicating the current study in order to control for gender biases.

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**Strategic factors affecting the performance and sustainability of cooperative credit and thrift schemes in the local government areas in Enugu State, Nigeria**

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**Abstract**

*This paper examined factors constraining the effective performance and sustainability of cooperative credit and thrift schemes in the local government areas (LGAs) in Enugu State. The study used a survey of 269 households drawn from 17 LGAs in Enugu state. The current researcher tested the study's hypotheses by conducting a descriptive statistic that specified the ascending mean differences of the highlighted constraints. The findings revealed that the factor that poses the most constraints to the effective performance and sustainability of credit and thrift schemes in the LGAs in Enugu State is the failure of some loaners to pay back, followed by insufficient funding and ignorance the scheme. It is essential to add that the strategic measures to accelerate the growth of cooperative credit and thrift schemes in the State include a well-designed strategy that increases the growth of thrift and loan, members receiving education, and orientation on as well as enacting legislation to protect the scheme. This paper's finding reinforces the Government's attempt to overhaul its current monetary policy to afford cooperatives better opportunity to obtain the necessary funding. Finally, the paper proposed that efforts should be made to ensure a well-designed strategy that increases the growth of thrift and loan, create more awareness on the relevance of cooperative credit and thrift schemes, and create a more exclusive account for the scheme with reasonable interest. Besides, this paper proposed the appropriate enacting of legislation to protect the scheme within the local government areas in Enugu State, Nigeria.*

**Keywords:** Constraints, sustainability, cooperative, credit, households, performance, scheme, thrift

**Jel Classification:** G23

## 1. Introduction

The fundamental nature of a credit culture is to generate a pool of funds. From its inception, this credit culture designed and built members who owned and controlled the cooperative finance system. The earliest Cooperative Thrift and Credit Associations in Nigeria were organized mainly in the western part of the country during the 1940s and 1950s (Marx & Seibel, 2012). Towards the last part of 1943, 180 registered cooperative associations were already in existence in Nigeria. More than that, cooperative associations became firmly rooted in the country within a decade of their commencement (Odedoku & Udokogu, 1996). As a way to empower people and reduce poverty, there is a need to enhance access to production factors, particularly credit facilities. In that regard, Soludo (2005) opines that well-focused programs in that direction must be put in place to achieve robust economic growth. The informal microfinance institutions have helped provide funds like credit facilities for business purposes, housing projects, and disease control (Ijaiya, 2011).

Apart from the lending activities of the formal microfinance institutions, informal lending is prevalent in Nigeria, especially in Enugu State, and it also forms part of the oldest types of lending. Informal lending, which includes borrowing from friends, family members, money lenders, and depletion of savings, has provided soft and comfortable loans to small businesses, although sometimes the collateral requirements may be challenging to attain. Nwoha (2010) described a cooperative thrift and credit society as a system that offers its members suitable and secured income through interest accrued. This scheme is suitable for workers in the same organization. Workers in such organizations usually generate funds through deduction from their monthly salary and offer loans to those who need them. It is pertinent to mention that workers in such organizations do not usually receive weekly or day-to-day incomes but are paid an enormous amount of money at the end of each month, enabling them to accumulate funds after subtracting their vast expenses. Otto and Ukpere (2008) cautioned that even though credit and thrift schemes are the last resort for low and middle-income earners, the unruly behavior and fraud in the system renders businesses involve in credits potentially unsafe. For instance, several Enugu State dwellers cannot afford to educate



their children or pay their electricity bills, let alone to be able to provide them with affordable accommodations. Consequently, agents involved in providing credits should be ready to confront these challenges.

The presence of large informal financial houses in Enugu State is attributed to several factors, such as population concentration in rural areas that are unbanked, low literary level, loss of confidence in the banking system due to distress, illicit banking practices and absence of other financial institutions in the rural areas (Acha, 2012). Financial freedom in the rural area cannot merely be attained through isolated programs of infrastructural development but enhanced through the right of people to acquire productive funds, such as access to credit facilities. Empowering the masses through access to credit facilities boosts productive economic activities, increases overall employment opportunities, and enhances personal income and general prosperity (Onwubu & Okorie, 2016). Industrious rural farmers and business owners could get empowered by providing credit facilities, which can enable them to partake in economic activities and enhance the sustainability of their businesses (Nwankwo, Ewuim & Asoya, 2013).

From the views of Antoh, Mensah, Enu-Kwesi, and Addo (2016), financial intermediaries have played a pivotal role in poverty reduction and economic growth in many nations. It is also essential to note that the absence of security and safety of loans is the main distinctive feature between informal and formal loan providers (Idowu & Salami, 2011). Consequently, the rural dwellers prefer easy loans because one does not need collateral to access the loan. Corporative and thrift societies usually collect interest for loans borrowed by members who did not contribute money. However, they usually do not charge interest from members who have contributed funds to the scheme. Adewakun, (2012), Magbagbeola, Adetoso, and Owolabi (2010) have observed that Micro-finance remains the solution to the scarcity of funds in rural areas. In a similar vein, Tanko (2007) observed that part of the challenges to rural development in Enugu State shows that the scarcity of funds and limited access to loanable funds hindered the efforts towards expanding the economic base of the rural dwellers. Credit and thrift associations remained another way of reaching out to people who do not have access to regular banking facilities. Many financially excluded rural dwellers perceive it as an alternative to the conventional banking system because it usually supports members with their credit needs within a serene environment, unlike the complexity and confusion frequently experienced in most formal banking halls in Nigeria.

Enugu State has 17 local government areas (LGAs). Every local government area is controlled by a local government council, which includes a chairman that acts as the Chief Executive within each LGA, and functions with elected councilors. Also, a minimum of ten and a maximum of fifteen wards are in each LGA. Currently, in Enugu State, people in the rural areas, where most of the local government systems operate from, and to an extent, those in the urban areas can hardly obtain credit facilities owing to their socio-economic conditions. Consequently, the poverty level of these people continues to rise. The most affected groups are those in the low and middle-income brackets. Besides, the small and medium scale businesses, which are the nerve centers of the nation's economy, have not made headway due to inadequate funding. The inability of small businesses to access credit facilities is due to their inability to provide proper collateral. This fact has affected the growth and development of small businesses in most of the local government areas, which are highly populated by rural dwellers. In this regard, Nwankwo, Ewuim, and Asoya (2013) observed that insufficient capital had been a significant setback for rural businesses in Nigeria.

Consequently, the rural dwellers patronize and support conventional credit and thrift associations to meet unexpected contingencies. The current paper endeavors to identify the most substantial factors hindering the effective performance and sustainability of cooperative credit and thrift schemes within the local government areas in Enugu State, Nigeria. It also endeavors to establish ways of enhancing the growth of credit and thrift schemes in Enugu state. This study hopes to contribute to knowledge in the area of credit and thrift scheme. Moreover, gaps in the current study will spur future research interest, particularly in the area not covered in this paper.

### **1.1 Statement of the Problem**

In Nigeria today, people in the rural areas, where most of our Local Government systems operate, and even those in the urban area hardly get access to credit facilities due to their socio-economic status. Thus the poverty level of these people continues to rise. Worse affected are people in the low and middle-income brackets. The lack of access to credit facilities due to lack of collateral has eroded people's economic situation in rural areas. More than that, poor managerial skill and lack of knowledge has led to the stunted growth of cooperatives. The challenges confronting cooperatives include dishonesty among the leadership, which has resulted in several irregularities related to embezzlement of the fund by leading members, which adversely affects the development and growth of cooperative societies. Efforts at addressing these challenges to improve access to credit by members have not been very successful. This study seeks to examine the most substantial factors

hindering the effective performance and sustainability of cooperative credit and thrift schemes within the local government areas in Enugu State, Nigeria.

## 1.2 Research Question

The above problem statement triggered the following research questions

1. Which factors pose the most constraints to the effective performance and sustainability of credit and thrift scheme in the LGAs in Enugu State?
2. What strategic measures are more appropriate in enhancing the growth and sustainability of credit and thrift schemes in the LGAs in Enugu State?

## 1.3 The objective of the study

The objectives of the paper are:

1. To determine the factors that pose the most constraints to the effective performance and sustainability of credit and thrift scheme in the LGAs in Enugu State.
2. To highlight the strategic measures that are more appropriate to adopt in enhancing the growth and sustainability of credit and thrift schemes in the LGAs in Enugu State.

## 2. Literature review

This section covers the literature review of the paper, starting with the concept of credit and thrift cooperative society.

### 2.1 Concept of credit and thrift cooperative society

Credit and thrift cooperative society comprises individuals who come together as a group with the same occupation and reside within the same city. The main aim of a cooperative is to encourage savings amongst members and provide loans to them in the form of venture capital. Cooperative societies seem to be increasing in many countries, particularly in emerging economies. Democracy is upheld within most cooperative societies as members have the opportunity to participate in decision making. Such an atmosphere can boost rational economic decisions around credit facilities, which can boost economic growth. In line with that, Umeabali, Agu, and Umuahia (2014) observe that credit is an essential factor in the economic growth of a nation because it creates an avenue for diversification and improvement in economic activities. Hence, the importance of credit cannot be overemphasized, which explains why the development and sustainability of credit and thrift cooperative society are crucial to any economy. In that sense, Kareem (2012) noted that in Nigeria, credit cooperatives, which initially started from cocoa cooperative society, have played a significant

role in the area of capital formation in the country. More than that, cooperative societies have been perceived from different angles by different scholars. Some scholars are of the view that cooperatives are influential organizations where different entrepreneurs or co-operators pool their resources together with the sole aim of making a profit. Others see it as a voluntary economic institution in which members share the earned profit through dividend sharing. Odey (2009, cited in Effiom, 2014) believes that the first cooperatives' membership was open, transparent, and share things in common.

Ebi (2014) identified a well-designed scheme that inspired corporative society and noted that the earlier plan for creating the cooperative organization in England was disrupted and rejuvenated by Robert Owen in partnership with his Rochdale foundation. Cooperative is a relationship willingly entered into by two or more individuals having the common interest of making available to members various needed services in a non-profit manner. Cooperatives are generally structured in the form of a certified body functioning to achieve their aims through the utilization of combined resources contributed by members for their individual needs (Helms, 2005). Abdulkarim (2016) was of the view that cooperative societies are panaceas for rural development and growth. It is also an avenue for job creation, making cooperative society an essential segment of developing a country's economy. Ridley-Duff (2007) opined that cooperative operation is the union of free individuals that come together to achieve their members' financial, communal, and cultural needs, including the utilization of a commonly held and equally managed scheme. However, Rothschild (2008) posits that a cooperative society is a type of communal association that is substantially common amongst individual groups.

Obodoechi (2008) identified the following characteristics of cooperative society: a genuine cooperative society should be autonomous and free from intimidation of lawmakers or external influence; their members joined voluntarily due to having obtained a new knowledge of the benefits associated with it; members are not forced or coerced to join the association; The concerns of members is paramount before speaking about capital; and the primary purpose of a cooperative society is to achieve groups' interests within the economic sphere, including their ambition within a socio-cultural, religious and political environment while avoiding unlawful ambitions.

The International Co-operative Alliance (2017) represents 313 cooperative federations and organizations in 109 countries. The Alliance has members from 100 countries, representing close to one billion individuals worldwide. Around one hundred million people work for cooperatives

globally. Cooperatives have created over 100 million jobs across the globe, which is 20% over what the transnational corporations have created. About 3 billion individuals' income is kept safe in cooperative societies. In a survey to ascertain the economic power of the top 300 cooperative societies across the globe, cooperatives controlled nearly US\$ 1.1 trillion in 2004 (Cronan, 2007).

Rose (2016) summarized the benefits of cooperatives, including the provision of non-collateral loans, avoiding the sale of real estate loans to investors, providing a very successful method to support members, and empowering women suffering from deprivation. Otto and Ukpere (2008) observed that savings through cooperatives are a good avenue for capitalization, which is essential for venture creation. Coordinators and managers of cooperative societies, such as Microfinance organizations, also serve as an employment avenue for them. Galor (2009) further remarked that cooperative societies support group savings, which enables their members to assess loans in the face of unexpected contingencies. Hence, the primary aim of a cooperative association is to encourage members to save.

In their treatise, Ojo, Ayesoro, Adesina, and Anita (2016) examined the effect of thrift and credit cooperatives in ameliorating challenges constraining farmers' economic advancement in the Local Government Areas of Lafia in Nasarawa State. They found that the number of family members, agricultural and non-agricultural proceeds, level of education, and the interest rate on savings are among the factors constraining the people's participation in thrift and credit organizations. To date, efforts to form credit and thrift associations to improve the living conditions of people in rural areas have yielded fewer results than the targets envisaged, despite government's interventions. Also, Ojo, Ayesoro, Adesina, and Anita (2016) noted that micro-lending from credit and thrift cooperatives should be perceived as an avenue to address the scarcity of venture capital. Against this backdrop, they recommend that credit and thrift cooperatives should be encouraged to support members with enough capital as well as helping them to assess funds from more prominent financial institutions, to enable them to purchase substantial capital assets, support with a soft landing, absorb losses as well as connect agriculturists to resources for productive activities. This action will go a long way towards reducing deprivation amongst rural dwellers who participate in the scheme.

Onyeze, Ebue, and Oladimeji (2015) in their study in Enugu South LGA of Enugu State stressed that both the job of improving the economic effect of cooperative funds and credit to the member within Enugu South Local Government Area seems to have several challenges, such as inadequate

finance for organizations to execute their outstanding projects. This fact is in addition to the inappropriate use of borrowed funds, which sometimes leads to the inability to repay loans. Other challenges include literacy level among members, depleting membership, which affects fund mobilization (Galor, 2009).

Nevertheless, Agbeze and Onwuka (2014) have suggested the strengthening of government efforts to integrate formal and informal financial institutions in order for them to have access to micro-finance. Dogarawa (2010) added by advising that cooperatives should be able to continually support the dual functions of developing feasibility as well as advancing capacity in providing services to their members while maintaining their cost-effective, viable, innovative as well as resilient posture. Nwankwo, Ewuim, and Asoya (2013) as well as Ojua, Audu, Plang, and Anzaku (2013) suggested that as a strategic measure to increase the growth of credit and thrift scheme, the government, as well as its subsidiaries, should intervene at various levels to support the sustainability and growth various cooperative schemes in the rural areas of the country. Also, it is essential to make an effort to improve the literacy level of rural dwellers as well as cooperative members. This measure will go a long way towards improving membership participation in cooperative schemes.

## **2.2 Theoretical underpinning of the paper**

This paper adopted the Lifecycle Income Theory developed by Milton Friedman in (1957). The theory focused on the expenditure pattern of a family unit, anchored within the stage of its life cycle. When consumption is higher than saving, it leads to (dis)saving, which negatively affects capital formation. Robert Hall undertook an early test of the Permanent Income Hypothesis in 1978. He noted that if previous consumption, based on all information consumers had at the time, past income should not contain any additional explanatory power about current consumption above past consumption. The younger family unit has the propensity to save more than what they expend, unlike a family unit that is the focal point of survival. Hence, when the family unit is retracting in old age, they live off their build-up capital/money put away. As a result, the predisposition to save money relied on the individual's maturity, which is not the same amongst different age brackets. The theory is anchored within the economic assumption, which tries to demonstrate the pattern by which people disperse their consumable income throughout their existence. The postulation is that an individual's consumption will be hinged on current earnings and by anticipated earnings in the upcoming period, known as 'permanent income.' Consequently, consumption follows a random path



(Galbacs, 2015). Individuals are assumed to plan a pattern of consumer expenditure based on anticipated earnings throughout their lifetime. The application of this theory in this study and the link between it and the study of Hall and Mishkin (1982) and Stephens (2013) is that it will enable people in the study area to plan well around their permanent income by reducing consumption and increasing savings through participation in credit and thrift cooperative schemes.

### 3. Research methodology

The present researcher adopted a survey research approach for this study. According to Otuk, Bamidele-Ogunsola, and Azare (2014) survey method is a method of gathering ideas from participants, also known as respondents, which is undertaking by asking them to respond to questions that are later analyzed. The sample size was 269, calculated using a population size of 520 with the Taro Yamane formula. The sampling technique adopted in the paper was probability sampling. Furthermore, this work used simple random sampling, which Durojaye (2012) described as a necessary sample procedure in which every item, unit, or member of the items comes from the pool. The current researcher distributed two hundred sixty-nine (269) questionnaires to the respondent, out of which 200 were completed and retrieved successfully. However, the remaining 69 could not be retrieved. The respondents consist of 122 males and 68 females. With regards to the test of hypotheses, this paper tested its stated hypotheses by using the descriptive analysis to indicate their ascending mean differences.

### 4. Results

Table 1: Identified Impediments constraining the effective performance and sustainability of credit and thrift scheme in the LGAs in Enugu State

No	Identified Impediments	Strongly Agree		Agree		Disagree		Strongly Disagree	
		Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
1	Ignorance of the scheme.	99	49.5%	32	16%	45	22.5%	24	12%
2	Poor membership.	20	10%	44	22%	107	53.5%	29	14.5%
3	Insufficient funding.	111	55.5%	43	21.5%	11	5.5%	35	17.5%

4	Failure of some loaners to payback.	98	49%	63	31.5%	20	10%	19	9.5%
5	Lack of legal backing.	27	13.5%	50	25%	90	45%	33	16.5%

Source: Researchers fieldwork, 2020.

Table 1.1 Ascending descriptive statistics indicating the rank of the constraining factors through their means.

Descriptive Statistics						
Identified Impediments	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	The rank of constraining factors (Ascending mean)	Skewness	
					Statistic	Std. Error
Poor membership.	200	2.28	.832	5 <sup>th</sup>	-1.052	.172
Lack of legal backing.	200	2.36	.913	4 <sup>th</sup>	-1.023	.172
Ignorance of the scheme.	200	3.03	1.098	3 <sup>rd</sup>	-.612	.172
Insufficient funding.	200	3.15	1.138	2 <sup>nd</sup>	.317	.172
Failure of some loaners to payback.	200	3.20	.967	1 <sup>st</sup>	.503	.172
Valid N (listwise)	200					

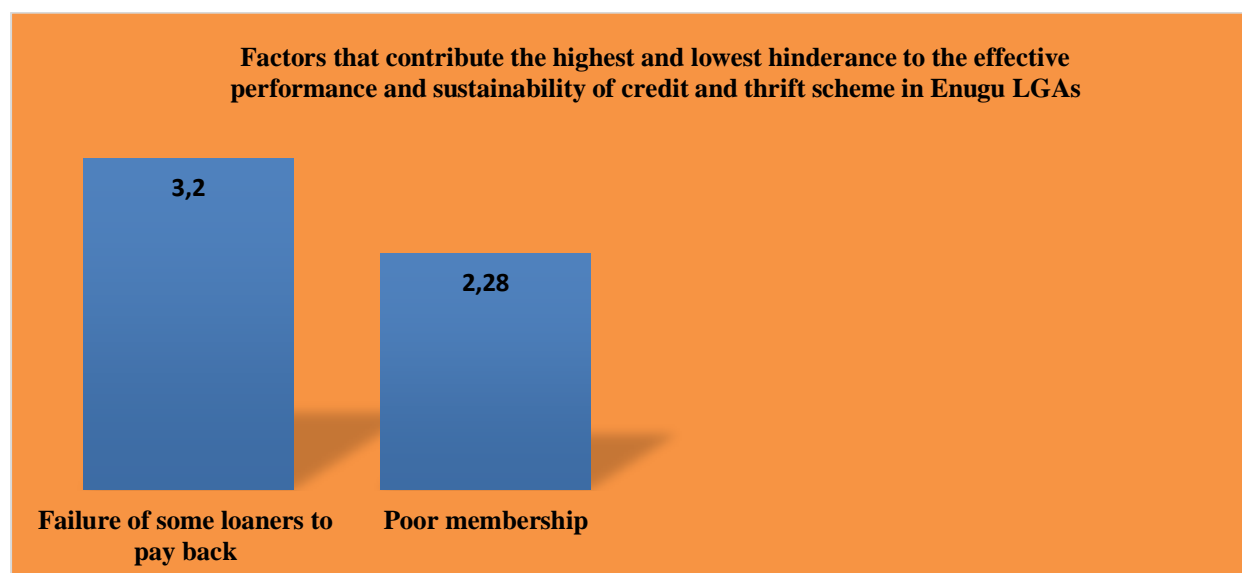
Source: Researchers fieldwork, 2020.

Table 1 above displays the participants' responses to identifying the most significant factors constraining the effective performance and sustainability of credit and thrift schemes in the LGAs in Enugu State. Of the 200 questionnaires retrieved from respondents, 99 (49.5%) and 32 (16%) strongly agreed and agreed respectively that "Ignorance of the scheme" constrains the effective performance and sustainability of credit and thrift scheme in the LGAs in Enugu State. Also, 20 (10%) and 44 (22%) strongly agreed and agreed respectively that "Poor membership" limits the effective performance and sustainability of credit and thrift scheme in the LGAs in Enugu State. In addition, the current results indicate that 111 (55.5%) and 43 (21.5%) strongly agreed and agreed respectively that "Insufficient funding" restricts the effective performance and sustainability of credit and thrift scheme in the LGAs in Enugu State. Furthermore, the stated results indicate that 98 (49%) and 63 (31.5%) strongly agreed and agreed respectively that "Failure of some loaners to payback" constrains the effective performance and sustainability of credit and thrift scheme in the LGAs in Enugu State. Also, the present findings show that 27 (13.5%) and 50 (25%) strongly agreed and agreed respectively that "Lack of legal backing" restricts the effective performance and sustainability of credit and thrift scheme in the LGAs in Enugu State.

Furthermore, Table 1.1 above showed an ascending mean tabulation of the identified factors constraining the effective performance and sustainability of credit and thrift scheme in the LGAs in

Enugu State. The table provided a ranking column to show how the variable items are ranked from highest to lowest according to responses from the participants, using the mean values. Going by these mean values, the highest-ranked variable item is “Failure of some loaners to payback,” with a mean score of 3.20. This finding infers that the impediment - Failure of some loaners to payback, poses the most constraint to the effective performance and sustainability of credit and thrift scheme in the LGAs in Enugu State. The next constraints are “Insufficient funding” with a mean score of 3.15, “Ignorance of the scheme” with a mean score of 3.03, “Lack of legal backing” with a mean score of 2.36 and “Poor membership” with mean scores of 2.28. Hence, the factor that poses the most constraint to the effective performance and sustainability of credit and thrift scheme in the LGAs in Enugu State is the “Failure of some loaners to payback,” while the factor that poses the least constraint to the effective performance and sustainability of credit and thrift scheme in the LGAs in Enugu State is “Poor membership”.

Figure 1: Chart showing the items that received the highest and lowest frequency rankings for the factors hindering the adequate performance of credit and thrift scheme in Enugu LGAs



Source: Researchers fieldwork, 2020.

Table 2: Identified Strategic Measures that are more appropriate in enhancing the growth and sustainability of credit and thrift schemes in the LGAs in Enugu State

		Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

No	Identified Impediments	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
1	A well-designed strategy increases the growth of thrift and loan.	120	60%	70	35%	6	3%	4	2%
2	The scheme should have more extensive publicity.	88	44%	67	33.5%	33	16.5%	12	6%
3	Cooperative studies should be made compulsory in Universities.	80	40%	52	26%	40	20%	28	14%
4	Legislation to protect the scheme should be enacted.	100	50%	45	22.5%	39	19.5%	16	8%
5	Members should receive education and orientation on the scheme.	102	51%	62	31%	30	15%	6	3%
6	Banks should open an exclusive account for the scheme with good interest.	102	51%	52	26%	40	20%	6	3%

Source: Researchers fieldwork, 2020.

Table 2.1 Ascending descriptive statistics indicating the rank of the strategic measures in enhancing the growth and sustainability of credit and thrift schemes in the LGAs in Enugu State through their means.

Descriptive Statistics						
Identified Strategic Measures	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Rank in constraining (Ascending mean)	Skewness	
					Statistic	Std. Error
Cooperative studies should be made compulsory in Universities	200	2.92	1.077	6 <sup>th</sup>	-.523	.172
Legislation to protect the scheme should be enacted	200	3.15	.999	4 <sup>th</sup>	-.783	.172
The scheme should be given more extensive publicity	200	3.15	.908	4 <sup>th</sup>	-.800	.172
Banks should open an exclusive account for the scheme with good interest	200	3.25	.878	3 <sup>rd</sup>	-.781	.172
Members should receive education and orientation on the scheme	200	3.30	.833	2 <sup>nd</sup>	-.928	.172
A well-designed strategy increases the growth of thrift and loan	200	3.53	.657	1 <sup>st</sup>	-1.510	.172
Valid N (listwise)	200					

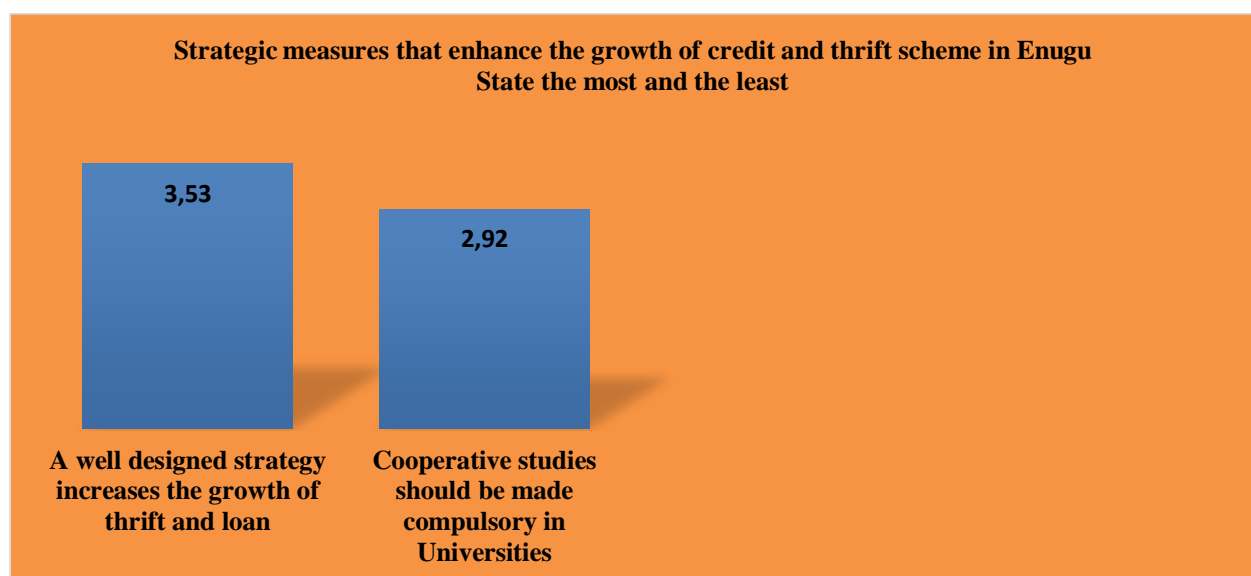
Source: Researchers fieldwork, 2020.

Table 2 above shows the participants' responses in identifying the most significant strategic measures appropriate in enhancing the growth and sustainability of credit and thrift schemes in the LGAs in Enugu State. Hence, of the 200 questionnaires retrieved from respondents, 120 (60%) and 70 (35%) strongly agreed and agreed respectively that "A well-designed strategy increases the growth of thrift and loan" and enhances the growth and sustainability of credit and thrift schemes in the LGAs in Enugu State. Besides, 88 (44%) and 67 (33.5%) strongly agreed and agreed respectively that "The scheme should have more extensive publicity" to enhance the growth and sustainability of credit and thrift schemes in the LGAs in Enugu State. Also, the present results indicate that 80 (40%) and 52 (26%) strongly agreed and agreed respectively that "Cooperative studies should be made compulsory in Universities" to improve the growth and sustainability of credit and thrift schemes in the LGAs in Enugu State. Nevertheless, the results indicate that 100 (50%) and 45 (22.5%) strongly agreed and agreed respectively that "Legislation to protect the scheme should be enacted" to boosts the growth and sustainability of credit and thrift schemes in the LGAs in Enugu State. The present findings also show that 102 (51%) and 62 (31%) strongly agreed and agreed respectively that "Members should receive education and orientation on the scheme" to enhance the growth and sustainability of credit and thrift schemes in the LGAs in Enugu State. Besides, 102 (51%) and 52 (26%) strongly agreed and agreed respectively that "Banks should open an exclusive account for the scheme with good interest" to enhance the growth and sustainability of credit and thrift schemes in the LGAs in Enugu State.

Furthermore, Table 2.1 above showed an ascending mean tabulation of the identified strategic measures to enhance the growth and sustainability of credit and thrift schemes in the LGAs in Enugu State. The table provided a ranking column to show how the variable items are ranked from highest to lowest, according to responses from the participants, using the mean values. Going by these mean values, the highest-ranked variable item is "A well-designed strategy increases the growth of thrift and loan" with a mean score of 3.53. This finding infers that the strategic measure (for instance, banks ensuring a well-designed strategy to increase the growth of thrift and loan) stands as the most appropriate strategic measure in enhancing the growth and sustainability of credit and thrift schemes in the LGAs in Enugu State. The next is that "Members should receive education and orientation on the scheme" with a mean score of 3.30. This measure is followed by "Banks should open an exclusive account for the scheme with good interest" with a mean score of 3.25. "Legislation to protect the scheme should be enacted" and "The scheme should be given more extensive publicity" both stand in the 4<sup>th</sup> position with the same mean of 3.15, while "Cooperative studies should be

made compulsory in Universities” stands as the least appropriate strategic measure to be adopted with a mean score of 2.92. Thus, the most appropriate strategic measure to enhance the effective performance and sustainability of credit and thrift schemes in the LGAs in Enugu State is: “A well-designed strategy increases the growth of thrift and loan.” The strategic measure that stands as the least appropriate strategic measure in enhancing the effective performance and sustainability of credit and thrift scheme in the LGAs in Enugu State is “Cooperative studies should be made compulsory in Universities.”

Figure 2: Chart showing the items that received the highest and lowest frequency rankings for the strategic measures in enhancing the growth of credit and thrift scheme in Enugu State



Source: Researchers fieldwork, 2020.

### Discussion of result

The above results show that more than any current highlighted constraints to the effective performance and sustainability of credit and thrift schemes in the LGAs in Enugu State, failure of some loaners to pay back remains outstanding. This result infers that the failure of some loaners to repay their loans poses greater havoc to the effective performance and sustainability of credit and thrift scheme in the LGAs in Enugu State. Besides, the current results indicated insufficient funding as another significant constraint to the effective performance and sustainability of credit and thrift scheme in the LGAs in Enugu State, which assumes that there will be a consistent threat to the effective performance and sustainability of credit and thrift scheme in the LGAs in Enugu State if not sufficiently funded. The above-stated findings also infer that issue of people's ignorance of the



scheme cannot be overemphasized in achieving a compelling performance and sustainability of credit and thrift schemes in the LGAs in Enugu State.

This paper corroborates the conclusion of Galor (2009), who noted that the inappropriate use of borrowed funds, which sometimes leads to the inability to repay loans, remained one of the significant challenges facing credit and thrift schemes. Besides, the current findings support the positions of Ojo, Ayesoro, Adesina, and Anita (2016), and of Onyeze, Ebue, and Oladimeji (2015), who opined that lack of funding is a significant factor hindering the adequate performance of thrift and loan despite all the efforts made by the Nigerian government. This paper also confirms the suggestion of Anzaku (2013), who indicated how essential it is to make an effort to improve the literacy level of rural dwellers as well as cooperative members in achieving success in the credit and thrift schemes. Hence, this paper has met its first objective, which is to determine the factors that pose the most constraints to the effective performance and sustainability of credit and thrift schemes in the LGAs in Enugu State.

Furthermore, the above results indicate that a well-designed strategy that increases the growth of thrift and loan remains the most appropriate strategic measure in enhancing the growth and sustainability of credit and thrift schemes in the LGAs in Enugu State. The results also confirmed that the growth and sustainability of credit and thrift schemes in the LGAs in Enugu State would be enhanced if the state enacts appropriate legislation to protect the scheme as well as education and orientation of member about the scheme. These findings corroborates with Ebi (2014), who identified that a well-designed scheme inspired corporative society. Hence, this paper has met its second objective, highlighting the strategic measures that are more appropriate in enhancing the growth and sustainability of credit and thrift schemes in the LGAs in Enugu State.

## **5. Future research areas**

Future research should focus on the effect of non-repayment of borrowed loans on credit and thrift cooperative schemes. Also, there is a need to investigate some of the reasons why banks in Nigeria are reluctant to advance microfinance to credit and thrift cooperative schemes.

## **6. Recommendations and Conclusions**

From the study's result, the authors recommend that the government reinforce its efforts at creating a well-designed strategy capable of advancing the growth of thrift and loan. Studies on cooperative

societies should be made compulsory at universities. Measures to enhance the growth of credit and thrift schemes in the State should encompass enacting legislation to protect the scheme. Governments should endeavor to guarantee the reasonability of interest paid on borrowed funds and ensure flexible financial conditions. The benefit of Credit and thrift schemes to its members cannot be over-emphasized as it enables them to save, which they later invest.

This study has exposed the challenges hindering the performance and sustainability of credit and thrift scheme in the State, and efforts made by the Enugu State Government to promote the scheme. However, this paper has highlighted additional measures that could enhance the scheme's performance to support most of the previous government policies that have not yielded many results over the years, in terms of transforming people's living conditions. These previous government policy failures have prompted the State's citizens to build up additional mechanisms to improve their way of life, of which credit and thrift schemes are one of the options. However, despite the apparent benefits of credit and thrift cooperatives, some factors such as ignorance about the scheme, poor membership participation, and failure of some borrowers to pay back their loans, affect the performance and sustainability of the scheme. To accelerate the State's scheme's growth, the Enugu State Government should liaise with the cooperative departments in all the LGAs of the State, as well as all registered credit and thrift cooperatives in the State, to address most of the aforementioned challenges confronting the scheme in the State. This action will bring a variety of ideas to tackle the problems. It is pertinent to craft some strategic measures to support the development and growth of credit and thrift cooperative schemes. Besides, there is a renewed need for broader publicity of the scheme in Enugu state.

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## APPENDIX A

### QUESTIONNAIRE

#### SECTION A: Biographical Data

This section of the questionnaire covers background or biographical questions. For each question, participants should please select the response applicable to them or, where a written response is required, they should please write in their answer.

### 1. Gender

Male	1	Female	2
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### 2. Age:

20 – 30	1
31 – 40	2
41 – 50	3
51 – 60	4

### 3. Marital Status:

Single	1
Married	2
Divorced or Separated	3

### 4. Highest Level of Education:

Senior School Certificate	1
Bachelor's Degree	2
Master's Degree	3

### 5. Distribution of Respondents according to LGA:

Aninri	1
Enugu North	2
Nkanu East	3
Nkanu West	4
Udenu	5

## **SECTION B: Performance Constraints**

The questions in this section are related to identifying impediments that constrain the effective performance and sustainability of credit and thrift schemes in the LGAs in Enugu State. Participants should please read each statement carefully and use the scale provided to select the option that best applies to their perception.

S/N	Items	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	Ignorance of the scheme.				
2	Poor membership.				
3	Insufficient funding.				
4	Failure of some loaners to payback.				
5	Lack of legal backing.				

### **SECTION C: Strategic Measures**

The questions in this section are related to identifying strategic measures that are more appropriate in enhancing the growth and sustainability of credit and thrift schemes in the LGAs in Enugu State. Please read each statement carefully and use the scale provided to select the option that best applies to your perception.

S/N	Items	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	A well-designed strategy increases the growth of thrift and loan.				
2	The scheme should have more extensive publicity.				
3	Cooperative studies should be made compulsory in Universities.				
4	Legislation to protect the scheme should be enacted.				
5	Members should receive education and orientation on the scheme.				
6	Banks should open an exclusive account for the scheme with good interest.				



## PERFORMANȚA ȘI EVALUAREA ACESTEIA CU PRILEJUL AUDITULUI INTERN ÎN ENTITĂȚI ECONOMICE ȘI PUBLICE

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**Abstract:** În comunicarea noastră am dorit să abordăm 3 aspecte: 1)concepte fundamentale legate de performanța organizațiilor; 2)metode și indicatori de măsurare a performanțelor organizațiilor economice și publice; 3)beneficii cheie ale managementului performanței în organizații. În final am prezentat câteva concluzii rezultate în urma cercetării efectuate.

**Cuvinte-cheie:**performanța; măsurarea performanței; obiectivele măsurării performanței; eficacitatea măsurării performanței; indicatori de performanță.

### 1.Concepte fundamentale legate de performanța organizațiilor

O preocupare foarte importantă a oricărei misiuni de audit public intern, inclusiv a auditului de regularitate/conformitate este aceea a **creșterii performanței acestor tipuri de activități** și a **sporirii valorii adăugate pe care auditul public intern** le poate aduce în ansamblul sistemelor de management și control instituite la entități publice sau private.

De aceea vom puncta în continuare câteva elemente **definitorii legate de performanță și managementul performanței în organizațiile sociale.**

**Performanța unei organizații** este o noțiune complexă, care poate fi abordată pe diverse paliere de semnificație. Ea vizează modul de funcționare a organizației și rezultatele operațiunilor acesteia.

În cele mai multe cazuri se abordează **problematica performanței organizaționale**, care derivă din modul în care sunt furnizate produsele și serviciile firmei, funcționarea diferitelor unități structurale ale acesteia, performanța angajaților și rezultatele muncii lor.

**Conținutul și criteriile noțiunii de performanță** se află într-un continuu proces de evoluție și de adaptare la mediul economic actual, în care este necesară redefinirea factorilor care afectează performanța organizației - abandonarea perspectivelor clasice (de natură cantitativă, pasive și statice) și analiza factorilor care joacă roluri - cheie în performanța afacerilor în perspectivă strategică, proactivă.

**Performanța** este rezultatul final al unei activități. Managerii sunt preocupați de performanța organizațională întrucât aceasta se concretizează în rezultatele finale acumulate ale tuturor proceselor și activităților companiei.

Astfel, **noțiunea de performanță** poate fi explicată, **în sens larg**, ca reprezentând realizarea unei sarcini date în raport cu standarde prestabilite, iar la nivelul unei organizații, ca realizarea obiectivelor propuse, indiferent care este natura și diversitatea acestora<sup>1</sup>.

**Performanța în sens tradițional** este asimilată conceptului de **profitabilitate**. Performanța economică a organizației este fundamentală în înțelegerea modului de gestionare a organizației și reprezintă temeiul asigurării durabilității ei. Informațiile privind performanța economică și financiară sunt raportate în situațiile financiare anuale, care oferă date cu privire la poziția financiară, performanța și schimbările în poziția financiară a unei entități. De asemenea, indică rezultatele obținute în gestionarea capitalului financiar furnizat organizației.

**Obiectivul primordial de performanță al organizației** îl constituie *îndeplinirea misiunii economice, sociale și de mediu a acesteia*.

**Indicatorii de performanță economică** urmăresc să măsoare rezultatele economice ale activităților unei organizații și efectul acestor rezultate asupra unei game largi de părți interesate (cetățeni, organizații de mediu, organisme de reglementare etc.).

**Indicatorii economici** sunt strâns corelați cu alte categorii de indicatori, cum ar fi: *a) privind angajații și beneficiile acestora; b) interacțiunea cu comunitățile locale; c) riscul schimbărilor climatice și energia consumată*.

**Măsurarea performanței** constă în monitorizarea rezultatelor cuantificabile și relevante care pot oferi o evaluare obiectivă a performanței. **Această operațiune** reprezintă *„Procesul de evaluare a capacității cu care o entitate reușește, prin obținerea și utilizarea eficientă și efecă a resurselor, să-și atingă obiectivele. Măsurarea performanței se poate baza pe informații nefinanciare, precum și pe informații financiare”*<sup>2</sup>.

**Obiectivele măsurării performanței** vizează în principal: a) evaluarea gradului în care strategia și obiectivele entității sunt îndeplinite; b) luarea deciziilor în baza faptelor și indicatorilor; c) stabilirea obiectivelor și stimularea comportamentelor dorite la fiecare nivel al întreprinderii; d) definirea conținutului rapoartelor de management și a proceselor de intervenție care sunt necesare pentru a îmbunătăți performanța; e) gestionarea optimă a performanței angajaților și acordarea beneficiilor; f) dezvoltarea unor formate standard pentru procesele de planificare și bugetare, asigurând astfel alinierea și integrarea proceselor-cheie<sup>3</sup>.

**Măsurarea performanței economice** la nivelul unei entități se realizează cu ajutorul **indicatorilor**, care devin astfel instrumente de sprijin al deciziei manageriale. Măsurarea performanței se poate face în mai multe moduri, în funcție de standardele de performanță stabilite, pornind de la situațiile financiare, rapoartele de vânzări, rezultatele de producție, satisfacția clienților etc.

Măsurarea exactă a performanței organizaționale permite managerilor să corecteze deficiențele, ceea ce duce la economii de costuri și la o mai mare satisfacție a clienților. Dar fără instrumentele potrivite este dificilă ajustarea operațiunilor și orientarea personalului în direcția corectă.

**Eficacitatea măsurării performanței** este esențială pentru a asigura că strategia organizației este implementată cu succes. Este vorba despre monitorizarea eficacității companiei în îndeplinirea propriilor obiective predeterminate sau în satisfacerea cerințelor părților interesate. O

<sup>1</sup>Bâtcă-Dumitru Corina Graziella și colectiv, *Managementul performanței*, Editura CECCAR, București, 2019, pag.7;

<sup>2</sup>CIMA (Chartered Institute of Management Accountants), 2005, Terminologie oficială;

<sup>3</sup>Savin M., *Aprecieri privind posibilitatea de măsurare a performanței entității economice în concordanță cu sistemul de guvernare corporativă*, Managementul Intercultural, vol. XVI, nr. 1 (30), 2014.

organizație trebuie să funcționeze bine în ceea ce privește nivelul costurilor, calitatea, flexibilitatea, valoarea creată etc<sup>4</sup>.

## 2. Metode și indicatori de măsurare a performanțelor organizațiilor economice și publice

**Măsurarea performanței** a evoluat de la concentrarea pe performanța financiară precum profitul, fluxul de numerar sau rentabilitatea capitalului angajat (ROCE - Return on Capital Employed). **În prezent se pune accentul pe aspecte nefinanciare și multidimensionale ale performanței** pentru a înțelege și a gestiona mai bine pârghiile de creștere a acesteia. În consecință, au existat diferite încercări de a rezolva această problemă prin dezvoltarea de **noi tehnici de măsurare a performanței**, cum ar fi: **Măsurarea Strategică și Tehnică de Raportare – SMART<sup>5</sup>, Balanced Scorecard<sup>6</sup> și Fundația Europeană pentru Managementul Calității (EFQM) cu Modelul de excelență<sup>7</sup>.**

Deficiențele măsurării performanțelor tradiționale (financiare) au condus în ultimii ani la elaborarea unei multitudini de cadre metodologice și tehnici de măsurare ca cele enumerate anterior.

Cel mai cunoscut instrument de măsurare a performanței este **Balanced Scorecard**, care prezintă patru perspective distincte ale afacerii în cazul întreprinderilor (financiară, a clienților, a proceselor interne, a învățării și creșterii). Acestea sunt concepute pentru a acoperi întreaga activitate a organizației, atât intern, cât și extern, atât în prezent, cât și în viitor.

**Pentru organizații sociale cum sunt entitățile militare utilizarea acestui instrument de măsurare a performanțelor se pune de o manieră specifică, așa cum o să vedem când abordăm folosirea acestuia în auditul public intern.**

**Stabilirea indicatorilor de performanță** este un demers foarte important în efortul de a determina calitatea rezultatelor unei entități de natură organizațională. Există mai multe tipuri de indicatori în funcție de: 1) *variabile*, indicatorii pot fi: compleți, parțiali, complecși; 2) *modul de procesare al informației*, indicatorii pot fi: elementari, derivați, compuși; 3) *gradul de comparabilitate al informațiilor* există indicatori: specifici, generici, indicatori-cheie; 4) *criteriile evaluării*, indicatorii sunt: de relevanță, de eficiență, de eficacitate, de performanță; 5) *modul de cuantificare și de domeniul de utilizare*, există: indicatori de monitorizare, indicatori de evaluare.

**Indicatorii de resurse** oferă informații despre mijloacele financiare, umane, materiale, organizaționale sau regulatorii, utilizate în implementarea programelor sau acțiunilor. Resursele țin de responsabilitatea comună a autorităților care realizează alocarea acestora, și a operatorilor care implementează intervenția. Majoritatea indicatorilor de resurse sunt determinați cantitativ de sistemul de monitorizare. **Indicatorii de resurse surprind input-urile.**

**Indicatori de realizare** (în engleză „Output indicators”). Reflectă ceea ce s-a produs ca urmare a activității desfășurate. Mai precis, se consideră realizare imediată tot ceea ce se achiziționează din fondurile publice. Realizările imediate țin de răspunderea exclusivă a operatorilor, care trebuie să raporteze pe marginea lor prin intermediul sistemului de monitorizare.

**Indicatorii de realizare măsoară ceea ce s-a produs.**

**Indicatorii de rezultat** (în engleză „Results indicators”) ilustrează avantajele imediate ale activității (sau, în mod excepțional, dezavantajele) obținute de beneficiarii direcți. Un avantaj este

<sup>4</sup>Bâtcă-Dumitru Corina Graziella și colectiv, *Op.cit.*, pag.10;

<sup>5</sup>Lynch R.L., Cross K.E., *Measure up: The Essential Guide to Measuring Business Performance*, Mandarin, Londra, 1992;

<sup>6</sup>Kaplan R.S., Norton D.P., *The Balanced Scorecard: Measures that Drive Performance*, Harvard Business Review 70, 1992, pp. 71-79.

<sup>7</sup>Lewis J., *The EFQM Excellence Model*, Woodward Lewis, Anglia, 1992.

imediat dacă se manifestă cât timp beneficiarul se află în contact direct cu activitatea. Rezultatele pot fi observate în întregime atunci când operatorul a încheiat deja activitatea și a încetat plățile.

Indicatorii de rezultat sunt foarte familiari operatorilor, prin urmare ei sunt de regulă cuantificați în mod exhaustiv pe parcursul monitorizării. **Indicatorii de rezultat măsoară avantajele resimțite de beneficiari.**

Indicatorii de rezultat ne arată îndeplinirea scopului pentru care am achiziționat sau realizat activele respective. De exemplu, în cazul unui proiect ce a presupus achiziționarea unor PC-uri, indicatorul de realizare poate să fie numărul de aplicații utilizate pe acele echipamente sau numărul de utilizatori sau numărul de ore de utilizare a lor. Indicatorii de rezultat sunt foarte familiari operatorilor, prin urmare ei sunt de regulă cuantificați în mod exhaustiv pe parcursul monitorizării. **Indicatorii de rezultat măsoară avantajele resimțite de beneficiari.**

**Indicatorii de eficiență** se referă la măsura în care rezultatele programului au fost atinse cu minimum de resurse. **Indicatorii de eficacitate** sunt cei prin care se exprimă măsura în care prin rezultatele unui program au fost îndeplinite obiectivele. **Indicatorii de relevanță** se construiesc pornind de la evaluarea nevoilor pe care proiectul intenționează să le acopere. **Indicatorii de performanță** se referă la toți indicatorii menționați mai sus care sunt construiți pe baza criteriilor de evaluare și nu numai<sup>8</sup>.

O problemă foarte importantă în acest demers este **stabilirea indicatorilor – cheie de performanță**.

**Indicatorii - cheie de performanță (KPI – Key Performance Indicators)** reprezintă cel mai folosit instrument de gestionare a performanței, cu o rată de utilizare de aproximativ 75%<sup>9</sup>.

**Un indicator-cheie de performanță** este o măsură cuantificabilă pe care o companie o folosește pentru a determina cât de bine îndeplinește obiectivele operaționale și strategice stabilite. Aceasta înseamnă că diferite întreprinderi au KPI-uri diferiți în funcție de criteriile sau prioritățile lor de performanță.

**Pentru a alege cei mai buni indicatori - cheie de performanță trebuie să fie îndeplinite următoarele condiții:** a) să existe procese de afaceri clar definite; b) să existe obiective măsurabile pentru procesele de afaceri; c) să existe măsurători calitative și cantitative ale rezultatelor; d) să se determine abaterile (variațiile) și să se poată ajusta procesele pentru îndeplinirea obiectivelor lor pe termen scurt.

**Indicatorii - cheie pentru măsurarea performanței** pot fi un instrument puternic de management al performanței. Utilitatea acestora nu constă în măsurarea în sine (per se), ci este dată de faptul că permit activarea unor factori de performanță fundamentați pe date și, astfel, o mai bună luare a deciziilor.

Deși importanța standardelor de ramură contează, organizațiile nu trebuie neapărat să aleagă KPI similari cu partenerii lor de afaceri sau cu concurenții. Mai important este cât de relevanți sunt indicatorii pentru organizație sau pentru diviziile structurale ale acesteia. De asemenea, companiile ar trebui să își revizuiască în mod regulat obiectivele și strategiile și să facă ajustările necesare privind indicatorii - cheie de performanță.

**Indicatorii-cheie de performanță** sunt importanți pentru o afacere deoarece o ajută să se concentreze asupra obiectivelor generale majore și să se asigure că acestea rămân aliniate cu strategia organizației<sup>10</sup>.

**În instituțiile publice problematica indicatorilor – cheie de performanță se pune**

<sup>8</sup>POCA, Managementul performanței/proces; Document referitor la stabilirea indicatorilor cheie de performanță elaborat în cadrul proiectului co-finanțat din Fondul Social European prin Programul Operațional Capacitate Administrativă 2014 – 2020 intitulat „Planificare strategică și management al performanței la nivelul Municipiului Arad prin instrumentul Balanced Scorecard – Tablou de bord echilibrat”, cod MYSMIS 120637, cod SIPOCA 86, pp.5-7;

<sup>9</sup><https://www.bernardmarr.com/default.asp>;

<sup>10</sup>Bătcă-Dumitru Corina Graziella și colectiv, *Op.cit.*, pp.12-13;

**oarecum diferit decât în entitățile economice.** În mod tradițional administrația publică a fost prea puțin preocupată de aspectele strategice ale administrării sale, o pricină asupra acestui fapt fiind cea reprezentată de faptul că, îndeplinirea sarcinilor administrative era posibilă fără a deține o perspectivă pe termen lung.

Astăzi, sectorul public trebuie să facă față multor provocări și trebuie să răspundă la numeroasele noi nevoi și cerințe în societate. Datorită acestor provocări și a presiunii existente, sectorul public este supus unor reforme prin intermediul cărora să se producă efecte de îmbunătățire vizibile la nivelul serviciilor și al produselor oferite de acestea.

Procesul de reinventare al sectorului public a început încă din anii 1990 în țările dezvoltate când a fost conturat și promovat un nou model de management în instituțiile publice. Astfel, în Marea Britanie, specialiștii argumentau necesitatea de schimbare prin faptul că noul management public se bazează pe următoarele valori de bază (**Fig.nr.1.1.**):



**Figura nr. 1.1. - Valori ale managementului public în Marea Britanie** (Sursa: POCA, Suport de curs privind managementul performanței la nivel strategic elaborat în cadrul proiectului cofinanțat din Fondul Social European prin Programul Operațional Capacitate Administrativă 2014 – 2020, intitulat „Planificare strategică și management al performanței la nivelul Municipiului Arad prin instrumentul Balanced Scorecard – Tablou de bord echilibrat”, cod MYSMIS 120637, cod SIPOCA 86, pag.14);

Specialiștii americani I. Osbron și B. Gaebler<sup>11</sup> au pornit de la premisa că administrația guvernamentală *trebuie să fie reinventată*. Ei considerau că principiile și valorile de bază pentru managementul public la nivelul administrației guvernamentale sunt: 1) *promovarea competiției între furnizorii de servicii publice*; 2) *dezvoltarea dimensiunii participative a managementului public prin exercitarea controlului din afara sistemului birocratic către membrii comunității, respectiv cetățeni*; 3) *măsurarea performanței instituțiilor publice în funcție de rezultatele obținute și nu în funcție de volumul și valoarea intrărilor*; 4) *orientarea conducerii instituțiilor publice către realizarea obiectivelor derivate din misiune și nu pentru aplicarea unor acte normative, metodologii și norme metodologice*; 5) *considerarea beneficiarilor de drept clienții, cărora li se pune la dispoziție o ofertă variată de servicii de către diverși furnizori*; 6) *descentralizarea autorității*; 7) *încurajarea managementului participativ*.

Multă vreme s-a considerat că în sectorul public nu poate fi vorba de performanță, argumentându-se că prin ea însăși conținutul obiectivului fundamental al managementului public este eliminată posibilitatea acceptării acestui concept.

<sup>11</sup>A se vedea Osborne David și Gaebler Ted, *REINVENTING GOVERNMENT. HOW THE ENTREPRENEURIAL SPIRIT IS TRANSFORMING THE PUBLIC SECTOR*, Addison-Wesley Publ. Co., Scott London, 1992;



Limitele unei astfel de filosofii au fost demult timp depășite de managerii publici din instituțiile publice din țările dezvoltate. Deși în cea mai mare parte conceptul de managementul performanței te duce cu gândul la o organizație privată, dacă analizăm în esență activitățile pe care le desfășoară instituțiile publice vom vedea că și în cadrul acestora activitatea desfășurată de personalul angajat este caracterizată de eficacitate (a face ce trebuie), eficiență (a face cum trebuie și cât trebuie utilizând minimum de resurse).

În această nouă abordare în care vorbim despre performanță în cadrul instituțiilor publice gândirea managerilor publici trebuie să se situeze la granița dintre satisfacerea interesului public, al cetățeanului (partea socială a unei instituții publice) și obținerea de profit (partea concurențială a unei instituții publice).

Partea concurențială a unei instituții publice, cu ajutorul căreia putem determina dacă o instituție publică este sau nu performantă, poate fi definită prin cei 3E (economicitate, eficiență și eficacitate).

Principiul **ECONOMICITĂȚII** prevede ca resursele utilizate de instituția publică pentru desfășurarea activităților sale să fie puse la dispoziție în timp util, în cantitatea și la calitatea adecvate și la cel mai bun preț;

Principiul **EFICIENȚEI** privește raportul optim între resursele utilizate și rezultatele obținute;

Principiul **EFICACITĂȚII** privește îndeplinirea obiectivelor specifice stabilite și obținerea rezultatelor scontate.

Pentru a putea vorbi despre performanță la nivelul unei instituții publice este important ca într-o primă etapă să definim **VIZIUNEA** instituției publice, ulterior să conturăm **MISIUNEA** acesteia, urmând ca în ultima etapă să fie stabilite **OBIECTIVELE STRATEGICE** (Fig. nr. 1.2.).



**Figura nr. 1.2. - Componentele planului strategic** (Sursa: POCA, Suport de curs privind managementul performanței la nivel strategic elaborat în cadrul proiectului cofinanțat din Fondul Social European prin Programul Operațional Capacitate Administrativă 2014 – 2020, intitulat „Planificare strategică și management al performanței la nivelul Municipiului Arad prin instrumentul Balanced Scorecard – Tablou de bord echilibrat”, cod MYSMIS 120637, cod SIPOCA 86, pag.16);

În stabilirea celor trei componente ale unui plan strategic este importantă să ținem cont de următorii factori: 1) multitudinea și diversitatea clienților – persoane fizice, juridice, organizații non profit, cetățeni cu drept de vot, grupuri profesionale, etc.; 2) diferențele de valori și percepții despre performanță; 3) inexistența unui mediu concurențial; 4) natura serviciului public oferit; 5) complexitatea mediului socio/politic; 6) influența valorilor politici.

**Managementul performanței** (conform Fig. nr. 1.3.) înseamnă managementul rezultatelor. Managementul bazat pe performanță la orice nivel din organizație ar trebui să demonstreze că:





**Figura nr. 1.3. - Caracteristici ale managementului performanței** (Sursa: POCA, Suport de curs privind managementul performanței la nivel strategic elaborat în cadrul proiectului cofinanțat din Fondul Social European prin Programul Operațional Capacitate Administrativă 2014 – 2020, intitulat „Planificare strategică și management al performanței la nivelul Municipiului Arad prin instrumentul Balanced Scorecard – Tablou de bord echilibrat”, cod MYSMIS 120637, cod SIPOCA 86, pag.17);

### 3. Beneficii cheie ale managementului performanței în organizații

Unele dintre **beneficiile cheie ale managementului performanței** sunt:

**A) Concentrarea asupra rezultatelor**, mai degrabă decât asupra comportamentelor și activităților. O înțelegere greșită, uzuală între supervizori, este ca activitățile și comportamentele sunt același lucru cu rezultatele.

**B) Aliniază activitățile și procesele organizației cu obiectivele acesteia.** Managementul performanței identifică obiectivele organizaționale, rezultatele necesare pentru atingerea obiectivelor, indicatori de eficiență și eficacitate și mijloace de atingere a obiectivelor. Acest lanț de măsurare este examinat pentru asigurarea alinierii cu rezultatele globale ale organizației.

**C) Dezvoltă o privire sistemică și pe termen lung asupra organizației.** Procesul de îmbunătățire a performanței trebuie să urmeze o abordare sistemică, în același timp avându-se în vedere rezultatele finale.

**D) Produce indicatori relevanți.** Acești indicatori au o varietate largă a aplicabilității. Sunt utili în benchmarking sau în stabilirea unor standarde de comparație cu cele mai bune practici identificate în alte organizații. Ei asigură o bază consistentă de comparație pe durata eforturilor interne de schimbare.

Indicatorii ajută la tratarea angajaților în mod echitabil și corect în funcție de performanța obținută.

**Studiul performanței se poate face la trei nivele diferite:** 1) performanțe individuale; 2) sistemul de măsurare a performanței ca întreg; 3) relația dintre sistemul de măsurare a performanței și mediul în care operează.

Performanța în sine reprezintă doar un pas, legat de îndeplinirea sau nu a obiectivelor de performanță. Important este și să o judecăm într-o manieră comparativă, procedură cunoscută sub numele de benchmarking.

Măsurile de performanță sunt utilizate cel mai eficient prin intermediul unor sisteme de măsurare a performanței, care observă, raportează și utilizează aceste măsuri pentru a evalua performanța generală și pentru a îmbunătăți funcționarea sistemului.

Un sistem de măsurare a performanței nu are nicio relevanță și importanță dacă rezultatele obținute nu vor fi utilizate pentru a îmbunătăți calitatea serviciilor prestate de către angajații instituției publice.

Este recomandabil ca un sistem de măsurare a performanței să fie conceput cât mai simplu, să nu implice cheltuieli foarte mari și să cuprindă toată activitatea care are legătură cu misiunea și viziunea pentru care instituția publică funcționează<sup>12</sup>.

**Controlul organizațional** este procesul prin care o organizație influențează subunitățile și membrii săi să se comporte în moduri care conduc la atingerea scopurilor și obiectivelor organizaționale. Acesta presupune asigurarea faptului că performanța nu se abate de la standarde.

Atunci când este conceput corespunzător, sistemul de control ar trebui să conducă la o performanță mai bună, întrucât organizația devine capabilă să își execute mai bine strategia<sup>13</sup>.

**Controlul organizațional implică de obicei patru etape:** 1)stabilirea standardelor; 2)măsurarea performanțelor; 3)compararea performanțelor cu standardele; 4)luarea de măsuri corective după cum este necesar.

**Standardele de performanță** pentru entitățile economice sunt de multe ori stabilite în termeni monetari, cum ar fi venituri, costuri sau profit, dar pot fi fixate și în termeni non-financiari, cum ar fi unități produse, număr de produse defecte sau niveluri de calitate ori de servicii pentru clienți.

Acțiunile corective pot include modificări aduse standardelor de performanță - stabilirea acestora la un nivel mai mare sau mai mic ori identificarea de noi standarde sau de standarde suplimentare.

Controlul organizațional oferă beneficii semnificative, în special atunci când acesta ajută întreprinderea să rămână pe drumul cel bun în ceea ce privește implementarea strategiei sale. De asemenea, părțile interesate externe, cum ar fi guvernul, investitorii și grupurile de interes public, au un interes în a constata existența anumitor tipuri sau niveluri de control.

**Beneficiile - cheie ale controlului organizațional la entitățile economice sunt în esență următoarele:**

**a)controlul costurilor și al productivității** - asigură funcționarea eficientă și eficace a firmei;

**b)controlul calității** - contribuie la controlul costurilor (adică mai puține defecte, mai puține pierderi), la satisfacția clienților (adică mai puține returnări) și vânzări mai mari (adică clienți vechi și clienți noi);

**c)recunoașterea oportunităților** - ajută managerii să identifice și să izoleze sursa de potențială dezvoltare, cum ar fi o nouă piață de desfacere;

**d)gestionarea incertitudinii și complexității** - menține organizația axată pe strategia sa și îi ajută pe manageri să anticipeze și să detecteze aspectele negative și să răspundă oportun la aspectele pozitive;

**e)descentralizarea procesului de luare a deciziilor** - permite organizației să reacționeze mai bine prin transferarea procesului de luare a deciziilor către acei responsabili care sunt mai apropiați de clienți și de zonele de incertitudine din organizație.

Cu toate acestea, **controlul determină costuri suplimentare la nivelul organizației:**

**-costuri financiare** - directe (de exemplu, plata unui auditor) și indirecte (de exemplu, persoane angajate permanent pentru controlul intern al calității);

**-costuri ale reputației** - costurile necorporale asociate cu orice formă de control (de exemplu, relații deteriorate cu angajații sau reputație pătată față de investitori ori față de organisme de stat în cazul unui control soldat cu constatarea de deficiențe);

<sup>12</sup>POCA, Suport de curs privind managementul performanței la nivel strategic elaborat în cadrul proiectului cofinanțat din Fondul Social European prin Programul Operațional Capacitate Administrativă 2014 – 2020, intitulat „Planificare strategică și management al performanței la nivelul Municipiului Arad prin instrumentul Balanced Scorecard – Tablou de bord echilibrat”, cod MYSMIS 120637, cod SIPOCA 86 pp.14 - 18;

<sup>13</sup>Kuratko D.F., Ireland R.D., Hornsby J.S., *Improving firm performance through entrepreneurial actions: Acordids corporate entrepreneurship strategy*, Academy of Management Executiv, vol. 15, nr. 4, 2001, pp. 60-71;

-**costuri de reactivitate** - decalajele dintre momentul luării deciziei și cel al realizării acțiunilor necesare pentru punerea ei în aplicare, din cauza respectării procedurilor de control;

-**costuri asociate cu implementarea slabă a controalelor** - implementarea este incorectă sau introducerea unei noi tehnici de control contravine altor tipuri de control<sup>14</sup>.

## Concluzii

**Performanțele unei organizații și creșterea acestora reprezintă o țintă ce trebuie urmărită continuu**, folosind un set de standarde și indicatori de performanță specifici, dar cheie, în funcție de mediul în care activează organizația (administrativ sau de afaceri), care să fie măsurabili și utilizând metode modern de evaluare (cum ar fi: **Măsurarea Strategică și Tehnică de Raportare – SMART, Balanced Scorecard și Fundația Europeană pentru Managementul Calității (EFQM) cu Modelul de excelență**); în acest efort și auditul intern joacă un rol important;

Foarte importanți în evaluarea performanțelor sunt indicatorii cu ajutorul cărora se cuantifică rezultatele organizațiilor economice sau publice ce se supun evaluării, indicatori care să fie reprezentativi, viabili, preciși și care să conducă la ameliorarea rezultatelor obținute de aceste entități.

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## **CURTEA DE CONTURI A ROMÂNIEI – INSTITUȚIE DE REFERINȚĂ PENTRU AUDITUL EXTERN ÎN INSTITUȚIILE PUBLICE**

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**Abstract:** Comunicarea noastră a apărut din necesitatea de a reliefa coordonatele definitorii ale unei instituții de importanță majoră pentru bunul mers al societății – Curtea de Conturi a României. Cercetarea noastră a fost focalizată pe următoarele 3 aspecte: 1)concepte de referință din domeniul auditului public extern și atribuțiile Curții de Conturi a României în exercitarea atribuțiilor pe linia unui asemenea tip de audit; 2)rolul Curții de Conturi ca organism suprem de control financiar ulterior și audit extern în România; 3)tipuri de misiuni de audit public extern pe care le efectuează Curtea de Conturi a României în conexiune cu Curtea Europeană de Conturi la entități publice și private din țara noastră care folosesc fonduri publice. În final am prezentat unele concluzii rezultate în urma cercetării.

**Cuvinte-cheie:** Curtea de Conturi; auditul public extern; auditul performanței; auditorul public extern; controlorii financiari; procuror financiar; obiectivul auditului financiar;

### **1.Concepte de referință din domeniul auditului public extern și atribuțiile Curții de Conturi a României în exercitarea atribuțiilor pe linia unui asemenea tip de audit**

**Curtea de Conturi** exercită controlul asupra modului de formare, de administrare și de întrebuințare a resurselor financiare ale statului și ale sectorului public. Funcția de control a acestui organism se realizează prin proceduri de audit public extern prevăzute în standardele proprii de audit, elaborate în conformitate cu standardele de audit internaționale general acceptate.

**Curtea de Conturi** își desfășoară activitatea în mod autonom, în conformitate cu dispozițiile prevăzute în Constituție și legea specifică, și reprezintă România în calitate sa de instituție supremă de audit în organizațiile internaționale ale acestor instituții<sup>15</sup>.

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<sup>15</sup>Art.1,alin.(1),(2) și (3) din Legea nr. 94 din 1992 privind organizarea și funcționarea Curții de Conturi, republicată cu modificările și completările ulterioare, publicată în Monitorul Oficial al României, Partea I, nr. 238 din 03.04.2014;

În activitatea sa și a auditorilor publici externi care o compun, **Curtea de Conturi** operează cu o serie de concepte, din care le-am selectat pe cele mai reprezentative, cum ar fi: **auditor public extern; audit public extern; audit al performanței; standard de audit; entitate auditată**<sup>16</sup>.

**Auditorul public extern**<sup>17</sup> îndeplinește o funcție de interes public, de carieră, cu un statut special conferit de nivelul și complexitatea atribuțiilor, precum și de răspunderile, riscurile, incompatibilitățile și interdicțiile care decurg din aplicarea Legii nr. 94/1992, republicată, și din regulamentele Curții de Conturi, elaborate în baza legii.

Membrilor Curții de Conturi, inclusiv auditorilor publici externi ai acestui organism, în afara atribuțiilor pe care le au potrivit legislației specifice, li se mai permite să desfășoare activități didactice și de cercetare științifică<sup>18</sup>.

**Audit public extern** constituie activitatea de audit desfășurată de Curtea de Conturi care cuprinde, în principal, auditul financiar și auditul performanței.

**Audit al performanței** semnifică evaluarea independentă a modului în care o entitate, un program, o activitate sau o operațiune funcționează din punctele de vedere ale eficienței, economicității și eficacității.

**Standardele de audit** reprezintă setul de concepte, principii directoare, proceduri și metode pe baza cărora auditorul public determină ansamblul etapelor și procedurilor de verificare, care să permită atingerea obiectivului fixat.

Entitatea auditată este autoritatea publică, compania/societatea națională, regia autonomă, societatea reglementată de Legea societăților nr. 31/1990, republicată, cu modificările și completările ulterioare, la care statul sau o unitate administrativ-teritorială deține, singur sau împreună, integral sau mai mult de jumătate din capitalul social.

**Curtea de Conturi** exercită funcția de control asupra modului de formare, de administrare și de întrebuințare a resurselor financiare ale statului și ale sectorului public, furnizând Parlamentului și, respectiv, unităților administrativ-teritoriale rapoarte privind utilizarea și administrarea acestora, în conformitate cu principiile legalității, regularității, economicității, eficienței și eficacității<sup>19</sup>.

## 2. Rolul Curții de Conturi ca organism suprem de control financiar ulterior și audit extern în România

**Funcționarea Curții de Conturi este guvernată de principiul autonomiei. Sunt două situații de limitare a autonomiei Curții de Conturi:** 1) Parlamentul poate opri controalele inițiate de Curtea de Conturi din oficiu în cazul depășirii competențelor stabilite de lege; 2) Hotărârile Camerei Deputaților sau ale Senatului, prin care se cere Curții de Conturi efectuarea unor controale, sunt obligatorii dacă solicitarea intră în cadrul competenței Curții<sup>20</sup>.

**În baza principiului autonomiei, Curtea de Conturi:** 1) își întocmește bugetul propriu, care este prevăzut distinct în bugetul de stat; 2) poate participa la activitatea organismelor internaționale de specialitate și poate deveni membră a acestora; 3) membrii săi sunt independenți;

<sup>16</sup>Concepte preluate din art.2 din Legea nr. 94 din 1992;

<sup>17</sup>Art. 2 din Statutul auditorului public extern din cadrul Curții de Conturi, publicat pe site-ul Curții de Conturi, [www.curteadeconturi.ro](http://www.curteadeconturi.ro);

<sup>18</sup>A se vedea art.1 alin. 3<sup>1</sup> din Legea nr. 145 din 2017 pentru modificarea și completarea Legii nr. 94/1992 privind organizarea și funcționarea Curții de Conturi, publicată în Monitorul Oficial al României, Partea I, nr. 491/28.06.2017;

<sup>19</sup>Art.21 din Legea nr. 94 din 1992;

<sup>20</sup>Legea nr. 94/1992 privind organizarea și funcționarea Curții de Conturi, republicată în Monitorul Oficial al României, Partea I, nr. 282 din 29.04.2009, cu modificările și completările ulterioare;



4)membrii săi sunt numiți de Parlament; 5)inițiază acțiuni de control din oficiu, ea decide autonom asupra programului său de control; 6)are autonomie în recrutarea personalului de control; 7)are acces neîngrădit la informațiile și la documentele necesare exercitării atribuțiilor sale<sup>21</sup>.

**Controlul curții** urmărește respectarea legilor în gestionarea mijloacelor materiale și bănești. Ea analizează calitatea gestiunii financiare din punctul de vedere al economicității, eficienței și eficacității.

**Curtea de Conturi** a îndeplinit și atribuții jurisdicționale până în octombrie 2003. Prin Legea nr. 429/2003 de revizuire a Constituției și Ordonanța de Urgență a Guvernului nr. 117/2003<sup>22</sup>, activitatea jurisdicțională și personalul Curții de Conturi care efectua activități jurisdicționale a fost preluată de instanțele judecătorești.

**Activitatea de control a Curții de Conturi** constă în verificarea legalității nașterii, modificării și stingerii raporturilor juridice financiare în scopul aplicării corecte a legislației financiare. Curtea de Conturi exercită funcția de control financiar ulterior asupra gestionării bugetului public, formarea, administrarea și întrebuințarea fondurilor bănești, dar și asupra cauzelor care conduc la deficiențe, atât în ce privește bugetul de stat, bugetul asigurărilor sociale de stat și bugetele locale, cât și fondurile cu destinație specială, de tezaur și din împrumuturi publice, utilizarea alocărilor bugetare pentru investiții, a subvențiilor și transferurilor din bugetul de stat, precum și utilizarea fondurilor puse la dispoziția României de Uniunea Europeană<sup>23</sup>.

**Personalul Curții de Conturi e alcătuit din consilieri de conturi.** Consilierii de conturi, în număr de 18, sunt membri ai Curții de Conturi cu statut de demnitari de stat. Ei alcătuiesc plenul Curții de Conturi. Consilierii de conturi sunt numiți de parlament pentru un mandat de nouă ani. Mandatul nu poate fi prelungit sau înnoit.

**Membrii Curții de Conturi** sunt independenți în exercitarea mandatului lor și inamovibili pe toată durata acestuia. Ei sunt supuși incompatibilităților prevăzute de lege pentru judecători. Curtea de Conturi se înnoiește cu o treime din consilierii de conturi numiți de parlament, din trei în trei ani, în condițiile prevăzute de legea organică a Curții. Revocarea membrilor Curții de Conturi se face de către parlament<sup>24</sup>.

**Controlorii financiari** sunt numiți de președintele Curții de Conturi. Personalul cu funcții de conducere se numește de Comitetul de Conducere, iar personalul de specialitate se numește de președintele Curții de Conturi. Personalul cu funcții de conducere și cel de specialitate sunt supuse incompatibilităților prevăzute de statutul funcționarilor publici și de Codul etic al profesiei.

Cât privește **atribuțiile Curții de Conturi**, prin legea de organizare și funcționare sunt stabilite atribuțiile de control, obiectivele și persoanele care sunt supuse controlului obligatoriu al Curții de Conturi. Atribuțiile de control se exercită asupra modului de formare, de administrare și de întrebuințare a resurselor financiare ale sectorului public, precum și a modului de gestionare a patrimoniului public și privat al statului și al unităților administrativ-teritoriale, de către persoanele juridice de drept public, urmărindu-se concordanța dintre starea reală constatată de controlorii financiari și situația prescrisă de lege.

Dintre **atribuțiile Curții de Conturi** se desprinde fără echivoc importanța acestei instituții a statului de drept în prevenirea și identificarea fraudei și corupției<sup>25</sup>. Această formă de control are

<sup>21</sup>Șaguna D.D, *Drept financiar și fiscal*, Editura All Beck, București, 2003, p. 213;

<sup>22</sup>O.U.G. nr. 117/2003 privind preluarea activității jurisdicționale și a personalului instanțelor Curții de Conturi de către instanțele judecătorești, publicată în M.O. nr. 752 din 27.10.2003;

<sup>23</sup>Șaguna D.D, op. cit., pg. 214;

<sup>24</sup>Constituția României, republicată republicată în Monitorul Oficial al României, Partea I, nr. 767 din 31 octombrie 2003;

<sup>25</sup>Szabo I.A.,2003, *Prevenirea și identificarea fraudei și corupției*, revista “Controlul economic financiar” nr. 7/2003, pp. 20 -21.



și o sarcină pedagogică pentru că formează, consolidează și dezvoltă deontologia profesională a celor ce desfășoară activități legate de gestionarea banului public.

**Actiunile de verificare ale Curții de Conturi se concretizează în:** a) acțiunile de control la instituțiile publice, pe parcursul execuției bugetare și pentru perioadele expirate; b) misiuni de audit financiar, în conformitate cu prevederile art. 26 din lege, asupra conturilor de execuție ale bugetului general consolidat; c) misiuni de audit al performanței utilizării resurselor financiare ale statului și ale sectorului public, atât la finalul, cât și pe parcursul desfășurării proiectelor, programelor, proceselor sau activităților supuse verificării.

**Raporturile juridice supuse controlului financiar** sunt analizate sub două aspecte: 1) aspect juridic, care vizează legalitatea raporturilor juridice în cele trei ipoteze: al încheierii, modificării și încetării lor; 2) aspectul economic, care urmărește respectarea principiilor de economicitate, eficacitate și eficiență în realizarea operațiunilor economice.

**Controlului financiar exercitat de Curtea de Conturi îi sunt supuse următoarele categorii de entități patrimoniale**<sup>26</sup>: 1) statul și unitățile administrativ-teritoriale, în calitate de persoane juridice de drept public cu serviciile și instituțiile lor publice, autonome sau neautonome; 2) Banca Națională a României; 3) regiile autonome; 4) societățile la care statul, unitățile administrativ-teritoriale, instituțiile publice sau regiile autonome dețin singure sau împreună, integral sau mai mult de jumătate din capitalul social; 5) organismele autonome de asigurări sociale sau de altă natură, care gestionează bunuri, valori sau fonduri într-un regim obligatoriu, în condițiile în care prin lege sau prin statutele lor se prevede acest lucru; 6) beneficiarii de garanții guvernamentale pentru credite, de subvenții sau de alte forme de sprijin financiar din partea statului, a unităților administrativ-teritoriale sau a instituțiilor publice.

**Curtea de Conturi** exercită controlul exclusiv asupra execuției bugetelor Administrației Prezidențiale, Guvernului, Înaltei Curți de Casație și Justiție, Curții Constituționale, Consiliului Legislativ, Avocatului Poporului, Camerei Deputaților și Senatului.

**Controlul exercitat de Curtea de Conturi** este un *control ulterior* care se efectuează după ce operațiunile au avut loc urmărind respectarea dispozițiilor legale privind gestionarea și folosirea fondurilor publice.

**El are următoarele caracteristici:** 1) este un control ulterior, exercitându-se asupra actelor și operațiunilor economico-financiare după ce acestea au fost executate; 2) este un control financiar, în sensul că atribuțiile de control vizează creditele bugetare sub aspectul legalității formării, repartizării, întrebuințării și stingerii acestora; 3) este un control extern, sfera activității sale bazându-se pe documentele existente la alți agenți economici; 4) este un control total, urmărindu-se toate aspectele pe care legea le impune; 5) este un control periodic, deoarece se face la o dată stabilită prin programul anual de control al Curții de Conturi; 6) este un control de execuție, prin el urmărindu-se modul de ducere la îndeplinire a dispozițiilor legale<sup>27</sup>.

**În sfera controlului financiar ulterior, sunt cuprinse atribuțiile de verificare a:** 1) contului general anual de execuție a bugetului de stat; 2) contului anual de execuție a bugetului asigurărilor sociale de stat; 3) contului anual de execuție a bugetelor locale; 4) contului anual de execuție a bugetelor fondurilor speciale; 5) contului fondurilor de tezaur; 6) contului anual al datoriei publice a statului și unităților administrativ-teritoriale și al situației garanțiilor guvernamentale și ale unităților administrativ-teritoriale pentru credite interne și externe primite de alte persoane juridice.

**Controlul conturilor anuale de execuție și descărcarea de gestiune** sunt de competență exclusivă a Curții de Conturi. Curtea este competentă să exercite controlul financiar asupra tuturor raporturilor juridice stabilite de lege în sarcina sa.

<sup>26</sup> Legea nr. 94/1992 privind organizarea și funcționarea Curții de Conturi, republicată cu modificările și completările ulterioare;

<sup>27</sup> Șaguna D.D., *Op. cit.*, pg. 231;

Pe lângă cele menționate mai sus, **Curtea de Conturi** are posibilitatea, în baza programului propriu de control, să verifice pe parcursul exercițiului bugetar și la finele acestuia, în baza valorii minime a operațiunilor stabilite anual pentru fiecare operațiune, **următoarele operațiuni privitoare la:** 1)conturile gestiunilor publice de bani, alte valori sau bunuri materiale publice; conturile execuției de casă a bugetelor publice; conturile de execuție a subvențiilor și alocațiilor bugetare pentru investiții acordate altor beneficiari decât instituțiile publice; 2)bilanțurile și conturile de execuție ale ordonatorilor de credite bugetare și ale administratorilor care gestionează fonduri ce se supun regimului bugetului public; 3)operațiuni referitoare la mărirea sau micșorarea datoriei publice a statului.

**În îndeplinirea atribuțiilor de control financiar, Curtea de Conturi dispune de prerogative speciale:** 1)obligativitatea tuturor celor care sunt supuși controlului de a transmite actele, documentele solicitate la termenele stabilite de Curte, precum și de a asigura accesul în sediile lor, dacă se hotărăște de către Curtea de Conturi efectuarea controlului sau a cercetării la fața locului; 2)accesul neîngrădit la documentele și informațiile necesare exercitării funcțiilor de control; 3)poate să solicite organelor de control financiar și ale Băncii Naționale a României verificarea cu prioritate a unor obiective în cadrul atribuțiilor lor legale; 4)poate să ceară și să utilizeze, pentru exercitarea funcțiilor sale de control rapoartele celorlalte organisme cu atribuții de control financiar<sup>28</sup>.

**Activitatea de control financiar și audit a Curții de Conturi se desfășoară pe baza programului anual de control aprobat de plenul Curții de Conturi structurat pe domenii de activitate, pe acțiuni și perioade de efectuare a controlului.**

În acest program se pot nominaliza și entitățile publice ce urmează să fie verificate. Programul de control are în vedere competențele, atribuțiile și obiectivele ce îi revin în baza prevederilor legale<sup>29</sup>.

**La elaborarea programului de control financiar se au în vedere**<sup>30</sup>: a)cuprinderea ordonatorilor principali de credite în programul de verificare care se face în funcție de constatările rezultate în urma verificărilor anterioare, precum și de existența unor indicii care să justifice necesitatea efectuării controlului; b)ordonatorii secundari și terțiari de credite vor fi selecționați în funcție de programarea la ordonatorii principali de credite și numai după o documentare și consultare a situațiilor financiare. Sunt incluse în program numai acele instituții la care au fost constatate în anii anteriori importante abateri de la disciplina bugetară și financiar-contabilă, ori când există sesizări privind existența unor abateri financiare; c)nominalizarea în programul de control a celorlalte instituții se va face pe baza unor documente care să justifice includerea lor în program.

**Conducătorii structurilor de control financiar al Curții de Conturi** au obligația să urmărească realizarea programului de control la termenele și în condițiile stabilite prin program.

Semestrial și ori de câte ori este nevoie, direcțiile sectoriale și direcțiile de control financiar ulterior teritoriale raportează la Divizia de coordonare modul de realizare a programului de control pe perioada expirată, cumulată de la începutul anului.

<sup>28</sup>Norme de control financiar ulterior extern și de valorificare a constatărilor aprobate de plenul Curții de Conturi prin Hotărârea nr. 33 din 27.02.2003;

<sup>29</sup>Norme de control financiar ulterior extern și de valorificare a constatărilor aprobate de plenul Curții de Conturi prin Hotărârea nr. 33 din 27.02.2003;

<sup>30</sup>Norme de control financiar ulterior extern și de valorificare a constatărilor aprobate de plenul Curții de Conturi prin Hotărârea nr. 33 din 27.02.2003;

**Activitățile de control financiar ulterior extern** se desfășoară pe baza programului de control aprobat și a tematicilor elaborate de diviziile sectoriale pe categorii de persoane juridice, domenii sau sectoare de activitate<sup>31</sup>.

**Directorii direcțiilor de control din cadrul diviziilor de specialitate și directorii direcțiilor de control financiar ulterior teritoriale asigură:** 1) desemnarea controlorilor financiari care urmează să efectueze verificările asupra obiectivelor cuprinse în programul de control; 2) urmărirea și coordonarea acțiunilor de control pe parcursul desfășurării acestora; 3) prelucrarea reglementărilor legale specifice acțiunilor de control care urmează să se realizeze.

**La entitățile cu volum mare de operațiuni verificarea** se poate realiza de regulă, prin sondaj, după alegerea unui eșantion reprezentativ din cadrul fiecărui obiectiv pe baza analizei riscului asociat entității respective.

**În cazul în care conturile prezentate nu întrunesc condițiile care să facă posibilă verificarea lor, controlorii financiari le restituie titularilor acestora.** Aceste situații vor fi consemnate într-o notă de constatare în care se va înscrie în mod obligatoriu și termenul fixat persoanei juridice pentru refacerea sau completarea contului de execuție.

**În cazul în care titularul contului nu se conformează acestei măsuri, completarea sau refacerea conturilor se va face de un expert contabil numit de Curtea de Conturi, dar pe cheltuiala titularului de conturi.** Refacerea conturilor de către experți se face pe baza obiectivelor propuse de controlorii financiari și aprobate de directorul direcției de control din cadrul diviziei/direcției de control financiar ulterior teritoriale care va cuprinde lucrările de refacere a conturilor și termenul de predare a acestora.

**În urma verificării conturilor de execuție bugetară, în funcție de natura constatărilor cuprinse în raportul de control întocmit în concordanță cu competențele Curții de Conturi, controlorii financiari vor propune:** 1) descărcarea de gestiune; 2) sesizarea tribunalului pentru fapte deosebit de grave de gestiune de fonduri publice; 3) sesizarea directorului pentru a dispune măsuri în vederea înlăturării abaterilor sau neregulilor cu caracter financiar-contabil constatate; 4) în cazul în care există pericolul înstrăinării bunurilor ce aparțin persoanelor răspunzătoare, se poate solicita tribunalului competent încuviințare pentru luarea măsurilor asiguratorii în limita valorii prejudiciului constatat.

**Actele de control** se vor depune și înregistra la secția de control financiar ulterior/direcția de control financiar ulterior teritorială în „**Registrul special privind evidența actelor de control**”. În cazul formulării de obiecții de către reprezentanții persoanelor juridice controlate după semnarea și înregistrarea actelor de control sediile instituțiilor de control, controlorii financiari vor întocmi o notă conținând poziția motivată legal, referitoare la obiecțiile în cauză.

**Propunerile privind descărcarea de gestiune, sesizarea tribunalului, încuviințarea pentru luarea măsurilor asiguratorii** vor fi examinate de un complet constituit la nivelul secției de control financiar ulterior/direcțiile de control financiar ulterior teritoriale.

**La nivel teritorial, directorul direcției de control financiar ulterior** în 3 zile lucrătoare de la primirea raportului de control sau, după caz, a raportului de control, intermediar, stabilește data ședinței și componența completului. Completul se constituie din directorul direcțiilor de control financiar ulterior teritoriale, directorul adjunct sau șeful de serviciu și un controlor financiar, altul decât cel care a făcut controlul.

**În competența completului stabilit la nivelul direcțiilor de control financiar ulterior teritoriale** intră examinarea rapoartelor de control întocmite la ordonatorii de credite ai bugetelor locale, ordonatorii secundari și terțiari ai bugetului de stat, bugetului asigurarilor sociale de stat și

<sup>31</sup>Norme de control financiar ulterior extern și de valorificare a constatărilor aprobate de plenul Curții de Conturi prin Hotărârea nr. 33 din 27.02.2003;

ai unităților militare aparținând Ministerului Apărării Naționale și Ministerului Administrației și Internelor.

**Programarea ședințelor completului se comunică Parchetului de pe lângă Camerele de Conturi teritoriale pentru desemnarea procurorilor financiari în vederea participării la ședințe.** Aceștia li se transmite și raportul supus examinării. În cursul examinării raportului, completul poate cere lămuriri titularului de cont sau altor persoane, inclusive celor menționate în cursul raportului, care pot da relații în vederea lămuririi unor situații și formării de către complet a unor opinii cu privire la măsurile de soluționare.

**Asupra măsurilor propuse de controlori, completul pronunță o încheiere prin care se poate dispune**<sup>32</sup>: 1)descărcarea de gestiune în cazul în care sunt întocmite condițiile pentru aceasta;<sup>33</sup>; 2)sesizarea tribunalului pentru stabilirea răspunderii juridice în cazul constatării unor prejudicii; 3)restituirea raportului pentru completare sau refacere, stabilind și un termen organului de control pentru realizarea acestei operațiuni; 4)sesizarea organului de urmărire penală competent în cazul în care, în urma examinării raportului, a actelor și documentelor prezentate, se constată săvârșirea unor fapte care, potrivit legii penale, constituie infracțiuni; 5)suspendarea examinării raportului până la soluționarea cauzei de către organele competente în situația în care reprezentanții legali ai entităților controlate se află în cercetare penală în cauze în curs de soluționare la tribunal și au legătură cu cele consemnate în raport.

**Hotărârile completului** se iau cu majoritatea membrilor acestuia. Opiniile separate față de unele concluzii conținute în încheiere vor fi motivate într-o notă ce va reprezenta anexa încheierii.

**Încheierea** prin care s-a dispus descărcarea de gestiune sau sesizarea tribunalului se comunică părților interesate și procurorului financiar. Împotriva încheierii prin care s-a dispus descărcarea de gestiune poate fi introdusă plângerea la tribunal în termen de 30 de zile de la comunicare. Pentru motive întemeiate, în termen de un an de la pronunțarea încheierii, procedura examinării contului poate fi redeschisă<sup>34</sup>.

**Descărcarea de gestiune nu constituie temei de exonerare de răspundere juridică. În urma verificărilor efectuate pe parcursul execuției bugetare la instituțiile publice și la celelalte persoane juridice, în funcție de natura constatărilor cuprinse în procesul-verbal de constatare, controlorii financiari pot propune, în nota întocmită cu propuneri de valorificare**<sup>35</sup>:

1)înaintarea procesului-verbal de constatare, procurorului general financiar/ procurorului financiar de pe lângă Camera de Conturi, când au fost constatate prejudicii și/sau abateri cu caracter financiar-contabil și/sau fapte care constituie infracțiuni;

2)solicitarea președintelui secției de control financiar ulterior/directorului direcției de control financiar teritoriale pentru emiterea deciziei în cazul constatări de abateri sau nereguli cu caracter financiar-contabil.

**Procurorul financiar** poate dispune: 1)clasarea; 2)sesizarea organelor de urmărire penală când sunt constatate fapte care, potrivit legii, sunt considerate infracțiuni; 3)sesizarea tribunalului pentru stabilirea răspunderii juridice în cazul constatări de fapte prin care au fost cauzate prejudicii, aplicarea unor amenzi pentru abateri cu caracter financiar; dispunerea măsurilor de recuperare a sumelor datorate bugetului de stat, bugetului asigurărilor sociale de stat, bugetului unităților administrativ-teritoriale.

<sup>32</sup>Norme de control financiar ulterior extern și de valorificare a constatărilor aprobate de plenul Curții de Conturi prin Hotărârea nr. 33 din 27.02.2003;

<sup>33</sup>Ispir O. , 2004, *Descărcarea de gestiune a ordonatorilor de credite*, în revista "Controlul economic financiar" nr, 7 din 2004;

<sup>34</sup>Legea nr. 94/1992 privind organizarea și funcționarea Curții de Conturi, republicată;

<sup>35</sup>Norme de control financiar ulterior extern și de valorificare a constatărilor aprobate de plenul Curții de Conturi prin Hotărârea nr. 33 din 27.02.2003;

În cazul în care procurorul financiar a dispus soluția de clasare, organul de control financiar va analiza motivele clasării și, în cazuri justificate, împotriva soluției procurorului financiar, va formula, în termen de 30 de zile de la comunicare cerere de reexaminare la Curtea de Conturi.

**Măsurile propuse pentru înlăturarea abaterilor sau neregulilor cu caracter financiar-contabil** atât în cadrul verificării conturilor anuale de execuție a bugetelor, cât și cu ocazia verificării pe parcursul execuției bugetare la instituțiile publice și la celelalte persoane juridice se iau prin decizie emisă de președintele secției de control financiar ulterior ori, după caz, de directorul direcției de control financiar ulterior teritoriale.

**Prin decizie, directorul poate dispune:** 1) suspendarea aplicării unor măsuri care contravin reglementărilor legale din domeniul financiar-contabil sau fiscal; 2) blocarea fondurilor bugetare sau speciale atunci când se constată utilizarea nelegală sau inefficientă a acestora; 3) înlăturarea neregulilor contabile în activitatea financiar-contabilă, corectarea bilanțurilor contabile, a conturilor de profit și pierdere, a conturilor de execuție.

Împotriva deciziei, persoanele interesate pot face întâmpinare în termen de cinci zile lucrătoare la tribunalul județean. Întâmpinarea nu suspendă executarea deciziei. Întâmpinarea se judecă de urgență, iar instanța poate amâna motivat executarea măsurilor decise, până la pronunțarea hotărârii. Împotriva hotărârii de suspendare persoanele interesate pot declara recurs în termen de cinci zile de la comunicare<sup>36</sup>.

**În continuare ne vom referi la auditul public extern exercitat de Curtea de Conturi la instituțiile publice.**

**În baza art. 26 din lege, Curtea de Conturi exercită activitatea de audit financiar asupra conturilor de execuție ale bugetului general consolidat, respectiv:** a) contul general anual de execuție a bugetului de stat; b) contul anual de execuție a bugetului asigurărilor sociale de stat; c) conturile anuale de execuție a fondurilor speciale; d) conturile anuale de execuție a bugetelor locale, ale municipiilor, ale orașelor și comunelor; e) contul anual de execuție al Trezoreriei Statului; f) conturile anuale de execuție a bugetelor instituțiilor publice autonome; g) conturile anuale de execuție a bugetelor instituțiilor publice finanțate integral sau parțial de la bugetul de stat, de la bugetul asigurărilor sociale de stat, de la bugetele locale și de la bugetele fondurilor speciale, după caz; h) conturile anuale de execuție a bugetelor instituțiilor finanțate integral din venituri propria; i) contul general anual al datoriei publice a statului; j) conturile anuale de execuție a bugetului fondurilor externe; k) alte conturi de execuție a unor bugete prevăzute de lege.

Prin activitatea de audit financiar, Curtea de Conturi urmărește dacă situațiile financiare ale entităților publice sunt complete, reale și conforme cu legile și reglementările în vigoare, furnizând, în acest sens, o opinie.

**În cadrul competențelor sale, Curtea de Conturi efectuează audit financiar la următoarele categorii de entități publice:** a) statul și unitățile administrativ - teritoriale, în calitate de persoane juridice de drept public, cu serviciile și instituțiile lor publice, autonome sau neautonome; b) organismele autonome de asigurări sociale sau de altă natură, care gestionează bunuri, valori sau fonduri, într-un regim legal obligatoriu, în condițiile în care, prin lege sau prin statutele lor, se prevede acest lucru.

**Obiectivul auditului financiar** este acela de a obține asigurarea că situațiile financiare sunt întocmite, sub toate aspectele semnificative, în conformitate cu cadrul de raportare financiară aplicabil entităților publice din România și respectă principiile legalității și regularității.

Responsabilitatea adoptării politicilor contabile corespunzătoare, a menținerii unui control intern adecvat și a efectuării de prezentări corecte în situațiile financiare revin entității publice.

<sup>36</sup> Legea nr. 94/1992 privind organizarea și funcționarea Curții de Conturi, republicată cu modificările și completările ulterioare.



Auditorul trebuie să planifice și să efectueze auditul astfel încât să obțină o asigurare rezonabilă privind existența sau absența unor erori semnificative în situațiile financiare.

**În auditarea conturilor de execuție, Curtea de Conturi urmărește, în principal:**

1) exactitatea și realitatea datelor reflectate în situațiile financiare; 2) legalitatea stabilirii și încasării veniturilor statului, unităților administrative - teritoriale, asigurărilor sociale de stat și ale instituțiilor publice finanțate integral sau parțial din venituri proprii; 3) angajarea, lichidarea, ordonanțarea, plata și înregistrarea cheltuielilor, conform reglementărilor legale și în concordanță cu prevederile legii bugetare; 4) autorizarea și legalitatea modificărilor aduse prevederilor inițiale ale bugetelor publice; 5) acordarea de la buget sau din fonduri speciale a subvențiilor și alocațiilor pentru investiții și utilizarea lor conform destinațiilor stabilite; 6) contractarea împrumuturilor, rambursarea ratelor scadente ale acestora și plata dobânzilor aferente; 7) creanțele și obligațiile statului și ale unităților administrativ-teritoriale; protejarea activelor; 8) concesiunea sau închirierea de bunuri proprietate publică și concesiunea de servicii cu caracter public; 9) modul de gestionare a mijloacelor materiale și bănești și asigurarea integrității activelor.

**Situațiile financiare supuse auditului financiar** sunt următoarele: bilantul, contul de rezultat patrimonial (situația veniturilor, finanțărilor și cheltuielilor), situația fluxurilor de trezorerie, situația modificărilor în structura activelor/capitalurilor, anexe la situația financiară care include politici contabile și note explicative, contul de execuție bugetară.

**Curtea de Conturi** certifică conform prevederilor legii, acuratețea și veridicitatea datelor din conturile de execuție verificate, Certificarea contului de execuție nu constituie temei pentru exonerare de răspundere juridică a entității auditate.

Pentru motive bine întemeiate, în termen de un an de la data la care s-a certificat contul de execuție, procedura examinării contului poate fi redeschisă.

**Conturile de execuție și situațiile financiare supuse auditului** trebuie să îndeplinească condițiile prevăzute de lege, pentru a face posibilă auditarea lor. În cazul în care conturile de execuție prezentate nu întrunesc condițiile care să facă posibilă auditarea lor, auditorii publici externi restituie documentele titularilor conturilor, consemnând aceasta situație într-un proces-verbal de constatare în care se va înscris, obligatoriu, și termenul pentru refacerea sau completarea conturilor.

**Refacerea sau completarea conturilor de execuție se dispune prin Decizie. În această situație misiunea de audit se suspendă până la refacerea/completarea conturilor, fapt ce se aduce la cunoștință entității auditate:** a) planificarea auditului financiar; b) execuția auditului financiar; c) raportarea.

Misiunile de audit financiar se efectuează conform Programului anual de activitate, aprobat de plenul Curții de Conturi. Entitățile cuprinse în Planul anual de activitate sunt notificate asupra misiunii de audit financiar. Atât procedura de notificare cât și cea de emitere a Delegației misiunii de audit vizează la fel ca și în cazul misiunilor de control.

**În timpul realizării misiunilor de audit auditorii publici externi sunt obligați să întocmească dosare de audit, respectiv:** a) dosarul permanent; b) dosarul curent.

**Pentru efectuarea unei misiuni de audit financiar, auditorii publici externi parcurg aceleași etape ca și în cazul auditului financiar la entitățile economice, etape prevăzute în Standardele Internaționale de Audit, adoptate de către Camera Auditorilor Financieri din România, respectiv: abateri de la legalitate și regularitate sau opinie adversă în cazul constatării de abateri de la legalitate și regularitate care au determinat producerea de prejudicii).**

**În situația exprimării opiniei fără rezerve, având în vedere că situațiile financiare și conturile auditate prezintă o imagine fidelă sub toate aspectele semnificative, Raportul de audit financiar întocmit va sta la baza emiterii Certificatului de conformitate.**



**În cazul exprimării unei opinii adverse** se întocmesc **procesele-verbale de constatare** în care se consemnează abaterile de la legalitate și regularitate, care au determinat producerea unor prejudicii sau fapte pentru care există indicii ca au fost săvârșite cu încălcarea legii penale.

Înainte de finalizarea raportului de audit financiar și a proceselor - verbale de constatare, anexe la raport, are loc **etapa de conciliere**, adică o dezbatere între echipa de audit și conducerea/reprezentanții entității auditate, în vederea clarificării constatărilor cuprinse în proiectul raportului de audit și în proiectul proceselor-verbale de constatare. În situația în care există diferențe de opinii între auditorii publici externi și conducerea entității auditate, care nu pot fi rezolvate, auditorii publici externi vor înscrie în raportul final de audit punctul de vedere al entității auditate, cu motivațiile acestora.

Ca urmare a *constatărilor de abateri*, **Certificatul de conformitate nu va fi emis**, acest lucru fiind adus și la cunoștința organului ierarhic superior căruia, dacă este cazul, i se poate transmite și Decizia care conține cererea de suspendare din funcție a persoanei responsabile, în condițiile legii.

### **3. Tipuri de misiuni de audit public extern pe care le efectuează Curtea de Conturi a României în conexiune cu Curtea Europeană de Conturi la entități publice și private din țara noastră care folosesc fonduri publice**

**Curtea de Conturi** poate exercita auditul performanței asupra gestiunii bugetului general consolidat, precum și a oricăror fonduri publice.

**Curtea de Conturi** efectuează și misiuni de audit financiar și de regularitate. Obiectivul general al unui audit financiar este acela de a furniza asigurarea că situațiile financiare examinate sunt complete și întocmite cu acuratețe, iar operațiile economice s-au efectuat în conformitate cu legile și reglementările relevante în vigoare. Îndeplinirea acestui obiectiv în condiții de certitudine absolută, chiar dacă este posibil de realizat, presupune o activitate costisitoare<sup>37</sup>.

Curtea efectuează auditul financiar asupra conturilor de execuție la toate tipurile de bugete (bugetul de stat; bugetul asigurărilor sociale de stat; bugetul fondurilor speciale; bugetele locale; bugetul Trezoreriei Statului; bugetele instituțiilor publice autonome; alte bugete conform legii finanțelor publice)<sup>38</sup>.

**Planul de audit al unei misiuni efectuate de echipele de auditori publici externi de la Curtea de Conturi pe domeniul financiar** cuprinde următoarele poziții: 1) prezentarea conturilor entității (lista operanților; balanțele de verificare; amendamente în urma prezentării conturilor; referințe la documentele de lucru ale auditorilor și la conturile entității); 2) Secțiunea contului de rezultat patrimonial și fiecare categorie de operațiuni aferente (exemple: venituri, salarii, cheltuieli de funcționare, etc.); 3) Bilanțul și fiecare poziție a acestuia (de exemplu active fixe, cash, debitori, creditori etc.); 4) Pierderile; 5) Auditul intern<sup>39</sup>.

Dorim să mai punctăm câteva aspecte legate de acest audit financiar efectuat de Curtea de Conturi prevăzute în manualul din 2003: 1) în acest tip de audit se evaluează ca riscuri: riscul inerent și riscul de control; 2) în ceea ce privește controlul intern se urmărește evaluarea mediului de control și a procedurilor de control; 3) ca instrumente de lucru se folosește testarea controalelor interne și, îndeosebi, a controalelor cheie dar și chestionare; 4) se prevede de asemenea utilizarea muncii altor auditori și experți (este vorba de auditorii interni, alți auditori externi, experți topografii, evaluatori); în ceea ce privește munca auditorilor interni, auditul financiar executat de profesioniștii Curții de

<sup>37</sup>Curtea de Conturi, *Manual de Audit Financiar și Regularitate. Proiect finanțat de Uniunea Europeană*, București, 2003, pag.5

<sup>38</sup>Art.26 din Legea nr. 94 din 1992;

<sup>39</sup>Pp.97-98 din Manualul de Audit Financiar și Regularitate al Curții de Conturi din 2003;

Conturi examinează dacă se pot baza sau nu pe constatările acestor auditori (examinează statutul și independența auditorilor interni, resursele de care au dispus și calitatea activității desfășurate)<sup>40</sup>.

În ceea ce privește **evaluarea auditului intern de către auditul public extern** dorim să mai adăugăm **o serie de elemente importante dintr-un ghid al Curții de Conturi ceva mai apropiat de momentul analizei noastre și aflat încă în vigoare**<sup>41</sup>.

**Standardul de audit intern ISA 610 (Revizuit) ”Utilizarea activității auditorilor interni”**<sup>42</sup> emis de IFAC și ISSAI 1610, elaborat de INTOSAI, stabilește **obiectivele** auditorului extern atunci când acesta consideră funcția de audit intern a entității ca fiind relevantă, respectiv: a) să stabilească dacă și în ce măsură va utiliza activitatea specifică a auditorilor interni; b) în cazul în care va analiza activitatea specifică a auditorilor interni, să stabilească dacă activitatea este adecvată pentru scopurile auditului.

**Pentru a decide dacă și în ce măsură va utiliza activitatea specifică a auditorilor interni**, auditorul public extern **trebuie să evalueze**: a) obiectivele funcției de audit; b) dacă activitatea auditorilor interni a fost desfășurată cu atenția cuvenită (planificare, supervizare, existența dosarelor de audit etc.); c) dacă relația de comunicare dintre auditorii interni și auditorul public extern este eficientă.

Pentru a determina **gradul de adecvare a activității specifice desfășurate de auditorii interni**, auditorul public extern **trebuie să evalueze dacă**: a) activitatea a fost supervizată, revizuită și documentată în mod corespunzător; b) probele de audit obținute sunt suficiente, corespunzătoare și relevante pentru formularea unor concluzii rezonabile de către auditorii interni; c) cauzele care au condus la neconformitățile sesizate de auditorii interni sunt reale sau sunt doar efectele altor cauze și dacă acestea au fost limitate/eliminate în urma aplicării unor măsuri corective de către management; d) recomandările formulate sunt corespunzătoare în circumstanțele date și dacă rapoartele întocmite sunt în concordanță cu rezultatele activității desfășurate; e) orice constatare raportată de auditorul intern a fost tratată corespunzător de către organizația auditată.

**Auditorul public extern trebuie să analizeze dacă auditul intern a fost concentrat strict pe sfera sa de activitate**, respectiv **pe următoarele aspecte**: 1) activitățile financiare desfășurate de entitatea publică; 2) constituirea veniturilor publice; 3) administrarea patrimoniului public; 4) sistemele de management financiar și control.

Pentru ca auditorul public extern să utilizeze activitatea specifică a auditorilor interni, **trebuie să evalueze și să aplice proceduri de audit cu privire la această activitate**, pentru a stabili gradul de adecvare al acesteia pentru scopul auditului extern.

În acțiunea de evaluare a auditorilor interni de către cei publici externi, **pot să apară 3 situații în acest proces**.

**Prima situație**: în cazul în care auditorul public extern, ca urmare a aplicării procedurilor de audit, evaluează că **auditul intern nu este satisfăcător**, el trebuie să comunice constatările sale conducerii entității.

**A doua situație**: în cazul în care **activitatea auditorilor interni nu acoperă toate domeniile sau nu prezintă încredere**, atunci auditorul public extern trebuie să desfășoare un volum suplimentar de activitate.

**A treia situație**: dacă **auditorul public extern se bazează și utilizează activitatea specifică a auditorilor interni**, în urma evaluării activității acestor profesioniști, acesta trebuie să includă în documentația de audit concluziile formulate cu privire la evaluarea gradului de adecvare a acestei activități și procedurile de audit pe care le-a folosit în acest sens.

<sup>40</sup>Curtea de Conturi, *Manual de Audit Financiar și regularitate. Proiect finanțat de Uniunea Europeană*, București, 2003, pp.45-46;

<sup>41</sup>Curtea de Conturi a României, *”Ghid de evaluare a sistemului de control intern în entitățile publice”*, București, 2011;

<sup>42</sup>Este publicat în IAASB, *Manualul de reglementări contabile, de control al calității, audit, revizuire, alte servicii de asigurare și servicii conexe*, vol.1, Ediția 2018, București, pg.684-707;

**Evaluarea funcției de audit intern influențează concluzia asupra posibilei utilizări a auditului intern în activitatea de verificare a auditorului public extern și prin urmare, modificarea naturii, planificării și întinderii procedurilor ulterioare de audit.**

**Auditorul public extern aplică următoarele proceduri de audit:** 1) observarea procedurilor îndeplinite de auditorii interni etc.; 2) interviuarea în ceea ce privește natura activității auditului intern; 3) analizarea elementelor/documentelor deja examinate de auditorii interni; 4) reeefectuarea unor proceduri de audit realizate de auditorul intern (de exemplu: testarea aceluiași controale, tranzacții sau solduri); 5) aplicarea unor proceduri de audit diferite (de exemplu: testarea controalelor, tranzacțiilor sau soldurilor, altele decât cele testate de auditorii interni); 6) inspectarea foilor de lucru ale auditului intern; 7) alte documente relevante existente în dosarul curent al misiunii de audit intern.

Se poate constata că în comparație cu vechiul manual de audit financiar și regularitate din 2003, ghidul de evaluare a controlului intern din 2011, pe zona evaluării auditului intern este mult mai complet și mai adecvat noilor cerințe și tendințe promovate la nivel internațional și european.

**O altă evaluare pe care o face, de data aceasta un organism suprem de audit intern este evaluarea externă a compartimentelor de audit public intern de către Unitatea Centrală de Armonizare a Auditului Public Intern (UCAAPI), respectiv de către compartimentul/structura de audit de la nivelul entității ierarhic superioare, în baza prevederilor Legii 672/2002 privind auditul public intern, cu modificările și completările ulterioare.** Această evaluare face parte din procesul de monitorizare și evaluare a eficienței globale a programului de calitate, proces impus de standardele elaborate de **Institutul Auditorilor Interni** (*The Institute of Internal Auditors - IIA*).

**Auditorii publici externi trebuie să evalueze, pe baza unei analize adecvate și activitatea desfășurată de către UCAAPI, la nivel central cât și teritorial, precum și cea a Unității Centrale de Armonizare a Sistemelor de Management Financiar și Control (UCASMFC), pentru a stabili dacă acestea funcționează la parametrii solicitați de către Comisia Europeană.** Unitățile centrale de armonizare sunt mecanismele care trebuie să promoveze standardele privind controlul financiar public intern și trebuie să sprijine sistemele de control intern în realizarea rolului lor de a consolida și coordona efortul sectorului public de a îmbunătăți economicitatea, eficiența și eficacitatea în domeniul finanțelor publice.

**O juristă remarcabilă a sintetizat relative recent câteva aprecieri asupra noului sistem de management în instituțiile publice din statele membre UE, pe care le evidențiem în continuare.**

Odată cu intrarea în Uniunea Europeană a noilor țări membre și cu alocarea fondurilor către acestea, s-a dorit respectarea principiilor stabilite în *Cartea Albă a reformelor manageriale în cadrul serviciilor Comisiei Europene* din anul 2000 și implementarea unui cadru unitar de control intern în toate entitățile publice, în vederea analizării modului în care sunt acestea administrate.

În anul 2006, Comisia Europeană a elaborat un document de referință care a avut ca scop principal îndrumarea în implementarea cerințelor de control intern și audit intern, care a fost denumit *Cartea Galbenă a Comisiei Europene, "Bine ați venit în lumea Controlului Financiar Public Intern (CFPI)"*.

**Carte Galbenă, definește CFPI în baza a 3 elemente/piloni: a) răspunderea managerială** (pentru introducerea sistemelor de management financiar și control/control managerial); **b) auditul intern independent funcțional** (introducerea auditului intern în entitățile publice); **c) unitate centrală de armonizare** (UCA) pentru dezvoltarea metodologiilor și standardelor referitoare la primele două elemente (răspunderea managerială și auditul intern).

S-a trecut de la abordarea veche a controlului intern, la una nouă, care presupune transparență și înțelegerea faptului că orice guvern este nevoit să răspundă față de societatea civilă

privitor la desemnarea acestuia pentru colectarea veniturilor și alocarea corectă a cheltuielilor, în numele acesteia<sup>43</sup>.

În baza tuturor recomandărilor venite de la organisme internaționale precum INTOSAI, Comisia Europeană sau SIGMA21, Curtea de Conturi a României a încheiat cu Ministerul Finanțelor Publice un Protocol pentru cooperare și colaborare în procesul de consolidare a sistemului de control financiar public intern.

Un alt Acord de colaborare în procesul de consolidare a funcțiilor de audit intern și audit public extern s-a încheiat între Curtea de Conturi și Asociația Auditorilor Interni din România (AAIR)<sup>44</sup>. Toate aceste acțiuni și multe altele care se impun trebuie să contribuie la coordonarea acțiunilor Curții de Conturi și celorlalte instituții de audit pentru sporire performanțelor entităților auditate.

### Concluzii și propuneri

1)În activitatea sa și a auditorilor publici externi care o compun, Curtea de Conturi operează cu o serie de concepte și instrumente operaționale extrem de importante cum ar fi: **auditor public extern; audit public extern; audit al performanței; standard de audit; entitate auditată; definirea Curții de Conturi a României; autonomia acestei instituții; funcțiile acestei instituții; în ce constă activitatea de control a Curții de Conturi; personalul și membrii Curții de Conturi; controlorii financiari ai acestei instituții; controlul financiar exercitat de Curtea de Conturi; programul de control al Curții de Conturi; actele de control efectuate de Curtea de Conturi; procurorii financiari ai acestei instituții; activitatea de audit financiar exercitat de Curtea de Conturi asupra conturilor de execuție ale bugetului general consolidate și a altor bugete ale instituțiilor publice; dosare de audit ce se întocmesc în astfel de misiuni; misiuni de audit public extern pe care le efectuează Curtea de Conturi a României în conexiune cu Curtea Europeană de Conturi la entități publice și private din țara noastră care folosesc fonduri publice;**

2)Acțiunile de verificare ale Curții de Conturi se concretizează în următoarele tipuri de acțiuni: **a)acțiunile de control la instituțiile publice, pe parcursul execuției bugetare și pentru perioadele expirate; b)misiuni de audit financiar, în conformitate cu prevederile art. 26 din lege, asupra conturilor de execuție ale bugetului general consolidat; c)misiuni de audit al performanței utilizării resurselor financiare ale statului și ale sectorului public, atât la finalul, cât și pe parcursul desfășurării proiectelor, programelor, proceselor sau activităților supuse verificării;**

3)Controlul exercitat de Curtea de Conturi este **un control ulterior** care se efectuează după ce operațiunile au avut loc urmărind respectarea dispozițiilor legale privind gestionarea și folosirea fondurilor publice;

4)În urma verificării conturilor de execuție bugetară, în funcție de natura constatărilor cuprinse în raportul de control întocmit în concordanță cu competențele Curții de Conturi, **controlorii financiari vor propune:** *a)descărcarea de gestiune; b)veniturile statului, unitățile administrativ-teritoriale, asigurările sociale și ale instituțiilor publice au fost stabilite legal și încasate la termenele prevăzute de lege, iar în cazul neîncasării au fost inițiate procedurile prevăzute de lege și urmărită executia acestora; b)sesizarea tribunalului pentru fapte grave de încălcare a legilor privind gestiunea banului public; c)sesizarea directorului pentru a dispune măsuri în vederea înlăturării abaterilor sau neregulilor cu caracter financiar-contabil constatate; d)în cazul în care există pericolul înstrăinării bunurilor ce aparțin persoanelor răspunzătoare, se*

<sup>43</sup>Tăvală Florina Maria, “Aspecte privind armonizarea legislației în domeniul controlului financiar public intern cu legislația și standardele europene și internaționale”, publicat în Universul Juridic nr. 3/2019;

<sup>44</sup>Aspecte preluate parțial din Punctul 6.2 “Evaluarea auditului intern” din lucrarea Curții de Conturi intitulată “Ghid de evaluare a sistemului de control intern în entitățile publice”, București, 2011, pp.44-48;



*poate solicita tribunalului competent încuviințare pentru luarea măsurilor asiguratorii în limita valorii prejudiciului constatat;*

**5)Curtea de Conturi, prin echipele sale de auditori publici externi evaluează atât organismele supreme de audit intern (UCAAPI), dar și structurile subordonate (comitete, direcții, secții și alte compartimente de audit intern) acestora, cu ocazia misiunilor efectuate în entitățile publice din toate structurile guvernamentale, inclusive din armată; UCAAPI evaluează, la rândul său, toate structurile subordonate de audit intern, inclusiv din armată și finalizează această acțiune prin rapoarte anuale sau cu altă frecvență; Colaborarea dintre Curtea de Conturi și AAIR vizează posibilitatea ca auditorii publici externi să poată evalua activitatea compartimentelor de audit intern (existente la societățile comerciale și organizații non-profit care îndeplinesc condițiile de a fi auditate extern<sup>45</sup>), cu ocazia efectuării de misiuni la aceste entități, dacă acestea atrag fonduri publice prin subvenții sau prin implementarea de proiecte cu finanțare europeană și națională.**

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## ABORDĂRI REFERITOARE LA PROBLEMATICI DIN DOMENIUL CONTABILITĂȚII EXAMINATE ÎN MISIUNI SPECIFICE DE CĂTRE AUDITUL PUBLIC INTERN DIN ARMATA ROMÂNIEI

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**Abstract:** Comunicarea noastră am structurat-o pe 3 mari probleme: 1)probleme care sunt evaluate de auditorii interni în misiunile de examinare a activității contabile din instituțiile publice; 2)aspecte metodologice de actualitate privind derularea misiunilor de asigurare de natura celor pe domeniu de activitate financiar-contabilă în entități ale Ministerului Apărării Naționale; 3)elemente de specificitate ale auditului intern când trebuie să efectueze misiuni în entități din Ministerul Apărării Naționale pe domeniul contabilității. În final am formulat o serie de concluzii referitoare la problematica cercetată.



**Cuvinte-cheie:** Unitatea Centrală de Armonizare pentru Auditul Public Intern (UCAAPI); controlul financiar preventiv (CFP); Curtea de Conturi a României; pregătirea misiunii de audit intern; intervenția la fața locului;

## 1. Aspecte care sunt evaluate de auditorii interni în misiunile de examinare a activității contabile din instituțiile publice

Auditorii publici interni, atunci când examinează activitatea de contabilitate publică se concentrează, potrivit ghidului specific elaborate de Unitatea Centrală de Armonizare pentru Auditul Public Intern (UCAAPI) în acest sens, pe următoarele **obiective majore**: 1) organizarea registrelor de contabilitate; 2) conducerea contabilității; 3) conducerea activității financiare; 4) elaborarea bilanțului contabil; 5) elaborarea contului de execuție bugetară; 6) organizarea sistemului de raportare a datelor financiar contabile către management; 7) organizarea și efectuarea controlului financiar preventiv propriu; 8) fiabilitatea sistemului informatic financiar-contabil; 9) organizarea și efectuarea arhivării documentelor financiar-contabile.

În ceea ce privește organizarea și efectuarea controlului financiar preventiv propriu ca parte a controlului intern/managerial efectuat de contabilii șefi și alte persoane din acest domeniu al contabilității, împuternicite să efectueze o astfel de activitate, în ghidul UCAAPI pentru misiunea de contabilitate se prevede ca **auditorii interni să urmărească următoarele aspecte**: 1) cadrul de reglementare al CFP; 2) nominalizarea/retragerea și evaluarea persoanelor care acordă viza de CFP; 3) exercitarea acordării/refuzului vizei de CFP; 4) conducerea Registrului privind operațiunile prezentate la viza de CFP; 5) raportarea trimestrială și anuală a activității de CFP<sup>46</sup>.

Trebuie să subliniem faptul că auditorii interni se axează foarte mult în aceste misiuni de contabilitate pe respectarea cu strictețe a actelor normative ce reglementează activitatea contabilă, pe existența diferitelor instrumente de lucru ajutătoare în această activitate, cum ar fi manuale, proceduri, regulamente și alte instrumente necesare în această activitate pentru operaționalizarea problemelor curente.

**La aceste lucruri se adaugă faptul că auditorii interni utilizează și ei la rândul lor, anumite instrumente de lucru specifice activității lor** cum ar fi identificarea și ierarhizarea riscurilor, liste de verificare, interviuri, chestionare de control intern, teste, foi de lucru (FIAP-uri; FCRI-uri), minute ale ședințelor de deschidere și de închidere a misiunilor, fișe de urmărire și implementare a recomandărilor sau liste de supervizare a documentelor pentru evaluarea activității de contabilitate publică și de control financiar preventiv propriu ca parte a controlului intern/managerial.

Deși aceste instrumente de lucru ale auditorilor interni sunt diverse și complementare inclusiv pentru astfel de misiuni, ele nu pot acoperi întreaga paletă de activități din zona contabilității și controlului financiar, mai ales pe zona operaționalizării în timp și spațiu a diferitelor documente contabile (aceste documente sunt în mare majoritate în format tipizat, sunt elaborate de persoane atât din sfera contabilității, dar și din zona compartimentelor administrative, care gestionează diverse active și valori, au anumite circuite de întocmire, aprobare și arhivare, unele din ele antrenează raportări periodice către eșaloanele superioare în format centralizat și on-line, conform unor sisteme informatice implementate de ministerul de finanțe, cum ar fi FOREXEBUG, situațiile financiare periodice sau declarațiile fiscale).

De aceea auditului intern îi pot scăpa unele aspecte de detaliu a acestei activități de amploare și de o diversitate greu de acoperit, fapt pentru care în procesul acesta se mai omit o serie de lucruri pe care organele de control situate deasupra activității de audit intern (cum ar fi Curtea de Conturi)

<sup>46</sup>UCAAPI, Ghid practice – Misiunea de audit intern privind activitatea financiar – contabilă, București, 2007, pg.10

le sesizează și le recomandă auditorilor interni să le urmărească în misiunile lor viitoare de o asemenea natură.

Acest aspect a fost relevat și de unele analize și raportări efectuate de Curtea de Conturi asupra evaluării activității de audit public intern în ultimii ani. Pentru exemplificare aducem în atenție raportul special realizat de această autoritate de control în 2018 privind activitatea structurilor de audit public intern de la nivelul autorităților administrației publice centrale.

**Potrivit Curții de Conturi constatările auditului public intern de la nivelul structurilor administrației publice centrale au vizat în principal aspecte privind modul de organizare a procesului financiar-contabil, realizarea operațiunilor, structura și circuitul documentelor, avizările, cadrul procedural intern aferent ș.a., pe care le enumerăm în continuare:**

1)insuficiența resurselor umane alocate activității financiar contabile și dimensionarea neadecvată a structurilor interne de specialitate în funcție de volumul, complexitatea și dificultatea obiectivelor și a operațiunilor realizate; 2)neelaborarea, neactualizarea, nedifuzarea către salariați sau nerespectarea procedurilor operaționale aferente activităților specifice domeniului financiar-contabil, inclusiv a celor destinate procesului de inventariere a patrimoniului; 3)cunoașterea insuficientă de către personalul structurilor financiar-contabile a prevederilor cadrului normativ aplicabil activităților specifice domeniului respectiv; 4)disfuncționalități privind respectarea principiului separării competențelor și a responsabilităților de execuție, avizare, aprobare și control intern (exemplu: activitățile de recepție, evidența contabilă primară și de gestiune, inventarierea patrimoniului, valorificarea inventarierii și evidența contabilă ș.a.); 5)organizarea și realizarea necorespunzătoare a inventarierii patrimoniului, a valorificării rezultatelor acestuia și a completării „registriului inventar” (neconcordanțe între listele de inventariere și evidența tehnico-operativă; neconcordanțe între „registriul inventar” și balanța de verificare ș.a.); 6)inexistența unor proceduri interne, sau proceduri cu un conținut inadecvat, pentru monitorizarea derulării contractelor economice, pentru recepția bunurilor, lucrărilor și serviciilor și pentru modul de desfășurare a procesului de casare a bunurilor aprobate pentru a fi scoase din uz (condițiile care trebuie îndeplinite, operațiunile specifice în funcție de apartenența la anumite grupe, aprobările necesare, documentele întocmite, valorificarea bunurilor declasate, înregistrările contabile) ș.a.; 7)deficiențe privind resursele umane referitoare la pontaje, evidența concediilor medicale, decontarea cheltuielilor cu deplasările ș.a.; 8)nerespectarea condițiilor legale, de formă și/sau de fond, ale documentelor justificative utilizate pentru înregistrarea operațiunilor în contabilitate; 9)inexistența rapoartelor de performanță, anexate la situațiile financiare anuale, care să prezinte, pentru fiecare program derulat: obiectivele, rezultatele preconizate și pe cele obținute, indicatorii și costurile asociate, situații privind angajamentele legale ș.a.

**În ceea ce privește controlul financiar preventiv (CFP), Curtea de Conturi a remarcat următoare disfuncții constatate de auditul public intern în exercitarea controlului financiar preventiv propriu de către persoanele din contabilitate ce pot acorda viza pentru un astfel de control:** 1)neactualizarea sau nerespectarea cadrului procedural intern pentru acordarea vizei de CFP, la nivelul entităților publice subordonate - stabilirea persoanelor împuternicite, a operațiunilor și a documentelor supuse CFP, a circuitului documentelor, a persoanelor coordonatoare, a separației competențelor și a responsabilităților ș.a.; 2)documente care nu poartă viza CFP și documente vizate pentru CFP, dar necuprinse în raportările trimestriale privind activitatea de control financiar preventiv; 3)acordarea vizei CFP ulterior datei la care au fost încheiate actele adiționale, sau avizarea facturilor pentru CFP ulterior datei la care au fost întocmite și înregistrate ordinele de plată prin care au fost achitate facturile respective; 4)organizarea și implementarea deficitară a sistemului de control intern managerial (SCIM) la nivelul structurilor interne de specialitate; 5)diferențe între plățile înregistrate în contabilitate și cele înregistrate în alte situații financiare; 6)încadrarea neunitară/eronată a cheltuielilor în clasificția economică; 7)documentele anexate la decont pentru justificarea avansurilor în numerar nu au viza compartimentului de specialitate; 8)neefectuarea

controlului lunar inopinat al casieriei; 9)facturi care nu au fost înregistrate în aplicația e-Contracte sau diferențe între sumele din facturi și sumele din lista facturilor aferente contractelor respective, generată de aplicația e-Contracte; 10)efectuarea unor cheltuieli fără documente justificative sau fără ca acestea să fie angajate, lichidate și ordonanțate în mod corespunzător; 11)disfuncționalități în organizarea și utilizarea sistemelor informatice financiar-contabile pentru realizarea și menținerea înregistrărilor, accesarea operativă a datelor și a informațiilor, generarea unor situații centralizatoare și comparative ș.a.; 12)efectuarea de înregistrări contabile în programul informatic fără a fi în concordanță cu documentele justificative anexate sau fără a avea documente justificative; 13)deficiențe în modul de organizare a activității de pregătire a documentelor financiar-contabile în vederea predării lor la arhiva entităților; 14)neelaborarea, elaborarea deficitară sau neaplicarea cadrului procedural intern pentru perfecționarea pregătirii profesionale continue a personalului de execuție și de conducere din structurile financiar-contabile, inclusiv a celui cu atribuții în acordarea vizei CFP.

**Concluzia Curții de Conturi a României** este că în auditarea domeniului financiar-contabil constatările făcute au fost în măsură a genera o imagine suficient de clară și de completă asupra conformării activității financiar-contabile la reglementările legale aplicabile.

În același timp, Curtea de Conturi consideră că sunt relativ puține argumente credibile care să explice de ce continuă să existe aceleași tipuri de neconformități (privind: inventarierea, înregistrările contabile, documentele justificative, CFP, raportările, controlul intern managerial ș.a.), după atâția ani de funcționare a auditului public intern și în condițiile în care o mare parte dintre activitățile aferente sunt reglementate în mod analitic prin legislația specifică<sup>47</sup>.

**În general când se face analiza activității unei structuri de audit public intern din subordine, UCAAPI își structurează demersul pe următoarele elemente:** 1)modalitățile de înființare a structurilor de audit public intern; 2)locuri unde se admite efectuarea auditului intern pe bază de contracte de prestări servicii; 3)structura entităților care nu au înființat funcția de audit public intern; 4)funcționarea auditului public intern; 5)raportarea activității de audit public intern; 6)independența și obiectivitatea auditorilor interni; 7)asigurarea cadrului metodologic și procedural; 8)emiterea normelor proprii de audit intern; 9)asigurarea și îmbunătățirea calității activității de audit public intern; 10)elaborarea și actualizarea programului de asigurare și îmbunătățire a calității (PAIC); 11)realizarea evaluărilor externe; 12)resursele umane alocate structurii de audit intern; 13)planificarea activității de audit public intern; 14)realizarea misiunilor de asigurare; 15)urmărirea implementării recomandărilor; 16)raportarea recomandărilor neînsușite; 17)raportarea iregularităților; 18)elaborarea raportului financiar; 19)înființarea comitetelor de audit intern<sup>48</sup>.

## **2.Aspecte metodologice de actualitate privind derularea misiunilor de asigurare de natura celor pe domeniu de activitate financiar-contabilă în entități ale Ministerului Apărării Naționale**

Potrivit **HG nr. 1086 din 11 decembrie 2013<sup>49</sup> pentru aprobarea Normelor generale privind exercitarea activității de audit public intern** există o metodologie generală de derulare a misiunilor de asigurare, care presupune parcurgerea următoarelor etape: a)pregătirea misiunii de audit public intern; b)intervenția la fața locului; c)raportarea activității de audit public intern; d)urmărirea recomandărilor.

<sup>47</sup>Curtea de Conturi a României, Raport special privind activitatea structurilor de audit public intern de la nivelul autorităților administrației publice centrale, București, 2018, pg.35-37

<sup>48</sup>Ministerul Finanțelor Publice, UCAAPI, Raport privind activitatea de audit intern din sectorul public din România pentru anul 2017, București, 2018, pg.1-26;

<sup>49</sup>Publicată în Monitorul Oficial al României, Partea I, nr. 17 din 10 ianuarie 2014;

**Metodologia generală de derulare a misiunilor de asigurare (din care face parte și misiunile de audit de regularitate/conformitate), presupune parcurgerea, în cadrul fiecărei etape, a procedurilor specifice și elaborarea documentelor, conform Tabelului 3.2.1.:**

**(Tabelul nr. 1.1.):**

Etape	Proceduri	Cod procedură	Documente	
Pregătirea misiunii	Inițierea auditului intern	Elaborarea ordinului de serviciu	P-01	Ordinul de serviciu
		Elaborarea declarației de independență	P-02	Declarația de independență
		Elaborarea notificării privind declanșarea misiunii de audit public intern	P-03	Notificarea privind declanșarea misiunii de audit public intern
	Ședința de deschidere		P-04	Minuta ședinței de deschidere
	Colectarea și prelucrarea informațiilor	Constituirea/Actualizarea dosarului permanent	P-05	Chestionarul de luare la cunoștință - CLC
		Prelucrarea și documentarea informațiilor	P-06	Studiu preliminar
	Analiza riscurilor	Evaluarea riscurilor	P-07	Stabilirea punctajului total al riscurilor și ierarhizarea riscurilor
		Evaluarea controlului intern	P-08	Chestionarul de control intern Evaluarea gradului de încredere în controlul intern
	Elaborarea programului misiunii de audit public intern		P-09	Programul misiunii de audit public intern
Intervenția la fața locului	Colectarea și analiza probelor de audit	Efectuarea testărilor și formularea constatărilor	P-10	Teste Chestionar listă de verificare - CLV; foi de lucru; interviuri; chestionare
		Analiza problemelor și formularea recomandărilor	P-11	Fișă de identificare și analiză a problemei - FIAP
		Analiza și raportarea iregularităților	P-12	Formular de constatare și raportare a iregularităților - FCRI
	Revizuirea documentelor și constituirea dosarului de audit		P-13	Nota centralizatoare a documentelor de lucru
	Ședința de închidere		P-14	Minuta ședinței de închidere
Raportarea rezultatelor misiunii	Elaborarea proiectului raportului de audit public intern	Elaborarea proiectului raportului de audit public intern	P-15	Proiectul raportului de audit public intern
		Transmiterea proiectului raportului de audit public intern	P-16	-
		Reuniunea de conciliere	P-17	Minuta reuniunii de conciliere
	Elaborarea raportului de audit public intern	Raportul de audit public intern	P-18	Raportul de audit public intern
		Difuzarea raportului de audit public intern	P-19	-
Urmărirea recomandărilor	Urmărirea recomandărilor		P-21	Fișă de urmărire a implementării recomandărilor

SUPERVIZAREA  
P-20

**Tabelul nr. 1.1: Metodologia generală de derulare a misiunilor de asigurare**

**Sursa:** Capitolul III-Misiunile de asigurare, Punctul 3.4 din Norme generale ale HG nr.1086 din 2013

Pe baza metodologiei generale, UCAAPI dezvoltă permanent metodologii specifice de derulare a misiunilor de audit de regularitate, al performanței și de sistem, prin ghiduri generale, aprobate prin ordin al ministrului finanțelor publice.

**Metodologia generală de derulare a misiunilor de asigurare** presupune, conform normelor menționate, parcurgerea următoarelor etape: *a) pregătirea misiunii de audit public intern; b) intervenția la fața locului; c) raportarea activității de audit public intern; d) urmărirea recomandărilor.*

**A) Pregătirea misiunii de audit** presupune utilizarea următoarele proceduri: 1) Inițierea auditului intern (care presupune: elaborarea ordinului de serviciu; elaborarea declarației de independență; elaborarea notificării privind declanșarea misiunii de audit public intern); 2) Ședința de deschidere; 3) Colectarea și prelucrarea informațiilor (care presupune: constituirea/actualizarea dosarului permanent; prelucrarea și documentarea informațiilor); 4) Analiza riscurilor (care presupune: evaluarea riscurilor; evaluarea controlului intern); 5) Elaborarea programului misiunii de audit public intern;

**B) Intervenția la fața locului** necesită utilizarea următoarele proceduri: 1) Colectarea și analiza probelor de audit (care presupune: efectuarea testărilor și formularea constatărilor; analiza problemelor și formularea recomandărilor; analiza și raportarea iregularităților); 2) Revizuirea documentelor și constituirea dosarului de audit; 3) Ședința de închidere;

**C) Raportarea activității de audit public intern** solicită utilizarea următoarele proceduri: 1) Elaborarea proiectului raportului de audit public intern (care presupune: elaborarea proiectului raportului de audit public intern; transmiterea proiectului raportului de audit public intern; reuniunea de conciliere); 2) Elaborarea raportului de audit public intern (care presupune: raportul de audit public intern; difuzarea raportului de audit public intern);

**D) Urmărirea recomandărilor** solicită ca procedură ceva ce poartă aceeași denumire ca etapa.

**În cadrul aceluiași etape se elaborează o serie de documente din care le vom trece în revistă în continuare.**

**A) În cadrul etapei de pregătire a misiunii de audit se elaborează următoarele documente:** 1) Ordinul de serviciu; 2) Declarația de independență; 3) Notificarea privind declanșarea misiunii de audit public intern; 4) Minuta ședinței de deschidere; 5) Chestionarul de luare la cunoștință (CLC); 6) Studiu preliminar; 7) Stabilirea punctajului total al riscurilor și ierarhizarea riscurilor; 8) Chestionarul de control intern; 9) Evaluarea gradului de încredere în controlul intern; 10) Programul misiunii de audit public intern;

**B) În cadrul etapei de intervenție la fața locului se elaborează următoarele documente:** Teste; Chestionar listă de verificare (CLV); foi de lucru; interviuri; chestionare; Fișă de identificare și analiză a problemei (FIAP); Formular de constatare și raportare a iregularităților (FCRI); Nota centralizatoare a documentelor de lucru; Minuta ședinței de închidere;

**C) În cadrul etapei de raportare a activității de audit public intern se elaborează următoarele documente:** Proiectul raportului de audit public intern; Minuta reuniunii de conciliere; Raportul de audit public intern.

**D) În cadrul etapei de urmărire a recomandărilor se elaborează următorul document:** Fișă de urmărire a implementării recomandărilor (FUIR).

Potrivit **Ordinului ministrului apărării naționale nr. M 67 din 17.06.2014<sup>50</sup> pentru aprobarea Normelor metodologice privind exercitarea auditului public intern în Ministerul Apărării Naționale, cu modificările și completările ulterioare**, prin planificarea și realizarea misiunilor de audit de regularitate sau conformitate (tip de misiune din care face parte și misiunea pe domeniul activității financiar – contabile) se urmărește examinarea acțiunilor asupra

<sup>50</sup>Publicat în Monitorul Oficial al României, Partea I, nr. 463 din 25 iunie 2014;



efectelor financiare pe seama fondurilor publice sau a patrimoniului public, sub aspectul respectării ansamblului principiilor, regulilor procedurale și metodologice care le sunt aplicate.

Deși în acest act normativ sunt preluate problemele de fond stipulate în **HG nr. 1086 din 11 decembrie 2013**, totuși sunt inserate o serie de proceduri și instrumente de audit care au fost particularizate la specificul activităților din Ministerul Apărării Naționale. **Din aceste proceduri aplicabile în entități ale armatei noastre** am dori să enumerăm în mod expres următoarele: 1)notificarea privind declanșarea misiunii de audit public intern; 2)minuta ședinței de deschidere; 3)chestionarului de luare la cunoștință; 4)studiul preliminar; 5)întocmirea documentului Stabilirea punctajului total al riscurilor și ierarhizarea riscurilor; 6)chestionarul de control intern; 7)formularul privind Evaluarea inițială a gradului de încredere în controlul intern și stabilirea obiectivelor misiunii de audit public intern; 8)teste; 9)fișa de identificare și analiză a problemei (FIAP); 10)formularul de constatare și raportare a iregularităților (FCRI); 11)nota centralizatoare a documentelor de lucru; 12)întocmirea punctelor de vedere la Proiectul raportului de audit public intern; 13)minuta reuniunii de conciliere; 14)sinteza principalelor constatări și recomandări; 15)nota de supervizare a documentelor.

### **3.Elemente de specificitate ale auditului intern când trebuie să efectueze misiuni în entități din Ministerul Apărării Naționale pe domeniul contabilității**

În ceea ce privește misiunile de audit intern ale direcției de profil din Ministerul Apărării Naționale pe domeniul activității financiar-contabile se impune să subliniem cel puțin două aspecte majore:1)specificitatea tuturor genurilor de misiuni de audit intern imprimate de prevederile Ordinului ministrului apărării naționale nr. M 67 din 17.06.2014<sup>51</sup> pentru aprobarea Normelor generale privind exercitarea auditului public intern în Ministerul Apărării Naționale (act normativ care particularizează aplicarea în armată a HG nr. 1086 din 11 decembrie 2013); 2)maniera în care ar trebui să fie configurat ghidul și să își conceapă desfășurarea misiunilor pe acest domeniu echipele de audit intern din direcție și secțiile teritoriale de profil.

În legătură cu maniera în care a fost particularizat la specificul armatei HG nr. 1086 din 11 decembrie 2013 (prin adoptarea Ordinului ministrului apărării naționale nr. M 67 din 17.06.2014) dorim să subliniem faptul că acest act normative de audit public intern pentru armată respectă structura actului normative de bază ca și capitole, documente și proceduri.

**Elementele de noutate și specificitate au intervenit în conținutul unor documente utilizate în auditul intern**, din care vom exemplifica câteva:1)criterii mai detaliate de apreciere a probabilității riscurilor, în baza cărora se stabilește nivelul riscurilor; 2)criterii mai detaliate de evaluare inițială a controlului intern; 3)evaluarea inițială a gradului de încredere în controlul intern și stabilirea obiectivelor misiunii de audit public intern; 4)programul mai detaliat al misiunii de audit public intern; 5)fișa de urmărire a implementării recomandărilor inserează și o rubrică care se referă la valoarea adăugată adusă de auditul intern (șeful compartimentului de audit public intern trebuie să evalueze valoarea adăugată de auditul intern prin implementarea recomandărilor și să cuprindă aceste informații în raportările periodice)<sup>52</sup>.

Considerăm de asemenea că Ghidul practic referitor la Misiunea de audit intern privind activitatea financiar – contabilă elaborate trebuie substantial revizuit și în el să se regăsească noile acte normative și documente introduse în practica contabilă publică în ultimii 5-10 ani.

<sup>51</sup>Publicat în Monitorul Oficial al României, Partea I, nr. 463 din 25 iunie 2014;

<sup>52</sup>Acest element de noutate este relevat de Marcu Radu-Viorel în articolul “Evoluții în legislația națională în domeniul auditului public intern și analiza cadrului național de reglementare”, publicat în “Revista de finanțe publice și contabilitate”, nr.6/2015, pp.21-22;



**Avem în vedere o serie de mutații de modernitate care au apărut în activitatea financiar – contabilă actuală, cum ar fi:** 1) depunerea on-line a diferitelor declarații fiscale; 2) modul de utilizare a sistemului de raportare contabilă și bugetară FOREXEBUG; 3) utilizarea sistemului informational REVISAL de gestionare a resurselor umane; 4) utilizarea spațiului virtual privat în relațiile cu autoritățile fiscale; 5) manualele de politici și proceduri contabile, actualizate permanent, care trebuie să existe la baza activității financiar-contabile a entităților din armată; 6) adoptarea de acte normative ca urmare a pandemiei de Coronavirus, prin care s-a schimbat sistemul de configurare, aprobare și de circulație a unor documente contabile și extinderea muncii contabile în sistem on-line și multe altele.

Desigur că mai sunt și alte trăsături ale activității contabile din instituțiile publice din armată, dar cele prezentate, atât la modul general cât și în particular, pentru entitățile armatei, considerăm că sunt reprezentative pentru ca auditorii interni să înțeleagă ce misiune complexă au de îndeplinit atunci când auditează această activitate din unitățile Ministerului Apărării Naționale.

În finalul acestei comunicări am desprins **următoarele concluzii mai importante:**

1) Ghidul UCAAPI elaborate pentru activitatea financiar contabilă are obiective extrem de generoase și specifice acestei activități, dar din cauza faptului că a fost elaborate în 2007 și de atunci în domeniul contabil au avut loc numeroase și profunde schimbări, care ar trebui să se regăsească în acest instrument indispensabil pe care auditoria publică internă trebuie să îl urmărească și să îl respecte cu consecvență;

2) Auditorii interni utilizează și ei la rândul lor, o serie de instrumente de lucru specifice activității lor cum ar fi identificarea și ierarhizarea riscurilor, liste de verificare, interviuri, chestionare de control intern, teste, foi de lucru (FIAP-uri; FCRI-uri), minute ale ședințelor de deschidere și de închidere a misiunilor, fișe de urmărire a recomandărilor sau liste de supervizare a documentelor pentru evaluarea activității de contabilitate publică și de control financiar preventiv propriu ca parte a controlului intern/managerial;

3) Curtea de Conturi care evaluează în activitatea sa și auditul public intern, efectuează periodic analize pe bază de rapoarte și asupra acestei activități, ocazie cu care punctează ce neajunsuri au constatat auditoria internă pe domeniul contabilității publice și al controlului financiar preventiv dar și ce omisiuni s-au constatat în activitatea acestor profesioniști din sistemul UCAAPI, când evaluează domeniul contabil în entități ale administrației centrale și locale de stat;

3) Deși există un act normativ de actualitate cum este HG nr. 1086 din 11 decembrie 2013 pentru reglementarea derulării misiunilor de audit public intern în administrația publică, totuși Ministerul Apărării Naționale, prin Ordinul nr. M 67 din 17.06.2014 a inserat o serie de proceduri și instrumente de audit care au fost particularizate la specificul activităților din armată, cum ar fi următoarele: 1) notificarea privind declanșarea misiunii de audit public intern; 2) minuta ședinței de deschidere; 3) chestionarul de luare la cunoștință; 4) studiul preliminar; 5) întocmirea documentului Stabilirea punctajului total al riscurilor și ierarhizarea riscurilor; 6) chestionarul de control intern; 7) formularul privind Evaluarea inițială a gradului de încredere în controlul intern și stabilirea obiectivelor misiunii de audit public intern; 8) teste; 9) fișa de identificare și analiză a problemei (FIAP); 10) formularul de constatare și raportare a iregularităților (FCRI); 11) nota centralizatoare a documentelor de lucru; 12) întocmirea punctelor de vedere la Proiectul raportului de audit public intern; 13) minuta reuniunii de conciliere; 14) sinteza principalelor constatări și recomandări; 15) nota de supervizare a documentelor;

4) În ultimii ani au apărut o serie de mutații de modernitate în activitatea financiar – contabilă actuală, cum ar fi: 1) depunerea on-line a diferitelor declarații fiscale; 2) modul de utilizare a sistemului de raportare contabilă și bugetară FOREXEBUG; 3) utilizarea sistemului informational REVISAL de gestionare a resurselor umane; 4) utilizarea spațiului virtual privat în relațiile cu autoritățile fiscale; 5) manualele de politici și proceduri contabile, actualizate permanent, care trebuie să existe la baza activității financiar-contabile a entităților din armată; 6) adoptarea de acte normative

ca urmare a pandemiei de Coronavirus, prin care s-a schimbat sistemul de configurare, aprobare și de circulație a unor documente contabile și extinderea muncii contabile în sistem on-line și multe altele; aceste mutații dar și altele trebuie să se regăsească în ghidul de audit intern specific acestei activități de mare responsabilitate.

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## ECONOMIE ȘI PANDEMIE – EVOLUȚIA INFLAȚIEI ÎN ROMANIA

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### Summary:

*Through this article I wanted to analyze the evolution of inflation in Romania, in the context of the pandemic from 2020 to 2021. Thus, I addressed the causes of inflation and their evolution, based on the scientific approach on the latest statistics published by the National Bank of Romania and the National Institute of Statistics. To outline the real situation of consumers, we showed how the structure of consumption of the population has changed in the context of the pandemic and what is the impact on the inflation rate, highlighting the evolution of consumption expenditure structures as total weights. In the last part of the article we described the inflation prospects, making a graphical forecast of the inflation rate.*

**Cuvinte cheie:** rata inflației, preț, cheltuieli de consum, costuri cu forța de muncă

### Literature Review

Lent, J. (2000) studiază deriva în lanț privind indicii prețurilor, Anghel (2015) analizează evoluția inflației în contextul economiei României. Anghelache și Anghel (2016) prezintă

elementele de bază ale statisticii economice. Anghelache și Manole (2016, 2015) analizează corelația dintre creșterea economică, inflație și șomaj. Atanassov și Kim (2009) studiază corelația dintre muncă și guvernanta corporativă. Nielsen (2015) a abordat incertitudinea creșterii economice. Pauly (2010) studiază perspectivele statisticii financiare franceze. Savor și Wilson (2013) prezintă o analiză bazată de dovezi asupra atitudinii investitorilor față de risc. Solomon, Bamossy, Askegaard și Hogg (2006) abordează comportamentul consumatorului. Turnovsky (1995) dezvoltă pe tema dinamicii macroeconomice. Yin (2009) prezintă o estimare, bazată pe instrumente econometrice, a economiei nevăzute, subterane.

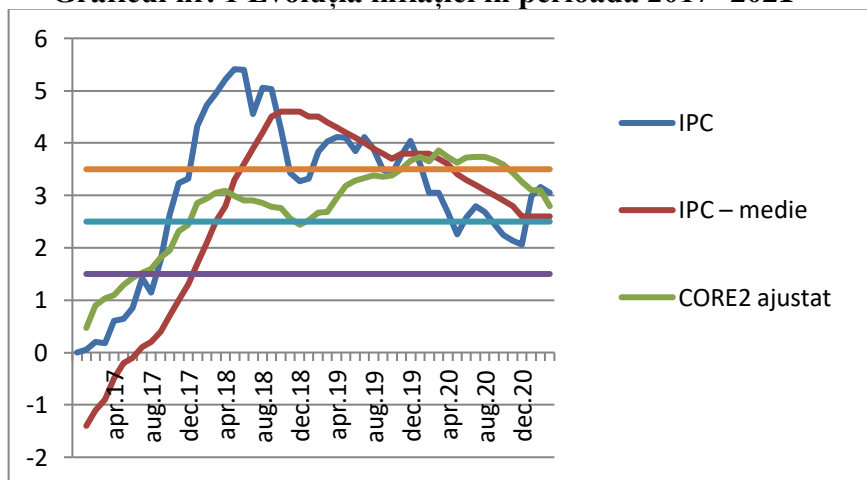
### Introducere:

Rata anuală a inflației IPC și-a continuat parcursul descendent în ultimele trei luni ale anului 2020, coborând în jumătatea inferioară a intervalului de variație din jurul țintei, până la 2,06 % în luna decembrie 2020 (față de 2,45 % în septembrie). Tendința dezinflaționistă a fost imprimată în această perioadă de înregistrarea unei recolte abundente de legume și fructe pe plan comunitar, respectiv de manifestarea unor efecte de bază favorabile asociate scumpirii puternice a unor alimente procesate în urmă cu un an.

### 1.Evoluția inflației și cauzele acesteia

Cele mai recente date statistice publicate de către Institutul Național de Statistică au indicat un salt al ratei anuale a inflației IPC la începutul anului 2021, până la 3,0 % în ianuarie, respectiv 3,2 % în februarie, pe fondul majorării tarifelor la energia electrică, în contextul modificărilor structurale prilejuite de liberalizarea acestei piețe, dar și al creșterii prețurilor combustibililor ca urmare a dinamizării cotațiilor petrolului Brent. În graficul nr. 1 se observă evoluția inflației în perioada 2017 -2021:

**Graficul nr. 1 Evoluția inflației în perioada 2017 -2021**

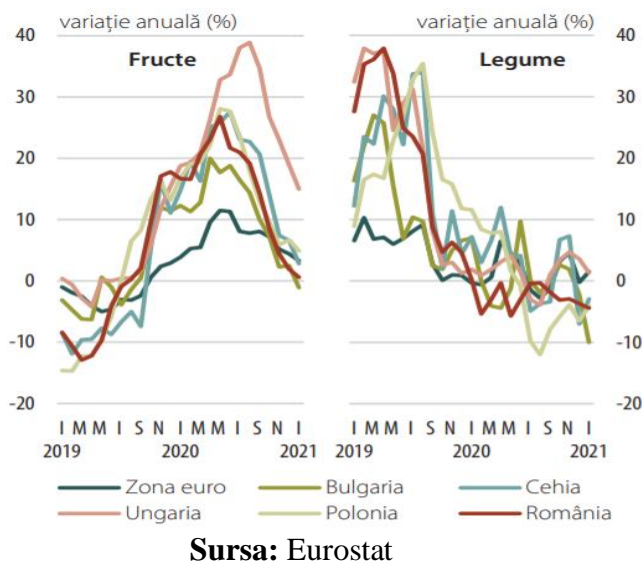


**Sursa:** date statistice publicate de BNR

Grupele alimentelor cu prețuri volatile a înregistrat o decelerare abruptă a ratei anuale a inflației în perioada analizată, coborând în teritoriul negativ; luna februarie 2021 a consemnat minimul ultimilor patru ani (-2,4 %, față de 4,1 % în septembrie 2020). Evoluția este rezultanta presiunilor în sens dezinflaționist provenind atât din partea cererii, cât și a ofertei. Astfel, cererea din partea industriei ospitalității a înregistrat o nouă deteriorare, înăsprirea restricțiilor de mobilitate odată cu manifestarea celui de-al doilea val pandemic la nivel comunitar afectând cu precădere acest

sector de activitate. În același timp, recolta de legume și fructe s-a dovedit bogată atât pe plan intern, cât și European, așa cum rezultă din graficul nr. 2:

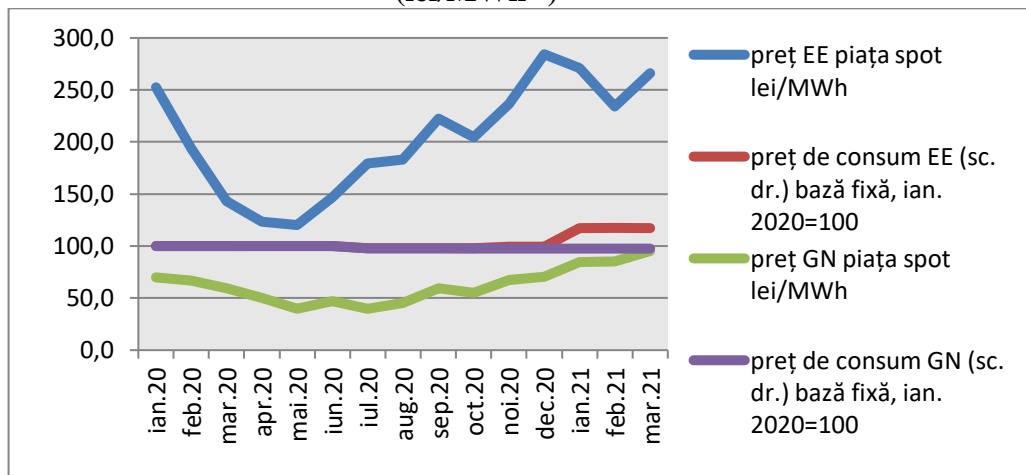
**Graficul nr. 2 Prețurile legumelor și fructelor în UE**



În sens contrar au evoluat prețurile asociate componentei energetice a coșului de consum. Astfel, după o scumpire moderată în noiembrie, ca urmare a majorării contribuției pentru cogenerare, factura la energie electrică a consemnat un salt puternic în luna ianuarie 2021 (+18,4 %, variație lunară), odată cu liberalizarea acestei piețe.

În graficul 3 se observă prețurile energiei electrice și a gazelor naturale în perioada 2020 - 2021:

**Graficul nr. 3 Prețurile energiei electrice și a gazelor naturale în perioada 2020 -2021 (lei/MWh<sup>53</sup>)**



Perioada 2019-2020 a fost caracterizată de deficiențe la nivelul ofertei de electricitate, producția de energie pe bază de cărbune fiind puternic afectată de majorarea amplă a costurilor de achiziție a certificatelor de emisii CO<sub>2</sub>, iar cea generată de hidrocentrale, de condițiile

<sup>53</sup> Lei/megawattoră

meteorologice nefavorabile. Această situație a determinat poziționarea cotațiilor de pe piața en gros pe un trend ascendent, contractele la termen cu livrare în primele luni din anul 2021 ajungând să se tranzacționeze la aproximativ 240 lei/MWh (față de o medie de sub 200 lei/MWh în anul 2018). În tot acest timp, prețul de achiziție a energiei electrice reglementat de autorități s-a menținut în jurul valorii de 170 lei/MWh.

Companiile au continuat să resimtă o majorare a costurilor unitare cu forța de muncă (chiar și excluzând impactul măsurilor de sprijin acordate de autorități), precum și a costurilor asociate măsurilor de combatere a pandemiei. Rata anuală de creștere a costurilor unitare cu forța de muncă a cunoscut o atenuare în a doua jumătate a anului 2020, însă dinamica a rămas consistentă (circa 9 % pe ansamblul iulie – decembrie 2020, față de aproximativ 12 % în perioada aprilie – iunie 2020).

Valoarea ridicată reflectă retenția forței de muncă, stimulată mai ales prin intermediul măsurilor de sprijin adresate pieței muncii. Indicatorul ajustat pentru impactul asociat recurgerii firmelor la măsurile de sprijin guvernamental (șomaj tehnic, reactivarea contractelor suspendate pe perioada stării de urgență) a consemnat o dinamică mai moderată, de aproximativ 7 %. La nivelul industriei, dinamica anuală a costurilor salariale unitare s-a poziționat în jurul valorii de 3 % atât în perioada iulie-septembrie și în octombrie-decembrie 2020.

## **2. Modificarea structurii consumului populației în contextul pandemiei și impactul asupra ratei inflației**

Răspândirea agresivă a virusului SARS-CoV-2 a condus la reconfigurarea obiceiurilor de consum ale populației, restricțiile de mobilitate determinând scăderea masivă a consumului de servicii care presupun interacțiune fizică, în timp ce desfășurarea majorității activităților la domiciliu a favorizat creșterea cererii pentru produse destinate amenajării locuinței.

Totodată, orientarea către produse de strictă necesitate s-a consolidat, iar mobilitatea mai restrânsă s-a reflectat în achiziții mai reduse de combustibili.

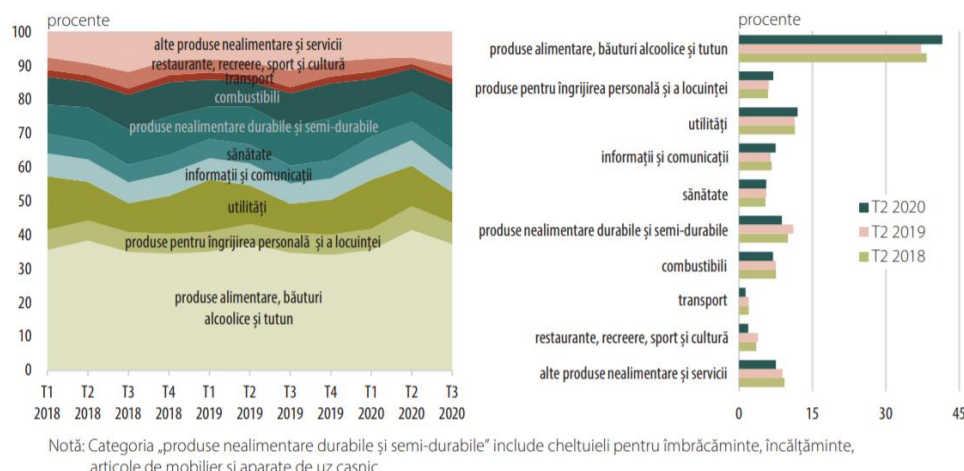
Măsurile impuse pentru a încetini răspândirea virusului, precum limitarea mobilității consumatorilor și restrângerea (sau chiar sistarea) activității comercianților care nu furnizau mărfuri esențiale, alături de reducerea veniturilor curente și apariția incertitudinilor privind câștigurile viitoare, au determinat diminuarea (și în unele cazuri chiar prăbușirea) consumului pentru o serie de bunuri și servicii. În acest sens, este evidentă reducerea ponderii cheltuielilor cu restaurante, recreere, sport și cultură sau a celor cu unele produse nealimentare durabile și semi-durabile (îmbrăcăminte, încălțăminte, mobilier).

De asemenea, perceperea, la începutul pandemiei, a unei posibilități de apariție a problemelor de aprovizionare a dat naștere unui comportament de tip panic buying în rândul populației, vizibil îndeosebi la nivelul cererii pentru produsele alimentare. Alimentelor le-a revenit o pondere mai mare în coșul de consum și ca urmare a reorientării consumatorilor dinspre HoReCa spre prepararea mâncării la domiciliu – de regulă, importanța cheltuielilor cu alimentele crește în aprilie – iunie (probabil în asociere cu sărbătorile pascale), însă modificarea din anul 2020 este mai amplă, ponderea corespundă apropiindu-se de 42 %, cu circa 4 puncte procentuale peste valorile din anii anteriori.

În plus, adoptarea unor măsuri de igienă mai stricte i-a determinat pe consumatori să alocе o parte mai importantă din bugetul de consum pentru achiziția de produse destinate îngrijirii personale și locuinței, în timp ce desfășurarea majorității activităților la domiciliu a avut, de asemenea, influențe asupra structurii coșului de consum, de exemplu în sensul creșterii ponderii cheltuielilor cu IT&C (telefonie, echipamente audio-video și de procesare a informațiilor, accesorii) și al scăderii celei aferente cheltuielilor de transport.

### **Graficul 4 . Evoluția structurii cheltuielilor de consum (ponderi în total)**





Sursa: Raport asupra inflației martie 2021 pdf. p 21, BNR

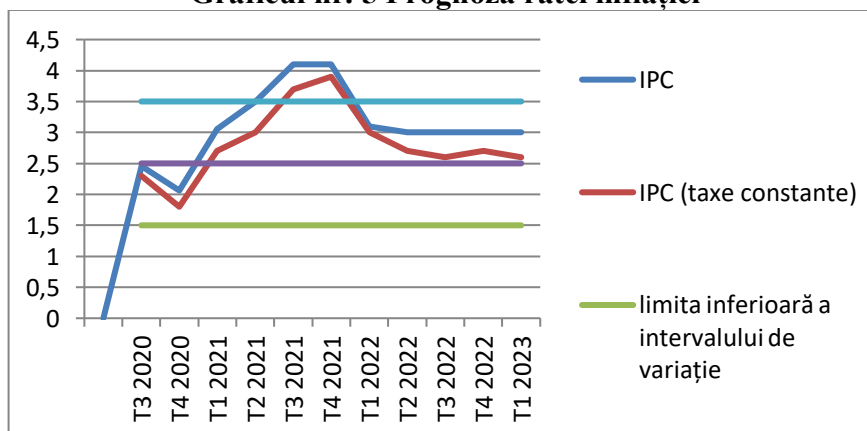
### 3. Perspectivile inflației

Ulterior normalizării graduale a activității economice din perioada iulie-septembrie, care a beneficiat de relaxarea restricțiilor de mobilitate, de atenuarea volatilității pe piețele financiare internaționale, precum și de reluarea funcționalității lanțurilor de producție și distribuție de la nivel global, agravarea situației medicale din ultima parte a anului trecut a impus reinstaurarea unora dintre aceste restricții.

După ce procesul de redresare economică a continuat într-un ritm alert și pe parcursul lunilor cuprinse în perioada octombrie – decembrie 2020 – o evoluție peste așteptări, care a particularizat economia României în context european – pentru perioada ianuarie –martie 2021 a fost previzionată o relativă stagnare a economiei, indusă de persistența efectelor crizei sanitare.

Chiar și în aceste condiții, dinamica medie anuală a PIB în anul 2021 ar urma să înregistreze o valoare pozitivă semnificativă. Influențe favorabile sunt asociate și ipotezei de tranziție către un an normal din punct de vedere climatic, ce implică disiparea contribuției negative a agriculturii la dinamica PIB de pe parcursul anului 2020.

Graficul nr. 5 Proгноza ratei inflației



Sursa: Date statistice, publicate de BNR

În structură, pentru 2020, dinamica medie anuală a PIB a reflectat contribuții negative apreciabile din partea consumului final și a exportului net, în timp ce formarea brută de capital fix a avut un aport pozitiv.



În cazul consumului final, avântul însemnat al cererii imediat după relaxarea restricțiilor stricte de mobilitate din intervalul martie-mai 2020 a continuat și pe parcursul perioadei octombrie – decembrie 2020, chiar dacă într-un ritm atenuat.

Începând cu perioada iulie – septembrie 2020 exporturile românești și-au reluat în ritm alert recuperarea pierderilor induse de primul val al pandemiei. Dinamica pozitivă în termeni trimestriali a exporturilor de bunuri și servicii a continuat și pe parcursul trimestrului IV 2020, însă dependența strictă a evoluției acestora de performanța cererii externe este de așteptat să frâneze avântul componentei în prima parte a anului 2021.

O traiectorie similară a fost consemnată și în cazul importurilor, în tandem cu impulsul consistent resimțit de cererea internă. Impactul asupra deficitului de cont curent din anul 2021 ar putea fi unul marginal favorabil, evoluție susținută și de perspectiva plauzibilă a unui debut al corecției fiscale. Cu toate acestea, o ajustare semnificativă a deficitului extern este puțin probabil să se producă într-un orizont scurt de timp.

Evoluțiile recente în plan medical și economic conturează tendințe divergente: pe de o parte, am asistat la germenii unei agravări a situației de sănătate publică într-o serie de economii importante ale Uniunii Europene; pe de altă parte, evoluția activității economice, reflectată, de exemplu, în dinamica indicatorului Produsului Intern Brut din perioada octombrie-decembrie 2020, a depășit, în multe țări, așteptările. În aceste condiții, reticența, firească, a autorităților din multe țări de a reintroduce restricții dure, generalizate, de mobilitate a populației, nu exclude ca pe fondul adaptării din ce în ce mai eficiente a agenților economici la situația pandemică să asistăm, pe termen scurt, la decorelări temporare, posibil chiar semnificative, ale dinamicii economiilor (PIB, inflație etc.) de evoluțiile în plan medical. Pe termen mediu și lung însă, înscrierea activității economice într-o tendință mai stabilă de evoluție va rămâne strict condiționată de asigurarea unei protecții generalizate a populației, prin continuarea campaniilor de imunizare împotriva virusului SARS-CoV-2.

### Concluzii:

Din datele statistice consultate, rezultă că rata anuală a inflației a crescut în ianuarie 2021 la 2,99%, de la 2,06% în decembrie 2020, și la 3,16% în februarie, mult peste nivelul anticipat anterior, ca urmare a decelerării inflației de bază, în condițiile în care impactul dezinflaționist al evoluției prețurilor la legume, fructe și ouă a fost contrabalansat de cel decurgând din scumpirea combustibililor, a produselor din tutun și a energiei electrice.

Companiile au continuat să resimtă o majorare a costurilor unitare cu forța de muncă, precum și a costurilor asociate măsurilor de combatere a pandemiei. Rata anuală de creștere a costurilor unitare cu forța de muncă a cunoscut o atenuare în a doua jumătate a anului 2020, însă dinamica a rămas consistent: circa 9 % pe ansamblul iulie – decembrie 2020, față de aproximativ 12 % în perioada aprilie – iunie 2020.

Consumatorii și-au alocat o parte mai importantă din bugetul de consum pentru achiziția de produse destinate îngrijirii personale și locuinței, în timp ce desfășurarea majorității activităților la domiciliu a avut, de asemenea, influențe asupra structurii coșului de consum, de exemplu în sensul creșterii ponderii cheltuielilor cu IT&C și al scăderii celei aferente cheltuielilor de transport.

După ce procesul de redresare economică a continuat într-un ritm alert și pe parcursul lunilor cuprinse în perioada octombrie – decembrie 2020 – o evoluție peste așteptări, care a particularizat economia României în context european – pentru perioada ianuarie – martie 2021 a fost previzionată o relativă stagnare a economiei, indusă de persistența efectelor crizei sanitare.

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## GEOPOLITICA MĂRII NEGRE – DETERMINĂRI ISTORICE, ECONOMICE ȘI MILITARE

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**Abstract:** Regiunea Mării Neagre a acționat dintotdeauna ca un fel de hub comercial, unde s-au intersectat interesele și rutele tuturor actorilor interesați. Factori precum răspândirea culturii, a tradițiilor, religiilor, comerțului internațional, fluxurile de migrație și lupta pentru controlul strategic asupra regiunii, au alimentat, din cele mai vechi timpuri, importanța acestei regiuni pentru atât pentru Occident cât și pentru Orient. Cu toate acestea, sub stăpânirea imperiilor otomane și mai târziu țariste, care l-au transformat într-un veritabil lac privat ruso-turc, regiunea Marii Negre a dobândit un statut periferic în politica mondială și europeană. Comerțul internațional, fluxurile de migrație, lupta pentru un control strategic asupra regiunii Mării Negre ce permite proiecția puterii în Marea Mediterană și Orientul Mijlociu, sunt factori de actualitate care determină importanța acesteia. Astăzi, într-o lume tot mai globalizată, interesele și căile tuturor actorilor interesați, se intersectează în jurul acestui pivot geopolitic al Mării Neagre. Comunicarea noastră am structurat-o pe 3 mari probleme: 1) abordări istorice ale geopoliticii Mării Negre din perspectivă economică și militară; 2) unele repere actuale ale geopoliticii Marii Negre din perspectivă economică și militară; 3) situația conflictuală actuală dintre Rusia și Ucraina și poziția României în această ecuație. În finalul comunicării am formulat unele concluzii în legătură cu problemele cercetate.

**Cuvinte-cheie:** geopolitica; regiune; doctrină; tratat; conflict; actor/stat/organizație; leadershipul; zona Mării Negre;

## 1. Abordări istorice ale geopoliticii Mării Negre din perspectivă economică și militară

Pentru început dorim să aducem în atenție conceptele de geopolitică, regiune, doctrină, tratat și conflict, care vor fi menționate pe parcursul acestei comunicări. **Geopolitica** este teorie care susține că politica unui stat ar fi determinată de situația sa geografică<sup>54</sup>.

**Regiunea** reprezintă „un teritoriu de proporții mari, care are anumite caracteristici specifice (de climă, relief, resurse economice etc.)”<sup>55</sup>

Un alt termen care are legătură cu ceea ce dorim să abordăm în această comunicare este cel de doctrină. **Doctrina** reprezintă totalitatea principiilor unui sistem politic, științific, religios etc.<sup>56</sup> În comunicarea noastră vom releva mai ales dimensiunea politică, economică și militară a acestui concept.

**Tratatul**, la rândul său, reprezintă o înțelegere scrisă încheiată între două sau mai multe state, în vederea determinării, într-un anumit domeniu, a drepturilor și a obligațiilor părților contractante sau în scopul stabilirii unor norme juridice ce trebuie respectate în relațiile dintre ele; acord internațional, convenție internațională<sup>57</sup>.

**Conflictul** are mai multe sensuri și anume cele de neînțelegere, ciocnire de interese, dezacord; antagonism; ceartă, diferend, discuție (violentă)<sup>58</sup>.

Un alt element care intervine în această analiză a regiunii Mării Negre la care ne vom referi în comunicare este **actorul/statul/organizația**, care să sprijine prin calitatea sa de lider de necontestat și acceptat fără excepție. Regiunea Mării Negre ar trebui să fie indivizibilă din punctul de vedere al securității, iar acest element de sprijin trebuie să faciliteze dezvoltarea relațiilor, securității și bunăstării cetățeanului.

Cu orice risc, acesta va folosi **leadershipul** ca instrument de sprijin în delimitarea și definirea clară a regiunii Mării Negre, în contextul securității. Bineînțeles că responsabilitatea inițierii unui astfel de demers este una enormă atât pentru statele riverane, cât și pentru cel care își asumă o astfel de construcție, dar fără un lider pe care toate statele să-l recunoască, ecuația devine un sistem matematic cu foarte multe necunoscute<sup>59</sup>.

Din perspectivă geopolitică și doctrinară, Marea Neagră a suscitat tot timpul interes pentru popoarele și statele din jurul țărmurilor sale, ea reprezentând o zonă geografică de interes comercial dar și de interacțiune conflictuală, de la Balcani la Caucaz și de la stepele kievene la podișul Anatoliei. Marea Neagră este o mare semi-închisă din bazinul atlantic, componentă a Mării Mediterane, de care se leagă prin mările Marmara și Egee prin strâmțorile Bosfor și Dardanele.

În miturile grecești, marea - pe atunci la marginea lumii mediteraneene - era numită Pontus Axeinus, adică „Marea inospitalieră”. Strabon (7.3.6) susține că Marea Neagră a fost numită „inospitalieră” înainte de colonizarea greacă, deoarece era dificil de navigat și pentru că țărmurile

<sup>54</sup>DEX, 1996, format electronic, <http://dexonline/definitie/geopolitica>, accesat la data de 19.05.2021, ora 10.00;

<sup>55</sup>DEX, 2009, format electronic, <http://dexonline/definitie/regiune>, accesat la data de 19.05.2021, ora 10.00;

<sup>56</sup>DEX, 1998, format electronic, <http://dexonline/definitie/doctrina>, accesat la data de 19.05.2021, ora 10.00;

<sup>57</sup>DEX, 2009, format electronic, <http://dexonline/definitie/tratat>, accesat la data de 19.05.2021, ora 10.00;

<sup>58</sup>DEX, 2009, format electronic, <http://dexonline/definitie/conflict>, accesat la data de 19.05.2021, ora 10.00;

<sup>59</sup>Panait Mihai, cam.drd.ing., *Rolul leadershipului în ecuația regiunii – regionalism – securitate la Marea Neagră*, articol publicat în Buletinul Universității Naționale de Apărare “Carol I”, Martie 2021, pag.19;

ei erau locuite de triburi sălbatice; și că numele a fost schimbat în „ospitalieră” după ce milesienii au colonizat-o, făcându-o parte din civilizația greacă.

Cert este că explorările ulterioare au făcut regiunea mai familiară și, pe măsură ce coloniile grecești au fost înființate de-a lungul țărmurilor, aceștia au folosit un eufemism pentru a o face mai prietenoasă, numele său fiind schimbat în Pontus Euxinus, opusul denumirii anterioare. Conexiunile fizice facilitate de mare cât și de guriile fluviilor care se varsă în aceasta, importanța tiparelor ecologice date de clima temperat euroasiatică, densitatea populațiilor riverane și potențialul economic al acesteia, au condus la o expansiune a coloniilor comerciale grecești ce au legat toate țărmurile într-o rețea de relații comerciale.

Pentru grecii antici, marea se întindea la marginea lumii cunoscute. Intensificarea schimburilor comerciale și interconectarea tuturor coloniilor înființate pe țărmurile ei, au inclus Pontul Euxin în marele univers economic al Mediteranei. La apogeul mării expansiuni grecești, pe țărmurile occidentale ale Pontului Euxin prosperaseră o serie de orașe port precum: Tyras (fosta Cetate Albă), Istros (Histria), Tomis (Constanța), Callatis (Mangalia), Bizona (Kavarna), Dionysopolis (Balcic), Odessos (Varna), Mesambria (Nesebar), Anchialos (Pomorje), Apollonia (Sozopol), Aghatopolis (Athopol).

Sistemul integrat comercial a funcționat până la începutul mileniului I, când romanii au descoperit alte regiuni fertile și bogate în resurse, în special în zona de Nord-Est a Africii. Deschiderea rutelor de transport spre Oceanul Indian, a redus importanța porturilor grecești de la Marea Neagră, acestea fiind revitalizate ulterior prin comerțul cu diverse produse dintre Constantinopol și popoarele ce populau stepele și pădurile din nord. Imperiul bizantin, prin politica restrictivă, protecționistă și fiscalizată excesiv, limitase drastic accesul negustorilor italieni prin strâmtoarea Bosfor, controlată de aceștia, care permitea accesul în Marea Neagră. Faptul că accesul în regiunea pontică, dinspre zonele comerciale dezvoltate din jurul Mediteranei, nu se putea realiza decât prin strâmtoarele Bosfor și Dardanele, transformase marea într-una aproape închisă.

Datorită fluviilor care se varsă în ea precum și a drumurilor comerciale dinspre porturile acesteia, marea avea tot potențialul de a deveni placa turnantă a marelui trafic și schimburilor comerciale dinspre Asia și Europa. Acest aspect va deveni pronunțat odată cu cucerirea Constantinopolului în timpul cruciadei a IV din anul 1204, ce permite pontului să reentre în sfera sistemului comercial global, grație imperiilor comerciale genoveze și venețiene, care dezvoltă adevărate centre comerciale pe țărmurile acesteia.

Aceste state-republici au devenit în Evul Mediu adevărate imperii maritime, procesul de colonizare fiind însă unul modest, ele luptând pentru doar pentru controlul unor poziții strategice din Marea Mediterană și Marea Neagră, ce le puteau lărgi sfera de influență comercială. Cert este că urmare expansiunii republicilor italiene dincolo de Bosfor-Dardanele, prin poziția geografică ocupată de Marea Neagră, aceasta a contribuit la fluidizarea traficului internațional concomitent cu schimbul de tehnologie și invenții, ceea ce a condus implicit la o circulație a ideilor, emancipării, interconectării și metamorfozării mentalităților.

Aceasta este perioada în care se dezvoltă economic și principatele române, cu precădere Moldova, datorită taxelor percepute pentru tranzitul mărfurilor comercializate de negustorii genovezi, prin controlul asupra cetăților acestora: Montecastro (Cetatea Albă, astăzi Bylgorod Dnistrovsk), Hotinul, Alciona (Olhonia sau Soroca), Licostomo (între Vâlcov și Periprava), Caladda (Galați) și Enisala. După cucerirea Constantinopolului, imperiul otoman a preluat controlul acestor cetăți, utilizând resursele locale pentru dezvoltarea imperiului. Pe măsură ce influența turcească asupra Mării Mediterane, a început să slăbească, imperiul otoman a instituit o adevărată blocada pe Bosfor, izolând regiunea Mării Negre de influențele comerciale și politice străine și transformând-o într-un veritabil lac turcesc.

Încetarea monopolului otoman asupra comerțului din Marea Neagră, se produce prin Pacea de la Karlowitz (26 ianuarie 1699), imperiul țarist obținând astfel dreptul de acces în Marea Neagră, pentru navele sale comerciale.

În a doua jumătate a secolului al XVIII-lea, după 6 ani de conflict armat între Rusia și imperiul otoman (1768-1774), finalizat cu victoria Rusiei, în conformitate cu Tratatul de pace de la Kyuchuk-Kaynarji (1774), aceasta a anexat pământurile dintre râurile Niprului și Bug iar provinciile Kuban, Azov, Taganrog, Kerch, Yenikale, Kinburn și Hanatul Crimeei, au devenit independente. Tratatul a oferit Rusiei acces direct la Marea Neagră (prin porturile Kerch și Azov). Astfel, la sfârșitul secolului al XVIII-lea, marea a fost deschisă comerțului exterior, coastele maritime făcând parte dintr-un sistem de comerț cu adevărat global. Începând cu anul 1774, Rusia profită de accesul în porturile calde pentru a dezvolta o flotă de război, construind diverse nave mici de război și vase fregate, pe râul Don. În vederea stabilirii unui port stabil unde navele să poată acosta, în 1778 a fost înființat pe fluviul Nipru, orașul Kherson.

În pofida semnării Tratatului de pace de la Kyuchuk-Kaynarji, Rusia a desfășurat o luptă diplomatică complexă pentru preluarea Crimeei. Acestea au constat în alimentarea resentimentelor populației indigene față de elita agreată de Înalta Poartă, care conducea Crimeea, combinat cu un fluxul constant de coloniști ruși în peninsulă, ce a alimentat și mai mult tulburările regionale. Toate aceste frământări interne au oferit Ecaterinei a II-a pretextul de a asimila Crimeea, Taman și toată zona Kuban, în Rusia. Procesul de anexare al peninsulei de către Rusia a fost unul susținut și insistent, Turcia pierzând astfel principala bază din care se puteau lansa agresiuni militare în nordul Mării Negre.

Dar pentru protecția ținuturilor cucerite și asigurarea navigației în Marea Neagră, Rusia avea nevoie de o marină puternică și un port pe măsură. Pentru adăpostirea principalelor nave ale flotei Mării Negre, a fost ales golful Akhtiar (stânca albă), situat pe coasta de sud-vest a peninsulei Crimeea, lângă ruinele vechii cetăți Chersonese. Prin decretul Ecaterinei a II-a din 10 februarie 1784, portul Akhtiar a fost redenumit Sevastopol (oraș decent). Acesta a devenit principala bază navală a flotei Mării Negre, în anul 1785 fiind aprobat primul stat major al flotei, cu un deplasament de 12 corăbii, 20 fregate mari, 5 goelete de luptă, 18 nave de transport și de sprijin. Flota a crescut rapid, în mai 1787 având în componență sa: 3 corăbii mari, 12 fregate, 3 nave de artilerie, alte 28 de nave de război<sup>60</sup>.

Turcia nu a putut accepta pierderea teritoriilor din nordul Mării Negre precum și apariția Flotei rusești ce reprezenta un potențial pericol pentru aceasta, ceea ce a condus la un alt război. În acest război Rusia a acționat în alianță cu Austria iar Turcia a fost sprijinită de Anglia, Franța și Prusia, care erau îngrijorate de expansiunea teritorială a imperiului țarist. Ca urmare a victoriilor flotei rusești în bătăliile de pe insula Fidonisi (3.7.1788), strâmtoarea Kerch (8.7.1790), Tendra (28.8.1790) și Capul Kaliakra (31.7.1791), au fost accelerate negocierile pentru încheierea Tratatului de pace de la Iași (1792), potrivit căruia Turcia a recunoscut anexarea Hanatul Crimeei, Ochakov, Kinburn și Azov, de către Rusia, pentru totdeauna.

Declinul Imperiului Otoman a continuat și în deceniile următoare, la fel ca și lupta regională pentru putere din Marea Neagră, asupra căreia niciuna dintre părți nu a putut revendica o victorie decisivă.

În urma războiului ruso-turc din 1828-1829, este încheiată pacea de la Adrianopol care prevedea la art 7, dreptul de liberă prin strâmțorile Bosfor și Dardanele precum și navigația liberă pe Marea Neagră și Dunăre, pentru toate navele comerciale aparținând statelor care se aflau în relații de pace cu imperiul otoman. Prin acest tratat imperiul țarist obține de la otomani țărmul caucazian al Mării Negre și gurile Dunării, până la vărsarea Prutului. Pentru principatele române, tratatul

<sup>60</sup> [https://eng.mil.ru/en/structure/forces/navy/associations/structure/forces/type/navy/black\\_sea/history.htm](https://eng.mil.ru/en/structure/forces/navy/associations/structure/forces/type/navy/black_sea/history.htm), accesat la data de 16.03.2021, ora 17.00;



desființează monopolul turcesc impus asupra comerțului, ele având libertatea deplină a tranzacționării libere a mărfurilor, dreptul de a înființa armate naționale pentru asigurarea ordinii interne, dreptul de a înființa cordoane sanitare și carantine la granițe, dreptul de a alege domni pământeni, numiți pe viață de Adunările Obștești precum și limitarea obligațiilor principatelor române față de Înalta Poartă, măsuri care se vor reflecta în perioada prosperă economic ce caracterizează perioada de după 1829.

Deoarece se temeau că puterea crescândă a Rusiei va conduce la ocuparea unui statut hegemonic în regiunea Mării Negre și a Mediteranei, Franța și Marea Britanie a susținut imperiul otoman împotriva Rusiei, în sângerosul conflict al Crimeei din anii 1853-1856. Deși scopul politic al Rusiei a fost dintotdeauna preluarea controlului strâmtorilor Bosfor și Dardanele, ce i-ar fi asigurat un statut de putere hegemonică, acest lucru nu s-a concretizat niciodată deoarece niciun stat puternic nu i-a susținut intențiile de mărire. Una dintre principalele motivații ale Rusiei în intrarea în Primul Război Mondial a fost acela de a prelua controlul asupra strâmătorii turcești, economia rusească prăbușindu-se atunci când otomanii și germanii au blocat accesul prin Bosfor al navelor rusești.

După dispariția imperiilor țarist și otoman, au fost mai multe încercări de a redesena harta regiunii. Prima încercare a fost Tratatul de la Sèvres din 1920<sup>61</sup>, iar a doua, mai reușită, a fost Tratatul de pace de la Lausanne din 1923, care a creat baza Republicii Turcia, prin stabilirea apartenenței întregii Anatolii și a Traciei Răsăritene, la noul stat format<sup>62</sup>. Acest tratat schimbă regimul juridic aplicat circulației navelor prin strâmtorile Bosfor și Dardanele, principiul liberei treceri fiind înlocuit cu libertatea comerțului prin strâmtori, pe timp de pace. Tratatul prevedea și că prin strâmtori nu pot trece, pe timp de război, nave mai mari ca dimensiune decât cea mai puternică navă de război aparținând statelor riverane. Pentru asigurarea respectării acestuia au fost demilitarizate insulele limitrofe și țărmurile dintre cele două strâmtori.

Statele-națiuni nou formate, riverane la Marea Neagră, au sculptat țărmurile acesteia, afirmându-și fiecare dreptul la o bucată de litoral și o secțiune a apelor de coastă. După consolidarea poziției strategice, în vederea asigurării inviolabilității teritoriale a statului turc precum și pentru dezvoltarea navigației între Mediterana și Marea Neagră, Turcia a reușit să apeleze la Tratatul de la Lausanne pentru gestionarea tensiunilor crescânde dintre puterile europene din regiune, ceea ce a condus, într-un final, la încheierea Convenției de la Montreux din 1936<sup>63</sup>. Convenția a stabilit controlul Turciei asupra strâmtorilor, garantând libera trecere în raport de tipurile de navă care tranzitează zona (comerciale sau de război) și a patru tipuri de situații: pe timp de pace, pe timp de război în care Turcia nu este stat beligerant, când este stat beligerant, sau când Turcia estimează că există o posibilitate de a fi atacată. De asemenea regimul de libertăți al navelor militare aparținând statelor neriverane, este limitat la un tonaj per navă de 45.000 tone și la un drept de navigare în Marea Neagră de doar 21 de zile.

Echilibrul fragil asigurat prin Convenția de la Montreaux a condus la escaladarea tensiunilor dintre Turcia și URSS, după cel de-al doilea război mondial, Stalin forțând renegocierea tratatului pentru a putea împărți cu Turcia controlul asupra strâmtorilor. Procedând astfel, Uniunea Sovietică și-a sporit prezența militară în Marea Neagră, forțând Turcia să accepte stabilirea de baze militare ruse pe teritoriul acesteia. Criza strâmătorii turcești din 1946, a determinat Statele Unite să trimită nave de război în Marea Neagră, la solicitarea Turciei pentru a se proteja de presiunile rusești. Insistențele Uniunii Sovietice, s-au întors împotriva politicii acesteia, presiunile exercitate fiind un

<sup>61</sup>Tratatul nu făcea decât să dea o formă oficială înțelegerilor secrete ale puterilor aliate cu privire la împărțirea Imperiului Otoman. Acesta a fost anulat în timpul războiului de independență al Turciei din 1919-1923.

<sup>62</sup><https://www.agerpres.ro/documentare/2020/08/10/documentar-tratatul-de-pace-de-la-sevres-dintre-puterile-aliate-si-asociate-si-turcia-din-10-august-1920--552702>, accesat la data de 16.03.2021, ora 19.31

<sup>63</sup>Acest tratat a fost ratificat de Turcia, România, Bulgaria, URSS, Franța, Marea Britanie, Grecia, Japonia, Iugoslavia, Italia. Japonia s-a retras din tratat după cel de-al doilea război mondial. SUA nu a aderat la această convenție.



catalizator al Doctrinei Truman din 1947, care a contracarat expansiunea rusească prin atragerea în Alianța Nord-Atlantică a Turciei și a Greciei<sup>64</sup>.

Din perspectiva geopolitică a Mării Negre, în toată perioada războiului rece, s-a manifestat un echilibru instabil în Marea Neagră între Turcia, NATO, Statele Unite și Uniunea Sovietică.

În anul 1982 a fost semnată Convenția Națiunilor Unite asupra dreptului mării (Convenția de la Montego Bay – UNCLOS<sup>65</sup>) care definește drepturile și responsabilitățile națiunilor cu privire la accesul în oceanele lumii, de stabilire a orientărilor pentru întreprinderi, mediul, precum și managementul marin al resurselor naturale. Aceasta stabilea că regimul juridic al strâmtorilor pentru care au fost încheiate convenții internaționale, va continua să fie guvernat de acestea. Turcia a refuzat semnarea Convenției deoarece nu exista niciun temei legal pentru adaptarea Convenției de la Montreaux la cea de la Montego Bay, astfel că regimului strâmtorilor de la Marea Neagră, li se aplică tratatul din 1938.

## **2. Unele repere actuale ale geopoliticii Marii Negre din perspectivă economică și militară**

După prăbușirea Uniunii Sovietice în 1991, regiunea Mării Negre nu a mai prezentat un interes geostrategic deosebit din perspectiva occidentală, dar a rămas instrumentală în modelarea conceptului Rusiei despre „*aproape în străinătate*” în ceea ce privește politica sa externă față de statele independente desprinse din fostul URSS. Frițiunile și neînțelegerile dintre Rusia și Ucraina, au fost generate de regimul istoric al peninsulei Crimeea, ce fusese făcută cadou Ucrainei în anul 1954, de premierul URSS Nikita Hrușciov, în onoarea a 300 de ani de la fuziunea Ucrainei cu Rusia țaristă.

În anul 1991, flota Mării Negre staționată în Sevastopol, cuprindea 835 de nave și 28 de submarine, precum și un personal de 100.000 de angajați ruși și 60.000 de militari<sup>66</sup>. Aceste elemente au fost folosite pentru a crea presiune asupra Kievului, în vederea negocierii unui statut juridic avantajos cu privire la baza navală Sevastopol și la infrastructura sa critică.

În 1997, prin încheierea Tratatului de prietenie Ucraina-Rusia, flota sovietică a Mării Negre a fost împărțită între Rusia (81%) și Ucraina (19%) și Rusiei i s-a permis, să închirieze Baza navală de la Sevastopol pe o perioadă de 20 de ani, termen prelungit în 2010 până în 2042, în schimbul anulării majorității datoriei ucrainene și a unui preț avantajos pentru energie.

În primul deceniu de după prăbușirea Uniunii Sovietice, Rusiei i-a lipsit puterea politică, economică și militară pentru a-și impune voința asupra fostelor republici sovietice sau state care făcuseră parte din pactul de la Varșovia, chiar dacă a menținut percepția că atât acestea cât și zona Mării Negre, se aflau în sfera sa de influență.

Ca răspuns la revoluțiile colorate din Georgia (revoluția trandafirilor 2003-2004) și Ucraina (revoluția portocalie 2004-2005), unde liderii care obedienți la influența și interesele rusești au fost înlocuiți de lideri pro-occidentali, politica regională rusă a devenit mai nuanțată și mai agresivă. Concomitent cu schimbarea strategiei politice a Rusiei, în anul 2004 Organizația Nord-Atlantică s-a extins pentru a permite aderarea cu drepturi depline a României și Bulgariei, ce făcuseră parte din Pactul de la Varșovia. Faptul că 3 din cele 6 state riverane, făceau parte din NATO, iar alte două (Ucraina și Georgia) aveau un parteneriat cu alianța în vederea unei potențiale aderări la NATO a fost văzută ca o potențială invadare a sferei sale tradiționale de influență, Rusia luând măsuri pentru a-și restabili influența și a-și spori prezența militară în Marea Neagră. Al doilea motiv de îngrijorare

<sup>64</sup><https://www.nato.int/docu/review/2012/Turkey-Greece/Greece-Turkey-membership/files/1986.jpg>, accesat la data de 16.03.2021, ora 19.52

<sup>65</sup> <http://legislatie.just.ro/Public/DetaliiDocumentAfis/26155>, accesat la data de 16.03.2021, ora 21.17

<sup>66</sup><https://www.csis.org/analysis/geostrategic-importance-black-sea-region-brief-history>, accesat la data de 16.03.2021, ora 20.22

pentru Rusia a fost declarația NATO de la Summitul de la București din 2008, prin care Marea Neagră a fost considerată *importantă pentru securitatea euro-atlantică*.

Constrânsă de legile internaționale ale războiului, Rusia nu a intervenit militar pentru stoparea orientării occidentale a statelor riverane, dar a apelat la noua strategie de război hibrid, acționând cu mijloace diplomatice, militare, informaționale sau energetice<sup>67</sup>, pentru determinarea Ucrainei și a Georgiei sau a altor state potențial pro-occidentale, să își schimbe orientarea politică.

În august 2008, la încercarea Georgiei de a prelua controlul asupra regiunilor separatiste Abhazia și Ostetia de Sud, Rusia răspunde în forță, dislocând 20.000 de trupe în zonă, ce au invadat Osetia de Sud și au lansat atacuri aeriene în Georgia, aproape capturând capitala Tbilisi<sup>68</sup>.

Al doilea eveniment ca importanță geostrategică pentru Rusia, a fost anexarea Crimeei în anul martie 2014, la câteva zile după ce președintele ucrainean Viktor Ianukovici a fost destituit de o revoltă populară începută la finele anului 2013.

Consider că, în urma agresiunii rusești împotriva Georgiei din 2008 și Ucrainei din 2014, regiunea Mării Negre s-a schimbat dramatic. În principal datorită schimbărilor în politicile rusești, americane și NATO, regiunea a devenit mult mai militarizată, iar nivelul tensiunilor a crescut semnificativ. Analiza pozițiilor actorilor regionali demonstrează că este posibilă cooperarea economică, energetică și de infrastructură în Marea Neagră, dar în ceea ce privește problemele geostrategice cruciale, regiunea rămâne profund divizată.

Regiunea Mării Negre rămâne un loc central al competiției dintre Rusia și Occident pentru viitorul Europei, Kremlinul încercând să stabilească o sferă de influență privilegiată asupra tuturor țărilor vecine și să limiteze integrarea acestora în structurile occidentale sau euro-atlantice.

Pentru Rusia, factorii geostrategici ai regiunii Mării Negre nu s-au schimbat din 1853, NATO și Statele Unite înlocuind statele europene individuale drept principalii concurenți geopolitici ai Rusiei.

O putere hegemonică în secolul al XIX-lea, o putere suprasolicitată în timpul Războiului Rece și o putere epuizată după 1991, Rusia a arătat că are puterea de a se re poziționa și a-și recâștiga poziția hegemonică regională, dacă se simte amenințată. Rusia și-a reconfigurat poziția în geopolitica Mării Negre, iar obiectivul final este accesul și prezența militară în Estul Mediteranei, ca o contrabalansare a extinderii SUA și NATO spre est.

### **3.Situația conflictuală actuală dintre Rusia și Ucraina și poziția României în această ecuație**

O turnură extrem de periculoasă a căpătat zona Mării Negre o data cu reactivarea mai vechiului conflict dintre Rusia și Ucraina, state care se învecinează cu această mare.

Postura militară nu este singura care a determinat Rusia să acționeze și recent în conflictul cu Ucraina, ci și accesul și controlul la resurse enorme de hidrocarburi din largul Crimeei și de la Marea Neagră. Având în vedere aceste aspecte, putem considera că obiectivul Rusiei este să-și păstreze și să-și consolideze monopolul prin care își poate exercita voința politică, cu mult înainte ca acțiunile militare să înceapă. Gazul natural și petrolul sunt instrumente pe care Rusia le folosește pentru a influența deciziile politice din UE și a rupe coeziunea în cadrul NATO.

Multe țări europene sunt extrem de dependente de hidrocarburile rusești și pentru a schimba acest status quo vor fi necesare cheltuieli masive pentru surse alternative. Acestea sunt faptele pe care Rusia le exploatează cu succes, iar acolo unde mediul este permisiv, acestea vor prevala. Astfel,

<sup>67</sup>Gazul rusesc a fost utilizat ca instrument de influență asupra Ucrainei în 2006 și apoi din nou în 2009, când Rusia a încetat temporar furnizarea acestuia către Europa, prin conductele care tranzitează Ucraina, crescut concomitent și prețurile energiei rusești.

<sup>68</sup><https://www.historia.ro/sectiune/general/articol/vara-tancurilor-din-2008-micul-razboi-ruso-georgian-care-a-zguduit-lumea>, accesat la data de 16.03.2021, ora 22.32

Ucraina, ca fost stat membru al URSS aflat, din punct de vedere istoric, sub influența Kremlinului, cu o mare minoritate rusă în interiorul granițelor sale, a fost o țintă perfectă, cu toate premisele succesului. Campania mass-media de stat, controlată de Rusia, a reușit să provoace comportamentul ultranaționalist al minorității ruse, pentru a crea fracturi în societatea ucraineană<sup>69</sup>.

De la finalul lunii martie 2021 și continuând cu intensitate în primele trei săptămâni din aprilie, s-a observat o escaladare cuantificabilă a tensiunilor politico-militare dintre Rusia și Ucraina. Rusia a invocat exerciții militare la nivelul întregii țări, conform planificării anuale, aducând în estul și în nordul Mării Negre numeroase vase de luptă, armament și muniții. Ucraina, la rândul ei, a acuzat planuri agresive ale Moscovei și a solicitat ajutorul Occidentului. Abia pe 22 aprilie 2021, partea rusă a comunicat că va începe să retragă gradual trupele și tehnica militară din districtele sudice și vestice, ca o confirmare că nu a avut vreun plan secret de a ataca țara vecină, ci doar a desfășurat exerciții militare, așa cum orice stat suveran are dreptul să facă.

Desigur, țările occidentale au luat în calcul și scenarii catastrofale, știut fiind faptul că Moscova acuză în mod constant Kievul că a provocat premeditat escaladarea tensiunilor bilaterale închizând canale de televiziune rusofone de opoziție, limitând dreptul la educație al rusofonilor, tolerând acțiunile agresive ale naționaliștilor ucraineni contra acestora. În plus, acțiunile întreprinse de liderul Zelenski contra oligarhului Viktor Medvedchuk, un apropiat al președintelui Putin, au sporit probabil iritarea acestuia din urmă.

Președintele ucrainean Zelenski e văzut ca oponentul ireductibil al planurilor rusești de federalizare a Ucrainei, deși în momentul în care a preluat mandatul prezidențial părea dispus la compromisuri pragmatice. El a avut curajul politic să lanseze chiar de la tribuna ONU ideea programului „Platforma Crimeea”, spre a spori vizibilitatea problemei pe agenda internațională și de a coagula solidaritatea externă. Totodată, a propus decretul privind „eliberarea și reintegrarea Crimeei”. Rusia consideră că soarta Crimeei a fost deja stabilită, orice agitație în sens contrar fiind inutilă și periculoasă. Și că Ucraina nu va putea evita menținerea influenței masive a Rusiei în estul țării (negată oficial de Moscova) fără a negocia și a se supune condițiilor puse de Rusia, prin formatul Normandia.

Mobilizând vreme de săptămâni întregi trupe la granița Ucrainei, mesajul Rusiei a fost că nu poate fi intimidată de planurile „revanșarde” ale Kievului, iar Occidentul nu are de ce să sprijine militar Ucraina, asumându-și riscul unui război devastator cu Rusia.

Oficialii ucraineni, în frunte cu președintele Zelenski, au denunțat agresivitatea sporită a Rusiei, intensificarea atacurilor separatiștilor rusofoni din Donbas și dorința Moscovei de a provoca Ucraina să dea o ripostă mai agresivă acestora pentru a avea pretextul lansării unui atac militar devastator de către separatiștii din cele două republici-fantomă, sprijiniți direct de militari ruși.

La reuniunea Comisiei NATO - Ucraina din 13 aprilie 2021, Kievul a solicitat accelerarea procedurii de primire a Ucrainei în NATO, oferirea unui calendar precis al aderării, ca element major de descurajare a Rusiei de la comiterea unei agresiuni. Oficialii din Kiev arată că sute de înregistrări video făcute în zona Rostov, în apropiere de granița cu Ucraina, au surprins deplasarea și concentrarea în zona graniței a unor mari efective militare rusești gata de luptă. Ministrul ucrainean de externe, D. Kuleba, a afirmat în timpul unei conferințe de presă comune cu cei trei omologi din țările baltice (15 aprilie 2021), veniți la Kiev pentru a-și exprima solidaritatea, că oficiali ruși au amenințat deschis Ucraina cu distrugerea ca stat.

Președintele Zelenski a venit la putere ca politician moderat, promițând o soluționare cât mai rapidă a conflictelor cu Rusia. Era evident că nu poate recupera Crimeea, dar măcar spera în retragerea (parțială) sprijinului rusesc pentru separatiștii rusofoni din Donbas. Nu s-a întâmplat acest lucru. El este puternic contestat pe plan politic intern (mai ales de către naționaliști) pentru că a

<sup>69</sup>Maxim Valentin, dr.Scipanov Lucian Valeriu, *Considerații cu privire la doctrina rusă și un nou model de război în regiunea Mării Negre*, articol publicat în revista “Impact strategic” editată de Universitatea Națională de Apărare „Carol I” prin Centrul de Studii Strategice de Apărare și Securitate, nr. 1(78) din 2021, pag.71;

acceptat inițial în cadrul formatului Normandia cerințele Rusiei pe care Franța și Germania par a le susține, mai ales federalizarea zonei estice a Ucrainei, acompaniată de drepturi speciale pentru etnicii ruși și rusofoni.

Ucraina a agreat în iulie 2020 un acord intitulat „Măsuri suplimentare pentru întărirea încetării focului”, prin care forțele paramilitare ruse din republicile separatiste dobândeau același statut cu cel al forțelor militare ucrainene și se crea un mecanism de interacțiune între militarii ucraineni și paramilitarii ruși. Prin impulsivitatea federalizării țării vecine, Rusia ar fi dobândit un drept de veto implicit asupra politicii interne a Ucrainei, folosindu-se de entitățile separatiste. În septembrie 2020, Kievul s-a retras din acord în mod tacit, iar apoi Zelenski a semnat decretul de „eliberare și reintegrare a Crimeii”, foarte provocator la adresa Moscovei. Așadar, o răsturnare cu 180 de grade a poziției oficiale. Unii analiști spun că din acel moment Rusia nu s-a mai simțit obligată să respecte încetarea focului, devenind tot mai agresivă și instigându-i la acțiune și pe luptătorii separatiști.

E cu siguranță posibil ca Putin să fi provocat această situație și pentru a observa reacția SUA, spre a testa limita de toleranță a noii administrații prezidențiale americane, precum și relația acesteia cu aliații europeni. Oferirea de garanții de securitate extinse Ucrainei (care nu e membru NATO, ci partener special al Alianței, existând o Comisie NATO-Ucraina), pe lângă arme și instructori așa cum s-a procedat până acum, ar putea determina însă Kievul să se comporte mai asertiv față de Rusia, putându-se ajunge chiar la escaladarea crizei și la conflict militar. În același timp, după cum spune expertul britanic James Sherr, soluția extremă a alipirii Donbasului la Rusia (pe modelul Crimeei) nu e dorită acum la Moscova deoarece i-ar lua mijloacele de presiune asupra Ucrainei. Fără Donbas și Crimeea, Ucraina ar putea fi mai aproape de integrarea în NATO, se consideră la Kremlin.

Liderii celor mai puternice state UE și NATO au solicitat Rusiei să pună capăt comportamentului agresiv, provocator față de Ucraina, să revină la masa negocierilor. Liderii Franței și Germaniei s-au alăturat șefului de stat ucrainean și după o videoconferință pe 16 aprilie 2021 au solicitat Moscovei retragerea trupelor desfășurate în număr prea mare la granița cu Ucraina. Imediat după acest eveniment, președintele francez Macron, într-un interviu cu canalul TV CBS News (emisiunea Face the Nation), a afirmat că „nu vom accepta noi operații militare (rusești – n.n.) pe teritoriul ucrainean”, că sunt necesare „linii roșii”, iar Rusia (stat cu care e nevoie de „un dialog sincer și deschis”) va fi sancționată dacă le depășește, cu toate că „sancțiunile în sine nu sunt suficiente, dar fac parte din pachet”.

Analistul austriac Gustav Gressel arată că presiunile occidentale în sensul garantării suveranității ucrainene au convins o bună parte din serviciile de informații rusești și o parte din clasa politică că ar exista un plan conspirativ între NATO și Ucraina, spre a o ajuta să recupereze Crimeea chiar prin forță.

Situația din Ucraina rămâne un dosar deosebit de complicat la nivel strategic. Președintele Biden a inițiat o convorbire telefonică cu V. Putin și i-a propus o întâlnire, un summit bilateral, într-o țară terță. Conținutul acestor discuții nu vor putea ocoli situația de securitate din estul Europei. Între timp, SUA au decis să aplice din 15 aprilie 2021 un nou pachet de sancțiuni la adresa Moscovei, expulzând și zece diplomați ruși, ca răspuns pentru interferența în alegerile americane, acțiunile destabilizatoare din Ucraina și atacuri cibernetice.

Un jucător important în această ecuație este, cu siguranță, Turcia. Președintele Turciei s-a oferit să medieze în conflictul ruso-ucrainean și a declarat că susține unitatea teritorială și suveranitatea Ucrainei. Turcia dorește să se afirme ca putere regională, să aibă relații constructive și cu Occidentul, dar și cu Rusia, așadar, o politică externă multi-vectorială care i-ar permite să păstreze o anumită echidistanță și să obțină avantaje din ambele direcții. Ankara a semnat mai multe contracte militare consistente cu Ucraina, furnizând de exemplu drone, ceea ce a iritat Rusia, care a



suspendat pentru o perioadă zborurile civile dintre Rusia și Turcia. „Baletul” strategic al Turciei pe dosarul ucrainean descifrează în fapt dilemele strategice ale conducerii de la Ankara<sup>70</sup>.

România a păstrat aparențele în raporturile cu Ucraina din ultimii ani, dar cele două țări nu au reușit să-și depășească nevrozele istorice: procesul de la Haga, în urma căruia majoritatea resurselor de gaz din Marea Neagră au revenit României a produs traume în imaginarul colectiv ucrainean, la fel cum teritoriile românești rămase în urma celui de-al Doilea Război Mondial la Ucraina suscită încă emoții.

După anexarea Crimeei, România a condamnat acest rapt, a trimis echipament ușor în zona Donbas și și-a asumat în interiorul NATO conducerea Grupului pentru apărarea cibernetică a Ucrainei. În același timp, Bucureștiul a evitat ani de zile să ajute Ucraina cu gaz și nu a reușit să negocieze drepturi suficiente în favoarea minorității române din Bucovina de Nord, un subiect complicat care a rămas deschis.

România a susținut deci Ucraina în momentele dificile, chiar dacă fără un entuziasm special. Totuși în Noua Strategie de Securitate publicată în septembrie 2020, Ucraina nu include România printre statele de care are nevoie să fie în parteneriate apropiate, cu toate că cele două au o frontieră lungă de aproape 700 de km, iar în Marea Neagră stau față în față cu același inamic. Documentul menționează o „cooperare extensivă” cu SUA, Marea Britanie, Canada, Germania și Franța, apoi îi enumeră pe partenerii strategici: Azerbaidjan, Georgia, Lituania, Polonia și Turcia.

Cu toată timiditatea sa tradițională și antipatia ascunsă, România își dorește o Ucraină puternică și stabilă. Chiar dacă, deocamdată, nu spune nimic despre peisajul războinic din Marea Neagră, Bucureștiul are tot interesul să susțină Kievul, declarativ și practic.

Presiunea trupelor rusești la frontiera cu Ucraina s-a accentuat după ce președintele ucrainean Volodimir Zelenski a lansat pe 25 martie 2021 Strategia militară a țării sale, care "va contribui la realizarea integrării Ucrainei în NATO". Documentul menționează că Federația Rusă „continuă să fie inamicul militar” al Ucrainei, și „agresorul” ei, fiindcă ocupă „temporar” teritoriul Republicii Autonome Crimeea și teritorii din regiunea Donbas, folosind „în mod sistematic mijloace militare, politice, economice, informațional-psihologice, spațiale, cibernetice și de altă natură” împotriva „suveranității și integrității teritoriale a Ucrainei”. Pentru a demonstra toate temerile oficialilor ucrainieni, purtătoarea de cuvânt a diplomației ruse i-a transmis Kievului că orice încercare de aderare la NATO ar putea pune sub semnul întrebării existența Ucrainei ca stat.

Înainte de această Strategie militară, președintele ucrainean Zelenski a inițiat pe 11 martie 2021 *Platforma Crimeea*, dedicată „încetării regimului de ocupație și de reintegrare a Crimeei” prin mijloace „diplomatice, militare, economice, informaționale, umanitare”. Acestei ofensive strategice, dar pașnice, Rusia îi răspunde cu o mobilizare armată nemaivăzută în ultimii 20 de ani. În Marea Neagră, unde are deja o flotă puternică, dotată inclusiv cu submarine purtătoare de armament nuclear, vor veni nave de război din Baltica și din Caspica. Între 50.000 și 80.000 de militari ruși au fost trimiși la granița cu Ucraina și în Crimeea, potrivit statisticilor Kievului.

Ministrul Apărării de la Moscova, Serghei Șoigu, a anunțat că două armate și trei unități aeropurtate au fost mutate la granița vestică a Rusiei pentru „exerciții”, ca reacție la activitățile „amenințătoare” ale NATO. De asemenea, au fost alertate și trupele din Transnistria, unde în mod oficial se află 1700 de militari ai Grupului Operativ al Trupelor Ruse. De la Tiraspol la frontiera cu Ucraina sunt 13 km și nu se cunoaște capacitatea reală a contingentului rusesc.

În Marea Neagră echilibrul e schimbător. Rusia are de partea ei suficient armament și destui soldați pentru a fi stăpână pe situație. Statele Unite au trimis două nave militare, care vor trece de Strâmtoarele Bosfor și Dardanele, dar care pot rămâne doar până la începutul lunii mai 2021 în Marea Neagră, potrivit Convenției de la Montreux. Ankara se declară de partea Ucrainei, iar soldații

<sup>70</sup>Cioculescu Șerban, Conflictul Ucraina – Rusia și calculele celor doi președinți, [www.hotnews.ro](http://www.hotnews.ro) accesat la data de 19.05.2021, ora 09.00;

ucraineni folosesc drone militare turcești în Donbas. Cu toate acestea, presa proguvernamentală turcă are comentarii antiamericane și atrage atenția că Turcia trebuie să păstreze cheile Strâmtorilor doar pentru ea și să nu deschidă porțile pentru SUA. În 2008, în războiul de cinci zile ruso-georgian, Ankara a blocat intrarea în Marea Neagră a vaselor americane. Întreg balansul din Pontul Euxin ar putea schimba poziția dilematică a Turciei, membră NATO, dar aflată într-o intimitate periculoasă cu Rusia. Dacă Ankara se întoarce cu fața spre Alianța Nord Atlantică, Marea Neagră ar putea să nu mai fie un lac rusesc.

Mai există, însă, și alte mijloace de descurajare, după cum sugerează un diplomat ucrainean: eliminarea Rusiei din sistemul internațional de plăți bancare SWIFT, sau un ultimatum din partea Germaniei, că va opri construcția gazoductului Nord Stream 2, dacă Moscova nu-și cheamă trupele înapoi.

Aflată în vecinătatea zonei fierbinți a Mării Negre, România nu spune nimic, nu are nicio idee și, poate, chiar dacă ar avea ar continua să tacă mîlc: să nu deranjeze, să nu greșească, să nu iasă în evidență, dar în același timp, să fie bine poziționată. Bucureștiul știe înaintea tuturor că nu va fi un *casus belli*, ci doar o încercare a Rusiei de a provoca NATO<sup>71</sup>.

## Concluzii

Geopolitica Mării Negre are o îndelungată istorie în care au fost atrase diferite imperii (otoman, țarist) și state (Ucraina, Rusia, România, Turcia, Georgia, Bulgaria) care s-au învecinat de-a lungul istoriei cu această mare.

Tranșarea disputelor de natură geo-politică s-a realizat, istoric vorbind, în raport de forța economică și militară a actorilor implicați în această zonă de interese multiple (politice, economice, militare, ecologice și de altă natură).

Geopolitica acestei zone este influențată major de componenta economică a intereselor statelor riverane Mării Negre.

În actualele împrejurări referitoare la evoluția evenimentelor internaționale, în ecuația geopolitică a zonei Mării Negre se vor implica, pe lângă Rusia, Ucraina și Turcia ca state riverane de o forță și dimensiune remarcabile, și alte state și sisteme de alianțe cum sunt Statele Unite ale Americii, Uniunea Europeană și NATO, având în vedere bogăția de resurse minerale (petrol și gaze îndeosebi) a acestei mari și a statelor din vecinătatea ei.

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<sup>71</sup>Ce rol joacă România în conflictul proiectat de Rusia la Marea Neagră, poziție publicată pe **Error! Hyperlink reference not valid.**



<https://www.historia.ro/sectiune/general/articol/vara-tancurilor-din-2008-micul-razboi-ruso-georgian-care-a-zgu-duit-lumea;>

## **SUSTAINING PSYCHOLOGICAL WELLBEING AMONGST MARRIED CAREER WOMEN: PSYCHOLOGICAL DISTRESS, SOCIAL SUPPORT, DOMESTIC VIOLENCE, AND FAMILY CONFLICT RESOLUTION AS INFLUENCERS**

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### Abstract

*The current paper aims to examine the influencing factors in sustaining psychological wellbeing amongst married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria. Hence, this paper plans to propose ways of increasing and sustaining psychological wellbeing amongst married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria. The paper espoused a quantitative research approach based on a survey research design. The results showed that psychological distress, social support, domestic violence, and family conflict resolution significantly jointly and independently influence the sustenance of psychological wellbeing amongst married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria. The results show that family conflict resolution is a noteworthy moderator of the negative influence of psychological distress and domestic violence in sustaining psychological wellbeing amongst married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria. Besides, the outcomes indicate that religion significantly influences psychological wellbeing amongst married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria. Therefore, developmental psychologists, organizational managers, human resources practitioners, counselors, and religious organizations should encourage ways of reducing psychological distress, by increasing social support, reducing domestic violence, and achieving consistent conflict resolution within families, as a way to sustain psychological wellbeing amongst married career women in Nigeria. Thus, this paper has recognized psychological distress, social support, domestic violence, family conflict resolution, and demographic factors (for instance, religion) as significant influencers in sustaining psychological wellbeing amongst married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria.*

**Keywords:** Sustenance, marriage, career, women, influence, psychological wellbeing, Ibadan, Nigeria.

**Jel Classification:** I31

### Introduction

The psychological wellbeing of employees has sustained the attraction of significant concern and attention by psychologists and human resources managers because every organization needs employees who are in an excellent psychological state to flourish and endure the constant changes in the world of work (Ferreira, 2012). However, psychological wellbeing among married career women remains a determining factor influencing the success and failure of various homes today as the world is experiencing changes in the organizational structure. As George (2001) said, marriage is the institution exclusively suitable for conceiving and raising children by obtaining both parents' input in the enduring union. Besides, marriage plays a part in shielding loving relationships (Brake, 2011); therefore, any condition that is not favorable to couples' wellbeing will intensely and adversely hit the family health and relationship (Hartley & Watson, 2012). The Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English (2017) noted that psychological wellbeing is an optimistic state of physical, mental, and social wellbeing. Psychological wellbeing is the absence of illness and a complete state of mental, physical, and social wellbeing (World Health Organization, 2012). Therefore, this led to a change in focus from an overemphasis of the medical model towards developing a public health model (Edmondson & Macleod, 2015). Findings indicate that working women face intense, stressful conditions as they need to live up to the duties of faithful wives, obedient daughters-in-law, sacrificing mothers, and simultaneously struggle to become dynamic, committed, and competitive career women (Parveen, 2009). Harshpinder (2006) opined that a significant number of working women experienced more psychological and physiological stress. Besides, the research noted women's employment as either detrimental or beneficial to women's psychological wellbeing. Therefore, a stable form of day-to-day lifestyle and jobs positively influences career women (Srimathi, 2010).

Psychological distress is an unpleasant feeling or emotion that can unfavorably impact one's functioning, encompassing depression, distraction, anxiety, and states of marked impairment (Mirowsky & Ross, 2007). It is the emotional suffering in a stressful situation that makes it challenging to cope with usual daily activities and negatively impacts focus and social activities (Mirowsky & Ross, 2007). Also, Lorenzo-Blanco *et al.* (2017) opined that it is quite disturbing that stress is present in just about everyone, but it is common for couples because they are still learning to adjust to marital life. Psychological distress can impact overall health and put one at a higher risk of chronic diseases, including cardiovascular. One of the possible consequences of severe psychological distress is the increased risk of suicide (Brandberg, Bolund & Sigurdardotti, 1992). Besides, research indicated that most married couples with reports of psychological distress, and people with severe depression are significantly more at risk of developing suicidal thoughts, which implies that psychological distress should be more of a clinical issue than social (Brandberg *et al.*, 1992).

Furthermore, social support is the perception and actuality that an individual receives some assistance and care from people and is involved in an active social system. These practical means can be in the form of information (for instance, pieces of advice), companionship (for instance, sense of belonging) emotion (nurturing), or financial assistance (Thomas, Liu & Umberson, 2017). This care or help can come from several sources, for instance, friends, family, government, and organizations. For instance, the government could provide social care in public aid. Nevertheless, studies on social support have gone across disciplines, including psychology, public health, medicine, nursing, human resources management, and social work. Besides, social support inspires many physical and mental health benefits (Mone *et al.*, 2011). Hence, social support among married career women in this paper is the self-perception of overall family, friends, and relatives' supports for individual survival or social aspects. The provision of social support positively adds to the wellbeing of working women in all settings. Besides, working women depend on social support they get through various relationships, developed in both their professional and personal roles, to achieve work-family balance as social support mitigates work-family conflict, positively improves health, and reduces stress (Cutrona *et al.*, 1994; Deelstra *et al.*, 2003).

Domestic violence denotes offensive behavior, physical and psychological, by a significant other against another in a close relationship, such as family, cohabitation, marriage, or dating (Cunradi *et al.*, 2014). Domestic violence is a significant public wellbeing worry for women living in developed and developing nations across the globe (Tjaden & Thoennes, 2000). Golding's (1999) study on the relationship between domestic violence and psychological wellbeing amongst 640 women indicated that on the average, occurrence rates for quantifiable depression amongst abused women were 48% across 18 studies. Besides, the severity of violence is linked with the pervasiveness of depression and worsening psychological wellbeing (World Health Organization, 2000). Also, Fawole, Aderonmu, and Fawole (2005) concluded that exposure to domestic violence is a common phenomenon in Ibadan, Nigeria, across the low-density areas, and that exposure to domestic violence is as psychologically debilitating to witness and the victim.

Moreover, family conflict resolution remains a social circumstance where disagreeing parties in a voluntary agreement decide to peaceably live with one another, dissolving their fundamental inharmoniousness and henceforth stop to raise forces against one another (Wallenstein, 2015). Resolving family conflict teaches kids how to negotiate and reach compromises, setting them up for healthy relationships. Therefore, disagreements are a normal part of family life. Lee and Lee (2015) concluded that a devastating conflict resolution style in the family always harms psychological wellbeing and reduces inputs from both parties. Besides, Dreu and Beersma (2005) believe that when not appropriately resolved, family conflict may affect one's self-esteem and emotions connected to the conflict, such as hatred, anger, fear, and need.

As earlier indicated, the psychological wellbeing of married working women remains an essential factor to consider, as every organization needs its employees to be in an excellent psychological state to flourish and endure the constant changes in the world of work. Besides, there are many determinants of variations in women's psychological wellbeing, specifically the married career women (Ryff, 2014). However, there are virtually very few published investigations on achieving and sustaining the psychological wellbeing of married career women in Nigeria through the combination of psychological distress, social support, domestic violence, and family conflict resolution as influencers. Hence, indicating factors that could influence the sustenance of psychological wellbeing amongst married career women in Nigeria demands scholarly attention.

## Aims

The current paper aims to look into sustaining the psychological wellbeing of married career women in Nigeria by examining psychological distress, social support, domestic violence, and family conflict resolution as influencers, with an intent to propose strategies for achieving and sustaining the psychological wellbeing of married career women in Nigeria. Hence, the objectives of the current paper are:

- To examine relationships among psychological distress, social support, domestic violence, family conflict resolution, and psychological wellbeing amongst married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria;
- Investigate psychological distress, social support, domestic violence, and family conflict resolution as influencing factors for sustaining psychological wellbeing amongst married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria;
- Find out if family conflict resolution will significantly moderate psychological distress, social support, and domestic violence in achieving and sustaining psychological wellbeing amongst married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria; and
- To determine demographic factors (such as age, religion, marital status, and educational qualifications) as influencing factors for sustaining psychological wellbeing amongst married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria.

## Literature Review

The literature review of this paper deals specifically with constructs such as psychological distress, social support, domestic violence, family conflict resolution, and psychological wellbeing.

### **Psychological Distress, Social Support, Domestic Violence, Family Conflict Resolution, and Psychological Wellbeing**

Research has established that psychological distress is a significant predictor of psychological wellbeing, having harmful effects on individuals' health and well-being (Frone *et al.*, 1997). Mark and Smith (2012) studied the relationship between psychological distress and coping in predicting levels of employees' psychological wellbeing. They posited that poor wellbeing correlates with increased levels of psychological distress. Besides, deep psychological distress negatively correlates with psychological wellbeing, while high motivation positively associates with it. Hence, their findings demonstrated the importance of employees' psychological distress in predicting their psychological health. Research has shown that psychological distress significantly reduces psychological wellbeing while work-life balance significantly and positively predicts psychological wellbeing and a healthy lifestyle (Jackson & Slater 2016). Empirical evidence also confirms that psychological distress and work-family balance predicted a 67.3% variance in psychological wellbeing (Karatepe & Tekinkus, 2006). Employees with a low level of psychological distress perform splendidly at work and report healthy lifestyles and improved psychological wellbeing (Maslach & Leiter, 2014). Mohammed *et al.* (2010) found that physical exercise, deep psychological distress, and work-life balance were predictors of psychological wellbeing (PW). Besides, the study of Lee, Tzeng, and Chiang (2019) indicated reduced psychological distress (PD) as the primary predictor of nurses' psychological wellbeing. Caverley (2005) indicated that distressed employees

are more likely to be weak and less motivated less safe at work, and unhealthy, affecting their psychological and emotional wellbeing.

The above literature has, therefore triggered the following hypothesis:

**H<sub>1</sub>:** Psychological distress significantly influences the sustenance of psychological wellbeing amongst married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria.

Regarding social support, a study conducted by Mone *et al.* (2011) concluded that when divorced parents remarry, apart from its positive psychological impact, several changes influence the children involved in the relationship. Hence, the step-parent's additional support can help an individual's emotional wellbeing (Mone *et al.*, 2011). Besides, their study indicated that social support predicted psychological wellbeing among married women. Studies showed that social support (SS) from friends and family increases physio-psychological wellbeing and decreases stress among working women (Ryska & Yin, 1999; Reed & Giacobbi, 2004; Malinauskas, 2010). Specifically, women's social support systems seriously influence their psychological wellbeing in different ways (Feldman *et al.*, 2000). In addition, numerous parts of significant social care, such as emotional bonds, attending social events, family/friends contacts, couple focused, and remittances from children, are significantly related to improved psychological wellbeing (Gyasi *et al.*, 2018). Adejumo (2008) noted a significant independent influence of SS on the PW of career women in Ibadan, Nigeria. Social support positively impacts the occupied roles of women at workplaces by creating an equilibrium between family and work, making them ardently proficient, thus abolishing family-work struggles and enhancing psychological wellbeing (Afroz, 2016). The findings of Oluwagbemiga (2016) indicated that social support (companionship, emotional support, financial support, and information access) has a significant effect on the psychosocial wellbeing of the elderly in older peoples' homes in Ibadan, Nigeria.

The following hypothesis comes from this literature:

**H<sub>2</sub>:** Social support significantly influences the sustenance of psychological wellbeing amongst married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria.

Concerning domestic violence, it has contributed significantly to the low level of psychological wellbeing among married couples in the southwestern part of Nigeria (Adebayo, 2014). Besides, Afolabi and Aina (2014) concluded that a high level of family stress and domestic violence contributed to a low level of wellbeing among spouses and children. Also, Scott and Marshall (2009) examined the relationship between domestic violence and psychological wellbeing among married couples and indicated a substantial negative correlation between the two variables. Their findings indicated that increased domestic violence reduced psychological wellbeing. Also, Sugarman and Hotaling (1997) reported that as family dysfunction and domestic violence increase, psychological wellbeing becomes significantly reduced. When individuals fail to achieve their goals due to perceived domestic violence or restraint by family or society, they encounter an increased level of stress, leading to psychological distress (Field & Caetano, 2004).

Hence, the information above has prompted the following hypothesis:

**H<sub>3</sub>:** Domestic violence significantly influences the sustenance of psychological wellbeing amongst married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria.

Regarding family conflict resolution, psychological wellbeing research and the introduced social interaction studies on family lifestyle showed that family conflict resolution was a moderating factor that suppressed partner violence and aggression on psychological wellbeing (Cole *et al.*, 2002). Family conflict causes disturbance and the disintegration of relationships in the family, but its ineffective management causes undesirable results (Kreitner & Kinicki, 2005). According to Sori (2007), family conflict resolution had a significant independent effect on married women's psychological wellbeing, enhancing their sense of security, trust, and psychological wellbeing due to support received and conflict resolution therapy. Panatik *et al.* (2011) noted a substantial positive correlation between conflict resolution and the psychological wellbeing of the family, and Reich *et*



*al.* (2007) noted a significant relationship between the right conflict management style and psychological wellbeing within the family. In addition, in his study, Amiri (2006) indicated that family conflict resolution was a moderator of psychological wellbeing.

The above literature has thus elicited the following hypothesis:

**H4:** Family conflict resolution significantly influences the sustenance of psychological wellbeing amongst married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria.

Furthermore, the pieces of literature stated above have inspired the following hypotheses:

**H5:** There are significant relationships amongst the psychological distress, social support, domestic violence, family conflict resolution, and psychological wellbeing of married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria.

**H6:** Family conflict resolution significantly moderates psychological distress, social support, and domestic violence in sustaining psychological wellbeing amongst married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria.

Concerning demographic factors, Al-Windi *et al.* (1999) noted that the occurrence of most symptoms of declining psychological wellbeing increased with age. Hence, the older the participants, the more they experience declining psychological wellbeing. In contrast, Lincoln *et al.* (2010) opined that respondents of advanced age reported higher levels of psychological wellbeing than their younger counterparts. Dorji, Dunne, and Gurung (2020) posited a statistically significant relationship between marital status and psychological wellbeing. They further indicated that higher psychological wellbeing means score was reported amongst married participants compared to single, separated, or widowed participants. In addition, Khumalo, Temane, and Wissing (2012), in their study, noted a positive correlation between education and psychological wellbeing. They opined that people with some tertiary level education obtained the highest mean scores on psychological wellbeing while those without lower education level or those without any formal education scored the lowest. Besides, Keyes (2002) indicated that education is positively associated with psychological health. Moreover, the relationship between religion and psychological wellbeing has been the center of many empirical investigations over the last 20 years. Several studies have indicated that many forms of religious experience are associated with improved psychological health (Francis & Kaldor, 2002; Keyes & Reitzes, 2007). Moreover, the frequency of attendance at religious services correlated with greater psychological wellbeing in most studies (Francis & Kaldor 2002; Keyes & Reitzes 2007; Greenfield & Marks 2007). Hence, religion has been linked to physical and psychological wellbeing (Pargament *et al.*, 2001; Wink *et al.*, 2005; Greenfield & Marks, 2007; Keyes & Reitzes, 2007).

The above literature has, therefore, prompted the following hypothesis:

**H7:** Demographic factors (such as age, religion, marital status, and educational qualifications) jointly and independently influence the sustenance of psychological wellbeing amongst married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria.

## Methods

The current paper adopted a cross-sectional survey research design and a quantitative research approach to investigate how the sustenance of psychological wellbeing of married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria, is influenced by psychological distress, social support, domestic violence, and family conflict resolution. Therefore, the present researcher gathered data through a self-administered instrument, namely, a questionnaire (Babbie & Mouton, 2010). Furthermore, the participants of this paper included 300 participants (married career women) attending religious and social gatherings such as churches, mosques, and open/closed markets within Lagelu Local Government Area in Ibadan, Oyo State, and some other Ibadan locations. Hence, the research locations include Anifalaje and Akobo Ojuirin areas in Ibadan - during a religious and social gathering), Olorunredo, off Olorundaaba, Ibadan, Adamasingba, Dugbe, Ibadan, Jegede, off Olorunsogo, Ibadan, and Akobo, Ibadan.

## Instrumentation

The questionnaire used in measuring the constructs under study comprised different segments.

### Section A: Demographic Questions

This section is for the participants' demographic data (for instance, age, educational qualification, profession, ethnicity, and family system - joint and nuclear).

### Section B: Psychological Distress (PD)

The present researcher adapted a 10-item scale of psychological distress developed by Kessler *et al.* (2002) and validated by Bougie *et al.* (2016). The initial Cronbach's alpha of the 10-item scale was 0.89. This scale consists of a five-scale Likert format of all of the time (4), most of the time (3), some of the time (2), a little of the time (1), and none of the time (0); respondents will indicate how often they experienced these symptoms using this measure. In the current investigation, the researcher realized a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of 0.93 for the reliability of this scale.

### Section C: Perceived Social Support (PSS)

This 12-item measure of perceived social support system was developed by Zimet *et al.* (1988), having a Cronbach's alpha of 0.85. The response format for the scale consisted of a 5-point Likert type ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). The reliability of this scale, in this paper, is Cronbach's alpha coefficient 0.97.

### Section D: Domestic Violence (DV)

In measuring domestic violence in the present investigation, the present investigator adopted a 42-item Self-Report Inventory developed initially by Abolmaali *et al.* (2014), which comprises a five-point Likert format ranging from 0 to 4. The initial Cronbach's alpha of the 42-item scale was 0.84, while the Cronbach's alpha coefficient for the reliability of this scale in the present investigation is 0.98.

### Section E: Family Conflict Resolution (FCR)

The present researcher adopted a 17-item self-report measure developed by Tyler, Paul, and Megan (2010), to assess the rate of family conflict resolution. The initial Cronbach's alpha of the 17-item scale was 0.82. This scale consists of a five-scale Likert format rated from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). In the current investigation, the researcher realized a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of 0.98 for the reliability of this scale.

### Section F: Psychological Wellbeing (PW)

This 22-item measuring instrument developed by Flanagan, Van Heck, and Vingerhoets (2001) was adopted to measure married career women's psychological wellbeing. It had a Cronbach's alpha of 0.86. The scale's response format contained a 5-point Likert type stretching from a little of the time (1) to all of the time (5). The reliability of this instrument, in this paper, is Cronbach's alpha coefficient 0.87.

To validate the efficiency of the measuring scales, the current researcher adopted a pilot study to detect, beforehand, any possible hitches. Besides, the current researcher assured that participants' anonymity was well-maintained in the inquiry process as inclusive of the primary research. The current researcher retrieved a total number of 280 valid questionnaires, and these questionnaires were analyzed.

The study adopted a multi-stage sampling technique. A multi-stage sampling method involves using different sampling techniques, which include: purposive method in which only married women were involved. In contrast, the current researcher applied a randomized questionnaire administration (for instance, a situation whereby the participants come in an organized manner, odd, and even number) method in the current study. However, on another occasion, where the current researcher accidentally identified potential participants, the accidental sampling technique was used.

## Results

The current researcher utilized the statistical package for social sciences (SPSS v 26) in analyzing the data sieved from the respondents. The current researcher inspected and cleaned the retrieved data before proceeding to the analysis. This paper presents the current results:

### Inferential Statistics (Hypothesis testing)

**Table 1: Multiple regressions showing the sustenance psychological wellbeing of married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria, as influenced by psychological distress, social support, domestic violence, and family conflict resolution**

Influencers	B	T	P	R	R <sup>2</sup>	F(4,275)	P
Psychological Distress	.107	2.125	.009	.478	.229	20.40	<.01
Social Support	.677	8.123	.000				
Domestic Violence	.099	1.809	.016				
Family Conflict Resolution	.361	4.394	.000				

Dependent Variable: Psychological Wellbeing

### Hypothesis one

This proposition stated that psychological distress significantly influences the sustenance of psychological wellbeing amongst married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria. This hypothesis was tested using multiple regression analysis. The results are in Table 1 above.

The results in Table 1 showed the significant independent influence of each independent variable on the variance in the psychological wellbeing of married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria. The current results show that psychological distress contributed to an 11% variance in psychological wellbeing ( $\beta = .107$ ,  $t=2.125$ ;  $p<.01$ ). Therefore, the overall results of this paper largely supported its first hypothesis.

### Hypothesis two

This hypothesis stated that social support significantly influences the sustenance of psychological wellbeing amongst married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria. This conditional statement was tested using multiple regression analysis, and the results are stated in Table 1 above.

Nonetheless, the results in Table 1 revealed the significant independent influence of each independent variable on the variance in the psychological wellbeing of married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria. However, the present results show that social support contributed about a 68% change in psychological wellbeing ( $\beta = .677$ ,  $t=8.123$ ;  $p<.05$ ). Thus, the overall results of the current study factually supported its second hypothesis.

### Hypothesis three

This hypothesis stated that domestic violence significantly influences the sustenance of psychological wellbeing amongst married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria. This proposition was tested using multiple regression analysis, and the results are stated in Table 1 above.

The results in Table 1 showed the significant independent influence of each independent variable on the variance in the psychological wellbeing of married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria. Nevertheless, the current results show that domestic violence contributed about a 10% variation in psychological wellbeing amongst married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria ( $\beta = .099$ ,  $t=1.809$ ;  $p<.01$ ). Therefore, the general results of this paper supported its third hypothesis.

### Hypothesis four

This proposition stated that family conflict resolution significantly influences the sustenance of psychological wellbeing amongst married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria. This hypothesis was tested using multiple regression analysis, and the outcomes are stated in Table 1 above.

However, the results in Table 1 showed the significant independent influence of each independent variable on the variance in the psychological wellbeing of married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria. Nevertheless, the current results indicate that family conflict resolution contributed about a 36% change in psychological wellbeing amongst married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria ( $\beta = .361$ ,  $t=4.394$ ;  $p<.01$ ). Hence, the overall findings of this paper supported its fourth hypothesis.

Results showed in Table 1 further indicated that psychological distress, social support, domestic violence, and family conflict resolution significantly and jointly influence the sustenance of psychological wellbeing amongst married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria ( $R = .478$ ,  $R^2 = .229$ ,  $F(4, 275) = 20.40$ ,  $p<.01$ ). This result infers that psychological distress, social support, domestic violence, and family conflict resolution accounted for 23% of the observed changes in the self-reported level of psychological wellbeing amongst married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria. In comparison, the remaining 76.7% is attributed to other factors that were not considered in this study.

**Table 2: Zero Order Correlations showing the relationship amongst the psychological distress, social support, domestic violence, family conflict resolution, and psychological wellbeing of married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria.**

Variables	Psychological Distress	Social Support	Domestic Violence	Family Conflict Resolution	Psychological Wellbeing	Mean	SD
Psychological Distress	1	-.207**	.237**	.085	-.126*	30.55	9.00
Social Support		1	-.077	.758**	.410**	36.48	18.72
Domestic Violence			1	-.106	.111	95.35	38.73
Family Conflict Resolution				1	.162**	48.55	26.46
Psychological Wellbeing					1	64.48	15.13

\*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (1-Tailed)

\*\*Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (1-Tailed)

### Hypothesis five

This hypothesis stated that there are significant relationships between psychological distress, social support, domestic violence, family conflict resolution, and the psychological wellbeing of married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria. This study tested this hypothesis using a Zero-Order correlation, and results are in Table 2 above.

From Table 2, the result matrix shows that psychological distress has a significant negative relationship with psychological wellbeing at ( $r = -0.13$ ;  $p<.05$ ). Hence, an increase in the psychological distress of married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria, will decrease their psychological wellbeing. Results also reveal that social support has a substantial positive correlation with an individual's psychological wellbeing ( $r=0.41$ ;  $p<.01$ ). This outcome means that an increase in the social support married career women in Nigeria receive, the higher their psychological wellbeing. However, the current results indicate that domestic violence had no significant relationship with psychological wellbeing at ( $r=0.11$ ;  $p>.01$ ). Besides, the results reveal that family conflict resolution has a noteworthy positive correlation with psychological wellbeing at ( $r=0.16$ ;  $p<.01$ ), showing that resolving conflict among conflicting parties in the families of married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria increases the level of their psychological wellbeing. This paper confirms the fifth hypothesis due to the above-stated results.

### Hypothesis six

This hypothesis stated that family conflict resolution significantly moderates psychological distress, social support, and domestic violence in sustaining psychological wellbeing amongst married career

women in Ibadan, Nigeria. This paper tested this hypothesis using stepwise multiple regression analysis. The results are in Table 3.

**Table 3: Summary of stepwise regressions showing the moderating effect of family conflict resolution on psychological distress, perceived social support, and domestic violence as factors influencing the sustainability of psychological wellbeing amongst married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria.**

Predictors	Beta( $\beta$ )	T	Sig	R	R <sup>2</sup>	F	P
1 (Constant)		42.238	.000				
Social Support	.410	7.485	.000	.410 <sup>a</sup>	.168	56.018	.000 <sup>b</sup>
2 (Constant)		41.181	.000				
Social Support	.673	8.281	.000				
Family Conflict Resolution	.348	4.283	.000	.468 <sup>b</sup>	.219	38.930	.000 <sup>c</sup>
3 (Constant)		24.257	.000				
Social Support	.668	7.998	.000				
Family Conflict Resolution	.345	4.214	.000				
Psychological Distress	-.017	-.311	.756	.469 <sup>c</sup>	.220	25.901	.000 <sup>d</sup>
4 (Constant)		16.818	.000				
Social Support	.677	8.123	.000				
Family Conflict Resolution	.361	4.394	.000				
Psychological Distress	.007	.125	.901				
Domestic Violence	.099	1.809	.072	.478 <sup>d</sup>	.229	20.403	.000 <sup>e</sup>

a. Dependent Variable: Psychological Wellbeing

b. Predictors: (Constant), Social Support

c. Predictors: (Constant), Social Support, Conflict Resolution

d. Predictors: (Constant), Social Support, Conflict Resolution, Psychological Distress

e. Predictors: (Constant), Social Support, Conflict Resolution, Psychological Distress, Domestic Violence

The results shown in Table 3 indicate that the first model, when including social support, contributed 16.8% variance ( $R=.410$ ,  $R^2=.168$ ,  $F=56.018$ ,  $P<.01$ ) in the psychological wellbeing of married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria. Besides, the second model, including family conflict resolution, yielded a higher variance of about 21.9% ( $R=.468$ ,  $R^2=.219$ ,  $F=38.93$ ,  $P<.01$ ) in the psychological wellbeing of married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria. The third model, including psychological distress, yielded a 22% variance ( $R=.469$ ,  $R^2=.220$ ,  $F=25.901$ ,  $P<.01$ ) in the psychological wellbeing of married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria. However, further observations showed that psychological distress had lost its influence in the model, and it was not significant due to the moderating role of family conflict resolution. Also, the fourth model, including domestic violence, indicates that both psychological distress and domestic violence did not influence the psychological wellbeing of married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria due to the presence of family conflict resolution, as the model yielded a 23% variance ( $R=.478$ ,  $R^2=.229$ ,  $F=20.403$ ,  $P<.01$ ) in the psychological wellbeing of married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria. Therefore, the results supported the stated hypothesis.

### Hypothesis seven

This proposition stated that demographic factors (for instance, age, religion, marital status, educational qualifications, and ethnicity) jointly and independently influence the sustenance of psychological wellbeing amongst married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria. This study tested the hypothesis using multiple regression analysis, and the results are in Table 4 below.

**Table 4: Multiple regressions showing the influence of socio-demographic factors in sustaining psychological wellbeing among married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria**

Predictors	$\beta$	t-value	Sig	R	R <sup>2</sup>	F(5,271)	P
Age	.097	1.159	>.05				
Ethnicity	.118	1.898	>.05				



Marital Status	.129	1.536	>.05	.265	.070	4.081	<.01
Religion	-.170	-2.891	<.01				
Educational Qualification	-.187	-2.602	>.05				

#### Dependent Variable: Psychological Wellbeing

The result stated in Table 4 indicate that socio-demographic factors jointly predicted psychological wellbeing amongst married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria at ( $R=.265$ ,  $R^2 = .070$ ,  $F(5,271) = 4.081$ ;  $P < .01$ ). This result implies that age, ethnicity, marital status, religion, and highest educational qualifications accounted for about 7% variance in psychological wellbeing amongst married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria. Furthermore, the results revealed that only religion had a significant independent (main) influence on the sustenance of psychological wellbeing ( $\beta = -.170$ ,  $t = -2.891$ ,  $p < .01$ ) amongst married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria. Therefore, the results largely support the stated hypothesis. However, this result requires further clarifications on the influence of religion on psychological wellbeing using a one-way ANOVA, as presented in table 5 below:

**Table 5: Summary of the one-way ANOVA showing the influence of religion in sustaining psychological wellbeing among married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria.**

Psychological Wellbeing					
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	2493.937	2	1246.968	5.628	.004
Within Groups	61369.935	277	221.552		
Total	63863.871	279			

Table 5 indicates that religion had a significant influence on psychological wellbeing amongst married career women in Ibadan at ( $F(2, 277) = 5.628$ ;  $P < .01$ ). Besides, this paper conducted a Post-Hoc analysis of HSD- Highest Significant Difference.

**Table 6: Summary of HSD multiple comparison analysis showing the influence of religion on psychological wellbeing amongst married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria.**

Religion I-J	1	2	3	$\bar{X}$
1. Christian	1	-6.20225*	1.01337	63.94
2. Islam		1	-5.18888	66.96
3. Others			1	64.75

\* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

The post-hoc results presented in table 6 indicate that married career women who practice Islamic religion reported significantly highest psychological wellbeing (Mean=67;  $p < .05$ ) compared to the married career women who practice Christianity and Others. Thus, the result established the influence of religion on psychological wellbeing amongst married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria, and thus confirmed the seventh hypothesis.

## Discussions

The results stated above showed that the psychological distress of married career women does not sustain their psychological wellbeing; it also reduces the psychological wellbeing of married career women in Ibadan. Besides, the stated results confirmed that the psychological wellbeing of married career women increases and remains sustained with adequate social support and family conflict resolution. As mentioned above, Mark and Smith (2011) investigated the relationship between psychological distress and coping in predicting employees' psychological wellbeing, and they opined that poor wellbeing correlated with increased levels of psychological distress. The current study also supports the findings of Caverley (2005), who indicated that distressed employees are more likely to be weak and less motivated, less safe at work, and unhealthy, negatively affecting

their psychological and emotional wellbeing. Besides, the results stated above confirmed that an increase in the social support married career women in Nigeria receive, the higher their psychological wellbeing. Hence, the current investigation confirms the position of Gyasi *et al.* (2018), who opined that numerous parts of significant social care: emotional bonds, attending social events, couple focused, family/friends contacts, and remittances from children significantly relate to improved psychological wellbeing. The above-stated results indicated that resolving conflict among conflicting parties in the families of married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria, increases their psychological wellbeing. Hence, this paper confirms the submissions of Panatik *et al.* (2011) who discovered a noteworthy positive relationship between conflict resolution and the psychological wellbeing of the family, and Reich *et al.* (2007) who noted a significant relationship between the right conflict management style and psychological wellbeing within the family. Therefore, reduced psychological distress increases social support, and consistent family conflict resolution will increase and sustain the psychological wellbeing of married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria. Hence, this paper has achieved its first objectives to examine relationships among psychological distress, social support, domestic violence, family conflict resolution, and psychological wellbeing among married career women in Nigeria.

Furthermore, the results specified above showed that psychological distress, social support, domestic violence, and family conflict resolution jointly predicted psychological wellbeing among married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria. They imply that psychological distress, social support, domestic violence, and family conflict resolution accounted for 23% of the changes observed in the self-reported level of psychological wellbeing among married career women. In comparison, the remaining 76.7% is attributed to other factors that were not considered in this study. Further findings showed the significant independent contributions of each independent variable to the variance in the dependent variable: psychological distress contributed about 11% variance in psychological wellbeing, social support contributed about 68% variance, domestic violence contributed about 10% variance, while family conflict resolution contributed about 36% variance in the psychological wellbeing of married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria.

As stated earlier, Frone *et al.* (2013) established that psychological distress is a significant predictor of psychological wellbeing, having harmful effects on individuals' health and wellbeing. Besides, this paper corroborates Jackson and Slater (2016), who stated that psychological distress and work-life balance significantly and independently predict psychological wellbeing and a healthy lifestyle. The earlier-stated results also support Mohammed (2010) position that physical exercise, psychological distress, and work-life balance were significant predictors of psychological wellbeing; the results also support Lee, Tzeng, and Chiang (2019), who indicated psychological distress as the primary predictors of nurses' psychological wellbeing. Also, the earlier-stated results of this paper verify the position of Ryska & Yin (1999); Reed & Giacobbi (2004); and Malinauskas (2010), who indicated that social support predicted psychological wellbeing among married women as social support from friends and family increases physio-psychological wellbeing and decreases stress among working women. The current results also validate Feldman *et al.* (2000) findings, who specified that women's social support systems seriously influence their psychological wellbeing in different ways. As aforementioned, Adejumo (2008) noted a significant independent influence of social support on the psychological wellbeing of career women in Ibadan, Nigeria. The current results corroborate Afroz's (2016) position, who opined that social support positively impacts the occupied roles of women at workplaces by creating an equilibrium between family and work, making them ardently proficient abolishing family-work struggles and enhancing psychological wellbeing.

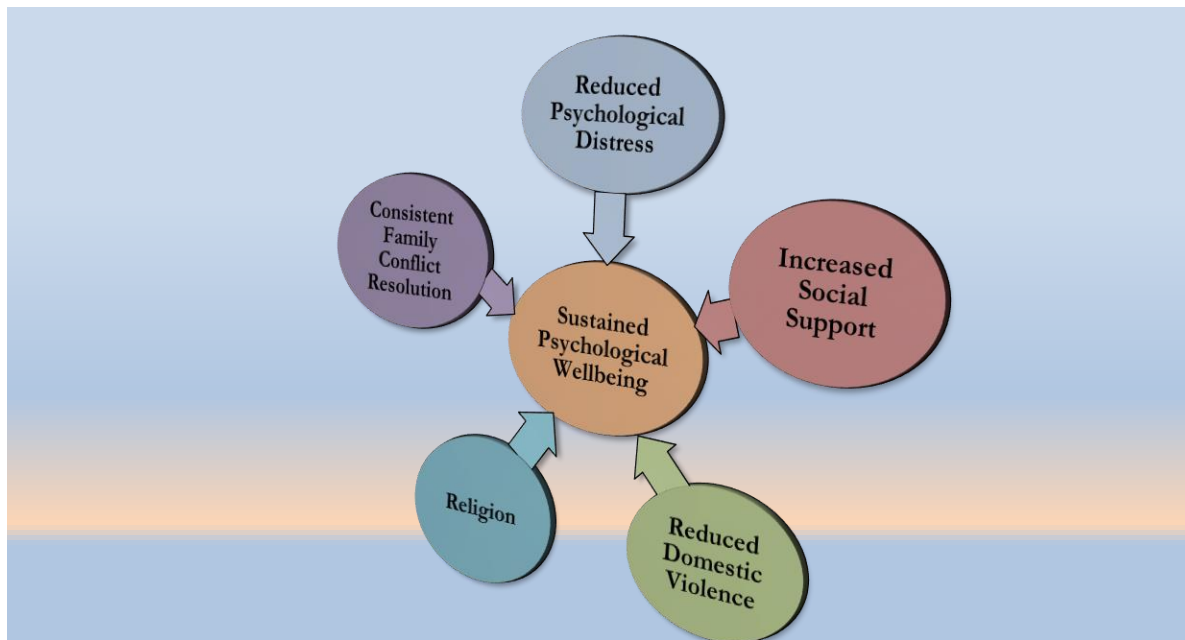
Furthermore, the current results validate the findings of Adebayo (2014) which indicated that domestic violence has significantly influenced the low level of psychological wellbeing among married couples in the southwestern part of Nigeria; and of Sugarman and Hotelling (1997) which

indicated that as family dysfunction and domestic violence negatively influence psychological wellbeing. This paper also confirms the position of Cole *et al.* (2002), who noted that family conflict resolution was a moderating factor that suppressed partner violence and aggression on psychological wellbeing. Besides, Amiri (2006) confirmed that family conflict resolution was a moderator of psychological wellbeing. Therefore, reduced psychological distress, increased social support, reduced domestic violence, and consistent family conflict resolution are significant influencers in sustaining the psychological wellbeing of married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria. Hence, this paper has achieved its second objective, which is to investigate psychological distress, social support, domestic violence, and family conflict resolution as influencing factors for sustaining psychological wellbeing amongst married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria.

Moreover, this paper shows that the first result model, including social support, contributed to a 16.8% variance in the psychological wellbeing of married women in Ibadan, Nigeria. In the second model, adding family conflict resolution to social support in examining variance in psychological wellbeing yielded a higher variance of about 21.9% in psychological wellbeing among married career women. This result infers that the psychological wellbeing of married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria, is better sustained by intensifying conflict resolution within their families. Besides, in the third model, introducing psychological distress yielded a 22% variance in psychological wellbeing among married women in Ibadan, Nigeria, which is not significantly different from the variance achieved by introducing family conflict resolution. Hence, psychological distress had lost its influence in the model, and it was not significant due to the moderating role of family conflict resolution. Also, the fourth model, including domestic violence, indicates that both psychological distress and domestic violence did not predict psychological wellbeing among married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria, as a result of the presence of family conflict resolution; having the model yield a 23% variance in their psychological wellbeing. Notably, the current study has established family conflict resolution as a significant moderator of the harmful influence of psychological distress, social support, and domestic violence in sustaining psychological wellbeing amongst married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria. Family conflict resolution remains the most influential significant influencer in sustaining psychological wellbeing amongst married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria. This paper has also achieved its third objective, finding out if family conflict resolution will significantly moderate psychological distress, social support, and domestic violence in sustaining psychological wellbeing amongst married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria.

Besides, this paper affirms that out of the socio-demographic factors (age, marital status, religion, and educational qualification) examined as influencers in sustaining psychological wellbeing amongst married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria, only religion had a significant independent influence in sustaining psychological wellbeing. This paper confirms the position of (Francis & Kaldor, 2002; Keyes & Reitzes, 2007; Greenfield & Marks 2007), who posited that the frequency of attendance at religious services correlated with greater psychological wellbeing. It also corroborates (Pargament *et al.*, 2001; Wink *et al.*, 2005; Greenfield, & Marks 2007; Keyes & Reitzes 2007) in their assertion that religion has been linked to both physical and psychological wellbeing. Also, the present researcher conducted a Post-Hoc analysis of HSD (Highest Significant Difference), and the results indicate that married women who are practicing Islamic religion reported the highest psychological wellbeing compared to those who practice Christianity and other religions. The current study has also achieved its fourth objective, which is to determine demographic factors (such as age, religion, marital status, and educational qualifications) as influencing factors for sustaining psychological wellbeing amongst married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria.

**Figure 1: Practical model of sustaining psychological wellbeing amongst married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria.**



### *Practical implications*

The current findings have several implications for further research and appropriate clinical and developmental strategic intervention necessary for reducing psychological distress, improving family therapy, social support, marital counseling, and health promotion among families in every society. These results will also have direct implications on the entire family's wellbeing, including husband and children.

### **Conclusion**

This paper's main goal was to examine how to sustain the psychological wellbeing of married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria, by looking into psychological distress, social support, domestic violence, and family conflict resolution as influencers. Based on its results, reduced psychological distress, social support, reduced domestic violence, and consistent family conflict resolution jointly and independently influenced the sustenance of psychological wellbeing amongst married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria.

Moreover, this study has found that family conflict resolution significantly played a moderating role in the influence of psychological distress, social support, and domestic violence on the sustenance of psychological wellbeing amongst married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria. The current findings established that the effect of psychological distress and domestic violence on psychological wellbeing amongst married career women came to a non-significant level in the presence of family conflict resolution as the moderating influence. Therefore, this study concludes that family conflict resolution has a significant moderating influence on negative predictors of the psychological wellbeing of married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria. The paper further concluded that married career women's religion significantly influences the sustenance of psychological wellbeing amongst married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria.

Hence, this paper would like to assert that reduced psychological distress, increased social support, reduced domestic violence, and consistent family conflict resolution significantly supports the sustenance of psychological wellbeing amongst married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria. At the same time, their religious beliefs also influence their psychological wellbeing.

### **Recommendations**



This paper recommends that the leadership and management of work organizations should always endeavor to make every work environment more conducive and ensure that workload and work culture do not induce psychological distress.

Also, social support tends to improve the sustenance of psychological wellbeing amongst married career women in Ibadan, Nigeria. This finding suggests that both family, friends and significant others should always notice that a little social support in the form of advice, useful information, experiences sharing concerning happy family and how to handle family issues would go along the way in helping married couples in maintaining a healthy relationship that can improve and sustain their psychological wellbeing.

More than that, it is imperative to propose that all hands be on deck to ensure adequate support for married career women through other means, not limited to information or material support alone. This support may include financial support and counseling, education, modeling excellent and workable family conflict resolution techniques. Hence, this paper recommends that developmental psychologists should incorporate the use of intervention containing family conflict resolution methods in their services to married individuals and the ones in courtship, to reassure them of better psychological wellbeing before long.

Furthermore, domestic violence's devastating effects on psychological wellbeing have become one major area of intervention useful for both career men and women in marriage in the pursuit of healthy family development. Hence, the government, at every level, should focus on intervention programs that reduce domestic violence within society. This study also recommends that further investigations should replicate the current study by combining interview methods with a survey method to widen the scope of the present study. Also, future researchers should include both men and women in replicating the current study in order to control for gender biases.

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**Leadership and Governance issues in Nigeria as a constraint to Sustainable Development: A reflection of the ‘End SARS’ Protest**

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**ABSTRACT**

*Most of the African states have joined the roll-call of the hundreds of 'failed states' engrossed in the inter-ethnic wars, genocide and adverse and disruptive regime changes, and Nigeria is not an exception. In fact, the country has become seed-beds of violence, terrorism, mass migration of criminals across the borders, refugees' movements, etc. These factors have weakened the state as well as force it out of its public policy role towards socio economic and political development. Two decades since democracy was reintroduced in the country, Nigerians have not really witness true changes to their socio-economic well-being as expected. Broadly speaking, they are currently demanding for another kind democracy with a redeeming quality. The country's poor leadership has been identified as a major factor to these crises and conflicts. Perhaps, it could be the major reason for the recent End Special Anti-Robbery Squad (SARS) protest in the country. This paper therefore examines how leaders emerged in Nigeria and the policy formulation in terms of development. The work also traces the reasons for ethno-religious crises, nepotism and corruption by these leaders.*

**Keywords:** change, development, poverty, inequality, public policy

**Jel Classification:** H83; Y8



## Introduction

Leadership is about power and struggle to capture power. At this level, the ability of such a power is tested in terms of governance. In other words, it is the action of the leaders that determines whether a society makes or lacks progress in areas of socio-economic and political development. Thus, leadership and governance are related and hence inseparable. As governance is all about the exertion of authority by political elites for the upliftment of society, leadership is about capturing power and providing sustainable development to the society. In other words, both are two sides of the same coin.

However the effectiveness of leadership in governance determines the ratio of development in any society. According to Ologbenla (2007), it is the bad governance and poor leadership that led to underdevelopment and, as such, current political instability. This bad situation is linked to the kinds of policies enacted in the country.

Like in Nigeria, the issue of leadership and governance has not been focused towards development. Rather, it is a “*do or die*” affair. The struggle for leadership in the country has resulted to inter-ethnic war, of a genocide proportion, and other violence activities. In fact after independence in 1960, the democratic government was disrupted in 1966, following a military coup which was followed by a counter coup three months later. In 1967, the country went into a thirty months civil war between the federal troops and secessionist Biafra from 1967 to 1970, which claimed about three million lives. Apart from the brief period (1979 to 1983) in which an elected civilian government was restored back to power, the military left the Nigerian political scene after holding power for thirty years. In 1999, a civilian government was elected to provide good governance. After two decades of the civilian rule, the expectation of Nigerians has been dashed as the successive governments have not been able to address the socio-economy and political problems of the nation. Instead, the quality of lives and fundamental human rights of the people have worsened. The question is, if the overall purpose of government is to deliver good governance, why is the civilian governments that have reigned in current dispensation failed to meet the expectations of the people? The paper therefore examines the level of impact of government policies during the period under review. The paper also assesses the performances of the government in terms of sustainable development and reactions of the people towards the government that led to the ‘*End SARS*’ protests.

## Objectives

The objective of the work therefore is to examine the type of leaders and their governance styles toward the sustainable development in the country. The study also evaluates the policies of these leaders and reasons for lopsided implementations of most policies in favour of certain geo-political zones in the country. A critical look between the economy and poverty in the land would be done and solution proffered.

## **Methodology**

The study adopted historical approach in political research and the methodology techniques applied is mainly the secondary data sources. The source of materials for the paper include published and unpublished material such as professional journals, textbooks, newspapers, conference and seminar papers, including other printed materials related to the subject matters.

## **Theoretical underpinnings**

While analysing the concept of leadership, the paper made use of behavioural theory. The inability of other theories to provide the ‘gold’ to the people led some researchers to look at the behaviours that specific leaders exhibited. According to Robins (1992: 320), the difference between other theories and behavioural theorists lies in their underlining assumptions. In a very simplified manner, the behavioural theory suggests that specific behaviour differentiates a leader from others. This suggests that effective leadership is the result of effective role behaviour. The advocates of this theory suggest that behavioural leaders show concern by establishing trust, mutual respect and rapport with groups. Also, such leaders decide the group structures in the direction of organizing group activities to achieve the societal goals. Kouzes and Posner’s (1995), the consistent living out of value is a behavioural way of demonstrating honesty and trustworthiness. Leaders are trusted when their deeds and words match. Trust therefore, is a critical element that enables followers to follow without being coerced by their leaders (Nwosu 2013). Thus, leadership is a relationship built on trust and confidence without risk, and thus without dynamism, there can be no change. In reality, without change in organisations or political institutions, movements for political systems will certainly decay (Nwosu 2013).

Recently, a new theory known as charismatic leadership emerged with the characteristics of behavioural theory. The theorists found a set of confidence among the subordinates who identified themselves with such leaders and their missions (House 2015: 749). The charismatic leaders are not only seen as being strongly committed and willing to take on risk but also engage in self-sacrifice

to achieve their visions. Such leaders according to MC Gregor (1960) are related to socio-economic and political system, which affect the attitudes and needs of followers. From the foregoing, leadership can be conceptualised as the power to influence people towards attaining the societal goals. Also, it shows how leaders are involved with the policies of providing development to the people. However, this is contrary to the Nigerian leaders as seen later in this work.

## **Leadership**

Leadership has been identified by various scholars as a major factor in every country's socio-economic and political development. In a broad sense, it refers to people with positions of authority that influence the behaviour and direction of people in governance. Also leadership is used here to emphasize the need for leaders to be answerable to somebody or group for their actions in office. This means leaders who can submit to the superior authority of the people during governance. In terms of practical politics, Nwosu (2013:26) notes that leadership implies the capacity to make and implement decisions that could move the country forward with regards to technology acquisition, development and industrialization. Failure to properly address these issues, as the breakup of the Soviet Union has shown cannot augur well for any nation, including Nigeria. Thus, the government must urgently addresses issues and solve national problems by formulating appropriate public policy. Public Policy, therefore, can be an instrument of unification or a tool to promote disunity when not appropriately formulated and targeted as the current case in Nigeria reflects (Nwosu, 2013)

## **Governance**

Leadership and governance are interrelated and hence inseparable. According to Oxford Advanced Dictionary (2006) it is the activity of governing or controlling the way in which a country is governed. Generally, it is the exercise of power by those in authority for the well-being of the citizenry. Put differently, governance is a process where some actors wield power by enacting and implementing policies for sustainable development in the society (Nñorom, 2006). Ninolowo (2004), describe governance as the acquisition of powers for the interest and needs of the people by elected representatives and the duty of the state to actualize the legitimate yearnings of the people. It can therefore be mentioned here that good governance means the proper and effective utilization of resources. The two concepts are involved in strategic direction and policies to integrate every system together for result oriented namely leadership and governance. In a broad sense, leadership is the ability to challenge any complex condition, while good governance is the interest to improve economic performance and poverty reduction in a country.

## **The Nigeria State, leadership and governance**

Nigeria occupies a large area in the continent of Africa and has the largest landmass among all the West African countries. The country is presently inhabited by 200 million people. In terms of ethnically, there are about 400 ethnic groups and their attendant diversities in language and culture. As a multi ethnic society, the country is dominated by three ethnic groups namely the Hausa-Fulanis in the North, Ibos in the East and Yorubas in the West. Evidently, these major ethnic groups exert their influence on the country's political, social and economic spheres.

Administratively, the British colonized Nigeria for about 100 years. During the period, the country was divided into three unequal regions, (Northern region, the Eastern region, and the Western region). At independence in 1960, Dr.Nnamdi Azikiwe, an Igbo man, became the Governor General and ceremonial head of state, a nomenclature which was changed to president in 1963 as Nigeria became a republic. Alhaji Tafawa Balewa, a Fulani man was the Prime Minister, while Chief Awolowo, a Yoruba man, became the leader of the opposition at the centre. The first republic was characterised by turbulence, which resulted into socio-ethnic and political crises. In fact, the various political leaders engaged their ethnic groups to struggle for power at the centre. Due to paucity among these ethnic groups to abide by the rule of governance, the political uncertainty overwhelmed the country. Thus, the first phase of government under the leadership of then Prime Minister, Tafawa Balewa was prematurely brought to an end in 1966 when the military assumed control through a coup. Subsequently, the military leadership among other things abolished the regions and created the present 36 states and a federal capital territory before finally handing over power in 1999 to the democratically elected government.

With the return to democratic rule, Nigerians expected that the new civilian leadership would initiate and implement new policies that will transcend the ones established or neglected by the military administration. In fact, every civilian government had promised to address the hydra headed problems of poverty, poor infrastructure, ethno religious crisis and political corruption that have constituted a drag to the socio-economic development of the country. For instance, in the month of May 29, 1999, the former president Olusegun Obsanjo pledged to initiate policies that would address the socio-economic problems in the country. In addition, he said that the government would introduce measures aimed at returning the nation's ailing economy to the part of sustainable growth and thereby improve the quality of lives of Nigerians. In addition, he pledged to uphold the

fundamental human rights as ensured in the 1999 Constitution and to create an enabling environment for the economic activities to strive as well as to give the private sector a space in management of the economy (Guardian 1999)

Governance, leadership and periods during the Fourth Republic (1999-2021)

GOVERNANCE/ LEADERS	PERIOD	PARTY
President Olusegun Obasanjo	29 May 1999 – 29 May 2007	PDP
President Umaru Yar' Adua	29 May 2007 – 5 May 2010	PDP
President Goodluck Jonathan	6 May 2010 – 29 May 2015	PDP
President Muhammadu Buhari	29 May 2015 – Date	APC

Source: The Author, 2021

In contrast, Nigerians have yet to see any positive change from the various civilian administrations. Evidently, lives have become poor, brutish, short and nasty for many Nigerians as debilitating poverty now ravages the country. According to the United Nations Poverty index, an average of 70 per cent of the people lives below the poverty line. In fact, the 2019 Poverty and Inequality reports by Nigerian Bureau of Statistics (NBS) showed that poverty in the land is highest when compared to other countries in the world (NBS) 2019). According to reports from UNN, World Bank, the IMF, and NBS, about 102.4 million people are living in extreme poverty (NBS 2019).The report further stated that poverty line include the cost of food and non-food items.

Indeed, the failure of the government to meet the expectations of Nigerians has created more challenges in the country. Today, the Nigerian landscape is littered with the debris of failed policies, which among them is the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) designed to eradicate the socio-economic problems and underdevelopment in the land.

As the Nigeria Human Development Reports 1998 (UNDP, 1998) noted, the country is rich with a poor people, at a time when about 2.2 million barrels of crude oil is produce everyday (National Planning Commission 2004). But with the problems of financial mismanagement, corruption and misplaced priorities, the oil wealth has not had much impact on the quality of life of the people. The government has been increasing the price of petroleum products, which have always added to the hardship of the people. A cursory observation indicates that leadership accountability is grossly lacking in contemporary Nigerian polity. As Chinua Achebe (1983:1) asserted, “*the trouble with*



*Nigeria is simply and squarely a failure of leadership. There is nothing basically wrong with the Nigerian state. The Nigerian problem is the unwillingness or inability of its leader to rise to the responsibilities to the challenges of personal example which are the hallmarks of true leadership.”*

Thus, the crisis in Nigeria which have gained expression in political instability, corruption, communal conflicts, underdevelopment, economic backwardness, debt overhang, etc., are to a very large extent, the product of bad governance.

As Lipset (1969) argued, a crisis of legitimacy is a crisis of change. Thus, modernity if not well managed can engender illegitimacy. Broadly speaking, the people of Nigeria do not need to be told that they are living in a failed state. Nothing is working except crimes and most people involved are let go without punishment and deterrence from the state. Apart from this, the unending tragedy in Southern Kaduna and killing field of Zamfara, Sokoto and Niger states are signs of poor governance. The Boko Haram killings and kidnappings in the states of Borno, Yobe, Adamawa, Gombe has reached a record high. The southern Nigeria is not exempted. In the Southwest, Yoruba speaking people are clamouring for Sovereign National Conference that would free them from the killings, kidnappings and other atrocities by the Fulani herdsmen in their land. In fact, there is hardly any part of the country that is free of the blight of general insecurity, banditry and kidnapping. The national policy put in place to ensure inclusive governance has not been put into good use in recent times. For instance, there is a strong perception that the southeast zone is highly marginalised in the scheme of things with only five states while others have six states each, except the northwest with seven. Presently, the country is marred by protests, militancy and insurgency and the government seems not to be coping with the frequency of incidents. Perhaps, it is for this reason that former president Obasanjo stated that president Buhari mismanagement of Nigeria is diverse, and the failure to address insecurity as signs of a failed state and a basket case that urgently needs to be pulled from the brink of collapse (Oweh, et al., 2020).

### **The ‘End SARS’ protests: A reflection of bad governance**

Nigeria is not a stranger to protests. Protests in Nigeria started with the wave to end colonial rule to the struggle to end military rule. These protests remained relatively small and were not sustained, unlike the recent 2020 ‘End Sars’ protests. The ‘End Sars’ protests, which was led by the youths was highly decentralized, with neither the usual trade unions nor civil society organisations at the helm. The main focus of the protest is police brutality especially the unit called Special Anti-Robbery Squad (SARS) before and during the covid19 lockdown. In fact, the people had protested

for the disbandment of the unit in 2007, 2008 and 2019. However, with little or nothing done by the leadership, this unit continued with its regressive operations and in some cases, criminal activities of extortion, rape and extrajudicial killings.

Despite the protest unidentified leader(s), it was very organized and successful. The efforts by the government to convince the protesters that their requests has been honoured and should give up with the protest proved abortive. Subsequently, the government decided to declare curfew all over the federation. In Lagos State, for example, the protesters at Lekki toll gate who refused to respect the order were shot at by the military personnels killing some harmless and innocent protesters with the government denying that no protester was killed. The heavy casualties on the protesters led to thugs and hoodlums hijacking the largely peaceful protest. The crises and violence later spread across other parts of the country. Indeed, the action led to burning of private and public properties, killing of police officers and innocent citizens. Besides, Nigerian youths in diaspora irrespective of tribes and religion took part in the demonstration. They demanded an end to police extra judicial killings (Osazuwa, 2020).

With calm returning to the Nigerian cities and towns in the aftermath of the protest, properties worth hundreds of millions of Naira were destroyed. In Lagos State alone, the estimated cost of rebuilding both the public and private properties is about one trillion (₦1 trillion) Naira (Osazuwa, 2020). Many other states have also been counting their human and material losses at the end of the protest.

It is unfortunate that a protest over genuine grievances of such magnitude was not dealt with over years until it metamorphosed into protests and conflicts. Indeed, with right policies, the country could have become a leading world economic power. However, from the wrong choices or policies, the young citizens became very disruptive forces. The out of school children and drop outs including the numbers unemployed in the country are almost twice of the entire population of Togo. It is therefore not too difficult to understand the pressures that fuel unrest at a time when the economy is in a state of disarray. In fact, the youths while expressing their anger called for both Inspector General of Police and President Muhammad Buhari to resign as a result of leadership failure and bad governance (Olusegun, 2020). The inability of the government to tackle pressing problems makes it easier for a thousand of lies to multiply. Therefore, the challenges of mass poverty, illiteracy, diseases and underdevelopment must be tackled whilst the people should be politically, economically and socially empowered.

## CONCLUSIONS

The paper dealt with the various civilian administrations under review. In the cause of the study, the author observed that the various administrations have not met the expectations of the citizenry. The political elites rather than draw inspiration from the people were preoccupied with self-enrichment, neglecting the task of governance and purposeful leadership, which resulted in poor performance. Also, this paper submits that the various successive administrations lack the political will to address the issues of poor education and pitiable healthcare system. The eight months strike by the Nigeria's Academic Staff Union of Universities (ASUU) for the revitalization of the public universities is a case in point. The present administration has depended on borrowing loans from China, IMF, World Bank and other financial Institutions across the globe. In fact, Nigeria's debt has risen to thirty-four trillion by the third quarters of 2020. Besides, there is an on-going comments that current president has decided to allocate most important positions to his tribesmen contrary to the federal character principle. It is a situation, which has made some to refer to Nigeria as a poorly managed and highly divided nation. As Marxists would say, the objective conditions for a change of government are everywhere and noticeable (Bolawole, 2018). The fact is that the people are prepared to change the leadership. But the question is, who will take over? The answer lies with the youths of Nigeria. It is high time for the youths to galvanise themselves to take over the leadership and their futures in their hands through the ballot box.

## RECOMMENDATIONS

From the issues identified in this paper, the author made the following suggestions to remedy the bad situations in the country.

- A developed national politics is needed for the emergence of credible leadership that will lead a cohesive and coherent state in which developmental strides can easily be ignited.
- The political elites should not convert public resources to their private use. The actions of these political elites have widened the gap between the rich and the poor, leading to underdevelopment, corruption, nepotism, tribalism, etc.
- There is need for every political leader to follow the principle of federal character in appointments
- The issue of the security operatives should be strengthened to deal with issues of insurgences and terrorism once and for all.
- Poverty in the nation should be tackled and there is an urgent need to provide gainful employment for the youths to avoid another End Sars protests in the future.

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## **Challenges facing seaborne cargo operations in Nigeria: a case study of Lagos Port Complex**

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### **Abstract**

This paper aims to look into the challenges confronting seaborne cargo operations in Nigeria, using Lagos Port Complex (LPC) as a case study. The research adopted expository research design. Lagos Port Complex was the sample frame, and 230 questionnaires was administered using purposive sampling technique. Descriptive statistics was used for the analysis. Tables and the centre tendency to ascertain the opinion of the respondents were used. The results shows that the challenges confronting the maritime operation in Nigeria include the fact that foreign vessels berth more in LPC; import cost are very high; lack of export makes ships to frequently sail back on ballast; and finally, foreign dominance in Nigeria territorial waters. The respondents seems more indifferent about the adequacy or inadequacy port infrastructures in handling the cargoes at the port, with regards to mechanized as well as port-system upgrade to international standard. Respondents were also indifferent about foreigners manning the ships (meaning that if the CABOTAGE Act had not failed in its essence that should not have been a problem that needs attention or be spoken about

after fifteen years of enacting the Act). It can be said that the CABOTAGE Act have not actualize its essence. These challenges confronting the maritime operations in Nigeria should have been addressed through the CABOTAGE Act.

**Keywords:** challenges, seaborne-cargo, foreign-dominance, port, cabotage Act

**Jel Classification:** R4

## Introduction

There is barely any system that is challenged free. Attending to the challenges facing a given system is to create leverages for the systems to become stronger, advance, as well as develop into something better. Maritime operations in Nigeria have been facing so several challenges that are associated with the advancement in the maritime technological operational strategy and the current position of maritime operations in Nigeria. Maritime technological advancement strategy reveals the extent or the role a country plays in the technological advancement in the maritime sector. This looks into the degree of a nation's inclination towards technological advancement across the globe. Whether a country is among those that contribute technologically or among the end users of the technological innovations developed within the global maritime industries is immaterial when addressing maritime related challenges a nation faces holistically. The current technological advancement puts country like Nigeria at a disadvantaged point, which has little or no contribution to the development of the maritime technological advancement globally. With a country's inclination to maritime operations there are certain challenges that a counties is confronted with, particularly when a country is a consuming nation, with access to world market through maritime transportation of heavy and long shelf-life commodities. Adenigbo & Enyinda (2016), consider the challenges confronting the nation's shipping activities as growth in trade-cargo capacity and inadequate equipment, while Dosunmu, Adepoju, & Somuyiwa (2016) consider dominance of foreign vessels and lack of export as challenges facing Nigerian maritime operations. More detail of those challenges will be discussed in the next section.

## **Challenges confronting seaborne cargo in Nigeria**

There are several challenges confronting seaborne cargo activities in Nigeria, such as ship carrying capacity and growth in trade; inadequate equipment; dominance of foreign vessel and deficiency in export. The lists will be discussed one after another proceeding sub-sections.

### **Ship carrying capacity and growth in trade**

The growing rate of the world total cargo throughput has been an issue the world is facing in the maritime arena (Alderton, 2008), and port handling capacity is presently confronted with the pressure. The current exertion of port handling capacity is shrinking the number of ports that are competitive based on performance. In the absence of protective policy, countries have to accelerate efforts to ensure that their port attracts cargoes to remain competitive. Ports in the developing countries merely operate individually (Ndikom, 2013), and majority of them are not as competitively as their counterparts in developed countries. Some of the ports are protected by policy that makes them attractive to cargoes that are destined for their region. Mostly the newly constructed ports are the only ports that can meet up with the rate of increase in cargo throughputs to be managed (Alderton, 2008), such as having an up to date facility to berth and service the ships. In the developed countries, unemployment rate is not as high as the developing ones, such as Nigeria. The developed countries can afford to automate the ports operations, as maritime activity is one of the biggest employers of labour in many countries. Of course, the advanced countries can afford automation of their port operations because they seem more objective in their approach to things, which is why they make all efforts to ensure that their operations are efficiently and effectively managed rather than being politically or sentimentally driven.

### **Inadequate equipment**

Modern equipment is needed for modern ships operations owing to their design (Dosunmu, Adepoju, & Somuyiwa, 2016). Emagbara and Ndikom (2012) opined that there is inadequate cargo handling tools at the Nigerian seaport, in addition to the fact that more personnel need to be trained. This training will be focused not only on those who operate the new equipment, but also include personnel handling manual operations. This inadequacy in cargo handling is not only the issue,

however, the port needs to operate on a newly developed system of handling cargoes. The increase demand and the need for advanced technological equipment to handle the cargo operation within the port are of essence to make the port competitive, and hence, help to optimize the resources and infrastructures at the port (Somuyiwa & Ogundele, 2015).

In order to meet up with the need of port utility in the nearest future some level of automation is necessary. However, automating the port with little or no human interference can also increase the level of unemployed in the country. Nonetheless, over dependence on human to operate the cargo handling process will halt the running process when the workforce embarks on industrial action. It must also be noted human are confronted with fatigue as opposed to machine. Thus, a well maintained automated process will reduce the operation cost drastically in terms of time and resources for handling cargoes at the port. However, in an underdeveloped country like Nigeria, where the workforce is more than the available work, it will be necessary first to maximize the use of available human resources to optimal level before gearing towards full automation. The process of optimizing the port operations will assist the building of infrastructures that will attract cargoes to the port as well as minimize the down time period within the port facility. Such measure will prevent the underutilization of the automated port, while the return on investment and payback period of the investment made in procuring and implementing automations should be established.

Inefficient operations in the handling of cargo inevitably affect the viability and attractiveness of a port. Handling and operation cost does not readily add to the value of the cargo that passes through the port but only ensures the availability of such commodity in a given region. In a situation where the operation and handling cost escalates, reasonable percentage of the supposed profit margin of the commodity may be depleted, which could make the port over time to lose the patronage of owners of such commodities. Port users gravitate towards ports that enhance the optimization of their profit margin (Stephens & Ukpere, 2011). It is pertinent to note that transportation constitute a substantial unit of the cost of any product. However, the need to reduce the transaction cost of transporting commodities to the end users is very crucial. The developing countries are trapped in the sphere of poor technological growth. Nevertheless, advancements and innovations within the global village are rapid and ubiquitous. Globalization seems to have prompted countries to specialize in the areas of their competitive advantage as a way of promoting exchange earnings. However, the developing countries are at the tail end of the production chain. While they are the provider of raw materials, the developed countries add value to the chain by turning the raw materials into intermediate and finished products. Excavation of some of the raw materials from the

developing countries to the developed ones is undertaken by citizens and enterprises of the developed countries. Hence, the dependence of the developing countries on the developed ones puts the developing countries at a disadvantaged position. However, the reaction time of the developed countries to any international market trend, policy or law seems shorter when compared to the developing nations.

### **Dominance of foreign vessel and deficiency in export**

It has been notice that despite all efforts put into structural reformation in order to position Nigeria's shore facilities towards efficiency in maritime services, The Nigerian citizens have not so far benefited in terms of share, from maritime activities. It is projected that about 80% of the nation's shipping business is in the hands of foreign investors, which impacts negatively on the foreign exchange earning of Nigeria, resulting in poor job creation, as well as posed some potential threats to national security. In spite of the policy on Coastal and Inland Shipping, (CABOTAGE) Act, 2003) as well as provision to protect the indigenous shipping operator, the dominance of the foreign vessels prevails. The domination of foreign shipping operators over domestic shipping lines is a major threat to the Nigerian economy. The Indigenous Ship Owners Association of Nigeria (ISOAN) posited that Nigeria loses roughly \$300 million every year due to capital flights perpetrated by foreign maritime operators in the Nigerian seaborne activities.

Some of the Ships that are destined for Nigeria ports are relatively expensive because the return commodity for shipment is not guarantee. In other words, most ship sail back empty. Most developing nation, particularly in Oceania and Africa, pay an additional 40-70% on average for the transportation of their imported goods compared to their counterparts in highly advanced countries. The main cause of this state of affair could be traced to poor countries' trade imbalances. This situation calls for some forms of reform in port and trade facilitation, in addition to reduction in trade volumes as well as connectivity in shipping activities (United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD), 2015).

With the projected changes in focus of the world's sources of energy, the fossil fuel that has been the dominant cargo export from Nigeria will soon be very negligible, and the agricultural produce that dominated the export earning of Nigeria before independence has not been doing so well since the discovery of oil. Based on the above it is projected that in the nearest future the country could be headed toward zero-export if the fossil fuel is no longer required for the daily running of human



activities. That said, and being a consumer country, the nation may become deficient in foreign currency required for international trade.

## Research method

The sample frame use for this research is the Apapa Port Complex (NPA) workforce. The total workforce population stood at 573 in the year 2017. Applying Cochran (1977) formula:

$$n_0 = \frac{Z^2 pq}{e^2}$$

where

$e$  = the desired level of precision

$p$  = the (estimated) proportion of the population that will be sampled

$$q = 1 - p$$

$z$  =  $z$  – value (found on  $Z$  table)

$$e = 0.05$$

$$p = 0.5$$

$$q = 1 - 0.5 = 0.5$$

$Z$  =  $Z$  – Score for the 95% level of confidence(1.96)

$$n_0 = \frac{1.96^2 \times 0.5 \times 0.5}{0.05^2}$$

$$n_0 = \frac{0.9604}{0.0025}$$

$$n_0 = 384$$

Modification for Cochran formula for sample size calculation in smaller populations

$$n = \frac{n_0}{1 + \frac{(n_0 - 1)}{N}}$$

Where

$n_0$  = Cochran's sample recommendation

$N$  = population size

$n$  = is the new adjusted sample size

$$n_0 = 384$$

$$N = 573$$

$$n = \frac{384}{1 + \frac{(384 - 1)}{573}}$$

$$n = \frac{384}{1.668412}$$

$$n = 230.15898$$

$$n \approx 230$$

230 questionnaires were administered to the NPA Lagos Port Complex workforce. The sampling technique for the data collection was purposive sampling technique and descriptive analysis was adopted for the data analysis.

## Data analysis and interpretation of findings

**Table 1** below shows the frequency of respondents' opinion about how adequate the port security is. There are 206 responses without a missing value. In other words, with regards to the questions, the entire respondent gave their opinion about how adequate the port security is. About 6.8% of the respondents disagreed to the preposition that the port security is adequate, while one person disagreed with the preposition. 21.4% of the respondents are indifferent to the proposition, namely they did not disagree or agree to the claim. 50.5% of the respondents agreed and 28.2% of respondents strongly agreed to the preposition, that overall, the Apapa Lagos port's security is adequate for its operation.

**Table 1: Security Adequacy**

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percentage
Strongly Disagree	1	0.5	0.5
Disagree	13	6.3	6.8
Indifferent	30	14.6	21.4
Agree	104	50.5	71.8
Strongly Agree	58	28.2	100.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>206</b>	<b>100.0</b>	

Source: Author's Field Survey

**Table 2** below represents the opinion of the respondents about the ratio of foreign vessels docking at Apapa Lagos Port Complex. Amongst the respondents, none of them affirmatively disagreed to the statement, but all of the respondents made their respective opinions known. Amongst them, 7.3% disagreed to the statement, while 26.7% were indifferent about the preposition. And a cumulative of 73.3% (9.7 + 63.6) of the respondents agreed to the preposition, that vessels that berth at Apapa Lagos Port Complex are more of foreign vessels.

**Table 2: Foreign Vessel berth more**

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percentage
Disagree	15	7.3	7.3

Indifferent	40	19.4	26.7
Agree	20	9.7	36.4
Strongly Agree	131	63.6	100.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>206</b>	<b>100.0</b>	

Source: Author's Field Survey

**Table 3** below depicts the respondent's opinion about whether it cost more or less to ship to Nigeria than other West Africa ports. The opinion scale was to establish the extent to which port in other West Africa countries were more competitive compared to cost of shipping cargo to Nigeria. 4.9% of respondents strongly disagreed that NPA Port Complex is competitive among ports in West Africa and 17.0% disagreed to the preposition that it cost more to ship to Nigeria than other West Africa ports. Aggregating the strongly disagree and disagree comes to 21.9%. However, 62.6% of the respondents agreed to the assertion, while 5.8% of respondents strongly agreed to the proposition. Cumulatively, 68.4% of the respondents agreed to the assertion, while 31.6% of respondents were indifferent about their opinion concerning the proposition.

**Table 3: Import Cost More to Nigeria**

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percentage
Strongly Disagree	10	4.9	4.9
Disagree	25	12.1	17.0
Indifferent	30	14.6	31.6
Agree	129	62.6	94.2
Strongly Agree	12	5.8	100.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>206</b>	<b>100.0</b>	

Source: Author's Field Survey

**Table 4** below illustrates and revealed the opinion of the respondents as to what extent they agree or disagree with regards to the adequacy of the port infrastructure provided. Out of the two-hundred and Six (206) persons, seven (7) of them did not reply to the question and thus were regarded as missing value by the statistical tool. 17.1% of the valid respondents agreed that the port infrastructure is adequate for its operation while 28.6% of the valid respondents disagreed to the preposition. More than half of the valid respondents were indifferent about the adequacy of the

infrastructural provision. Ignoring the percentage of the respondents that are indifferent in their responses, those who disagreed that the port infrastructure is adequate are higher than those who agreed that the infrastructure is adequate. There is a little more than 25% difference in the response of those who disagreed compared to those who agreed.

**Table 4: Adequacy of Port Infrastructure**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Disagree	57	27.7	28.6
Indifferent	108	52.4	54.3
Agree	34	16.5	17.1
Total	199	96.6	100.0
Missing	7	3.4	
<b>Total</b>	<b>206</b>	<b>100.0</b>	

Source: Author's Field Survey

**Table 5** below represents the opinion of respondents based on their perceived experience about foreign crews on ships that ply Nigeria flag of convenience and registered as Nigeria ship. 11.2% of the respondents strongly disagreed that Nigeria ships are not manned by foreign crews, 34.0% disagreed that the ships' crew on Nigeria ports or Nigerian State registered ships are foreigners. They are of the opinion that ships owned by Nigerian or registered in Nigeria are manned substantially by Nigerian crews. Meanwhile, 44.2% of the respondents were indifferent as to whether foreigners or Nigerians man the ships that were registered in Nigeria.

**Table 5: Foreign Ship Crews**

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percentage
Strongly Disagree	23	11.2	11.2
Disagree	47	22.8	34.0
Indifferent	91	44.2	78.2
Agree	45	21.8	100.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>206</b>	<b>100.0</b>	

Source: Author's Field Survey

**Table 6** below shows the respondents opinion pertaining to the returning of major ships that berth in Apapa Lagos Port Complex in Nigeria. 11.7% of the respondents among the 206 persons that were sampled among the port workforce, disagreed that ships do not sail back on ballast and 37.4% among them were indifferent as to whether ships sail back on ballast or not. However, 51.5% of the respondent agree that most of the ships that berth at the port sail back on ballast and 11.2% strongly agreed that ships sail back on ballast. Collapsing the scale into three (3) categories reflected that 12.7% were indifferent and 62.7% of the respondents agreed to the preposition that ships sails back on ballast, while 24.8% disagreed.

**Table 6: Ship Sails back on Ballast**

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percentage
Strongly Disagree	2	1.0	1.0
Disagree	24	11.7	12.6
Indifferent	51	24.8	37.4
Agree	106	51.5	88.8
Strongly Agree	23	11.2	100.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>206</b>	<b>100.0</b>	

Source: Author's Field Survey

In summary, the respondent's opinion and the extent of the validity of their opinion (if skewed or not) and possibly to know the centre tendency of the respondents' opinion pertaining to the challenges facing sea borne cargo operation in Nigeria, **Table 7** reflects the opinion of the Apapa Lagos Port Complex workforce. Among the seven (7) questions or assertions posed to the respondents, except for the assertion that examined the extent of port infrastructure and foreign dominance,

seven (7) and nine (9) respondents respectively gave no response. With regards to all other assertions, the respondents' opinions were made known. The average opinion about port security adequacy was "Agreed", while that of whether more of foreign vessels berth at the port was "Strongly Agreed". With regards to whether it costs more to import to Nigeria than other ports in West Africa it was "Agreed". In terms of ships sailing back on ballast it was "Agreed". With regards to foreigners manning the Nigeria ships it is "indifferent". In terms of foreigners vessels dominating

our water it was “Strongly Agreed”, and with regards to the average opinion as to whether port infrastructure is adequate it was “indifferent”.

**Table 7: Respondent’s Centre Tendency**

		Security Adequacy	Foreign Vessel berth more	Import Cost More in Nigeria	Ship Sails back on Ballast	Foreign Ship Crews	Foreign Dominance	Adequacy of Port Infrastructure
N	Valid	206	206	206	206	206	197	199
	Missing	0	0	0	0	0	9	7
Median		4.00	5.00	4.00	4.00	3.00	5.00	3.00

Source: Author’s Field Survey

## Discussion & Conclusion

Based on the feedbacks from the port workforce, it can be said that the challenges that are confronting the maritime operation in Nigeria are that foreign vessels berth more at Apapa Lagos Port Complex in Nigeria than Nigerian vessels; cost of importation is high; the lack of export make ships to frequently sail back on ballast; and foreign dominance in Nigeria territorial waters may open rooms for security challenges. While the respondents where indifferent about how adequate or inadequate the port infrastructures are in handling the cargo at the port, the indifference is as a result of mechanized approach instead of the port-system upgrade to the international standard in terms of port automation within the maritime sector. Moreover, more of the respondents were indifferent about foreigners manning the Nigerian ships inferring that if the CABOTAGE Act had not failed in its essence that should not have been a problem that needs too much attention or concerned about after fifteen years of enacting the Act. It can therefore be said that the CABOTAGE Act have not lived up to expectation, in term of addressing some of challenges confronting the maritime sector in the country.

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## NOI EXIGENȚE ȘI PROVOCĂRI ÎN IMPLEMENTAREA PROGRAMULUI Operațional Educație și Ocupare (POEO) ȘI PLANULUI NAȚIONAL DE REDRESARE ȘI REZILIENȚĂ (PNRR) CU FINANȚĂRI DIN FONDURI EUROPENE ÎN NOUA PERIOADĂ 2021-2027

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**Abstract:** Comunicarea tratează două aspecte de importanță majoră pentru evoluția actuală și viitoare a României: 1)Programul Operațional Educație și Ocupare (POEO) 2021-2027 – furnizor de resurse umane de calitate superioară pentru economie; 2)Planul Național de Redresare și Reziliență – instrument de sprijin european pentru depășirea crizei economice generată de pandemia de Coronavirus în noua perioadă de programare 2021-2027. În finalul cercetării noastre am formulat unele concluzii menite să încununeze efortul depus și să clarifice obiectivele urmărite prin acest demers științific.

**Cuvinte cheie:** proiecte; programe; finanțare europeană; educație; ocupare; mecanismul de redresare și reziliență; Planul Național de Redresare și Reziliență; tranziția verde; transformare digitală; creștere inteligentă, durabilă și favorabilă incluziunii; coeziune socială și teritorială; sănătate și reziliență economică, socială și instituțională;

### 1.Programul Operațional Educație și Ocupare (POEO) 2021-2027 – furnizor de resurse umane de calitate superioară pentru economie

Pentru început, dorim să clarificăm câteva aspecte ce au legătură directă cu problematica cercetării noastre și anume **deosebirea dintre proiecte și programe și ce reprezintă fondurile europene**. Mai întâi, vom puncta deosebirea care există între conceptele de proiecte (din care fac parte și proiectele cu finanțare europeană-n.a.) și programe, în viziunea unor specialiști de marcă în domeniul managementului de proiect<sup>72</sup>. În cadrul proiectelor, obiectivele firmei sunt exprimate sub forma unor obiective finite de timp, cost și performanță (calitate). În cadrul programelor, nevoile și așteptările firmei, derivate din analiza generală a categoriilor de persoane interesate, sunt traduse în termeni de beneficii prin intermediul unor obiective mai flexibil definite. Proiectele au ca scop realizarea unor elemente de rezultat stabilite, cu minimum posibil de resurse, pe când programele au ca scop utilizarea în mod optim a resurselor, pentru a se realiza maximum de beneficii. În timp ce proiectele impun o abordare mai „eficientă”, programele se vor orienta către o perspectivă mai pronunțată „eficace”, în foarte mare măsură întemeiată pe principiile managementului valorii.

**Finanțarea europeană** reprezintă mecanismul prin intermediul căruia, Uniunea Europeană și-a propus să sprijine noile state membre (cum este și România - n.a) în ceea ce privește recuperarea decalajelor de dezvoltare, existente între statele membre și statele care de-abia au aderat la uniunea economic-politică<sup>73</sup>.

De la începutul anului 2020, cu toții am fost martorii unui eveniment neprevăzut, care a generat incertitudini, amenințări complexe și fluide, riscuri nenumărate, greu gestionabile, pentru care actorii instituționali cheie, în parteneriat cu mediul privat și societatea civilă/cetățeni, au

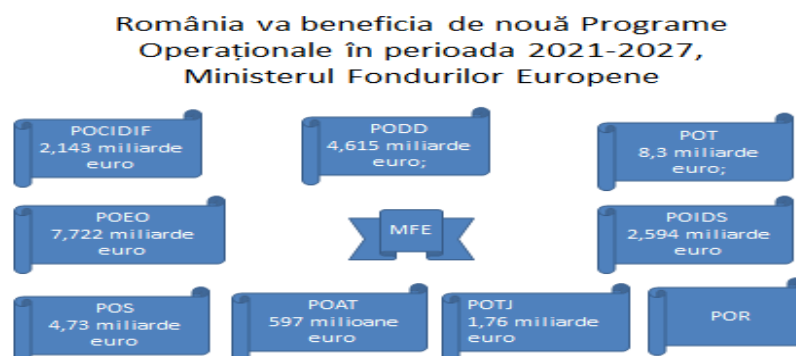
<sup>72</sup>Rodney J. Turner și Stephen J. Simister, *Manual Gower de management de proiect* (București: Editura Codex, 2004) 46.

<sup>73</sup>Claudia Sima, *Finanțare europeană pentru IMM, Ediție revizuită* (București: Editura Rezon Media Grup, 2018) 26.

încercat să identifice și să aplice măsuri concrete de contracarare. Altfel spus, România se confruntă cu o paletă extinsă de noi amenințări, mult mai sofisticate și complexe. Pandemia de COVID-19 a amplificat vulnerabilitățile și riscurile deja existente, are și va continua să aibă și în anii următori un impact major în plan economic, strategic și de securitate.

În vederea pregătirii celei de-a treia perioade de programare post-aderare, pentru exercițiul financiar 2021-2027, Ministerul Fondurilor Europene (MFE) a purtat negocieri cu Comisia Europeană, pentru a acoperi întreg spectrul, prin stabilirea axelor prioritare propuse pentru fiecare Program Operațional (PO).

**Schema nr. 1.1: Programe operaționale în România pentru perioada 2021-2027**



**Sursa:** <http://mfe.gov.ro/ministerul-fondurilor-europene-a-invitat-pest-1-100-de-participanti-la-consultarile-publice-transparente-in-urma-carora-se-decide-alocarea-celor-31-de-miliarde-de-euro-pentru-dezvoltarea-romaniei-in/>, accesat la data de **12.11.2020**

Pentru Programul Operațional Educație și Ocupare (POEO) 2021-2027 au fost alocăți 7,722 miliarde EURO.

Elaborarea *POEO 2021-2027*, programul operațional, aferent actualei perioade de finanțare, în calitate sa de continuator al *POCU 2014-2020*, a fost coordonată de către Ministerul Fondurilor Europene, în prezent, Ministerul Investițiilor și Proiectelor Europene, cu respectarea și aplicarea principiului parteneriatului, și a presupus o cooperare strânsă cu autoritățile publice responsabile de politicile domeniilor finanțate prin program, precum și cu principalele tipuri de beneficiari, reprezentanți ai societății civile, mediului academic și socio-economic, implicate sau vizați de acțiunile finanțabile prin intermediul acestui PO<sup>74</sup>.

În vederea definitivării componenței structurii parteneriale, de la nivelul POEO, pe lângă partenerii sociali selectați în cadrul Apelului național, au fost desemnați, de asemenea, prin ordin comun de ministru, reprezentanți ai principalelor instituții implicate în procesul de elaborare a POEO, precum: Ministerul Muncii și Protecției Sociale, Ministerul Educației Naționale, Ministerul Lucrărilor Publice, Dezvoltării și Administrației, Ministerul Apărării Naționale, Secretariatul General al Guvernului<sup>75</sup>.

În esență, *Programul Operațional Educație și Ocupare (POEO)* prezintă o viziune integrată privind accesul la învățământ și accesul pe piața muncii. Mai mult, acesta își propune să modernizeze instituțiile și serviciile oferite pieței muncii, să promoveze participarea echilibrată, după gen, pe piața muncii, să asigure echilibrul dintre viața profesională și cea personală, dar și să ducă la o mai bună adaptare a lucrătorilor la schimbările rapide de pe piața muncii. Acestui program

<sup>74</sup>Ministerul Investițiilor și Proiectelor Europene, *Programul Operațional Educație și Ocupare 2021-2027 (POEO)*, versiunea 1 octombrie 2020, (București: 2020), 118, <http://mfe.gov.ro>.

<sup>75</sup>*Ibidem*.

operațional îi sunt specifice trei domenii de intervenție: **ocuparea tinerilor, educație și ocupare pentru toți**.

Printre potențialii beneficiari ai acestui program operațional, se numără: autoritățile/instituțiile și serviciile publice centrale (MMPS, MEN, ANC, ANOFM etc.); autoritățile/instituțiile și serviciile publice locale (servicii deconcentrate ale MMPS, MEN, ANOFM etc., UAT-uri); furnizorii publici sau privați de servicii de ocupare/servicii de educație sau formare profesională/servicii de evaluare și certificare competențe/servicii de informare și consiliere în carieră; unitățile din sistemul național de învățământ; instituțiile de învățământ superior; institutele de cercetare; asociațiile de tineret; camerele de comerț; organizațiile non-guvernamentale; angajatorii, partenerii sociali, asociații patronale și sindicale, comitetele sectoriale și actorii relevanți la nivelul sectoarelor economice; comisiile județene de autorizare a furnizorilor de formare, centrele regionale de formare, centrele de evaluare de competențe; centrele comunitare sau de tineret.

Toți acești actori vor contribui, prin proiectele propuse și implementate, la atingerea obiectivului general al programului operațional, acela *“de a contribui la crearea unei Români mai sociale cu acces egal la ocupare durabilă, de calitate, la un sistem de educație relevant pentru piața muncii și stimulativ pentru învățarea pe tot parcursul vieții”*. În egală măsură, vor contribui și la atingerea obiectivelor specifice fiecărui domeniu de intervenție, precum: **educație** (*îmbunătățirea accesibilității, calității și caracterului abordabil al educației și îngrijirii copiilor preșcolari; prevenirea abandonului școlar timpuriu, prin introducerea unei abordări centrate pe elev, a unor programe „A doua șansă”, a unor servicii relevante de consiliere și orientare profesională, îmbunătățirea competențelor cadrelor didactice, cu deosebire față de copii din grupurile vulnerabile/dezavantajate; ameliorarea calității educației și formării profesionale, inclusiv furnizarea de echipamente specifice; sprijinirea dezvoltării unor metode și tehnici de predare inovatoare și eficiente*); **ocupare** (*integrarea tinerilor pe piața muncii; asigurarea accesului la ocupare pentru categoriile vulnerabile, creșterea ocupării femeilor; dezvoltarea culturii antreprenoriale, sprijinirea antreprenoriatului și a economiei sociale; dezvoltarea mecanismelor de anticipare a competențelor și de monitorizare a politicilor active de ocupare; dezvoltarea dialogului social și implicarea partenerilor sociali în implementarea politicilor de ocupare; asigurarea unui mediu de lucru sigur și sănătos și promovarea îmbătrânirii active; creșterea participării la învățarea pe parcursul întregii vieți pentru asigurarea tranzițiilor pe piața muncii și a mobilității profesionale a angajaților*).

Nu în ultimul rând, *prioritățile de investiții*, care se vor finanța în cadrul POEO, sunt următoarele: 1) Valorificarea potențialului tinerilor pe piața muncii; 2) Îmbunătățirea participării copiilor la educația antepreșcolară și preșcolară; 3) Prevenirea părăsirii timpurii a școlii și creșterea accesului grupurilor dezavantajate la educație și formare profesională; 4) Creșterea calității ofertei de educație și formare profesională pentru asigurarea echității sistemului și o mai bună adaptare la dinamica pieței muncii și la provocările inovării și progresului tehnologic; 5) Creșterea accesibilității, atractivității și calității învățământului profesional și tehnic; 6) Creșterea accesului pe piața muncii pentru toți; 7) Antreprenoriat și economie socială; 8) Modernizarea instituțiilor pieței muncii; 9) Consolidarea participării populației în procesul de învățare pe tot parcursul vieții pentru facilitarea tranzițiilor și a mobilității (prioritate comună Educație/Ocupare); 10) Asistență tehnică pentru facilitarea și eficientizarea managementului Programului.<sup>76</sup>

Într-o societate globalizată, afectată de pandemia COVID-19, marcată de schimbări profunde, cu evoluții tehnologice rapide, *Educația și Ocuparea* devin piloni fundamentali pentru

<sup>76</sup>Ministerul Investițiilor și Proiectelor Europene, *Programul Operațional Educație și Ocupare 2021-2027 (POEO)*, versiunea 1 octombrie 2020, (București: 2020), 118, <http://mfe.gov.ro>.

asigurare progresului socio-economic și pregătirea societății pentru a face față provocărilor viitorului.

În contextul Obiectivului de Politică 4 – *O Europă mai socială*, România își propune implementarea unui Program Operațional dedicat strict domeniilor Educație și Ocupare (POEO 2021-2027), care urmărește abordarea coerentă a problemelor stringente cu care se confruntă sistemul românesc de educație și formare profesională în contextul provocărilor curente din societate și din piața muncii.

Așadar, *Programul Operațional Educație și Ocupare (POEO)* răspunde unor multiple nevoi și provocări, cu care se confruntă sistemele de educație, formare și ocupare, generate de un declin demografic și un decalaj rural-urban în creștere, existența unui număr mare de familii cu o situație socio-economică precară, o rată ridicată de părăsire timpurie a școlii, participare slabă la învățământul terțiar, relevanță scăzută a educației și a formării profesionale pentru piața muncii, competențe de bază, digitale și non-tehnice scăzute etc.

În ceea ce privește *Educația*, *POEO* își propune să abordeze cu prioritate problemele majore ale sistemului educațional și anume: fenomenul de abandon școlar și părăsire timpurie a școlii; rezultatele slabe la examenele naționale și testările internaționale; ponderea scăzută a absolvenților de studii superioare (vârsta 30-34 de ani); participarea redusă a adulților (25-64 ani) la formarea continuă.

Pe de altă parte, în domeniul *Ocupării*, *POEO* va răspunde provocărilor legate de: deficitul de forță de muncă și de competențe relevante; nivelul ridicat de inactivitate; dificultățile privind accesul pe piața muncii a unor grupuri vulnerabile și lipsa de corelare dintre cererea și oferta de competențe pe piața muncii.

**Printre prioritățile de investiții noi față de perioada de programare precedentă, se numără următoarele:**

*Intervenții noi, dedicate tinerilor:*

Deși tinerii NEETs au beneficiat de alocări și intervenții dedicate și în perioada 2014-2020, mecanismul de implementare a intervențiilor pentru tineri nu a satisfăcut în totalitate. În acest context, *POEO* propune intervenții noi pentru abordarea tinerilor, care vizează: înființarea/dezvoltarea de centre/cluburi de tineret, la nivel comunitar, cu implicarea autorităților locale și a unor entități publice sau private; realizarea de către centrele/cluburile de tineret publice sau private sau de către alți actori interesați a unor rețele de lucrători de tineret, selectați din rândul tinerilor (în special NEETs) și instruiți pentru furnizarea de servicii de outreach și activare a tinerilor și de înregistrare a acestora la furnizorii de servicii de ocupare publice sau privați, în vederea oferirii de servicii de ocupare; activarea potențialului antreprenorial al tinerilor: formare competențe antreprenoriale, tutoriat/mentorat, asistență/consiliere, role models, formare în management de proiect, inclusiv accesul la granturi pentru inițierea de noi afaceri (start-up), asistență și consultanță post înființare; stimularea angajatorilor pentru utilizarea unor forme de muncă flexibile pentru tineri; stimularea întreprinderilor sociale de inserție pentru susținerea tinerilor NEETs în vederea plasării pe piața muncii - Programul „Tânăr Voluntar” (acordare de granturi).

*Intervenții noi în domeniul Educației:*

În contextul accentuării fenomenului de părăsire timpurie a școlii, prin *POEO* sunt vizate intervenții sistemice, care să prevină acest fenomen, pe trei paliere, după cum urmează: crearea/dezvoltarea mecanismelor de monitorizare, avertizare, prevenire și combatere abandon școlar/părăsire timpurie a școlii/segregare școlară; asigurarea accesului și participării la educație a copiilor cu dizabilități și/sau CES; programe de informare, consiliere și educație parentală pentru părinții copiilor din pre-universitar, cu accent pe cei din grupuri vulnerabile.

*POEO* va sprijini pe zona acestei intervenții: interconectarea bazelor de date și dezvoltarea resurselor educaționale deschise (RED); acordarea de granturi la nivelul școlilor pentru creșterea calității; identificarea, sprijinirea și promovarea copiilor supradotați; mobilitățile internaționale



Erasmus+; dezvoltarea/implementarea curriculumului la decizia școlii, la nivelul învățământului primar și gimnazial; crearea unui mecanism eficient de recunoaștere a rezultatelor învățării dobândite în contexte non-formale și informale la nivelul învățământului secundar superior; implementarea unor programe universitare adaptate solicitării agenților economici.

În condițiile nevoii accentuate de formare a competențelor/meseriilor cerute pe piața muncii, *POEO* va aborda, printr-o axă dedicată, problematica accesibilității, atractivității și calității învățământului profesional și tehnic, prin: certificarea rezultatelor învățării din formarea profesională inițială; standarde de dotare a unităților de învățământ; program național de dotare a „atelierelor școală” cu mijloace didactice și echipamente; granturi pentru operatorii economici, implicați în învățământul dual, pentru asigurarea spațiilor și tehnologiilor adecvate „atelierelor școală”, precum și a personalului calificat în domeniu; dezvoltarea de manuale și auxiliare curriculare în format digital; acordarea de sprijin financiar pentru cazare, masă și transport pentru elevii din grupuri defavorizate; programe remediale pentru elevii din clasa a IX-a, în vederea creșterii nivelului de competențe la citit, matematică și științe; sprijinirea mobilităților internaționale Erasmus+.

#### *Intervenții noi în domeniul Ocupării:*

Ocuparea și inactivitatea în rândul femeilor impun oferirea unor facilități privind îngrijirea persoanelor dependente sau altor pachete de servicii adaptate nevoilor ce pot reduce ratele de inactivitate în rândul femeilor. Astfel, prin *POEO*, angajatorii vor fi încurajați, prin diverse facilități și măsuri, să creeze condiții pentru reconcilierea vieții profesionale cu cea de familie, cum ar fi programe decalate sau flexibile sau oferta unor creșe și grădinițe pentru copiii angajaților.

O atenție specială se va acorda investițiilor în dezvoltarea antreprenoriatului/ întreprinderilor în domeniul social, prin activitățile specifice de suport pentru start-up sau post start-up, activități de promovare a conceptului, a produselor și a serviciilor furnizate de acestea. În ceea ce privește sprijinul post start-up pentru IMM-uri, *POEO* introduce acțiunile de suport pentru digitalizarea activității IMM-urilor. Apare ca indispensabil sprijinul de urgență din partea FSE+ pentru persoanele care se află în șomaj tehnic pe fondul situațiilor de urgență/alertă în contextul epidemiilor/pandemiilor sau pentru persoanele angajate în cadrul întreprinderilor al căror domeniu de activitate este afectat indirect.

Acest program va aborda, cu prioritate, *îmbunătățirea calității dialogului social prin creșterea capacității organizaționale a partenerilor sociali*, direcție în care prevede o intervenție dedicată consolidării dialogului social și a parteneriatelor pentru ocupare și formare, care cuprinde inclusiv acțiuni de creștere a capacității partenerilor sociali pentru a contribui eficient la dezvoltarea și implementarea politicilor de ocupare.

*Intervenții pentru asigurarea formării de-a lungul întregii vieți*, precum: formarea continuă a formatorilor/instructorilor/coordonatorilor; înființarea centrelor de învățare permanentă; pachete de formare pentru angajați, adaptate nevoilor/ cerințelor pieței: „Pachet de bază”, „Ține pasul”; „Acces digital pentru toți”, programe de formare colaborativă; programe adaptate nevoilor angajatorilor.

Luând în considerare, pe de o parte, *obiectivul general al POEO 2021-2027*, respectiv, “*un sistem de educație relevant pentru piața muncii și stimulativ pentru învățarea pe tot parcursul vieții*” și, pe de altă parte, *obiectivele specifice aferente domeniului Educație*, considerăm necesară realizarea unui inventar al potențialelor resurse financiare suplimentare/fondurile europene, puse la dispoziție României, prin intermediul *POEO 2021-2027*, pentru perfecționarea resurselor umane din entități din cadrul Ministerului Apărării Naționale.

**Încheiem cu câteva constatări privind atragerea, de către România, de fonduri europene în perioada 2014 – 2020 atât la nivelul tuturor programelor, cât și referitor la POCU care a funcționat în acea perioadă de programare.** România este una dintre țările care a beneficiat cel mai mult de sprijinul UE. Alocarea financiară de care a beneficiat România din fondurile politicii



de coeziune a UE (Fondul european de dezvoltare regională, Fondul de coeziune, Fondul social european, Inițiativa privind ocuparea forței de muncă în rândul tinerilor) s-a ridicat la 26,8 miliarde EUR în cadru financiar multianual (2014-2020), ceea ce a reprezentat aproximativ 2 % din PIB-ul anual. Până la sfârșitul anului 2019, se alocaseră aproximativ 28,5 miliarde EURO (mai mult decât suma totală planificată) pentru proiecte specifice și s-a raportat că s-au cheltuit 7,2 miliarde EURO de către proiectele selectate, ceea ce indica (la acel moment – n.a.) un nivel de implementare mult sub media UE<sup>77</sup>.

POEO este continuatorul POCU (Programul Operațional Capital Uman), din perioada de programare 2014-2020, și este util să prezentăm doar două informații despre acest ultim program menționat, pentru a trage învățăminte pentru cel ce continuă în actuala perioadă în care am intrat.

Una din informații se referă la **stadiul scăzut de absorbție a fondurilor pentru POCU**. Astfel, la finele anului 2018, totalul sumelor transferate de la Comisia Europeană (prefinanțări și sume rambursate) s-a ridicat doar la 859.651 mii EURO, ceea ce reprezintă 19,66% din cât era prevăzut pentru acest program operational.<sup>78</sup>

Cel de al doilea aspect se referă la **neajunsurile constatate de Autoritatea de Audit de pe lângă Curtea de Conturi a României în misiunile sale privind auditarea publică externă efectuată la proiecte POCU**, din care menționăm doar câteva: în procesul de supervizare și monitorizare a sarcinilor delegate OI, AM nu a asigurat documentarea modalității de eșantionare a cererilor de rambursare ce urmau a fi reverificate de către AM și nici documentarea rezultatelor acestor verificări; termenele procedurale privind evaluarea, selecția și contractarea nu au fost respectate în cazul proiectelor aferente apelului „Școală pentru toți”; „Ghidul Solicitantului – condiții generale și specifice” nu conține informații pentru potențialii beneficiari privind documentele ce trebuie transmise în vederea contractării unui proiect; autoevaluarea riscurilor de fraudă nu a fost documentată corespunzător și nu asigură instituirea unor măsuri antifraudă eficace și proporționale etc.<sup>79</sup>

Ca atare, în noua etapă în care am intrat (2021 – 2027) și în care se vor implementa proiecte din cadrul POEO, autoritățile românești responsabile și beneficiarii trebuie să evite greșelile din ciclul anterior de programare și să mărească, către maximum, gradul de absorbție a fondurilor destinate pentru acest program.

## **2. Planul Național de Redresare și Reziliență – instrument de sprijin european pentru depășirea crizei economice generată de pandemia de Coronavirus în noua perioadă de programare 2021-2027**

**Planul Național de Redresare și Reziliență** este rezultatul deciziei Uniunii Europene de a iniția măsuri de combatere a efectelor economice negative ale pandemiei de Coronavirus, concretizată în actul normativ reprezentat de **Regulamentul (UE) 2021/241 al Parlamentului European și al Consiliului** din 12 februarie 2021 de instituire a *Mecanismului de redresare și reziliență*<sup>80</sup>.

Potrivit **Ordonanței de Urgență a Guvernului nr. 155/3 septembrie 2020**<sup>81</sup> privind unele măsuri pentru elaborarea Planului Național de Relansare și Reziliență necesar României pentru

<sup>77</sup>Comisia Europeană, *Raport de țară din 2020 privind România* (Bruxelles, 26.02.2020) 21.

<sup>78</sup>Curtea de Conturi a României, *Raportul public pe anul 2018, Auditul public extern desfășurat de Autoritatea de Audit* (București, decembrie 2019), 413;

<sup>79</sup>*Ibidem*, 417-418.

<sup>80</sup>Publicat în Jurnalul Oficial al Uniunii Europene nr. 57/18.02.2021;

<sup>81</sup>A fost publicată în Monitorul Oficial al României, Partea I, nr. 819 din 7 septembrie 2020;

accesarea de fonduri externe rambursabile și nerambursabile în cadrul Mecanismului de redresare și reziliență, țara noastră are un buget din fonduri externe rambursabile și nerambursabile estimat la 79,9 miliarde euro obținut în urma negocierilor care au avut loc la nivelul Consiliului European în perioada 17-21 iulie 2020, buget care urmează să fie supus procedurilor de aprobare ale Parlamentului European din care 30,4 miliarde euro sunt destinați instrumentului de finanțare „Mecanismul de redresare și reziliență” structurați sub formă de granturi 13,7 miliarde euro și sub formă de împrumuturi 16,6 miliarde euro.

Potrivit art.3 din acest regulamentul Uniunii Europene menționat mai sus, domeniul de aplicare al mecanismului vizează domenii de politică de importanță europeană structurate pe **șase piloni**: a) *tranziția verde*; b) *transformarea digitală*; c) *creștere inteligentă, durabilă și favorabilă incluziunii, inclusiv coeziune economică, locuri de muncă, productivitate, competitivitate, cercetare, dezvoltare și inovare, precum și o piață internă funcțională, cu IMM-uri puternice*; d) *coeziune socială și teritorială*; e) *sănătate și reziliență economică, socială și instituțională, având drept scop, printre altele, creșterea nivelului de pregătire pentru situații de criză și a capacității de reacție la criză*; f) *politici pentru generația următoare, copii și tineret, cum ar fi educația și competențele*.

În conformitate cu cei șase piloni menționați la articolul 3 din prezentul regulament, cu coerența și sinergiile pe care le generează și în contextul crizei provocate de COVID-19, **obiectivul general al mecanismului** este *să promoveze coeziunea economică, socială și teritorială a Uniunii prin îmbunătățirea rezilienței, a nivelului de pregătire pentru situații de criză, a capacității de adaptare și a potențialului de creștere ale statelor membre, prin atenuarea impactului social și economic al crizei în cauză, în special asupra femeilor, prin contribuția la punerea în aplicare a pilonului european al drepturilor sociale, prin sprijinirea tranziției verzi, prin contribuția la realizarea obiectivelor privind clima ale Uniunii pentru 2030 stabilite la articolul 2 punctul 11 din Regulamentul (UE) 2018/1999 și prin respectarea obiectivului UE de realizare a neutralității climatice până în 2050, precum și a tranziției digitale, contribuind astfel la convergența economică și socială ascendentă, restabilind și promovând creșterea durabilă și integrarea economiilor Uniunii, încurajând crearea de locuri de muncă de înaltă calitate, contribuind la autonomia strategică a Uniunii alături de o economie deschisă și creând valoare adăugată europeană*.

Este bine cunoscut faptul că, procesul de elaborare a PNRR s-a realizat prin Memorandumul cu tema „*Mecanismul pentru elaborarea poziției Guvernului României cu privire la Planul Național de Relansare și Reziliență*”<sup>82</sup> aprobat în ședința de guvern din 20 ianuarie 2021.

Ținând cont de faptul că Ministerul Investițiilor și Proiectelor Europene (MIPE) este coordonatorul național al procesului de elaborare și negociere a PNRR cu Comisia Europeană, MIPE a lucrat activ cu ministerele de linie desemnate, în funcție de specificul investițiilor și reformelor.

PNRR trebuie să conțină o explicație, prin care se asigură că nicio măsură de implementare a reformelor și a investițiilor, incluse în plan, nu prejudiciază în mod semnificativ obiectivele de mediu, în conformitate cu art. 17 din Regulamentul (UE) 2020/852 (*principiul „de a nu prejudicia în mod semnificativ”*). Mai mult decât atât, planul trebuie să prevadă egalitatea de gen și egalitatea de șanse, precum și o prezentare succintă a rezultatelor consultărilor care au avut loc cu părțile interesate.

PNRR are la bază **6 piloni principali**: *Tranziția verde; Transformarea digitală; Creșterea economică inteligentă, sustenabilă și incluzivă; Coeziunea socială și teritorială; Sănătate și reziliență instituțională; Copii, tineri, educație și competențe*.<sup>83</sup>

<sup>82</sup>Guvernul României, <https://sgg.gov.ro/new/wp-content/uploads/2021/01/MEMO-7.pdf>, 2021, accesat 18.04.2021

<sup>83</sup>Ministerul Investițiilor și Fondurilor Europene, <http://mfe.gov.ro/pnrr/#90>, accesat 18.04.2021;

**Tabel nr. 1. Analiză piloni, componente și sume PNRR**

<b>PILON Buget inițial de negociere:</b>	<b>COMPONENTA TOTAL PNRR: 41.461 (mil.EURO)</b>
<b>TRANZIȚIA VERDE</b>	<b>PILON I=15.300 (mil.EURO)</b>
Total (mil.Euro) 4.000	I.1 .Sistemul național de gestionare a apei: apă și canalizare, irigații, desecări-drenaje, lucrări de combatere a eroziunii solului și intervenții active în atmosferă;
Total (mil.Euro) 1.500	I.2 Împădurim România și protejăm biodiversitatea;
Total (mil.Euro) 1.300	I.3 Managementul deșeurilor și economie circulară;
Total (mil.Euro) 5.000	I.4 Transport feroviar și mobilitate urbană;
Total (mil.Euro) 2.200	I.5 Valul renovării – Fondul pentru reabilitarea verde și seismică.
Total (mil.Euro) 1.300	I.6 Energie regenerabilă și eficiență energetică
<b>II. TRANSFORMAREA DIGITALĂ</b>	<b>PILON II= 3.542 (mil.EURO)</b>
Total (mil.Euro) 2.112	II.1 Cloud guvernamental și sisteme digitale interconectate în administrația publică, semnătură și identitate electronică, promovarea investițiilor cu valoare adăugată mare în TIC;
Total (mil.Euro) 780	II.2 România Educată – Digitalizarea educației;
Total (mil.Euro) 650	II.3 Broadband și 5G.
<b>III. CREȘTERE INTELIGENTĂ, DURABILĂ ȘI FAVORABILĂ INCLUZIUNII</b>	<b>PILON III= 9.548 (mil.EURO)</b>
Total (mil.Euro) 100	III.1 Reforma sistemului de pensii;
Total (mil.Euro) 856	II.2 Modernizarea și consolidarea sistemului financiar-fiscal;
Total(mil.Euro) 2.275	III.3 Investiții și instrumente financiare pentru sectorul privat și reforma companiilor de stat;
Total (mil.Euro) 630	III.4 România Educată – Învățământ dual, tehnic și profesional;
Total (mil.Euro) 510	III.5 Cercetare, Dezvoltare și Inovare;
Total (mil.Euro) 600	III.6 Dezvoltarea infrastructurii de gaz natural în amestec cu hidrogen și alte gaze verzi;
Total (mil.Euro) 77	III.7 România Creativă (industrii creative);

Total (mil.Euro) 4.500	III.8 Transport rutier și autostrăzi.
<b>IV. COEZIUNE SOCIALĂ ȘI TERITORIALĂ</b>	<b>PILON IV= 5.170 (mil.EURO)</b>
Total (mil.Euro) 4.000	IV.1 Fondul de reziliență pentru localități;
Total (mil.Euro) 400	IV.2 Fondul pentru dezvoltare comunitară în rural și zone urbane sărace;
Total (mil.Euro) 250	IV.3 Infrastructură socială și cămine de bătrâni;
Total (mil.Euro) 120	IV.4 România Velo – Încurajarea transportului și turismului pe bicicletă, pedestru și alte forme nemotorizate;
Total (mil.Euro) 400	IV.5 România Atractivă.
<b>V. SĂNĂTATE ȘI REZILIENȚĂ ECONOMICĂ, SOCIALĂ ȘI INSTITUȚIONALĂ</b>	<b>PILON V= 6.595 (mil.EURO)</b>
Total (mil.Euro) 3.000	V.1 Fondul pentru Spitale. Creșterea accesului la Sănătate
Total (mil.Euro) 700	V.2. Reziliență în situații de criză
Total (mil.Euro) 2.000	V.3 România Educată – infrastructură școlară și universitară
Total (mil.Euro) 647	V.4 Încurajarea formalizării muncii, economie socială și introducerea Venitului Minim de Incluziune
Total (mil.Euro) 148	V.5 Reforma administrației publice, salarizarea unitară, dialog social și creșterea eficienței justiției
Total (mil.Euro) 100	V.6 Fondul de reziliență a societății civile
<b>VI. POLITICI PENTRU GENERAȚIA URMĂTOARE, COPII ȘI TINERI</b>	<b>PILON VI= 1.306 (mil.EURO)</b>
Total (mil.Euro) 636	VI.1 România Educată – Programul național de reducere a abandonului școlar
Total (mil.Euro) 300	VI.2 Granturi pentru tineret și sport
Total (mil.Euro) 370	VI.3 România Educată – Programul Național pentru Creșe

**Sursa: Ministerul Investițiilor și Proiectelor Europene, Planul Național de Redresare și Reziliență (București: <https://mfe.gov.ro/pnrr/>, 2021**

Ca urmare a acestor informații, **bugetul inițial pentru negociere reprezintă o valoare de 41.461 milioane EURO** aferentă lunii aprilie 2021 (mai precis 41,5 miliarde euro, reprezentând 142% din alocarea României atât din granturi cât și împrumuturi pentru reforme care să producă

schimbări structurale, precum reforma sistemului de pensii, reforme fiscale, reforma funcției publice, reforma salarizării în sector public, reforma companiilor de stat și introducerea venitului minim de incluziune<sup>84</sup>).

În cadrul ședinței de guvern a fost adoptat și Memorandumul care a mandatat MIPE pentru a efectua negocierile cu Comisia Europeană.

*Se alocă Ministerului Investițiilor și Proiectelor Europene, prin Planul național de redresare și reziliență, un procent din bugetul PNRR, în limita negociată cu Comisia Europeană, corespunzător alocărilor aprobate pentru granturi pentru fiecare componentă în parte, pentru acoperirea cheltuielilor legate de activitățile de pregătire, monitorizare, control, audit și evaluare, inclusiv cheltuieli de salarizare, care sunt necesare pentru gestionarea PNRR și îndeplinirea obiectivelor acestuia, în special cele legate de studii, reuniunile experților, consultarea părților interesate, acțiunile de informare și comunicare, inclusiv acțiunile incluzive de sensibilizare, și comunicarea instituțională a priorităților politice ale Uniunii, în măsura în care acestea au legătură cu obiectivele PNRR, cheltuielile cu rețelele informatice care se concentrează pe prelucrarea și schimbul de informații, instrumentele corporative de tehnologie a informației și toate celelalte cheltuieli cu asistența tehnică și administrativă suportate de Comisie pentru gestionarea mecanismului. Cheltuielile acoperă, de asemenea, costurile altor activități de sprijin, de natura controlului calității și monitorizării proiectelor pe teren, costurile aferente consilierilor la nivelul tehnic, precum și pe cele ale experților pentru evaluarea și implementarea reformelor și a investițiilor.*<sup>85</sup>

Potrivit declarației ministrului Ghinea Cristian<sup>86</sup>, prin Planul Național de Redresare și Reziliență (PNRR), România va putea beneficia de aproape 30 de miliarde de euro din cele 672,5 miliarde de euro ale Mecanismului de redresare și reziliență, este grupat pe 30 de componente care acoperă toți cei **6 piloni ai acestui mecanism**, așa cum a fost el adoptat de instituțiile europene: 1)Tranziție verde; 2)Transformare digitală; 3)Creștere inteligentă, sustenabilă și favorabilă incluziunii, inclusiv coeziune economică, locuri de muncă, productivitate, competitivitate, cercetare, dezvoltare și inovare, precum și o piață internă funcțională, cu întreprinderi mici și mijlocii (IMM-uri) puternice; 4)Coeziune socială și teritorială; 5)Sănătate, precum și reziliență economică, socială și instituțională, în scopul, printre altele, al creșterii nivelului de pregătire pentru situații de criză și a capacității de reacție la criză; 6)Politici pentru generația următoare, copii și tineret, cum ar fi educația și competențele.

Desigur că negocierile reprezentanților României cu Uniunea Europeană vor continua până la obținerea formei definitive a planului și resurselor pe care țara noastră le va primi prin acest mecanism instituit.

Cu siguranță derularea acțiunilor din cadrul acestui plan va avea prioritate în raport cu acțiunile ce vor avea loc și în cadrul POEO dar și a altor programe operaționale care sunt prevăzute a se desfășura în noua perioadă de programare 2021 – 2027.

## Concluzii

**1)Programul Operațional Educație și Ocupare (POEO) 2021-2027 și Planul Național de Redresare și Reziliență** reprezintă două acțiuni de importanță majoră în perioada următoare pentru

<sup>84</sup>Potrivit prevederii de la pagina 7 din Planul Național de Redresare și Reziliență (PNRR), elaborat de Ministerul Investițiilor și Proiectelor Europene (MIPE), versiunea din Aprilie 2021;

<sup>85</sup>Guvernul României, ORDONANȚĂ DE URGENȚĂ nr. 24 din 31 martie 2021 pentru modificarea și completarea Ordonanței de urgență a Guvernului nr. 155/2020 privind unele măsuri pentru elaborarea Planului național de relansare și reziliență necesar României pentru accesarea de fonduri externe rambursabile și nerambursabile în cadrul Mecanismului de redresare și reziliență, Publicat în MONITORUL OFICIAL nr. 339 din 2 aprilie 2021;

<sup>86</sup>Publicată pe site-ul [www.caleaeuropeana.ro](http://www.caleaeuropeana.ro) în 21.aprilie 2021;



România, care se vor derula cu finanțare nerambursabilă dar și nerambursabilă de la Uniunea Europeană și au menirea să atenueze efectele crizei economice generate de pandemia de Coronavirus dar să și corecteze o serie de imperfecțiuni manifestate în perioadele anterioare legate de calitatea resurselor umane de care are nevoie țara noastră.

2) **Programul Operațional Educație și Ocupare (POEO)** prezintă o viziune integrată privind accesul la învățământ și accesul pe piața muncii conține trei domenii de intervenție: **ocuparea tinerilor, educație și ocupare pentru toți** și 10 priorități de investiții, menite să corecteze o serie de nerealizări pe zona resurselor umane prin intermediul programelor anterioare dedicate acestui domeniu (POSDRU pentru perioada 2007-2013 și POCU pentru perioada 2014 – 2020).

3) **Planul Național de Redresare și Reziliență** este rezultatul deciziei Uniunii Europene de a iniția măsuri de combatere a efectelor economice negative ale pandemiei de Coronavirus, concretizată în actul normativ reprezentat de **Regulamentul (UE) 2021/241 al Parlamentului European și al Consiliului** din 12 februarie 2021 de instituire a *Mecanismului de redresare și reziliență*, a fost configurat într-o primă formă prin **Ordonanței de Urgență a Guvernului nr. 155/3 septembrie 2020**, iar în prezent se află în faza de negocieri finale pentru a primi forma definitivă și finanțările solicitate, pe baza proiectelor prevăzute de autoritățile române și validate de organisme europene de profil.

4) PNRR are la bază **6 piloni principali**: *Tranziția verde; Transformarea digitală; Creșterea economică inteligentă, sustenabilă și incluzivă; Coeziunea socială și teritorială; Sănătate și reziliență instituțională; Copii, tineri, educație și competențe* și pentru fiecare pilon se prevăd niște acțiuni specifice și se solicită argumentat niște resurse financiare pentru finanțare.

5) În noua etapă în care am intrat (2021 – 2027) și în care se vor implementa proiecte din cadrul PNRR și POEO, autoritățile românești responsabile și beneficiarii trebuie să evite greșelile din ciclul anterior de programare și să mărească, către maximum, gradul de absorbție a fondurilor destinate pentru aceste două programe majore și vitale pentru țara noastră.

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- 2) OUG nr. 24 din 31 martie 2021 pentru modificarea și completarea Ordonanței de urgență a Guvernului nr. 155/2020 privind unele măsuri pentru elaborarea Planului național de relansare și reziliență necesar României pentru accesarea de fonduri externe rambursabile și nerambursabile în cadrul Mecanismului de redresare și reziliență, Publicat în MONITORUL OFICIAL nr. 339 din 2 aprilie 2021;
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- 8) Ministerul Investițiilor și Proiectelor Europene, *Programul Operațional Educație și Ocupare 2021-2027 (POEO)*, versiunea 1 octombrie 2020, (București: 2020), 118, <http://mfe.gov.ro>;
- 9) Ministerul Investițiilor și Fondurilor Europene, <http://mfe.gov.ro/pnrr/#90>;
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## MANAGEMENTUL SI STRATEGIA LOGISTICA DE IMPLEMENTARE A CADASTRULUI GENERAL IN ROMANIA

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### NOȚIUNI INTRODUCTIVE

Viața oamenilor, din epoca primitivă până la cea de azi organizată în societatea modernă, a avut drept suport material și a fost condiționată de unele mijloace care să le satisfacă nevoile de trai. Mai puțin pretențioase la început, aceste necesități au fost acoperite integral și la alegere în funcție de condițiile naturale ale locului. În timp, cerințele au crescut iar mijloacele de bază, vitale în dezvoltarea omenirii, au rămas aceleași fiind în prezent suprasolicitate, iar altele, chiar pe sfârșit.

Pământul, în expresia sa curentă ca suprafață de teren, a fost inițial la dispoziție discreționară, nelimitată, furnizând oamenilor fructe, vânat și mai târziu pășunile necesare creșterii animalelor. Din nomazi oamenii preistorici, stabiliți în zonele cele mai convenabile, și-au construit locuințe devenind apoi cultivatori prin desțelenirea pășunilor și defrișarea pădurilor, trecând mai târziu, la exploatarea resurselor naturale de lemn, minereuri, petrol, gaze ș.a. Importanța pământului, ca suport al dezvoltării omenirii, s-a dovedit a fi capitală și a crescut continuu el devenind obiect al muncii și mijloc de producție agricolă și forestieră, sursă de materii prime și locație pentru desfășurarea tuturor activităților. Pământul este în prezent bunul economic de bază, diferit de alte mijloace de producție deoarece este de neînlocuit, limitat ca întindere, stabil și indestructibil.

Cadastrul, s-a dovedit a fi un ansamblu de lucrări și măsuri dar și o instituție, deoarece a contribuit la înlăturarea nedreptăților și prejudecăților ce au existat de-a lungul timpului, în ceea ce privește dovedirea și protejarea drepturilor de proprietate.

Noțiunea de „cadastru”, folosită azi în mod frecvent, ar putea deriva din cuvintele:

- „capitastrium ” din limba latină, provenit și el din „capitum registrium ” care înseamnă „dare pe cap de familie”;
- „katastikhon” de origine greacă, tradus ceva mai liber în „registru de impunere”, devenit la noi „catastif”, având un sens asemănător. Sub raportul conținutului cadastrul a avut ca obiect întocmirea evidențelor funciare, cu descrierea imobilelor, cu poziționarea lor în spațiu, ca mărime, calitate și deținătorii de drept, preluând astfel funcția „registruului” oficial al proprietăților. În limbajul curent noțiunea de „cadastru” poate avea sensuri și conținuturi diferite ca: ansamblu de lucrări, pentru întocmirea unor documentații complexe ce presupune identificarea imobilelor, măsurători, redactarea planurilor, evaluări ș.a; instituție publică, reprezentată prin Agenția Națională de Cadastru și Publicitate imobiliară (ANCPI) și oficii teritoriale ca unități lucrative în fiecare județ;
- disciplină de studii în cadrul măsurărilor terestre, inclusă în planurile de învățământ ale școlilor și facultăților de profil.

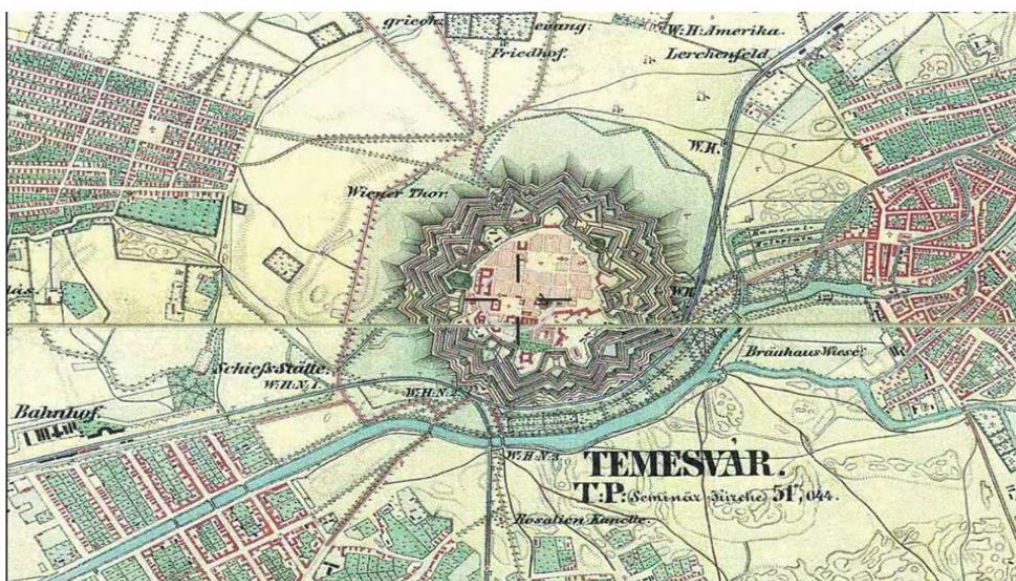
### EVOLUȚIA CADASTRULUI ÎN ROMÂNIA

Pe teritoriul României problema stabilirii hotarelor obștilor sătești și ale proprietăților individuale asupra pământului, principalul mijloc care asigură traiul populației , a apărut relativ târziu. În perioada consolidării statelor feudale, având în vedere suficiența întinderilor de pământ

existente, în condițiile unei populații relativ restrânse, proprietatea asupra terenurilor nu era necesar să fie ocrotită prin măsurarea hotarelor acestora. În hrisoave din secolele XV-XVII hotarele moșiilor erau determinate prin descrieri aproximative. Pentru determinarea proprietății a fost elaborat în anul 1868 un "Regulament pentru facerea hotărnicii", care a instituit titlul de inginer hotarnic și a stabilit regulile și procedura de urmat la stabilirea hotarelor. Acest regulament a fost modificat în anul 1879, iar în anul 1897 a apărut un nou regulament de hotărnicie.

Aceste hotărnicii rezolvau mai mult partea civilă, juridică, a proprietății, partea tehnică fiind rezolvată foarte sumar, empiric și pe suprafețe mici. Ele nu au servit scopului principal al cadastrului privind stabilirea unor impozite juste și echitabile. Dările se stabileau în continuare în mod arbitrar, prin perceperea unor cote din produsele agricole ale populației, care nu pot fi comparate cu impozitele moderne, legitime, juste și echitabile din țările care dețineau un sistem de cadastru.

În anul 1955 apar Decretul nr. 280/1955 și HCM nr. 1240/1955 prin care se legiferează organizarea și executarea „evidenței funciare” cu scopul principal de a servi la comasarea terenurilor agricole în acțiunea de cooperativizare a terenurilor proprietate particulară a persoanelor fizice forțate să se înscrie în Gospodăria Agricole Colective. Planurile topografice pentru această evidență au fost întocmite în cea. 6 ani, mai ales prin metode fotogrammetrice, mai puțin prin topografie clasică, la scara 1:10.000 pentru o suprafață de 13 milioane de hectare.



Figura\_1 Harta cadastrală în perioada 1919-1933

## EVOLUTIA CADASTRULUI ÎN ROMANIA DUPĂ 1989

Oportunitatea luării în discuție a situației cadastrului din România după 1989 este întemeiată întrucât „Cine nu știe de unde vine nu știe nici unde să meargă” (Miclea 1995). În aceste sens, pe lângă cunoașterea evoluției cadastrului în trecut, care definesc, de fapt, situația moștenită în 1989, se impune cunoașterea cerințelor noi, apărute după această dată, evaluarea realizărilor în cei 20 de ani care au trecut și evident a ceea ce rămâne de făcut în viitor. Chiar dacă trecerea în revistă a acestor probleme este dificilă și discutabilă, considerăm că este necesară întrucât unele puncte de vedere servesc ca sprijin în expunerile ulterioare. Activitatea de cadastru a demarat practic, după decembrie '89, de la nivelul Legii nr.23/1933, veche de peste 70 de ani, cu același obiectiv principal de realizare a unui sistem de evidență funciară, modera și eficient. Pe același fond, de lipsă cvasitotală a unei astfel de evidențe, trebuiau executate atunci, ca și acum, un volum impresionant de lucrări complexe extinse pe timp îndelungat și cu însemnate eforturi materiale. Reținem că, este vorba de „cadastru”, nu numai de „cadastru general” care are drept obiectiv lucrările complexe de pe întregul fond funciar concretizate prin documentații cadastrale pe UAT, ci și de publicitatea imobiliară respectiv de înscrierile în cartea funciară.

Ca stare de fapt, după '89 aceste lucrări, au fost marcate de ritmul lent și confuzia conceptuală, specifică implementării reformelor la noi, concretizate în activitatea de cadastru iar în aceste condiții era greu de presupus ca, din start, reforma cadastrului să debuteze cu rezultate favorabile. Din păcate nici prin modificările ulterioare lipsurile semnalate nu au fost îndreptate, provocând inechități și tulburări sociale, soldate cu milioane de procese nu numai în instanțele noastre dar și în cele internaționale.

Obiectivele imediate, la momentul adevărului din anii '90, ce stăteau în fața cadastrului erau așadar vizibile, și urmăreau:

- introducerea unui cadastru modern, confirmată însă târziu prin Legea, 7/96 și Normele tehnice corespunzătoare din 1998;

- rezolvarea unor probleme curente, ale populației, în regim de urgență, legate de restituirea bunurilor imobile către vechii proprietari.

## DOMENII SI ACTIVITATI CARE PARTICIPA LA REALIZAREA CADASTRULUI

Realizarea lucrărilor de cadastru, respectiv a documentelor finale ale acestuia, planul cadastral și registrele cadastrale, se face folosind cunoștințe din domenii diferite.

Se disting trei domenii de activități care participă la realizarea cadastrului:

1.domenii de bază sau de sprijin:

geodezia; topografia; fotogrammetria; cartografia.

2.domenii de colaborare și de completare:

informatica; dreptul civil; pedologia; cunoștințe economice privind evaluarea și impozitarea imobiliară;

3.domenii auxiliare sau ajutătoare:

amenajarea teritoriului; urbanism; îmbunătățiri funciare; organizarea teritoriului agricol; amenajarea pădurilor; protecția mediului etc.

## SISTEMUL INFORMATIC- SUPTOR PENTRU PENTRU ÎNREGISTRAREA SISTEMATICĂ A IMOBILELOR

Aplicatia software NetSetCAD permite:

Stocarea informațiilor într-un sistem de baze de date locale, bazat pe structura fișierului CGXML -

Conversie de date de la exploatarea de date digitale existente :

Import fișiere CGXML ;

Import fișiere CPXML;

Import baza de date DDAPT - Import / Export în format fișier CGXML;

Posibilitate consultare Registru Agricol și Registrul Rol Fiscal ;

Generare automată a registrelor cadastrale precum și a Indexului alfabetic;

Generare fișe interviu ;

Verificarea datelor din baza de date NetSET (Network Spatial Editing Tool) este un instrument integrat de editare, analiză și gestionare a hărților/planurilor digitale cu baza de date asociată. Este un sistem cu o interfață prietenoasă și un set flexibil de funcții predefinite destinate analizei spațiale a bazei de date.





Figura\_2 Programul NetSET pentru gestionarea hartilor si a planurilor

De asemenea, NetSET include instrumente pentru conversia proiectelor GIS existente, a imaginilor raster sau a hărților vectoriale din/în diferite formate și permite operațiuni de import / export a fișierelor din formate ca ESRI Shapefile, .dxf, TIGER, S57, MapInfo File, DGN, CSV, GML, CGXML.

CAD-GEN este o aplicație GIS bazată pe platforma NetSET, destinată gestionării datelor de cadastru sistematic, într-un sistem unitar care leagă reprezentarea grafică de atributele alfanumerice caracteristice fiecărui element din hartă. Structura de tabele a bazei de date este gestionată prin MS SQL Server.

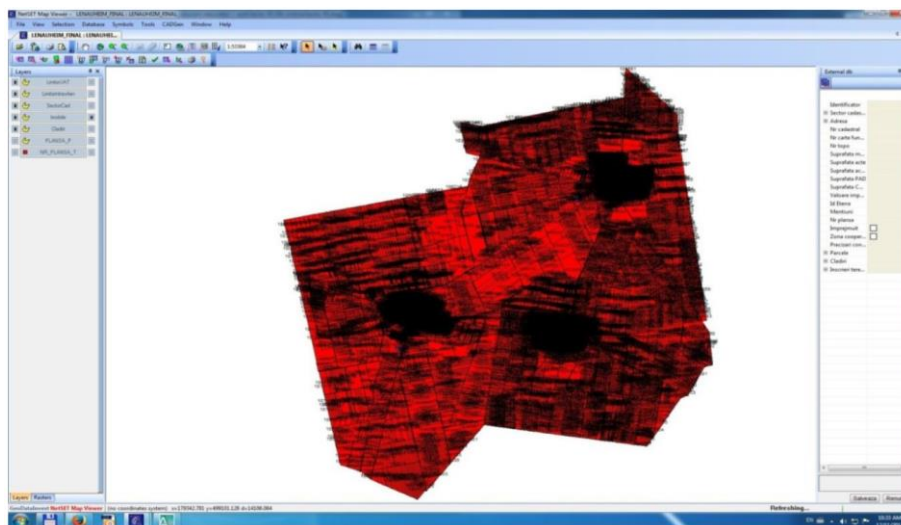
Prin structura sa GIS se editează, modifică/actualizează și vizualizează atât elementele grafice de pe stratele componente, cât și atributele corespunzătoare din baza de date.

Printre avantajele oferite de utilizarea acestui produs se numără:

- reprezentarea grafică de precizie și în mod sugestiv a situațiilor reale din teren cu privire la terenuri și construcții;
- crearea și gestionarea unei baze de date complete, cu cele mai cuprinzătoare informații legate de terenuri, construcții și proprietari;
- realizarea și tipărirea oricăror tipuri de rapoarte utilizate în cadastru;
- oferirea unei imagini complete și reale asupra unei unități teritorial-administrative, suport pentru managementul administrativ;
- accesul direct și rapid la informații legate de terenuri, construcții și proprietari, cu toate aspectele implicate de acestea.

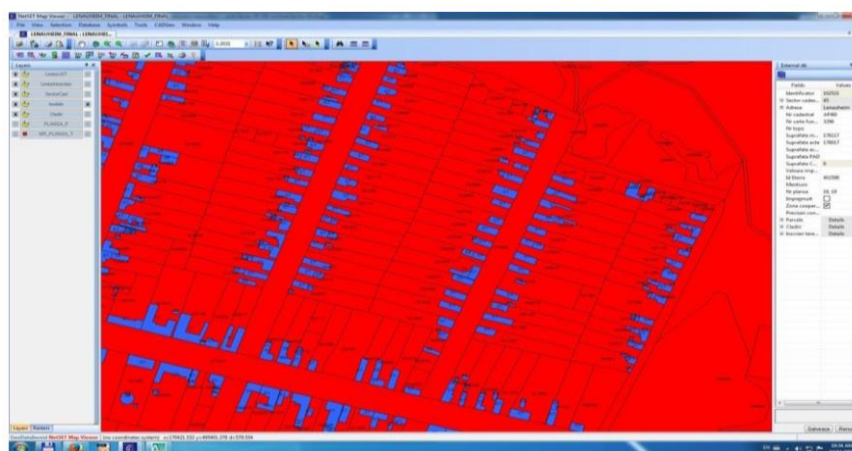
Informația alfanumerică vehiculată în domeniul cadastrului imobiliar este gestionată în cadrul aplicației NetSET CAD, cu legătura directă la stratele vectoriale ce fac referire la componentele grafice specifice cadastrului.

Aplicația software este dezvoltată pe o platformă GIS în conformitate cu standardele OGS și oferă funcționalități care aplică regulile topologice definite specifice cadastrului sistematic. Fișierele cgxml au fost realizate prin importarea poliliniilor imobilelor și a construcțiilor aferente (realizate în urma măsurătorilor la teren și în urma prelucrării la birou ca parte grafică) și pe baza celor trei surse de informații folosite și în cazul precompletării și completării fișelor de interviu. După prelucrarea datelor măsurate (grafice), a fost creat pentru fiecare imobil în parte câte o înregistrare în baza de date ce conține limita imobilului și construcțiile. Fiecărui imobil din baza de date grafică i s-a alocat un ID unic, identic cu cel din baza de date textuală. Datele textuale au fost completate și actualizate funcție de informațiile disponibile: carte funciară (fișier cgxml descărcat de pe WebCadGen), set acte provenit de la punctele de informare etc. Pentru zona de intravilan, după completarea la teren a fișei de interviu s-a preluat și s-a actualizat în fișierul cgxml datele provenite în urma interviului.



Figura\_3 Aplicatia software care genereaza planurile parcelare si intercaleaza cu platforma GIS

Planul cadastral de ansamblu la scara 1:10000 se realizeaza prin „extragerea” elementelor specificate în cerințele Achizitorului din baza de date SQL în care se regăsește toată partea grafică a UAT-ului (limita UAT-ului și vecinătățile, limitele de intravilane și denumirile, limitele și numerele sectoarele cadastrale, limitele și numerele de tarla și cvartale, toponimie). Totodată, au fost adăugate elemente cum ar fi: titlul, caroiajul, legenda, denumirea executantului etc. Toate elementele au fost create pe straturi separate. Planurile cadastrale se realizează la scara 1:2000 atat pentru sectoarele cadastrale aflate în intravilan cât și pentru cele pentru sectoare ce aparțin zonei de extravilan.

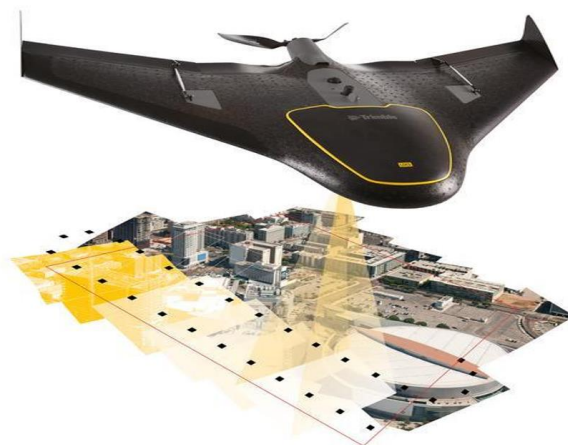


Figura\_4 Planul cadastral in care apar toate imobilele generate automat din baza de date GIS

O soluție mult mai rapidă și de viitor este noul Trimble UX5 este un UAV ofera solutii de imagistica aeriana. Acesta stabileste standardul pentru colectarea datelor rapid si in siguranta datorita functiilor avansate de redundanta, propulsie inversata si datorita constructiei robuste. Folosind modulul de Imagistica Aeriana din cadrul suitei Trimble Business Center, UX5 simplifica lucrarile complexe pe suprafete intinse chiar si in conditii meteo dificile. UX5 beneficiaza de ultimele progrese din domeniul fotografiei si dispune de o camera digitala construita la comanda cu un senzor de imagine larg ce captureaza poze clare cu culori bogate chiar si in conditii innoate.

Camera de 16.1 MP cu optica special adaptata pentru aplicatii de imagistica aeriana captureaza poze la o rezolutie de pana la 2,4 cm. Design-ul remarcabil al lui UX5 asigura folosirea

acestui a aproape în orice zonă și în orice condiții meteo. Este rezistent la ploie, zone cu turbulente, deserturi, teren montan și înzăpezit. Avionul este o soluție de încredere pentru colectarea datelor de calitate fără compromisuri la acoperire.



Figura\_5 Prezentarea tehnologiei UAV de scanare aeriană

## AVANTAJELE ÎNREGISTRĂRII SISTEMATICE A PROPRIETĂȚILOR PENTRU COMUNITATE

1. Identificarea proprietăților primărilor;
2. Delimitarea domeniului public;
3. Facilitarea proiectelor de dezvoltare locală;
4. Realizarea unei imagini clare a proprietății, factor absolut necesar dezvoltării economice și sociale:

- Facilitează realizarea proiectelor pentru finanțări europene (apă, canal, gaze etc.);
- Contribuie la realizarea proiectelor de construcții, PUG-uri, etc.

”Avantajul major este acela că punem ordine în evidența terenurilor la nivel de comună. Deși suntem abia la început în acest proiect, comunitatea începe treptat să realizeze ce avantaje prezintă și realizează că este o soluție din care toată lumea are de profitat. Oamenii sunt conștienți de beneficiile pe termen scurt, mediu și lung. Și aici mă refer la tranzacții imobiliare care vor fi mai ușor de realizat, accesarea de subvenții, fonduri, credite ce-i vor ajuta pe cetățeni și mai ales pe cei mai întreprinzători, să facă diverse activități, agricole sau de orice fel. Clarificarea asta la nivelul proprietății îi va atrage și pe investitori.

Serviciile prestate de către Gauss Srl sunt recunoscute pe piața din România ca având un bun raport calitate - preț.

În prezent societatea urmărește atingerea de noi obiective și anume:

- îmbunătățirea calității;
- folosirea eficientă și deplină a utilajelor și instrumentelor topografice;
- reducerea cheltuielilor materiale;
- diversificarea serviciilor;
- creșterea productivității muncii;



## CONCLUZII

Sistemele cadastrale s-au dezvoltat de-a lungul timpului în întreaga lume pe baza unor modele cu specific național sau regional, sub forme diferite, răspunzând unor nevoi diferite, putându-se deosebi: sisteme cadastrale cu funcții fiscale, sisteme de gestiune și administrare teritorială, planificare urbană, protecția mediului, sisteme cadastrale multiscop, sisteme de carte funciară. Totuși, cadastrul are drept funcții de bază reprezentarea parcelei și stabilirea proprietarului.

Sistemele de evidență trebuie să fie flexibile, deoarece utilizatorii impun ținerea la zi privind modificările legislative, tehnologice și cele referitoare la modalitățile noi de înregistrare. Utilizarea cât mai multă a Internetului, a tehnologiei GPS, a schimbului de date prin XML și a standardelor de modelare a datelor UML (Unified Modeling Language) care pot contribui în timp la dezvoltarea eficientă a unor sisteme cadastrale viabile.

Dintre factorii necesari pentru succesul unui sistem cadastral, amintim:

- să fie flexibil la schimbările legale și la cele de natură tehnică;
- să protejeze și să garanteze dreptul de proprietate;
- să fie simplu, clar, accesibil;
- să furnizeze informații actuale și de încredere la un preț scăzut.

Un factor cheie este interoperabilitatea la nivel național între sistemul cadastral și administrația teritoriului, ceea ce implică:

- nevoia de a avea procese și sisteme informatice cadastrale standardizate;
- necesitatea informației spațiale în toate procesele de decizie;
- creșterea nivelului de comunicare între unitățile administrativ-teritoriale.

Principiul modelării cadastrale face rezolvările inteligibile și sprijină investițiile făcute în date despre terenuri. Un sistem unificat de înregistrare a proprietăților, în acord cu prevederile Cadastrului 2014 poate stimula, crește și sprijini investițiile și va asigura securitatea drepturilor de proprietate ale cetățenilor.

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## PERFORMANCE AND RISK IN BANKING ACTIVITY INFLUENCED BY THE CURRENT PANDEMIC COVID-19

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**Drd ec. Mihai Carmina Elena ULB, FSE, Sibiu**

### **Abstract:**

*În această lucrare dorim să abordăm performanța și riscul în societățile bancare afectate de noile condiții date de manifestarea pandemiei globale COVID-19.*

*În abordarea acestei cercetări asupra băncilor am ținut cont de adaptarea României la noul model de susținere a sistemului bancar definit de Uniunea Europeană care este caracteristic unei economii de piață funcțională la care s-a adăugat instabilitatea politică a României, care amplifică gradul de incertitudine și reduce posibilitatea atingerii unor obiective strategice tinta prestabilite.*

**Cuvinte Cheie:** sistem bancar, riscuri bancare, profitabilitate, stabilitate, pandemie COVID-19.

### **1. Introducere:**

În identificarea, evaluarea și gestionarea riscurilor specifice activităților bancare, un rol important revine modelelor și tehnicilor care abordează riscul de credit, riscul de piață, riscul operațional și riscul de lichiditate, punându-se accent pe comportamentul acestora în actuala criză influențată de pandemia mondială COVID-19.

Performanța și managementul riscurilor în sectorul financiar-bancar au o importanță deosebită din cauza rolului pe care îl dețin instituțiile de credit în economie, prin prezența unui mare și variat număr de riscuri bancare.

Situația economică actuală, influențată de pandemia mondială, solicită o reevaluare a tehnicilor și metodelor aplicate în vederea managementului performanței și riscurilor, această abordare fiind pilonul de bază al lucrării de față, prezentând nu numai aspectele tradiționale ale gestiunii bancare, ci și felul în care, datorită crizei și recesiunii ulterioare, aspectele managementului riscului devin un test de competență pentru depășirea situațiilor mai puțin previzibile.

Performanța și managementul riscurilor în sistemul bancar reprezintă în opinia noastră o tematică complexă, ce poate fi amplasată în centrul sistemului financiar în virtutea rolului pe care instituțiile bancare îl ocupă în cadrul acestuia. Rolul și implicațiile instituțiilor financiar-bancare în cadrul sistemului financiar internațional sunt poate cel mai bine puse în evidență de actualele circumstanțe de criză aferente pandemiei globale, ce au demonstrat lumii întregi maniera în care pandemia globală a avut capacitatea de a fi propagată la nivel internațional, infiltrându-și efectele diverse în cadrul economiilor naționale, unde, corelate cu alte puncte slabe specifice sistemelor financiare naționale au condus la situații de criză cu caracteristici diverse, dar de fiecare

dată cu efecte îngrijorătoare. Pornind din acest punct al raționamentului logic, o analiză în sens deductiv ne conduce înspre recunoașterea importanței managementului unor astfel de societăți bancare, în cadrul cărora performanța și riscurile reprezintă aspecte cheie, ce interacționează permanent, un management adecvat având, în perspectiva noastră, capacitatea de a optimiza gestionarea riscurilor în direcția performanțelor dorite.

## **2. Perspectiva, performanța și risc în activitatea bancară influențată de actuala pandemie COVID-19, în viziunea specialiștilor.**

Demersul științific asumat se focalizează pe cazul particular al unei economii, analizând problematica performanței și managementul riscurilor în instituțiile de credit. Conceptul de performanță reprezintă o ipostaziere a intereselor generale, economico-sociale, de care societatea uzitează în vederea îmbunătățirii situației individuale sau colective. În funcție de perioadele la care se face referire, conceptul de performanță îmbracă diferite forme cum ar fi productivitate, adaptabilitate, eficacitate ș.a. (Nitu, 2002; Jianu, 2006; Marinescu, 2014; Weber, 2018; Mironiuc, 2019; Opritescu, 2010; Petrescu, 2012; Constantinescu, 2014).

Conceptul de performanță este utilizat din ce în ce mai mult pentru o scară largă de activități iar în funcție de acest lucru este asociat cu reușită, creștere, efort ș.a. În ceea ce privește activitatea bancară, performanța este asociată cu crearea unei valori adăugate, un raport optim între cost și beneficii. Fiind impusă de rentabilizarea investițiilor în tehnologii noi, ea a condus implicit la creșterea riscurilor și astfel legătura dintre performanță și risc a devenit indisolubil legată. În dicționarul explicativ al limbii române, „performanța” este prezentată sub forma unui rezultat deosebit de bun obținut de cineva sau de ceva (motor, aparat, persoană ș.a.).

Performanța sistemului bancar reflectă eficiența mobilizării și alocării capitalului în ansamblu dar și în particular, în acest scop societățile bancare trebuie să mobilizeze economiile interne, să aloce fonduri pentru investiții care să contribuie la modificările structurale din economie și la creșterea productivității, să faciliteze plățile astfel încât piața să poată opera la costuri scăzute și să găsească corelații cât mai juste între eforturi și efecte, adică eficiență și eficacitate.<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup> În mediul concurențial existent se pune din ce în ce mai mult accent pe *centre de profit* ale instituției bancare, adică o profitabilitate a unităților teritoriale ale băncii.

Performanța, în accepțiunea majorității specialiștilor în domeniul bancar, reprezintă acea stare de fapt caracterizată prin stabilitate decizională, legislativă, monitorizare și coordonare prudențială a tuturor celor implicați.

Termenul „performanță” are origine latină (performo, -are, -atum) și în linii mari reprezintă nivelul de realizare a obiectivelor (Marinescu, 2014).

În sens strict, performanța este rezultatul unei acțiuni iar în sens larg reprezintă un ansamblu de etape logice pentru atingerea obiectivului propus. Cuantificarea unei performanțe nu trebuie să se limiteze la un indicator, la un rezultat, ci la întreg ansamblul acțiunilor întreprinse pentru atingerea obiectivelor propuse.

Riscul reprezintă șansa unui prejudiciu, o pagubă, o pierdere. În societățile bancare riscul este expresia cantitativă a producerii unui eveniment generator de pierdere. Probabilitatea pierderii nu este un element pur matematic, el putând fi determinat prin metode statistice și analitice, probabilitatea și intensitatea, mărimea lui sunt date de:

- \* modalitatea de acoperire a pierderii;
- \* condițiile pieții;
- \* complexitatea instrumentelor ce se află în spatele pierderii.

Literatura economică definește riscul ca fiind probabilitatea ca rentabilitatea reală viitoare să fie mai mică decât rentabilitate așteptată (Rosen, 2014). O altă definiție a riscului este aceea de diferență dintre rezultatul așteptat și rezultatul realizat (Franklin, 2018). Teoria financiară modernă aduce însă nuanțări acestei definiții, considerând că nu trebuie pus semnul de echivalență între probabilitate și risc, „*probabilitatea constituie de fapt unitatea de măsură a riscului și mijloc de cuantificare pentru acesta*”.

Din punctul nostru de vedere performanța în bankingul de astăzi este influențată de factorii interni ai instituției bancare cât și de contextul economic în care activează (factori externi). O concurență crescută pe piața în care creditarea masivă impune o capitalizare excesivă, fără a analiza pierderile potențiale poate fi pentru băncile mici care fac un efort considerabil în „a ține pasul” un motiv de neperformanță în viitor.

Dacă în raport individual, pentru fiecare instituție în parte sunt stabilite intervale de risc cu praguri maxime și minime în funcție de riscurile asumate ca urmare a unei strategii foarte bine puse la punct, la nivelul unui sistem acest lucru este dificil de cuantificat. Performanța la acest nivel este reprezentată de găsirea unui echilibru între diferitele categorii de acțiuni, generatoare de riscuri, nu de intervale rigid delimitate.

Dacă este să facem referire la literatură de specialitate în domeniu, un punct de pornire extrem de util în cercetarea noastră îl reprezintă seria lucrărilor elaborate sub egida BIS (eng. Bank for International Settlements), departamentul monetar și economic dezvoltând o serie de analize la nivelul sistemului bancar mondial cu scopul supravegherii evoluțiilor înregistrate. Dintre aspectele cheie relevante amintim:

- 1) analiza dinamicii ofertei creditelor bancare;

- 2) ritmul schimbărilor structurale din cadrul instituțiilor financiar-bancare;
- 3) evoluția riscurilor specifice societăților bancare și maniera în care acestea sunt gestionate;
- 4) gradul de adecvare și capacitatea politicilor bancare de a preveni crizele financiare manifestate din varii motive;
- 5) care sunt implicațiile modificărilor apărute în forma intermedierei financiare asupra politicii monetare, reunind contribuții venite din partea a 19 bănci centrale (Argentina, Arabia Saudită, Chile, China, Columbia, Cehia, Filipine, Hong Kong, India, Indonezia, Israel, Korea, Malaezia, Mexic, Polonia, Singapore, Tailanda, Turcia și Ungaria), dar și a membrilor BIS.

Cu puțin timp înainte de manifestarea actualei crize datorate pandemiei globale COVID-19, în februarie 2020, la o masă rotundă organizată de managerii bancari brașoveni axată asupra problematicei sistemului financiar și a elasticității la nivel macroeconomic s-a analizat în ce măsură schimbările masive înregistrate în decursul ultimilor ani la nivelul sistemului financiar au fost generatoare de bunăstare. Specialiștii bancari au ajuns la concluzia că simpla analiză și corelare a faptelor, chiar dacă uneori pare a fi evidentă, nu reprezintă o dovadă a cauzalității. Aceasta înseamnă că este necesară realizarea unei analize dincolo de teorie, urmărind canalele specifice prin care schimbările identificate în cadrul piețelor financiare contribuie la circumstanțele macroeconomice. Pornind de la aceste raționamente, au fost conturate două curente, unul susținând legătura dintre valorile îmbucurătoare ale variabilelor macroeconomice la nivelul anului 2019 și schimbările din cadrul piețelor financiare și al instituțiilor financiar-bancare, iar celălalt acceptând de asemenea existența unei astfel de relații, dar până la un anumit punct. Mai precis, acesta din urmă avertiza că o bună parte din ceea ce reprezentau la vremea respectivă „veștile bune” ar putea reprezenta în fapt costul unor „vești semnificativ mai proaste” ce aveau să vină, fiind din păcate și adevărit în scurt timp de pandemia din martie 2020.

Revenind la nivel teoretic, putem afirma că efectele sistematice generate de problemele financiare înregistrează o probabilitate scăzută în cadrul unui sistem financiar orientat înspre piața de capital decât în cadrul unui sistem financiar bazat pe instituțiile financiar-bancare. În cadrul unui sistem financiar dominat de societățile bancare, problemele legate de finanțare ale acestora sau problemele unui anumit beneficiar de credite care au capacitatea de a afecta capitalul societății bancare tind să conducă înspre diminuări ale creditării, societățile bancare reducându-și această dimensiune a activității. În cadrul unor sisteme financiare orientate înspre piața de capital riscurile se consideră a fi mai bine dispersate, intermediarii cheie având mai multe oportunități în vederea diversificării și gestionării riscurilor asumate. Mai mult de atât, în cadrul acestor din urmă tipuri de sisteme financiare trebuie remarcată prezența unor canale alternative de furnizare a fondurilor în cazul în care anumite instituții nu au capacitatea de a-și îndeplini în mod normal funcțiile de intermediar.



Cu toate acestea, ni s-a demonstrat în mod evident că actualul sistem financiar este în continuare vulnerabil în fața riscurilor și incertitudinilor inerente tuturor tranzacțiilor financiare. Creditorii beneficiază în continuare de informații incomplete cu privire la părțile cu care derulează tranzacții, iar evaluarea activelor financiare continuă să fie nesigură. Considerăm de asemenea că gestionarea inadecvată a riscurilor în cadrul instituțiilor financiar-bancare, asociată cu proliferarea unor noi instrumente financiare și a unor noi jucători în cadrul piețelor financiare are capacitatea semnificativă de a crește vulnerabilitatea piețelor în fața unor evoluții neașteptate din cauza lipsei de experiență în tranzacționarea acestor tipuri de instrumente, dar și a lipsei de prudență din partea sistemului bancar.

O altă problemă, spinoasă am putea spune, din punctul de vedere al tranzacționării de către societățile bancare a instrumentelor financiare derivate o reprezintă baza de evaluare a acestora în cadrul situațiilor financiare ale instituțiilor în cauză, literatura de specialitate părănd să indice o răsturnare de paradigme dinspre utilizarea costului înspre acele valori juste care încearcă să reflecte într-o cât mai mare măsură informațiile furnizate de piață cu privire la elementul evaluat, dar acceptând și estimări interne ale entității raportoare atunci când aceste informații nu sunt disponibile, în ciuda numeroaselor contestații aduse conceptului de valoare justă, îndeosebi la nivelul practicilor, contestații ce au fost intensificate pe fundalul actualei crize economico-financiare, tot literatura de specialitate vine să demonstreze în continuare fezabilitatea și utilitatea acestuia în contextul actualelor piețe de capital.

Primele proiecte de standarde de raportare financiară în domeniul instrumentelor financiare, elaborate de către grupul constituit special în acest scop (JWG - Joint Working Group), propuneau aplicarea obligatorie a evaluării la valoare justă a tuturor instrumentelor financiare, argumentând prin capacitatea acesteia de a conduce înspre situații financiare care să reflecte în mod adecvat activitatea economică derulată de către societățile bancare. Cu toate că această propunere inițial exhaustivă din punctul de vedere al instrumentelor financiare s-a concretizat într-o versiune semnificativ restrânsă, a opțiunii valorii juste care îngrădește în fapt utilizarea valorii juste în cazul anumitor instrumente, tendința la nivel internațional este de promovare în continuare a acestui concept, în timp ce ritmul este vizibil influențat de complexitatea aplicării în practică a acestuia.

Când facem referire la maniera în care organismele de reglementare din domeniul bancar tratează problematica utilizării evaluărilor la valori juste ale instrumentelor financiare, complexitatea problemelor ridicate este pe măsura implicațiilor. În primul rând organismele de reglementare în domeniul bancar trebuie să aibă în vedere maniera în care managementul băncilor ar putea prezenta informații interne prin prisma estimării valorilor juste, minimizând în același timp posibilitatea manipulării strategice a modelelor aferente datelor de intrare cu impact asupra venitului și al capitalului reglementat. Nu trebuie uitat nici aspectul general al minimizării erorilor de estimare a valorilor juste cu scopul maximizării utilității acestora din urmă din punctul de vedere al investitorilor și creditorilor în luarea unor decizii de investire, precum și căutarea celei

mai bune maniere de a asigura stimularea managerilor băncii de așa natură încât aceștia să selecteze acele investiții care maximizează eficiența economică a sistemului bancar. Drept urmare, considerăm că diferențele instituționale specifice diferitelor țări au capacitatea de a juca un rol extrem de important din punctul de vedere al determinării eficacității utilizării unei contabilități bazate pe valori furnizate de piață asupra raportărilor financiare și a reglementărilor specifice domeniului bancar.

Una dintre consecințele naturale ale unei crize generate de pandemia globală COVID-19 o reprezintă conturarea unor schimbări la nivelul reglementărilor sistemului financiar precum: instituirea unor reforme, un nou cadru de reglementare prudențială și autoritatea aferentă, care să evalueze riscul de ansamblu din cadrul sistemului financiar și să structureze cerințele cu privire la dinamica capitalului și lichiditate în mod corespunzător; standarde cu privire la prezentarea informațiilor de către participanții pieței bancare ; îmbunătățirea manierei de evaluare a riscului prin includerea unor evaluări bazate pe piață și schimbarea modalității de utilizare a opiniilor agențiilor de rating.

Tot în categoria lucrărilor care încearcă conturarea unor măsuri necesare a fi luate ca urmare a lipsurilor constatate la nivelul sistemului financiar cu ocazia manifestării actualei crize economico-financiare se încadrează și Constantinescu, (2020), autoarea insistând asupra necesității gestionării mai atente a riscului de lichiditate, dar și a altor măsuri precum:

- ⇒ atentă urmărire a levierului financiar, nivelul acestuia putând fi limitat de către organismele de reglementare în domeniu, dar necesitând întotdeauna analiza conducerii băncii în contextul specific al instituției și al încrederii investitorilor;
- ⇒ managementul riscului de lichiditate, autoarea asemuind lichiditatea cu „apa vieții” în cadrul sistemului bancar. Și de această dată acest aspect ar putea face obiectul reglementărilor în domeniu, dar societățile bancare ar trebui să abordeze riscul de lichiditate cu mai multă rigoare. Aceasta implică o mai bună diversificare a bazelor de finanțare, o scadență medie mai îndepărtată a datoriilor în scopul reducerii unor decalaje între active și datorii, crearea unei rezerve de lichiditate în baza unor active imediat realizabile;
- ⇒ revizuirea politicilor de împrumut cu scopul evitării ciclicităților și păstrării robusteții pe întreaga durată a ciclului afacerii;
- ⇒ bună cunoaștere a propriilor riscuri, ceea ce implică de asemenea cunoașterea riscurilor părților cu care se derulează tranzacții, dar și analiză în esență a activităților derulate de entitate în sine.

În ceea ce privește particularizarea domeniului studiat la nivelul literaturii de specialitate ce abordează perspectiva națională trebuie să menționăm o serie de studii (Georgescu, 2015; Bichi, 2006; Isărescu, 2008; Mironiu, 2019; Constantinescu, 2020) care argumentează necesitatea adaptării structurilor bancare în privința performanței și a managementului riscurilor, pe de o parte

pentru a putea ține pasul cu evoluțiile la nivelul sistemului financiar internațional, iar pe de alta de a face față provocărilor generate prin prisma specificului național. Constantinescu, consideră că alegerea abordării Basel III este nu atât o opțiune de natură reglementară, cât mai ales de importanță strategică, ea reprezentând o șansă dată societăților bancare de a-și îmbunătăți permanent aptitudinile de identificare și gestionare a riscurilor semnificative și de alocare eficientă a capitalului disponibil.

Standardele Internaționale de Contabilitate apreciază că riscul descrie varietatea rezultatelor obținute. Ajustarea în funcție de risc poate implica creșterea valorii la care este estimată o datorie. În evaluarea rezultatelor și cheltuielilor afectate de condiții de incertitudine, trebuie aplicat principiul prudenței, pentru a nu supraevalua activele și a subevalua datoriile. Totuși, elementele de incertitudine nu justifică constituirea unor provizioane excesive sau subevaluarea obligațiilor.

**Din cercetarea efectuată rezultă următoarele caracteristici ale riscului:**

- ✦ **riscul reprezintă o gamă de incertitudini;**
- ✦ **riscul constituie o remunerare a capitalului investit;**
- ✦ **riscul exprimă incapacitatea de adaptare a firmei la condițiile de mediu;**
- ✦ **riscul înseamnă probabilitatea apariției unui eveniment nedorit; S riscul este o măsură a vulnerabilității firmei;**
- ✦ **riscul exprimă variabilitatea rezultatului sub presiunea mediului;**
- ✦ **riscul este o măsură a probabilității de apariție a succesului sau a eșecului;**
- ✦ **riscul este un concept greu de definit de către economiști și investitori;**
- ✦ **riscul nu are semnificație decât aninci când se încearcă estimarea fluctuațiilor posibile ale ratei rentabilității în cadrul analizelor previzionale;**
- ✦ **prin analiza riscului se înțelege o analiză sistematică a oricărui risc de afaceri.**

Analizând aceste caracteristici comune ale riscului, autoarele pot afirma că riscul derivă din incertitudine, adică decizia se adoptă în prezent, iar rezultatele se vor produce în viitor. Incertitudinea provine din necunoașterea producerii unui eveniment și efectele reale și amplitudinea producerii acestui eveniment. În al doilea rând, riscul se referă la o pierdere potențială, generată de modul de acțiune contrar al unui factor cunoscut sau necunoscut.

Așa cum s-a văzut din cele prezentate în această lucrare, riscul reprezintă probabilitatea de producere a unui eveniment cu consecințe adverse pentru subiect. În cazul specific al riscului bancar subiectul îl reprezintă instituția bancară. Având în vedere calitatea acesteia de intermediar în relația economiei -investiții, prezentarea cadrului teoretic general al riscului bancar presupune raportarea la un întreg ansamblu de elemente care compun această relație. Astfel, riscul bancar trebuie privit ca un complex de evenimente cu consecințe adverse pentru bancă, de cele mai multe ori independente, prin faptul că pot avea cauze comune sau prin faptul că producerea unuia poate

genera în lanț și alte evenimente adverse. O definiție simplificată a noțiunii de risc bancar se referă la valoarea actuală a tuturor pierderilor sau cheltuielilor suplimentare pe care le suportă sau pe care le-ar putea suporta o instituție bancară într-o situație anumită.

Un sistem integrat de management al riscurilor bancare presupune existența și funcționalitatea politicilor, procedurilor și instrumentelor destinate identificării, evaluării și eliminării/asumării riscurilor la care este expusă instituția bancară.

O dată cu extinderea la nivel național și internațional a sistemelor electronice de credit piețele financiare au devenit mult mai fragile, gradul de incertitudine s-a accentuat, toate acestea având drept suport multiplicarea riscurilor specifice sistemului financiar- bancar datorat pandemiei globale. Experiența a dovedit că o mare parte dintre problemele principale cu care se confruntă societățile bancare au drept cauză accentuarea riscurilor din varii motive. Aceasta se explică prin faptul că evoluția viitoare a valorii activelor, ca și cea a costului pasivelor, nu poate fi prevăzută cu acuratețe, ea depinzând de factori ca: inflația, politica monetară, schimbările în structura produsului național brut.

Există un ansamblu de operații și proceduri specifice generatoare de risc bancar. Pe lângă acestea, societățile bancare trebuie să facă față unor riscuri ce nu le sunt specifice. S-au dezvoltat o multitudine de teorii cu privire la cauzele care stau la baza problemelor cu care se confruntă băncile. Unele consideră că riscurile depind de variațiile nivelului veniturilor prevăzute și ale nivelului cheltuielilor acoperite din acestea. Sursele principale de venit sunt constituite din dobânzile aferente plasamentelor efectuate, iar cea mai mare parte a cheltuielilor sunt destinate onorării dobânzilor la fondurile atrase. Atât veniturile cât și cheltuielile pot fi estimate în funcție de structura activelor și pasivelor, de operațiunile efectuate. Alte teorii consacră rolul principal factorilor macroeconomici, ale căror variații sunt mai greu de anticipat.

**În concluzie, cauza cea mai frecventă a pierderilor și insolvabilității instituțiilor financiare (înțelegând prin aceasta incapacitatea de a-și achita datoriile financiare la scadență) este dată de dificultatea de a face față unor evenimente ce se pot produce, dar care nu au fost prevăzute cum este cazul pandemiei COVID-19.**

### 3. Concluzii

**Riscurile bancare reprezintă fenomene ce pot să se producă și care să genereze anumite implicații asupra activității bancare. Ele pot să îmbrace mai multe forme:**

- **riscul pierderii de capital (al insolvabilității) exprimă măsura în care activele riscante sunt acoperite de capital. în categoria activelor riscante se includ împrumuturile cu risc foarte mare (creditul personal, creditele la care garanția materială nu este satisfăcătoare);**
- **riscul lichidității care rezultă din raportarea activelor sensibile (credite cu dobânzi flotante) la pasivele sensibile;**
- **riscul modificării dobânzilor pentru resursele mobilizate;**

- **riscul eroziunii capitalului prin inflație;**
- **riscul repatrierii capitalului în condițiile creditării externe.**

Autoarele consideră că dintre aceste categorii de riscuri, cel al pierderii de capital și riscul lipsei de lichiditate sunt cele mai importante în activitatea bancară.

Concluzia nu poate fi decât una singură și anume: activitatea unei societăți bancare este una bună și sănătoasă dacă există un echilibru al tuturor indicatorilor de prudențialitate, de profitabilitate, de adecvare a capitalului, de rating bancar, etc.

Problema este alta – această situație se poate schimba în rău foarte rapid dacă nu sunt luate toate măsurile de prudență, pentru că este știut - un simplu zvon poate crea neplăceri destul de serioase dacă nu sunt luate la timp măsuri de contracarare. Aceste aspecte au fost testate și evaluate în criza actuală datorată pandemiei COVID-19.

Pentru îmbunătățirea activității și obținerea unei performanțe sporite în condițiile de risc din actuala criză datorată pandemiei, considerăm că trebuie luate o serie de măsuri suplimentare și anume:

- evaluarea bonității clienților să fie făcută ținând cont de actuala criză datorată pandemiei;
- identificarea, evaluarea și urmărirea expunerilor față de un singur debitor, grupuri de debitori sau față de persoane aflate în relații speciale cu societatea bancară;
- urmărirea, analiza și gestionarea corespunzătoare a clasificării portofoliului de credite și urmărirea în mod special a celor care suportă o deteriorare;
- analiza impactului pe care îl are în activitatea societății bancare, modificarea intervenită în ratele dobânzilor practicate și corelarea scadențelor activelor și pasivelor cu impact deosebit asupra lichidității;
- acordarea de credite să se facă numai în concordanță cu sursele constituite pe aceeași perioadă, pentru a se asigura corelarea termenelor de maturitate;
- urmărirea menținerii încrederii depunătorilor, creditorilor și a celorlalți operatori de piață prin comportament etic, profesional și de personal cât mai decent cu respectarea normelor privind alegerea, încadrarea și salarizarea personalului, etc.



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Alte legi, reglementări și rapoarte

## **PLANTAIN THEORY AND THE ATTAINMENT OF SDGS 2030 BY AFRICAN STATES: AN EXPOSITION**

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### **Abstract**

*Agenda 2030 is the Sustainable Development Goals with 17 indicators. Like its predecessors, Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), with only eight goals yet African states could not achieve half of the eight goals then and may not get close to a quarter of the SDGs because of the pathologies of development which are legendary in Africa. This study evaluated the feasibility of using the Plantain tree crop, in which many African countries have global comparative advantage as a means to attaining seven or 41.17 per cent of the 17 goals, against one-fit-all approach often applied to such development agenda. The method of study was descriptive which through its procedure revealed, that these countries were not putting this crop and its properties to optimum usage. This approach was complemented by observations and triangulation by library researches on the various usages of plantain tree. The technique included informal interviews of traditional medicine practitioners on the ailments cured through the use of plantain properties. The tactic of the study further revealed that the life-span of plantain is about 20 years, hence it can feed the present and future generation, it withstands every climatic condition, and the fruit could be eaten ripe, unripe, as chips, as plantain flour and paste use in pharmaceutical industries for drugs making. Every part of the plantain tree is use by alternative medicine practitioners. It resolved that the countries that have global comparative advantage with plantain, could harness all the economic and medicinal advantages to achieve the SDGs by 2030 without having to borrow, being already heavily indebted nations. Political will and leadership and investments are some of the requirements needed to achieve the goals pursue herein. This affirmed the efficacy of Plantain theory as mechanism to achieving some per cent of the SDGs by some African States.*

**Keyword:** Civil society, Development Global system, Plantain theory, Sustainable

**Jel Classification:** A1; A3

## Introduction

The third world states particularly the African members of this group are endowed with enormous resources some of which have not been discovered, yet they are very poor. The poverty of African states is indeed a paradox because the various resources required to generate development are often within but for the pathologies of development in Africa. It was this persistent incapacity of the continent and its poverty and that of other members of the infamous club of the poor that caused the world community to initiate the erstwhile Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) in the year 2000, consisting of only eight (8) global development goals, with 2015 dateline for the achievement of certain level of socio-economic development for the continent and other third world states. The pathologies of lack of leadership, fragmented economies and technical backwardness made it impossible to make progress on the MDGs platform

One of the efforts pursuant to these goals by the G8 or the eight advanced economies of Europe was to promise to channel fiscal resources through the African Development Bank (AFDB), the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and the World Bank. This was the first global mistake made pursuant to the realization of the defunct MDGs, where ‘one-fit-all solution was designed to assist Africa and the 3<sup>rd</sup> world achieves these goals. The total amount committed were not made known but the at the close of 2015, almost none of these states made any significant progress in the realization of any the goals. The indignity of multi-dimensional poverty continued in these states unabated with dire consequences.

The SDGs was made to replace the woefully failed MDGs packaged from variables drawn from;(i) the 1972 Stockholm, Sweden conference on Human Environment (ii) the 1983, UN World Commission on Environment and Development, under the chairmanship of the Norwegian Prime Minister Gro Harlem Brundtland which submitted its final report tagged, ‘*Our Common Future*’, (iii) the United Nations Conference on the Environment and Development-the Earth Summit held in Rio de Janeiro in 1992 where the imperative of inventing specific universal environmental, political, and economic values was planned, (iv) COP21 Paris conference, (v) Sendai Framework for Disaster Risk Reduction-Japan 2015. The syntheses of all these defined ‘Sustainable Development’ as ‘*meeting the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their needs (Brundtland commission,1987).*

By resolution 70/1, the United Nations General Assembly (UNGA) set the 2030 agenda which were adopted on 25 September 2015 by 193 countries titled ‘*Transforming Our World: the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development*’ with 17 goals and their indicators. These goals included; end poverty in all its forms everywhere, end hunger achieve food security and improved nutrition, ensure healthy lives, ensure inclusive and equitable quality of education, achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls, ensure sustainable management of water, ensure access to affordable energy, inclusive and sustainable economic growth, build resilient infrastructure and industrialization, and reduce inequality within and among countries. The others are; make human settlements inclusive, safe, resilient and sustainable, sustainable consumption and production, combat climate change, conserve use of the oceans, seas and marine resources, protect the ecosystem, peaceful and inclusive society and strengthen the means of implementation([en.m.wikipedia.org](http://en.m.wikipedia.org) 30/09/19). These elaborate goals pose greater challenge to African state because of Albert Hirschman’s (1995). ‘failure-prone policy process’ wherein he posited that developing countries hardly possess governments with the policy making apparatus

adequate to the task of producing a comprehensive programme, and this inadequacy is met with the introduction of policy solutions from ‘elsewhere’ usually from advanced developed economies, solutions which are hardly suitable to local problems, how can they be reasonably expected to meet the SDGs? This is one of the major concern and focus of this study.

**The scope** of this study covered the African states of Cameroon, Ghana, Nigeria Cote D’Ivoire and DR Congo who are among the world leading producers of Plantain ‘musa-paradisica’. According to the World Bank, Cameroon external debt profile in 2021 is \$30.66240 billion, Ghana had \$26,953,310,258 as at 2019 while Nigeria \$84.57 billion. Cote d’Ivoire has \$29.85 billion and DR Congo \$13.70 as at 2009, was reduced to \$7.35 billion by 2010, the current debt status by 2021 is still low though not available as at now. Though the least indebted country in Africa has significant financing needs. The debt sustainability analyses for these countries are not encouraging, hence ingenious ways should be canvass for reduction where there are avoidable increases.

### **The objectives of the study**

(i) The main interest of this study was to canvass for the application of the ‘Plantain Theory’ (Plantain crop- ‘musa paradisica’) by some of the third world states, to meet about seven (7) of the SDGs because these countries have global comparative advantage of this food crop over anyone else.

The specific goals included; (i) to espouse the health sustainability capacity of the ‘plantain crop’ (musa paradisica), put differently, the medicinal properties inherent in all the parts of ‘plantain crop’ besides its edible and food property would meet the nutritional and economic components of the SDGs.

(ii) To explain the industrial capacity of Plantain tree ranging from food to pharmaceutical usages  
(iii) To state that out of the seventeen (17) Sustainable Development Goals, Plantain cultivation and processing could meet goals 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 9 and 12, seven (7) out of the seventeen goals. Quantitatively, plantain has the capacity of meeting 41.17 per cent of the Sustainable Development Goals in the countries where they are cultivated and processed.

The Imperative of this study rest on the fact that if only one tree crop, Plantain tree, (musa paradisica) in which some countries are world producers, could be utilized in the attainment of seven (7) or 41.17 per cent of the SDGs. A trend would have been established on how to meet the remaining 58.83 per cent in third world countries through Self-Reliant approach.

Another implication of this study would be the emphasis on not relying on ‘one- universal-approach to the resolution of global problems such as SDGs without taking into cognizance local peculiarities and how to use available resources more effectively. All the countries would learn to look inward to find what endowment that they have and decide how to use such to meet the developmental needs such as the SDGs. The indirect benefits to the countries and communities concern would be unquantifiable. Where the study become adaptable, the same process could be applied to any state which has comparative advantage in any natural endowment or agricultural production, pursuant to the achievement of the SDGs. In order to place this study in a context, a literature review was conducted to establish the gaps which existed and fill it with the current study as presented below.

Literature Reviewed; since the launch of Agenda 2030, otherwise known as the SDGs, there have been considerable bodies of literature on the means to its attainment. They included Kapor and Begashaw (2018), in their pilot examination of how to achieve the SDGs titled ‘Transformation is Feasible’ they out rightly averred that if the global states pursue SDGs as they did with MDGs, that even by 2050, the goals would remain an illusion. Consequently, they proposed a change in the policy tool kit for the SDGs. In their experiences, the pursuit of a piecemeal approach generates trade-offs and conflict among the goals. They recommended an integrated Global System model that would connect the goals as an optimal approach. They termed the identified pathway as



‘transformational approach requiring policy and behavioral changes. This would not work in the African states in line with Albert Hirschman’s postulation. Gunnar Myrdal’s ‘Soft-State’ thesis is yet another challenge for African states belong to the categories of state characterized by acute social indiscipline such as corruption, arbitrary enforcement of the law, lax or nonexistent enforcement of the law and abuse of power.

SDG-F Approach (n.d). It was yet another pilot study the ‘F Approach: They focused on three (3) thematic areas of the Agenda; inclusive economic growth; food security and nutrition, water and sanitation. It involved the use of traditional and non-traditional actors pursuant to these goals. It wanted to enact a synergy between National Government, Civil Society Organizations, business, academia in 21 countries in Africa, Latin America, Asia and Arab States.

This approach sought to obtain up to 55 percent of the fund required to attain the SDG goals in these countries. However, we questioned, when was the cost for the SDGs established, and why they do not reflect as budgetary items in budget of most of these countries. We attest that in the case Nigeria, where we are conversant with the budget there is no line item relating to SDG. More ridiculous is the desire to source these funds outside of the government. We posit that this may be an impossible task especially in Nigeria, where the private sector would not get involved in any venture without payback. It was this type of approach which failed the MDGs.

The relevance of this literature to the current study is on the inclusiveness of both orthodox and non-orthodox actors to pursue the SDGs. It is in tandem with the position of this study, where unorthodox approach has been included to pursue SDG. This support the adoption of the plantain and alternative medical practices in these countries. The position of this work support this study, which adopted the use of plantain to create wealth, nutrition and address poverty as well as use its various parts as content of alternative medicine for health purposes.

SDG-academy (2018) an initiative of SD solutions Network, outlined seven (7) modules to teach the world communities how to achieved the goals specified in the Agenda 2030 document. An interesting and relevant input was made in module 4 which dealt with financing SDGs. It averred that there should be a ‘Need Assessment’ of each state to ascertain the requirements and inputs need from all stakeholders to meet the SDG. This provision provided the space for the thesis of this study which provided for the use of plantain crop which these countries have comparative advantages and in the use of its parts as inputs for alternative medical practices.

Frank (2016) examined the impediments to the actualization of the MDGs and averred that the same obstructions would confront the realization of the SDGs. These variables included; the nature of the public policy which have been considered grossly ineffective. This is because after every budget circle, there is often no value-addition to the wellbeing of Nigerians because the productive forces are not being developed. The other variables are; the third world and specifically African economies is donor driven. The donors would always determine which sector in which you invest their donations. This is often not in the social sector where the SDGs belong. Mismanagement of domestic economies, denials of the people’s right, debt burden (Nigeria’s 2020 budget, 10.3 trillion with 2.5 trillion for foreign debt servicing, almost a quarter of the budget would go for servicing debt) and apparent lack of leadership and good governance are likely to confront SDGs as they did to MDGs.

The reviews indicated that none of the works advocated that each country could use what it has comparative advantage on a global scale to meet some of the SDGs. The holistic approach canvassed by the studies would remain elusive because of differential ‘need assessment. Consequently, this study approached the attainment of the SDGs through the utilization of Plantain crop which ten (10) of the countries in the study are global producers. Accelerated production of plantain would meet seven (7) or 41.17 per cent of the goals. This is one of the significance of this study.

The propositions of the study

In this study we made the ensuing propositions (i) when more than half of the populations are encourage to take to the farming of Plantain in the countries with global comparative advantage, then the states are set to meet 41.17 per cent of the SDGs. By 2019 estimate Cameroon has 25.88 million people, Ghana 44.27 million, Nigeria 201 million, Cote D' Ivoire 25.72 million and DR Congo 86.79 million people. The outputs from half of these populations in each country would amount to meeting domestic needs and feeding the global market. (ii) Where these countries leadership embark on Self-Reliant pattern of development using plantain cultivation and processing as a stepping stone, then they would be on the path to meet SDGs by its target date. (iii) In order for Self-Reliant development to be meaningful, the 'State-led' development approach should be the platform. (iv) It is anticipated that the entire gamut of the value-chain in plantain cultivation consisting of large hectare cultivation, pest-control harvesting/storage, processing into various flour and paste for pharmaceutical industries, market development and exporting according to the standard requirements of various markets would be painstakingly done. These propositions have been made with the fact that post-harvest decay of the products remains a major challenge but could be surmounted with credible leadership and political will on the Self-Reliant' track.

#### The Problem

The final report of the MDGs at the close of its lifespan was dismal particularly for African countries known for poor political and corporate governance. The commencement of SDGs should not hold greater hope for these set of countries for the variables which impeded the success of the MDGs, such as; cultural values, inadequate public policy articulation, dependent economy, domestic mismanagement of the economies, denial of the citizen's rights, debt burden, absence of political will and leadership to redistribute wealth to all social classes (to avoid xenophobic attacks), are very much African.

The fear is appropriately situated because the unfulfilled goals of the defunct MDGs were extended into the SDGs while the impeding variables remained constant in the states.

The main issue is that the cultivation of Plantain tree crop –'musa paradistica' could be utilize to achieve the following goals; **#1-End poverty** in all its forms everywhere in these African states, **#2-End hunger**, achieve food security and improved nutrition, and promote sustainable agriculture, **#3-Ensure healthy lives** and promote wellbeing for all ages, **#5-Achieve gender equality** and empower all women and girls, **#8-Promote sustained, inclusive and sustainable economic growth**, full and productive employment, and decent work, **#9- Build resilient infrastructure**, promote inclusive and sustainable industrialization, and foster innovation, **#10-Reduce inequality** within and among countries, **#12-Ensure sustainable consumption and production patterns**. Given the feasibility of the Plantain crops to able to achieve 41.17 per cent of the SDGs, some of the African states would be left with the challenges of 58.83 per cent. The crux of the matter then is on the procedure. This is what the study addressed in subsequent sections and analyses.

It is important that we should contextualize these eight goals in order to situate them in the proper area of human development. A critical examination of the eight goals would reveal that it stressed food security and the processes of obtaining it on a regular basis for the healthy living of the people. Healthy living of course would entail the capacity to obtain adequate food as at when due. Healthy life is connected thereto and includes possessing the purchasing power parity to acquire the food component when needed. Poverty does not discriminate on gender basis, therefore any 'Pareto optimality' generated through the Plantain theory should be inclusive. Inclusive growth and improvement should include all social aggregate in the country, it is only then that the development attained by the state would be sustainable, else the excluded social class would disturb the contented group.

It is precisely because the Plantain crop is resilient to withstand all adverse weather condition that it had been chosen as the main theoretical framework. The Plantain trees remain alive and

productive for a minimum of twenty years producing and feeding the present generation and the succeeding ones. It is a truism that a sustained cultivation of Plantain, organized marketing and the income generated thereof would not only upset inequality in the state but could turn Small-Scale-Enterprises (SMEs) into a business-chain, with supplier of plantain seedlings, cultivation inputs, plantain flour makers, packaging firms with employment generated at each level of conversion processes. This is where the indirect beneficiaries would become empowered and sustainable development attained.

#### Methodology of Study

The study design was descriptive because it was aimed at accurately and systematically defining the population involved. It was concern with identifying what the situation currently was about the subject matter. The main thrust of this design was gathering data that describe events which took place independent of the researcher. We deployed visual aids to assist in the understanding of the large data distribution involved in the study. We utilized descriptive adjective to organize the data in a qualitative format.

Basically it was meant to find out ‘what are’ the options of some African countries using the plantain crop which they have comparative advantage to attain certain goals of sustainable development programmes.

The Procedure included observations, survey and drawing extensively from secondary sources, whereby the agricultural endowments of these states were studied. It revealed that Cameroon, Ghana, Uganda, Nigeria, Cote d’Ivoire and DR Congo are world producers of Plantain.

At the same time, these countries belong to the group of world poorest states. In Global Poverty Index, (GPI), Cameroon the world leading producer of Plantain with annual turnover of 4.31 million tones is #39 in the Global Poverty Index, Ghana with 3.95 million metric tons is #50 (GPI), Uganda 3.71 is #19, Nigeria, 3.09 is #57, Cote d’Ivoire, 1.59 is #45, and DR Congo, 1.11 is #3 (World Atlas, 2018).

These secondary data were deployed in the analysis because a lot had been done on the subject matter of SDGs and how to achieve the objectives hence the abundance of data made the search for primary data unnecessary. These were however triangulation with data from other sources to obtain high and reliability quotient for validity.

The countries in this study are mainly those which could not get close to half the mark on the MDGs scale at the close of 2015 and are not likely to do better on the SDGs continuum with the kind of socio-economic intervention canvassed herein. Consequent upon the above, this study set out to explore the option of using ‘musa paradisica’ which they have comparative advantage over all others at the global level, as a paradigm for achieving seven (7) out of the seventeen (17) Sustainable Development Goals. The study considered, and affirmed that it is plausible to meet seven of these goals through the management of plantain production in the countries. It is a situation of using what you have in abundance, to achieve a percentage of what you want, without borrowing from donors and becoming submerged in debt ‘Self-Reliance’.

If these countries have the above stated Global Poverty Indices, what guarantee is there that they would be able to realize the seven (7) Sustainable Development goals that form the substance of the research question?

#### Procedure of the Method

The procedure of the application of the method included an in-depth understanding of the life-cycle of the food crop ‘plantain-musa-pradisica’. This revealed that (i) plantain tree, has a minimum life span of about twenty years (ii) each tree plantain brings forth several other suckers, (iii) plantain paste is a major raw material in pharmaceutical industries (iv) that it could be eaten unripe, ripe and could be made into chips. (v) That its cultivation, marketing and processing generate great wealth to the cultivators (vi) The dried leaves of plantain when burnt into ashes produces and mix with water and sifted produce potash. (vii) Plantain forms a greater source of

medicament for practitioners of alternative medicine in countries where there are concurrent use of herbal and orthodox medicines. (viii) Traditional healers use plantain tree as a major source of medication. This source was complemented with the views of traditional healers interviewed.

### **The Framework of Analysis: Self-Reliance**

Self-Reliance was adopted as the appropriate theoretical foundation for this study. It was enunciated by Ralph Waldo Emerson in 1841 in his seminal essay ‘Self-Reliance’ (1803-1882). The aspects of the phenomenon which this study found relevant to the study rests on the following provisions (i) it is thinking independently away from the customary mindset of 3<sup>rd</sup> world leaders that without ‘foreign –aid’, there can be no development taking place in the 3<sup>rd</sup> world states. This aspect forbade a state leadership imitating what others do. (ii) Secondly it proposed standing out and using the resources available and abundance to you (Plantain). What you have comparative advantage over should be deployed to the benefit of the citizens with value addition. (iii) The theoretical package then emphasized striving towards one’s own goal bravely without fear. It assumed ‘cause and effect’ purposeful action which would take one there.

The implication of this framework to this study are many, some of which are; (a) depending on others for development strides as most 3<sup>rd</sup> world leaders do, means that there would be a time when it would not be available any longer. It is therefore imperative to commence the processes of ‘Self-Reliance’ as a categorical imperative. Applying this theoretical framework imply that the 3<sup>rd</sup> world leaders can solve problems and take decisions on their own. (b) Plantain fruit grow all year round with the peak of fruiting in August-December, hence whatever industrial inputs which would use plantain –cannot be short of supply all year round. Production would be on and income flow would be steady. (c) Nutritional and industrial usages; it is low in fat and a remedy for high blood pressure, good for diabetic patients, a source of vitamins and minerals and rich in protein. The industrial uses include, bread-making flour, biscuits etc. raw materials for food beverages (baby foods, adult powdered food), pharmaceuticals uses as drug-vector (ripe plantain paste as drugs vector for babies and unripe for adult drugs).

Igwe (2005 p.396-7) referred to the concept as a ‘policy favoring the optimal utilization of domestic potentials before recourse to outside assistance. ‘Self-Reliance’ is simply saying that there is a lot that the people can do for themselves and that they need to tap such resources and potential before lining up to beg for foreign loans. It is perceived as a legitimate, natural and worthy doctrine that expressed the determined vows that the newly independent states to be free. It favors the mobilization of the people for Africa’s own industrial revolution and an unfettered Marshal Plan. The challenge of the practice of Self-Reliance in the 3<sup>rd</sup> world states is the lack of political will, corrupt and inept leadership who enriched itself while imposing seminal criminal severities upon the people, many domestic crises gulped the resources which ought to have been devoted to development. The borrowing binge converted Self-Reliance into external reliance and debt trap.

It is instructive to note that both sources of the phenomenon of ‘Self-Reliance’ theory, espouses the following facts; it required State leadership, economic diplomacy to prepare the market, and political will to embark on this policy initiative.

Assumptions of the principles

i) In the countries where plantain is the mainstay of the economies, more than halve the population should be involve in the cultivation.



ii) That there would be extensive ‘value-chains’ in the production of plantain ranging from land preparation, pest control, cultivation, harvesting and storage, processing or value-addition and market development. There should be industrial investments to process the harvests.

iii) That the state through the farmers’ cooperative would obtain specifications such as ‘EEC Regulation 2092/91’ which specified the standard which must be reached in the plantain processing to be allowed into the European Union countries – ‘market development’.

iv) Another supposition of this theory is that, the resources that would be earned thereof would lessen ‘bi and multi-lateral loans’ and strengthen the pursuit of the SDGs. It is instructive to note that these countries are already heavily indebted ones.

### Findings and Discussion

i) Food- the application of the method of this study, revealed that Cameroon (4.31, #39), Ghana (3.95, #50), Uganda (3.71, #19), Nigeria (3.09, #57), Cote d’Ivoire (1.59, #45), DR Congo (1.11, #3). The above countries with million tons of Plantain production capacity as indicated in the first figures in parenthesis and their poverty index number as indicated in the second figure in the parenthesis would achieve SD Goals (#1& 2) when use as food (ripe and unripe), processed into plantain chips and flour.

ii) Drug- These countries would ensure healthy lives and promote wellbeing for all at all ages (SDGs #3) in their domain through the use of plantain as not only food but as drug and Alternative medicine. The green leaves of the plant are medicinal in the treatment of *diabetes mellitus* (DM) a metabolic disorder in which there are high blood sugar levels over a prolong period, cause by the inability of the metabolic process to break glucose, otherwise known as blood sugar) when boiled and sift and taken twice daily for about 21 days. It reduces the intensity of the disease and gradually causes it to vanish. It is instructive to state that pregnant women should abstain from this medication as it stimulates the uterus, thus, capable of triggering miscarriage or loss of pregnancy (Owobio, 2020).

### iii) Traditional Medicine Properties

a) The whitish substance which comes out when *plantain leaf stem* is cut -is an effective remedy for the treatment of fresh wounds. It forms clots and stops the flow of blood almost immediately. This could be collected in a bottle and stored below room temperature and utilized as required.

b) The Plantain Sap, this is obtained when the trunk of ‘*musa paradisiac*’ is cut into pieces, pounded with mortar and the juice squeezed out. A bottle of the herbal juice or sap obtained when mixed with half bottle of honey, provide Plantain Herbal solution, which is a curative for the following diseases; nervousness, epilepsy, dysentery, wound in the stomach wall and skin infections, the roots is a portent poison. Roasted plantain on the other hand serves many uses in men’s oligospermia.

c) It is instructive to note that gender equality could be attained through plantain cultivation because in Africa and specifically in the countries in the scope of study, women are mostly the farmers. Incomes from plantain cultivation would enable them to stand at par with the men, given that other ‘cultural givens’ are removed. Sustainable economic growth (goal 8) would be achieved when the state develops simultaneously the other sectors of the economy to be complemented by the Plantain crop input. Goal (9) which relate to the building of resilient infrastructure would be achieved when processing plants for the extraction of *Psyllium* (*food thickner*) is constructed to derive from plantain the primary property in the manufacture of *laxative drugs*. The Plantain starch/paste is the major agent in Pharmaceutical industries for the production of drugs for various ailments (Otongebung, 2020).

### Analysis



The Russian Ministry of Health came to the realization that juice from crushed plantain leaves cure several stomach related ailments; hence it incorporated it into its health system program. The German Commission on Herbal and Alternative Medical practices list plantain as safe and effective herbs for anti-bacterial treatment. The Italian Herbal Commission confirmed it uses as a potent input in its alternative medicine practices. The Chinese on the other hand, recognized plantain as a major input in the treatment of male-impotence.

When the advantages derived by many developed nations from Plantain are taken by the five (5) African countries in this study, then they would have met the seven (7) goals which were the focus of this scholarship.

It is herein stated that the environment would not be adversely affected in the cultivation of plantain and the introduction of technology to extract the juice from plantain stems, leaves and roots for medicinal purposes in these states. It would be an added advantage to the countries in this study to adopt technology to extract the medical properties of plantain and use it as food in various forms.

### **Envisaged Challenges**

The fundamental challenges envisaged in the pursuit of Self-Reliance development through the novel application of Plantain theory of sustainable development was captured by Albert Hirschman (1995). when he posited that developing countries hardly possess governments with the policy-making apparatus adequate to the task of producing a comprehensive programme. This inadequacy is met with the introduction of policy solutions from ‘elsewhere’ usually from advanced developed economies solutions which are hardly suitable to local problems. This often undermines the capacity of local intellectual resources, deepens the underdevelopment of local intellectual resources to act on local problems.

Another critical challenge is what Gunnar Myrdal (1968) termed ‘soft states’. States in this category suffer from acute social indiscipline such as corruption, arbitrary enforcement of the law, lax or nonexistent enforcement of the law and abuse of power. Above all there few checks on unrestrained and abused power of a dominant executive and its representatives.

The other tests envisaged is the absence of political will to embark on ‘Self Reliance’ development since most 3<sup>rd</sup> world leaders are subservient to Western world control. The others include obtaining the appropriate size of land for the practice, pest control to enable the plantain seedlings grow mature, understanding the requirements of the international markets that would be entered and bringing the quality of plantain products to the standard level to access the markets such as the ‘EEC 2002/91, Trump’s ‘Prosper Africa and African Growth and Opportunity Act (AGOA)’, which are guidelines Africa to access American markets with their products. These countries are known to have infrastructural deficit, therefore storage facilities for the storage of processed or harvested product might constitute a major hindrance. These challenges are surmountable with purposeful leadership.

The validation of the study submission. It is pertinent to restate that the objectives of the study have been realized while the propositions are feasible given that Russia, Germany and France have all incorporated healings arising from the use of the different part of the plantain crop into their healthcare system. Jethro Kloss (1990) in the work ‘Back to Eden’ has illustrated the efficacy of the study submission while Werner, Carol and Maxwell in ‘Where There Is No Doctor’ has also affirmed the feasibility of the submissions of this study.

### **Conclusion**

The sustainable development circle of man, environment and technology would be achieved when the Plantain is use as discussed herein. Given the data presented and analyses made, we herein conclude that, the usual one-fit-all solution for resolving group problem, does not apply where SDGs and the plantain tree crop is in abundance. The countries have different ‘need requirements;

hence one should use whatever it has comparative advantage, on the platform of ‘Self-Reliance’ to pursue the SDGs, as demonstrated herein.

The present study has shown how Plantain crop could be use both as food, article of trade and medicine to meet seven (7) of the SDGs. We have illustrated the processes through which plantain tree crop could be utilized in the economy to end poverty and hunger, improve the nutritional and healthy wellbeing of the people. The wealth generated by its cultivation and management, changes gender balance because in many of these countries the bulk of the cultivators are women and this pushes the frontiers for inclusive economic growth.

The linkages of wealth from plantain-tree-crop require industries for the processing of plantain into flour, chips, paste for pharmaceuticals and alkaline water obtained from burning dried cover of plantain fruit. The building of these plantain related infrastructure would enrich the cultivators and reduce inequality of income and ensue sustainable consumption. The success of these countries through ‘Self-Reliance’ approach could be duplicated by all other countries using resources which they have advantage over the others. This is how ‘Self-Reliant’ approach could fasten the attainment of the SDGs through the application of the plantain theory by 2030.

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## TRADITIONAL PUBLIC ADMINISTRATIVE SYSTEM: AN EXPOSITION IN AFRICAN CONTEXT

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### Abstract

*The study set out to affirm that Traditional Public Administration existed in pre-colonial Africa and Nigeria, which performed all the functions done by modern administration. The case-study approach was applied wherein old Oyo, Benin, Kanem Borno and Oron Kingdom among others were evaluated in-depth. The focus was to identify and analyze the structure and processes which amounted to public administration in these empires. This approach revealed that old Oyo, Benin, Kanem Borno and Oron Kingdom had standard processes for implementation of what constituted public polices in these empires. The success of the administrative system accounted for the long duration of these empires and in many cases the colonial masters relied on them, such as the 'indirect rule' system in Nigeria for the continuation of its administration. The role performance in the traditional system may be fused, however the functions were carried out. This might have accounted for the long years of existence of these empires until internal contradictions and in others, colonial masters through conquest resulted in their collapsed. The study ultimately affirmed through the presentation of qualitative data the existence of traditional public administration in Africa. This is one of the notable 'primitive gloriana' of pre-colonial Africa and Nigeria that cannot be wished away by Eurocentric scholars.*

**Keywords:** Traditional, Public Administration, African; Society, Pre-colonial

**Jel Classification:** H0

### **Introduction & background**

The area of Africa, known to the Arabs slave traders as ‘Bilad as-Sudan or the land of the blacks’ boast of great states such as ‘Ghana, Mali, Songhai, Kanem-Bornu, Oyo and Benin empires and kingdoms many of which lasted beyond the arrival of the various colonial masters in West Africa and central Africa. They were formed out of the ‘warrior tradition’ in Africa. The period of existence of these empires and kingdoms, pointed to the administrative sagacity of their rulers. It is their shrewdness in administering these far-flung entities, which is termed ‘traditional public administration’ in this study.

These pre-colonial African states such as Benin, Oyo, Kanem Borno and Sokoto caliphate as well as the Oron Kingdom were often extensive in their reach. They lasted several years in their apogee before the advent of colonialism. They engaged in trades, wars and had schools and agricultural development. They traded in slaves and maintain court and kept records. The processes and structure of the administration through which these empires and kingdoms were sustained, amounted to traditional public administration. This is because the structure performed all the roles that modern public administration is performing currently.

One society was modern and the other a pre-colonial one, however, the system which kept the society going and provided for all citizens within it was public administration. The ultimate goal of Public Administration is to create strong institutions made up of men and women who would choose the best policies and decisions from the options available, and convert them into targets for which results can be measured. In these kingdoms there were political heads hence ‘political direction’ of the ‘general will’ intended for the benefit of all, which is the goal of public administration whether in the pre-colonial or modern times.

Conventional discourse on public administration as a practical discipline would always locate this phenomena as originating from America and other Western European states. This is the idea of Eurocentric scholars who belief that civilization started with Europeans and there were no other development in Africa worthy of scholastic discourse. Afrocentric scholars on the other hand, are of the views that there are ‘primitive gloriana’ (the glory of the primitive past) such as the subject-matter of this exposition worthy of intellectual discourse. It is therefore an objective fact to assert that there was Traditional Public Administration in Africa pre-colonial past. This administrative idea arose from the fact that most literature on the subject would always point at the scientific development of the discipline in America and Europe, with hardly any reference to its practice and development in Africa. The contributions of Fritz Morstein Marx in his book ‘The Element of Public Administration (1946), Paul H. Appleby, ‘Policy and Administration (1952), Frank Marini ,’Towards a New Public Administration (1971) and Woodrow Wilson’s, ‘The Study of Administration (1887), gives the impressions that the subject matter has a western origin. The credence to the western origin of public administration, which this study contests, was because, Woodrow Wilson is traditionally credited as writing the first piece in public administration in 1887 before becoming president. The rise of several schools of public administration in the United States and the rise of administrative state added to this Eurocentric perspective of the subject.

While this study would avoid the temptation of dating the origin of the Public Administration in Africa in order to skip unnecessary controversy, it would however raise salient propositions to affirm the fact that public administration is a universal phenomenon, which arises in every administrative state, pre-history, medieval or modern.

Scholars such as Balogun (1983) in his ‘Public Administration in Nigeria- Developmental Approach’, contended that Public Administration was in existence in the Nigerian traditional society albeit in a limited scope. During those epochs, objectives were delineated; materials as well as human resources were deployed. Thus, within those periods public administration assumed

the roles of coordinating inter-tribal wars, hunting and pastoral activities, construction of shrines, exaction and collection of tributes and the maintenance of public order. However, Frank (2007) on the other hand, averred that public administration in Africa pre-colonial period was tied to the practice of the ‘warrior tradition’. The warrior tradition was a major link between the individual and the society for after the military conquest come administration. Both have all broken from the Eurocentric viewpoint of the American origin of public administration to contend.

### **Statement of the Problem**

The major problem of this interrogation rests on the fact that numerous literatures in the field of public administration, including those that are authored by the African scholars often locate the origin of public administration to the United States of America. The spectacular administrative structure and processes in the pre-colonial Benin and Oron Kingdoms, Oyo and Sokoto empires are classical Traditional Public Administrative systems worthy of study, yet these scholars would ignore them very often to look to the West and the USA for the cradle of the phenomenon.

This constitute a problem because many literature authored by African scholars assume the Eurocentric position of the foundation of public administration to be America and Europe. The younger generation reading these textbooks replicates this erroneous idea.

The issues are that even in the 21<sup>st</sup> century, African scholars are still Eurocentric in the views of the subject of public administration without being able to situate the dynamism of the subject in African context as exemplified by empires and kingdoms which lasted several years as a result of their effective service delivery to the societies. This creates doubts and gaps as to whether public administration ever took place in African societies before the colonial masters arrived.

It is instructive to note that wherever there is semblance of governance, there is always public administration to implement the policies or orders of the governing authority. There were considerable governance structures in Africa pre-colonial era meant to implement public policies such as the ‘age-grade system’ which were found almost everywhere with specific functions assigned to it.

Public administration in modern society has the onerous problem of setting goals for the administrators and values to be pursued. The problems of efficiency versus effectiveness, responsiveness versus equity, representativeness versus expertise are resolved by public administration. It is expected that that public officials whether elected, appointed or employed will act in the best interest of the public, yet it is tough to reach a consensus with regards to what is just, in terms of services, products or procedures that embodies ‘public interest’. These challenges were resolved in traditional public administration by oaths which had severe punishment attached to it but remained a challenge in modern public administration.

### **Research Questions**

- i) The ecology of public administration is created wherever people settle and have a governing body to pursue development among the people of the nation. This is because the head would be charged with giving orders or policies to ensure peaceful co-existence. Was this the case in the entire empires and kingdom that existed in pre-colonial African and Nigerian states?
- ii) It is instructive to note that wherever people congregate together in large number, the need for security and many other necessary administrative actions will arise, could this have been the case in the pre-colonial Nigerian empires and kingdoms? In these pre-colonial societies, the social structures assigned to perform the various functions were often fused into the ‘warrior tradition’ in the ‘age-grade social structure’. Is this true of the empires?
- iii) In every collection of the mass of the people, ‘norms, values and mores’ are often created to bond the communities together. There was always a chief priest assigned to perform ‘ritualistic functions’ to appease the gods or deity to continue to ensure that untoward circumstances does not befall the people as a consequence of violating the community mores. Is this true of the empires?



iv) The various communities very often expanded to include clans and villages the leader would often appoint clan-heads who in turn appoint village-heads according to laid down rules to ensure consanguinity and other roles intended to ensure the continuity of the nations. Is this true of the empires?

### **The objective of the Study**

The main objective of this study is to establish that Public Administration as the structure and processes through which public policies are made by the governmental structure is implemented for the creation of public good in the administrative state that existed in African pre-colonial era as it is in modern society. Consequently, the view that it is an American creation is erroneous.

It is further intended to indicate that role specifications were fused in persons who were usually charismatic or social groups in the pre-colonial African public administration unlike role specialization in the modern system of Administration.

It perform the basic roles of service delivery which held the society together in pre-colonial African societies much more than modern societies, which are replete with rebellion as a result of the failure of modern public administration to deliver equitable, fair and just services to all in the state.

It is also to establish that the scope and functions of the phenomenon were also performed by specific structure in Africa pre-colonial governance system.

### **The Scope of the study**

The latitude of this study though would make reference to cases of pre-colonial public administration in Africa; it would however be restricted and draw its qualitative data from pre-colonial Nigeria for analysis. In terms of periodization, it would draw data from the period 1862-1960.

### **The Methodology**

The case study technique was the applicable procedure in the data assembling processes. It involves a detailed examination and analysis of the particular issue of the presence of Traditional Public Administration in pre-colonial Nigeria. It was concerned with everything that was significant in the history of Benin, Oyo, Sokoto and Kanem Borno empires and Oron kingdom respectively, in order to bring about the desirable changes in the location of the subject, and to throw light on the situation of Public administration as having existed in pre-colonial Nigeria and elsewhere in the continent. The method permitted deep and intensive analyses and interaction between the variables in the cases considered.

It typically involved observation of the event, or even entire culture. It is applied in cases of bounded system, an entity in itself. It is an intensive investigation of the phenomena. It could be qualitative or quantitative or a combination of both. The essence of case study in this context was to gain in-depth understanding replete with meaning for the subject. It focuses on the process rather than outcome and on discovery rather than confirmation. It is the most appropriate technique when 'how', 'who' 'why' or 'what' questions are to be asked or when one has little control over the event.

The appropriateness of the strategy implied valuable as preliminaries to major investigations. The approach may refute a universal generalization. The use of multiple sources is a major advantage of the method (Ndiyo, 2005). A critical significant of this approach to the study remained its multiple sources of obtaining data which are later triangulated through converging lines of inquiry, improving its reliability and validity of the data gathered. Corroboration make a case study report more convincing as we did in this study on the empires and kingdoms where we sought to find uniformity of structures and processes of delivering public values in this pre-colonial African states.

One of the significance of the method of this study is that understanding from one case study that Traditional Public Administration existed in pre-colonial Nigerian- Africa societies, would

illuminate and almost address the problem of this study. Another would be conceptual where we would look at the descriptions of public administration and evaluate whether what took place in the case-studies ever equated the conceptualization of public administration. The procedure consisted of taking notes from observations, documents, diary notes audiotapes and computer disks. They were all organized according to the public administration roles and topics and then synthesized and integrated.

### **Conceptions of Public Administration**

Shields (2017) had averred that public administration deals with the stewardship and carries out the products of a vibrant democracy. She went on to state that the products are those things that are produced or constructed, such as roads, laws and schools as implementers. It entails the administration of public programs and the conversion of politics into the reality for citizens to see. Igwe (2005) pointed to the fact that administration is a universal organizational phenomenon. It is an authoritatively coordinated process for the achievement of group objectives. Public administration deals with the management of public affairs, where bureaucracy plays a prominent role, and where administrative controls form part of the normal routine. Some of the features of public administration stressed in the above conception included; (i) it is authoritatively control to ensure that the policies of the political authorities are not mutilated to void the intended objectives. (ii) It is the management of public affairs with administrative controls. In the empires and kingdom of Africa, there were often metropolitan and far-flung parts of the empires, trusted to the loyal servants of the emperors under different titles. They have to be administratively controlled through various norms. (iii) The policies ensued from political heads.

Public Administration in the conventional sense would involve (i) institutions of public policy within the state, organizational structure for public decision-making. (ii) It involves organization for delivering of public services. The civil service forms the heart and arteries of public administration in modern state. (iii) Its actions and inactions affects the entire society. (iv) It is the act of administering the entire area. (v) It is the structure for conveying authoritative values from the executive branch to the entire citizenry to enhance their well-being.

Bhagwan and Bhusan (2006: 70-77) identified principles of public administration to include; (a) principles of political direction, meaning, that the objectives and goals of administrative actions are defined and authorized by political authority. (b) Principle of Authority, which is authoritative allocation of values; hence those authorizing actions must possess the legitimacy before giving the orders. Those exercising authority in this context have legal right by rules and regulations of administration to do so. (c) Principles of Public Responsibility, which implies that, public administration is responsible to all in all of its actions through the political executive. (d) Principles of Social Necessity, which strives to provide for the social needs of the entire society. (e) Principles of Efficiency, which means that public administration is supposed to be efficient in the delivery of public services (d) Principle of Organization, means that public administrative service must be organized into sets of activities to be assigned to specific person to perform as task. (e) It connects the public to the political authority in a public relation stunt.

Another scholar (Self, 1972) averred that public administration is the active business part of government, and this involve (a) it is the bridge conveying the policies of government to the civil-society in order to improve the society and add value to the people (development). (a)The processes of public administration involve; firstly Ministries, Department and Agencies (MDAs) which specialized in each sector societal need. (c) The MDAs are organized in functional lines into bureaucracies. (d) Each ministry is under the direction of a political head who oversees that policies are adhered to and executed effectively and efficiently. (e) The MDAs assist in shaping policies and providing data and evaluating impact. (f) Administrators are paid for implementing the policies of national government (Frank, 2013 p.288).

## The procedure of evaluating public administration in Nigeria

The procedure for the evaluation of public administration in Nigeria and African empires and kingdoms would include validating the assertion that something akin to public administration existed in the empires and kingdoms. The case-study procedure consisted of (i) outlining the public administrative norms and practices of modern society and identifying same as practiced in the kingdoms and empires in pre-colonial Nigeria and by implication the African continent. (ii) The sampling decision which involve purposively choosing the kingdom and empires for case studies, in this case, Benin, Oyo, Sokoto empires and Oron kingdom respectively were selected. (iii) The validation of the findings by triangulation with other sources.

## The Case Studies

### a) The Benin Empire

The Benin empire founded about 11<sup>th</sup> BC and lasted till 1897 when the British army conquered and incorporated it into the southern protectorate. It was headed by an **Oba**, who held absolute political power. He was also the head of the military as captured in the ‘Warrior tradition’ of African pre-colonial states. The ‘Ezomo’ title holder commanded the military as the chief of army staff with ‘iyasere’ as the prime minister who commanded the metropolitan battalion in ‘Bini’ where the Oba resided. The Oba was advised by ‘Ezama’ group of title holders. The trade minister of the empire was the ‘unawagwe/Eribo’ who monitors trade in the empire and advise the Oba accordingly. ‘Ologbosere’ was the chief priest who performed the ‘ritual role’ to grant the warriors supernatural power, sacrifice criminals at the mouth of Benin river to attract European traders and assist slaves of the Obas to commit suicide so they would continue to serve the dead Oba in the ‘afterlife’. This was how the **cabinet of title-holders** was structured to perform specific functions for the good governance of the empire.

The security of Benin, the headquarter of the empire was secured with a deep ‘moat’ dug round to protect the city from invaders, which some scholars have referred to as the ‘wall’.

Administratively, the ‘Enogie/Onogie’ or the duke was appointed by the Oba to govern specific ethnic area or vassal community. The other social organization, which embraced all was the age-grade system which encompasses the ‘Iroghae’, the youth and young men (they swept and clean the village streets, open spaces and cared for the community shrines. The ‘Ighele’ the mature and adult men, whose roles included felling of large trees, house-building, building and repairs of shrines and the ‘Odionwe’ the elders and the Onogie kept the custom and tradition of the Binis (Anene, 1965).

Benin Empire in accordance with Bhagwan and Bhusan (2006) paradigm of public administration possessed principles of direction in the Oba, who defined and authorized political actions. (ii) The Oba had the legitimacy for authoritative allocation of values (iii) The Oba was publicly responsible; he had chief of army staff, and directed the construction of the famous Benin moat for wading away the invaders, the Ologbosere the chief priest performs spiritual cleansing of the empire and appease the gods on behalf of all. The ‘unawagwe’ ensures trading was efficient and informs the Oba promptly. The ‘ologbosere’ also help Oba’s slaves to commit suicide to serve any dead Oba in the ‘afterlife’. The Oba’s appointed Enogie/Onogie to administer far flung areas on his behalf. Furthermore, the council of title chiefs constitutes the civil service of the empire. The Oba’s action affected the entire empire.

### b) Kanem Bornu Empire

The government in this empire (c 700 -1380) was under a ruler known as Shehu rather than ‘Mai’ who combined both spiritual and temporal power in his person. He was assisted in the administration of the empire by a council of title holders consisting of the ‘Nokena’ (Maina princess of royal blood and Kokenawa, the new men. Kokenawa consisted of the Kambe (men of free birth and Kachela the eunuchs and men of servile origin).

The kokenawa provided the administrative officials for the empire and received no salaries but given lands and governorships in return. One of the outstanding administrative official was 'Digma' who served as foreign affairs secretary and officer in-charge of an administrative district. In terms of security the empire had a standing army consisting of infantry soldiers, mounted troop and those armed with bow and arrow. During war all vassal provincial district would contribute fighting men.

The empire consisted of the main Bornu ruled directly by the Shehu and the vassal states ruled by their own chiefs but subject to tribute of produce and slaves to the Shehu. The empire crumbled to the superior colonial forces of the Germans, French and the British in 1900.

The principles of public administration inherent in the Kanem Bornu Empire is very obvious, they include; (a) Shehu of Bornu the political head ruled over the empire and his authority prevailed. (b) The organization for the delivery of public policy was appointed by him and consisted of the council of 'Nokena' wherein were the kokenawa who were the administrative officers of the empire. (c) In the vassal states, the governors were subject to the Shehu in the implementation of policies throughout the empire (Ifemesia, 1965).

#### c) The Oyo empire

The Oyo empire was founded and strived between 7<sup>th</sup> to 18<sup>th</sup> century, the relevant practices which we identified as the traditional public administrative system consisted the political head known as 'Alafin-Oba' who had the onerous responsibility of keeping the entire empire, including the vassal states safe from attack and ensuring the welfare of all within the empire. He was often selected by a council of chiefs known as 'Oyo-mesi' within whose rank was the 'Bashorun'- prime minister who was in turn a member of the Oyo-mesi. The Oyo-mesi and the Ogboni cult of elders serve as both the legislature and a check on the powers of the Alafin or Oba. The Alafin-Oba appointed the **Ajele** who administer the vassal states captured by the Alafin in their war of expansion of the empire. They also played the role of electoral council because they were the custodian of the processes and customs of choosing another Alafin or Oba when the opportunity presents itself. They also consult the oracle 'ifa' and inform the Alafin or Oba on their findings should they be any need to do so. The Bashorun was the commander of the Oyo army. The empire had a title chief who oversees commerce. The administrative structure of the empire consisted of metropolitan Oyo and tributary Oyo or conquered or vassal states wherein the Alafin appointed his trusted chiefs, or his sons to administer and return tributes to the headquarter at Ife. The policies for the good governance of the empire emanated from the Alafin-Oba and were communicated through the various structures to the provincial administrators of the vassal states (Rotberg, 1964 p.111)

#### c) The Sokoto caliphate

The Sokoto caliphate established after the Jihad of Usman Dan Fodio, had an elaborate administrative system based on the Sharia law. Consequently, when the British concluded their conquering and settled to administer the protectorate of the north, it became prudent to use the preexisting structure and processes of administration under the title of 'indirect rule'.

The major features of the system were; (i) the pre-conquest indigenous aristocracies who had been conquered administered the protectorate between 1899-1906 using the local administrative structures and processes.

ii) According to the 'Dual Mandate' Africans had to be govern through its own institutions, thus, chiefs and royalty were not hampered from using their traditional authorities over their kingdoms  
(iii) Chiefs were allocated to communities without chiefs. (iv) This was feasible because Sokoto caliphate already possessed highly sophisticated administrative systems headed by emirs with the Sultan as the supreme head. (v) The hierarchical structure of the system, permitted British control of the emirs who in turn controlled other titular heads controlling vast areas (Lugard, 1965)

#### d) The Oron Kingdom



**The Oron kingdom**, which is located in the core Niger Delta prevailed from the 12<sup>th</sup> century in the present day Akwa Ibom State, and resisted the colonial masters until 1900 when it fell to the superior commercial tricks of the colonial masters. The Oron kingdom was led by a warrior known as *'Abang' who adopted the title of 'Attah'* had eight (8) children who constituted the eight (8) clans of Oro-nation. The political leader *'Abang'* appointed his children as the *'clan-heads'* who were known as *'Ifong-afaha'* who in turn appointed *'Ifong-udung'*; *'Ifong –Afaha'* and *'Ifong-udung'* constituted the *'Isong-council'* where critical decisions were made with the awareness of *'Abang'* or *'Attah'* of Oro. The decisions of the *'Isong-council'* were conveyed by *'Ifong-udung'* (village-heads), who in turn debrief *'Ubuhu-ufok'* or family-heads or lineage heads (Frank, 2015).

### **Policy Enforcement in the Kingdom**

*'Nka'* or age-grade system (boys and girls born approximately the same year/season) was very prominent in the implementation of public policy in the Oron-Kingdom. *'Nka-ukparasung'* were charged with the cleanliness of the market squares and maintaining the streams which was the community sources of clean water. *'Nka-ufere'* cleans the shrines and enforced oaths on those alleged to have committed social problems as witchcraft. *'Nka-ikponoenwi'* or elders were the advisors to every group. The village and smaller *'unit-heads'* had the duties of law maintenance and justice administration in the locality. These structures and processes of administration in pre-colonial Oro kingdom affirmed the present of traditional administrative system which equated modern methods of public administration (Frank, 2015).

### **Data Analyses**

Drawn from the above cases and conceptions of public administration is the fact that (i) these empires and kingdom existed and had political heads as emperors, Obas or Alafins ensures that public policies was properly administered in the empires, etc.

ii) The administrative systems in pre-colonial Africa were very functional and suitable hence the colonial masters sought to create same where non-existed. This brought up the concept of the *'warrant chiefs'* as found in the Southeastern part of Nigeria where the tradition of a very strong and all powerful traditional ruler was an aberration. Theory of *'indirect rule'* in which the British colonial authorities relied upon in places such as Northern Nigeria, meant that the system was functional, hence, their reliance on it. David Chalmer in 1898 said the only possible form of government in the protectorate was through the chiefs themselves (Crowther, 1976:224, cited in Frank, 2007 p.70). Oron kingdom had clear structures and processes of administering the nation. The various empires and kingdoms lasted over considerable years, if they were not delivering services to the citizens, they would not have lasted the periods they all did.

### **Research validation:**

We stated that modern public administration takes place in a political setting consisting of a geopolitical entity, political heads and executive council, paid employees –civil servant working in the public interest. This was the cases in Benin, Oyo, Kanem Bornu empires and in all other empires in the African continent. They were political settings in the names of the empires many of which lasted several years. They had political leaders, and had geopolitical settings. They had public administrative systems through which public good were administered to the larger society. We then submit that indeed public administration existed in pre-colonial African-Nigerian empires which had all the features of modern public administrative system.

Public administration in traditional society's set-goals for the empires and kingdoms and committed human and material resources as trade secretary in Benin Empire. A specialist performed the rituals functions engaging the oracle to cleanse the empire and define the enemy. In Oyo, presentation of empty calabash to the Alafia-Oba as a sign of rejection was a function set aside to be performed by designated officials.



We then presented the case-studies in accordance with the method of the study applicable, it was then asserted through the various conceptions that public administration consists mainly of social structures and processes for implementing public policies for the well-being of the society at large. One of the objectives of the study was to affirm that public administration indeed was practiced in Africa. The conceptions established that structures and processes for policy implementation were germane to public administration. All the case-studies indicated the present of structures and processes for service delivery in these empires and kingdoms.

It is truism that modern public administration had job specification and division of labor. In traditional public administration, these were chief priests, age-grade systems performing differentiated roles, while the 'Oyomesi' and the 'Ogboni' cult in the Oyo empire and the 'Enogies' in Benin empire or 'Mai-gari' or emirs in the Sokoto caliphate all performed fused functions pursuant to public good.

It is edifying to note that all functions and structure performed in modern public administration could be delineated in traditional African-Nigeria public administration in all the case-studies dealt with in this study, hence if public administration is all that are presented in the conceptions, then it existed effectively in traditional public administration and this accounted for the duration in which these empires and kingdom lasted. It is at this point that the study objectives and the research questions have been addressed.

## Conclusion

Public administration in the modern state serves among others the role of conveying policy decisions to the rest of the society for sustainable governance and development. The duration of existence of the various empires and kingdoms attested to the functionality of traditional public administration in these empires. They used fused administrative structures, however, the policies and decisions of the Kings were discharged throughout the empires. A good number of these empires and kingdoms predated the date for the commencement of public administration in America and Western Europe.

It is therefore the affirmation of this study that public administration structure and processes existed in pre-colonial Africa. For instance, in Nigeria; the colonial masters had to rely on it for the performance of many of its functions. Thus, all the functions that modern administration does in modern state were carried out by the traditional public administrative system. This is one of the 'primitive gloriana' of Africa and indeed Nigeria that must not be wished away in every scholastic pursuit. Whenever there is a semblance of government in an area, there are always administrative systems to deliver public goods from the government to the citizens under its jurisdiction. Where the administrative system is effective in the delivery of public goods, the government no matter its form, endures for a very long time.

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## RECENT TRENDS AND DEVELOPMENTS IN THE GLOBAL WORKPLACE AND THEIR IMPACT ON EMPLOYMENT RELATIONS IN KENYA

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### **Abstract**

*Various perspectives exist amongst people about globalisation- a phenomenon that have impacted local economies in terms of trade, foreign direct investments, agriculture, technology transfer, dominant culture, as well as international standards. This study relied on a mixed methodology approach, which is a combination of quantitative and qualitative approaches. A total of 500 closed ended questionnaires were distributed to the employees of the sampled companies, out of which 483 were satisfactorily responded to, which amounts to 97% response rate. In addition, 10 key employment relations stakeholders were interviewed. The findings of the study revealed that there has been an increase in the rate outsourcing by*

*many organisations in Kenya, which has partly contributed to raising incidents of downsizing and retrenchment that have exacerbated the level of unemployed. Technological advancements have also been noted as a major contributor to retrenchment in Kenyan organisations. Although technology has accelerated performance, which has helped many organisations to reduce the operational costs, it has at the same time affected employees who have lost their livelihood as a result of the incursion of advanced technological innovations. Many organisations are currently engaging employees on casual or temporary work, which are sourced from labour brokers as a cost cutting mechanism. This state of affairs has affected the morale and psychological contract of many workers in Kenyan.*

**Keywords:** Recent Trends, Developments, Global Workplace, Impact

**Jel Classification:** F6; J5

## Introduction

The major drivers of Globalisation are the advanced countries of the world. Through globalisation, the developed countries have sold to their customs, habits, lifestyles, food, fashion, music, just to mention a few to the world. Although incipient globalisation existed before the current one, however, it was not strongly felt owing to lesser integration of economies across the globe (Castells, 2012). Nevertheless, the late 1980s and early 1990s witnessed rapid global economy changes, which was signified by the breaking down of trade barriers, as well as reduction of trade protectionism, which accelerated the pace of globalisation (Betcherman, 2015). Indeed, globalisation has contributed towards reducing trade restriction and costs of productions, thereby improving trade, enhancing technological advancements and competitiveness (United Nations, 2000).

More than that, globalisation seems to have brought about new ways of rewarding employees based on the value that they bring to the organization in terms of performance rather than rewarding them on the rate of inflation, as previously done (Dolan & White, 2007). Previously, the labour market tends to increase employee rewards without basis due to weak labour practices, which in most cases lead to unsustainable wage bills (Hertog & Steffen, 2012).

## The statement of the problem

Kenya is currently witnessing increasing work interruptions occasion by rising strike actions, go-slows and lock-outs, which are all signs of workers discontent stemming from

low wages, perceived and felt redundancy, downsizing and of course, retrenchment.

All these anomalies are connected to atypical employment practices of labour brokering, outsourcing, re-engineering, automation, including the use of child labours. There have been efforts by researchers (Mandan, 2004; Scholte, 2005; Goldin & Reinert, 2007) to investigate the recent trends triggered by globalisation has affected the workplace in other nations and regions. However, no concrete effort has been made to investigate the impact of these new trends ushered by globalisation on employment relations in Kenya.

### **Research Question**

The study was guided by the following research question:

- What are some of the recent trends and developments in the global workplace since the dawn of globalisation?
- How have these recent trends impacted employment relations in Kenya?

### **Research Objective**

The study was guided by the following objective:

- To examine some of the recent trends and developments in global workplaces since the dawn of globalisation
- To establish how these recent trends have impacted employment relations in Kenya.

### **Significance for the Study**

The study will be significant to scholars as it will add to the array of new knowledge in the area of globalisation and employment relations, especially scholars in the field of human resource management and employment relations. The study will certainly fill some knowledge gaps within the domain of globalisation and its impact on employment relations in Kenya

### **Recent trends and developments in the workplace since globalisation and their impact on employment relations in Kenya**

Rapid competition has been one of the major outcomes of globalisation. Most firms have been forced to embrace the changes that come along with globalisation in order for them to remain in business. Cutting costs and increasing revenue has become very important

in order to remain competitive. One of the major costs of any firm is the wage bill, which, if not handled with care, can lead to a loss in profits. Some businesses have resorted to retrenchments to reduce the wage bills, while others have resorted to changing the employment patterns of their workplaces. Due to the changing pattern of employment, most organisations now prefer to engage staff on a casual basis as opposed to a permanency, which attracts benefits that are considered as cost to the firm (Republic of Kenya, 2007). Despite firms benefiting from cost cutting as a result of engaging workers on a casual basis, the current development has impacted negatively on the employment relations.

More than that, advancements in technology have contributed to a paradigm shift in work structures. The fact remains that rapid technological innovations have been fuelled by globalisation (Roberts, 2006). New technologies have altered the mode of production from a manual system to one of technology, where most works are no longer working manually, but engaging in sophisticated technological production systems that enhances efficiency (Roberts, 2006). Technologies have also led to changes in work patterns for local workers as initial work that was previously performed by an unskilled workforce now requires a skilled person with knowledge of new technologies, such as information technology (IT) to perform (Roberts, 2006). Hence, towards the end of the twentieth century, sophisticated machines have virtually replaced the manual system of operations in the workplace (Aronowitz & DiFazio, 2010).

Ukpere and Slabbert (2007) observed that globalisation has indeed contributed to advancements in technology, while technology has also greatly aided globalisation. Technology has brought about increases in competition and the war for talent at a global level (Roberts, 2006). Technology has affected the major spheres of economy activities such as transportation and communication. The transport sector has undergone transformation, as the sector has become more cost effective and efficient than it was previously (Ukpere & Slabbert, 2007).

Globalisation has contributed to changes in employment patterns, as most employees are no longer engaged on a permanent basis (Neikirk, 2008). According to Clott (2004), most organisations initially resorted to outsource most of their peripheral activities, while they concentrate on their core activities. This had an impact on the work structures of



most organisations globally. In the past, outsourcing was used at initial production levels, which were perceived as noncore activities. However, recently, outsourcing is even utilised for core functions in the production of final products and services (Neikirk, 2008). Outsourcing has been one of the ways of ensuring that firms remain viable and competitive in the global market, particularly in industrialised countries (Ukpere & Slabbert, 2007). However, outsourcing also seems to have contributed to unemployment owing to redundancies witnessed in the workplace as a result of certain functions that have been outsourced (Clott, 2004). Some organisations have been forced to change their scope of operations and employment patterns in order to remain competitive (Neikirk, 2008).

The tendency to overwork workers has made work flexibility an appealing economic choice in the globalised world of work (Ukpere & Slabbert, 2007). As aforementioned, human resources have now been dichotomized into main groups of multi-tasked permanent workers and a part-time workforce who are engaged on a temporary basis (Adams, Hean, Sturgis & McLeod, 2006). The method that is employed usually brings benefits to the organisations, but at the cost of the casual workers. Indeed, the working environments have changed owing to the current liberalised market (Ohmae, 2005). While employers have emphasized changes in work structures to guarantee higher returns, employees, conversely, prefer higher wages and good conditions of service, which in most cases have prompted employers to threaten that jobs may be moved elsewhere such as to China and Bangladesh, where the cost of labour is cheap and the conditions of service deplorable (Ukpere & Slabbert, 2009).

Global unemployment is on the rise and there are growing signs that this trend will continue unabated (Zulkipli & Burt, 2013). According to Ukpere (2007), one repugnant aspect of globalisation is the increasing rate of unemployment in societies around the globe. In Kenya, challenges in the labour market include the slow growth in employment creation, the non-productive and less sustainable nature of most jobs, and the perceptions of some jobs seekers regarding their preferred jobs since 2002 (Waweru, 2007). Unemployed youths have become a major risk factor in Kenya (DiNardo & Lemieux, 1997). However, it should be kept in mind that a majority of the youths have not acquired the right skills to enable them to secure proper employment, while others have

willingly chosen not to work (Zulkipli & Burt, 2013). This comes as a result of selectiveness by some of the youths in respect of available jobs owing to negative attitudes towards some job (Brewster, 2008). The government has been developing policies that will attract youths to take up available jobs (GoK Report, 2009). But the strategies have not worked since most of the youth continues to show negative attitudes towards some jobs that have been created. In addition, increased casualization of labour, contract employment and unregulated outsourcing of jobs have made workers more vulnerable, especially within the context of social protection and workers' rights (Brewster, 2008).

Global competition has made organisations to search out for ways of cutting costs if they need to be globally competitive, and one of the strategies they have resorted to achieve that is through downsizing (Irungu, 2011). As always, managers have the responsibility to determine how employees should be utilised to ensure maximum return on investments (Flingstein, 1996). Several developments have occurred since globalisation and economic liberalisation (Brewster, 2008). For instance, organisations are working hard to ensure that they have a lean work force in production lines. Although, Irungu (2011) once states that the restructuring taking place in the public sector is not merely as a result of globalisation, however one cannot rule out completely that globalisation has no effect in the public sector. Currently, everything is done with a global mind-set. Thus, globalisation has an effect on almost everything that takes place at a local level (Brewster, 2008). Ukpere and Slabbert (2009) posit that new organisational behaviours such as downsizing, reengineering and organisational merger/combinations are direct consequence of globalisation, which has accelerated the pace of unemployment.

### **Research methodology: Sample and research process**

The main aim of the research was to establish recent trends and developments in global workplaces in order to establish their impact on employment relations in Kenya. The research used a mixed research approach to investigate the topic under study. The main reason for a mixed method is to ensure proper triangulation of information to minimise errors. The study targeted all companies operating in Nairobi and Mombasa in Kenya, but sampled a total of 500 employees using purposive sampling technique. The respondents were issued with a well drafted closed ended questionnaire. A total of 483

questionnaires were satisfactorily filled and returned forming a response rate of 97%.

Of the 483 respondents, 37 were returned via Survey Monkey, while 446 were collected manually. Furthermore, 10 key employment relations stakeholders were interviewed. Prior to data collection, the researcher considered the content validity of the questionnaire by conducting a pilot study. The questionnaire was also vetted by the researcher's supervisor and peers. The test of content validity was established through inter judge consultants. The reliability of the instrument was also evaluated by performing Cronbach's alpha co-efficient for all the items in the questionnaire to measure the level of internal consistency among the variables under study.

### Data analysis

In order to establish the perceptions of the respondents on recent trends and developments in global workplaces in order to establish their impact on employment relations in Kenya, the researcher posed questions and made statements, which respondents had to either answer or respond to.

### Decisions on outsourcing

This section sought to establish whether workers are consulted when management plans to outsource some services or activities in the selected organisations.

**Table 1: Management prerogatives on outsourcing decisions**

Outsourcing of some services/activities is solely management's decision				
		Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	22	4.6	4.6
	Disagree	14	2.9	7.5
	Neutral	87	18.0	25.5
	Agree	224	46.4	71.8
	Strongly Agree	136	28.2	100.0
	Total	483	100.0	

(N=483)

Table 1 shows that 46.4% of the respondents agreed that outsourcing of some services/activities are solely management's decision, while 28.2% strongly agreed, and 18% remained neutral regarding the statement. A total of 2.9% disagreed with the

statement, while 4.6% strongly disagreed that outsourcing of some services/activities is solely management's decision. In total, 74.6% (46.4%+28.2%) agreed that outsourcing of some services/activities are solely management's decision, while a total of 7.5% (2.9%+4.6%) of the respondents disagreed that outsourcing of some services/activities are solely management's decision. The high number of those who agreed with the statement shows that outsourcing of some activities were solely undertaken by management without consulting with workers to obtain their input.

### Globalisation and downsizing/retrenchments

The rationale for this section was to establish whether globalisation has contributed to the high level of retrenchments in Kenya.

**Table 2: Rising trends in retrenchments since globalisation**

There has been rising trends in retrenchments in recent times owing to globalisation				
		Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	28	5.8	5.8
	Disagree	59	12.2	18.0
	Neutral	101	20.9	38.9
	Agree	216	44.7	83.6
	Strongly Agree	79	16.4	100.0
	Total	483	100.0	

(N=483)

Table 2 shows that 44.7% of the respondents agreed that there has been rising trends in retrenchments since globalisation, and 16.4% strongly agreed with this statement. However, 20.9% of the respondents decided to remain neutral on the subject, while 12.2% disagreed, and 5.8% strongly disagreed that there has been rising trends in retrenchments since globalisation. In sum, 61.1% (44.7%+16.4%) agreed with the statement, while a sum of 18% (12.2%+5.8%) disagreed. The high response rate of those who agreed with the statement indicates that retrenchments have increased in Kenya since globalisation. This development may have an adverse effect on employment relations.

### Procedural fairness in retrenchments since the advent of globalisation

This section sought to establish if management has been fair when executing the retrenchment process, which has far reaching consequences on staff morale and employment relations.

**Table 3: Due process of fairness during retrenchments**

Due process of fairness is followed by management where retrenchment occurs				
		Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	56	11.6	11.6
	Disagree	103	21.3	32.9
	Neutral	203	42.0	74.9
	Agree	94	19.5	94.4
	Strongly Agree	27	5.6	100.0
	Total	483	100.0	

(N=483)

Table 3 shows that a substantial number of respondents, namely 42%, were non-committal towards the subject, while 19.5% agreed that due process of fairness is followed by management where retrenchment occurs and 5.6% strongly agreed with the statement. However, 21.3% disagreed and 11.6% strongly disagreed that due process of fairness is followed by management during retrenchments. In sum, 32.9% (21.3%+11.6%) of the respondents disagreed that due process of fairness is followed by management when retrenchment occurs, while a sum of 25.1% (19.5%+5.6%) agreed with the statement. The high number of those who remained neutral is a sign that many workers chose not to take sides on the statement, probably owing to the tensions that retrenchment issues bring to the workplace.

### **Representation of employees in the retrenchment process**



Here, the researcher sought to establish whether employees have a say in the retrenchment process via their representatives.

**Table 4: Involvement of employee representatives in retrenchment process**

Employee representatives are involved in the retrenchment exercise				
		Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	33	6.8	6.8
	Disagree	142	29.4	36.2
	Neutral	197	40.8	77.0
	Agree	99	20.5	97.5
	Strongly Agree	12	2.5	100.0
	Total	483	100.0	

(N=483)

Table 4 shows that a vast number of respondents, 40.8% remained non-committal as to whether or not employee representatives are involved in the retrenchment exercise. However, 20.5% agreed and 2.5% strongly agreed that employee representatives are involved in the retrenchment exercise, while 29.4% disagreed and 6.8% strongly disagreed with the statement. In sum, 36.2% (29.4%+6.8%) disagreed that employee representatives are involved in the retrenchment exercise, while a sum of 23% (20.5%+2.5%) agreed that employee representatives are involved in the retrenchment exercise. The high number of those who disagreed indicates that retrenchment exercises have been solely executed by management, with less or no involvement of employee representatives, which could have negative repercussions for harmonious employment relations.

### **Payment of terminal dues during retrenchments**

The rationale for this section was to establish the treatment of employees during the retrenchment process, and whether they are given all their dues to accord them some comfort. This would help to eliminate some discontent amongst the remaining employees that survived the retrenchment exercise.

**Table 5: Payment of terminal dues to retrenched employees**

Employees are paid their termination dues before leaving employment
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	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Strongly Disagree	24	5.0	5.0
Disagree	48	9.9	14.9
Neutral	157	32.5	47.4
Agree	210	43.5	90.9
Strongly Agree	44	9.1	100.0
Total	483	100.0	

(N=483)

Table 5 shows that 43.5% of the respondents agreed that employees are paid their termination dues before leaving employment and 9.1% strongly agreed, while 32.5% were neutral on the subject. However, 9.9% of the respondents disagreed and 5.0% of the respondents strongly disagreed that employees are paid their termination dues before they leave their employment. Altogether, 52.6% (43.5%+9.1%) agreed with the statement, while in sum, 14.9% (9.9%+5.0%) disagreed. The high number of those who agreed with the statement signifies employers' positive treatment of retrenched employees in terms of payment of their terminal dues.

### Rising trends in outsourcing in recent times

This section sought to establish whether globalisation has increased the reorganisation of work through outsourcing as opposed to the recruitment of permanent workers.

**Table 6: Increased outsourcing of work to external organisations**

Currently, most of the work in organisation is outsourced compared to the past			
	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Strongly Disagree	16	3.3	3.3
Disagree	74	15.3	18.6
Neutral	110	22.8	41.4
Agree	216	44.7	86.1
Strongly Agree	67	13.9	100.0
Total	483	100.0	

(N=483)

Table 6 indicates that 44.7% of the respondents agreed that, currently, most of the work in the organisation has been outsourced in recent times compared to the past, and 13.9%

strongly agreed. However, 22.8% were neutral on the subject, while 15.3% disagreed and 3.3% strongly disagreed with the statement. Cumulatively, 58.6% (44.7%+13.9%) of the respondents agreed that, currently, most of the work in their organisation has been outsourced recently compared to in the past, while in total, 18.6% (15.3%+3.3%) disagreed with the statement. The high number of those who agreed with the statement indicates that most organisations have resorted to outsourcing more of their routine activities in recent times, thereby rendering more workers redundant for future retrenchments.

### Modern technology and work allocation

This section sought to establish the impact of modern technology, a by-product of globalisation, on work allocation, in order to ascertain whether technology has reduced workloads or otherwise.

**Table 7: Reduction of workloads because of modern technology**

Increased use of modern technology has reduced workloads				
		Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	22	4.6	4.6
	Disagree	81	16.8	21.3
	Neutral	93	19.3	40.6
	Agree	196	40.6	81.2
	Strongly Agree	91	18.8	100.0
	Total	483	100.0	

(N=483)

Table 7 indicates that 40.6% of the respondents agreed that increased use of modern technology has reduced workloads, while 18.8% strongly agreed, and 19.3% of the respondents were neutral regarding the impact of modern technology on workloads.

However, 16.8% of the respondents disagreed and 4.6% strongly disagreed with the statement. Cumulatively, 59.4% (40.6%+18.8%) of the respondents agreed that increased use of modern technology has reduced workloads, while 21.4% (16.8%+4.6%) disagreed with the statement. The high number of those who agreed shows that the use of modern technology has led to a reduction in employees' workloads, which may potentially trigger redundancy in the workplace.

### Modern technology and redundancy

The rationale for this section was to establish whether increased use of modern technology has negatively affected employees in terms of redundancy.

**Table 8: Redundancy of workers as a result of increased use of technology**

Increased use of modern technology has led to redundancy of workers				
		Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	32	6.6	6.6
	Disagree	96	19.9	26.5
	Neutral	143	29.6	56.1
	Agree	162	33.5	89.6
	Strongly Agree	50	10.4	100.0
	Total	483	100.0	

(N=483)

Table 8 indicates that the subject elicited varied reactions, as 33.5% of the respondents agreed that increased use of technology has led to worker redundancy, while 10.4% strongly agreed, 19.9% disagreed, and 6.6% strongly disagreed with the statement. However, 29.6% of the respondents were non-committal towards the subject. In sum, 43.9% (33.5%+10.4%) agreed that increased use of technology has led to workers redundancy, while cumulatively, 26.5% (19.9%+6.6%) disagreed with the statement. The high number of respondents who agreed with the statement indicates that modern technology has indeed contributed to redundancy in the workplace, which ultimately has a negative effect on the relationship between employers and employees owing to retrenchments as a result of redundancy.

### Technology and new developments in labour relations

This section sought to establish whether technological developments, as a by-product of globalisation, has impacted on labour relations within organisations.

**Table 9: New development in labour relations as a result of modern technology**

Technological development has influenced developments in labour relations				
		Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	6	1.2	1.2
	Disagree	70	14.5	15.7
	Neutral	198	41.0	56.7
	Agree	171	35.4	92.1
	Strongly Agree	38	7.9	100.0
	Total	483	100.0	

(N=483)

Table 9 indicates that 7.9% of the respondents strongly agreed and 35.4% agreed that technological development has influenced developments in labour relations, while 1.2% strongly disagreed and 14.5% disagreed, respectively, with the statement, and 41% remained neutral. In total, 43.3% (35.4%+7.9%) agreed that technological development has influenced developments in labour relations, while a total of 15.7% (14.5%+1.2%) disagreed with the statement. The high number of respondents who agreed with the statement indicates that technological development has influenced developments in labour relations.

### Skills development and casual employment

This section sought to find out if Kenyan companies provide casual employees with opportunities to develop their skills in the era of globalisation.

**Table 10: Lack of skills development opportunities for casual employees**

Casual employees never get an opportunity to develop their skills				
		Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	29	6.0	6.0
	Disagree	92	19.0	25.1
	Neutral	156	32.3	57.3
	Agree	146	30.2	87.6



Strongly Agree	60	12.4	100.0
Total	483	100.0	

(N=483)

Table 10 shows that majority of the respondents, namely 32.3%, were neutral on the subject, while 30.2% agreed and 12.4% strongly agreed that casual employees never get opportunities to improve their skills. However, 19% disagreed and 6.0% strongly disagreed with the statement. Altogether, 42.5% (30.2%+12.4%) of the respondents agreed that casual employees never get a chance to improve their skills while a total of 25% (19.0%+6.0%) disagreed. The high response rate of those who agreed with the statement indicates that casual employees in Kenyan companies are not given opportunities to develop their skills.

### Possibility of change in employment status of casual employees

The rationale for this section was to establish if there is a likelihood that casual employees will be hired on a permanent basis during the era of globalisation, specifically if employers consider casual employees when permanent vacancies arise.

**Figure 1: Hiring of casual employees on a permanent basis**

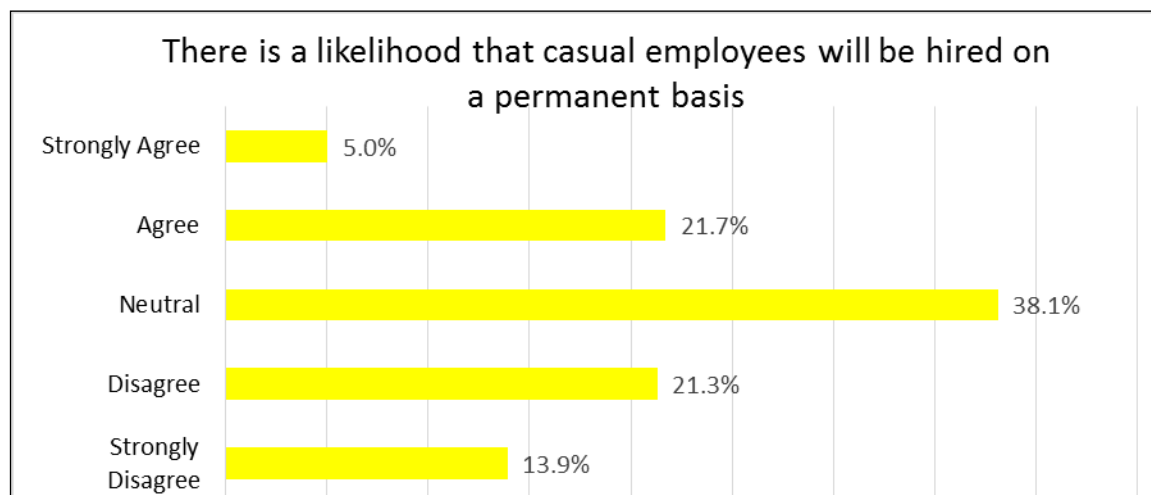


Figure 1 shows that 21.7% of the respondents agreed that there is a likelihood that casual employees will be hired on a permanent basis, while 5.0% strongly agreed and 38.1% of the respondents remained neutral regarding the statement. However, 21.3% disagreed and 13.9% strongly disagreed with the statement. In total, 26.7% (21.7%+5.0%) of the respondents agreed that there is a likelihood that casual employees may be hired on a

permanent basis, while a total of 35.2% (21.3%+13.9%) disagreed with the statement. The high number of those who disagreed indicates that it is unlikely that casual employees may be hired on a permanent basis, while the great number of those who remained neutral may suggest some level of uncertainty from respondents as to whether employers consider hiring casual employees on a permanent basis.

### Labour brokering and employment creation

The rationale for this section was to establish if labour brokers have helped people to at least earn a living in the era of globalisation owing to the high rate of unemployment.

**Table 11: Labour brokers' assistance in earning a living**

Labour brokers help people to earn a living where high unemployment is prevalent				
		Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	13	2.7	2.7
	Disagree	85	17.6	20.3
	Neutral	192	39.8	60.0
	Agree	170	35.2	95.2
	Strongly Agree	23	4.8	100.0
	Total	483	100.0	

(N=483)

Table 11 shows that a majority of the respondents were non-committal on the question, with 39.8% remaining neutral, while 35.2% of respondents agreed and 4.8% strongly agreed that labour brokers help people to at least earn a living where high unemployment is prevalent. A total of 17.6% respondents disagreed and 2.7% strongly disagreed with the statement. In total, 40% (35.2%+4.8%) of the respondents agreed that labour brokers help people to at least earn a living where high unemployment is prevalent, while a total of 20.3% (17.6%+2.7%) disagreed. The high number of those who agreed indicates that labour brokers do indeed help people to at least earn a living in Kenya, where high unemployment is prevalent.

### Employees' recruitment and labour brokers

The rationale for this section was to find out if Kenyan companies recruit their employees through employment bureaus and labour brokers as opposed to engaging them directly to determine their suitability.

**Figure 2: Recruitment of employees through bureaus**

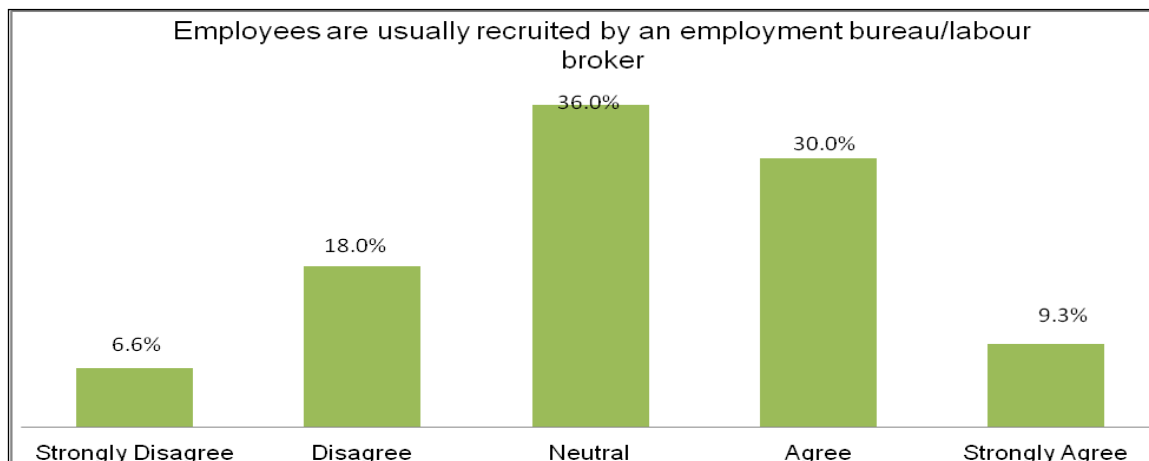


Figure 2 shows that 36% of the respondents were neutral regarding the question; 30% of respondents agreed that employees are usually recruited by an employment bureau; 9.3% strongly agreed; 18% of respondents disagreed; and 6.6% strongly disagreed with the statement. Cumulatively, 39.3% (30.0%+9.3%) of the respondents agreed that employees are usually recruited by an employment bureau/labour broker, while cumulatively, 24.6% (18.0%+6.6%) disagreed. The high number of those who agreed with the statement indicates that there is a rising trend in the recruitment of employees through employment bureaus/labour brokers in Kenyan companies in the era of globalisation.

### **Trends in labour brokering**

The rationale for this information was to establish whether the use of labour brokers has been a rising trend in terms of recruiting employees instead of companies employing directly. In other words, whether the number of labour brokers has grown owing to the demand from employers for their services.

**Table 12: Rising trends in labour brokering**

Number of labour brokers registered has increased since the era of globalisation				
		Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	14	2.9	2.9
	Disagree	19	3.9	6.8
	Neutral	131	27.1	34.0
	Agree	243	50.3	84.3
	Strongly Agree	76	15.7	100.0
	Total	483	100.0	

(N=483)

As shown in Table 12, 50.3% of the respondents agreed that there has been an increase in the number of labour brokers since the era of globalisation; 15.7% strongly agreed; and 27.1% of the respondents remained neutral. However, 3.9% of the respondents disagreed and 2.9% strongly disagreed with the statement. Cumulatively, 66% (50.3%+15.7%) of the respondents agreed that the number of registered labour brokers has increased since globalisation, while cumulatively, 6.8% (3.9%+2.9%) disagreed. The high response rate of those who agreed with the statement shows that the number of registered labour brokers in Kenya has increased in recent times.

### **Legislation on casual employment**

The purpose here was to find out if the increase in labour brokers that supply casual employees for employers has been as a result of weak labour legislation.

### **Figure 3: Weakness of legislation on casual employment**

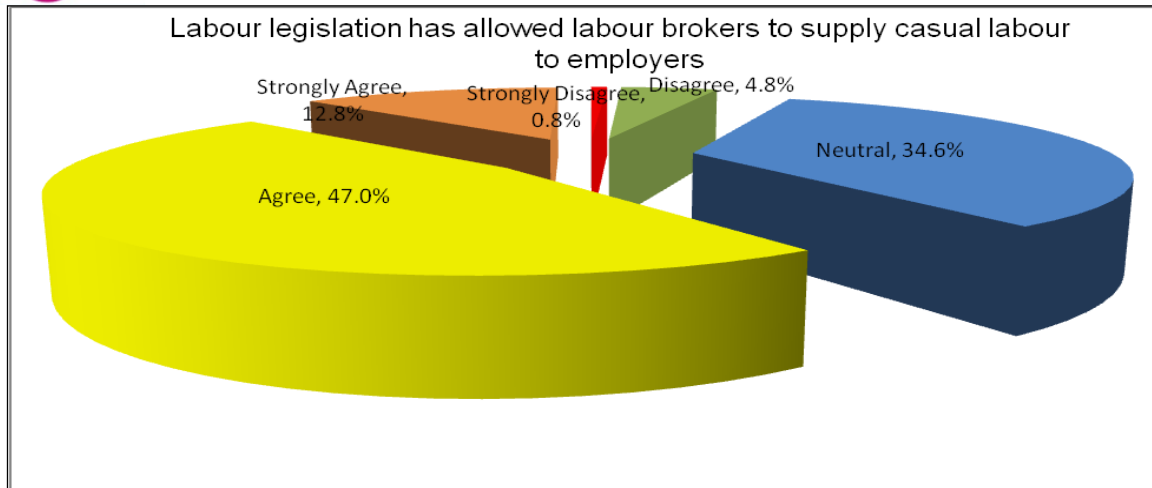


Figure 3 shows that 47.0% of the respondents agreed that the number of registered labour brokers has increased since globalisation as a result of weakened legislation, and 12.8% strongly agreed. Conversely, 0.8% strongly disagreed and 4.8% disagreed with the statement, while 34.6% remained neutral. Cumulatively, 59.8% (47.0%+12.8%) of the respondents agreed that the number of registered labour brokers has increased since the era of globalisation as a result of weakened legislation, while cumulatively, 5.6% (4.8%+0.8%) disagreed with the statement. From the high response rate of those who agreed with the statement, it is clear that labour legislation has indeed been weakened to allow labour brokers to supply casual labour to employers.

### Globalisation and unemployment

The reason for this section was to establish if the rate of unemployment has increased more in recent times than previously as a result of globalisation.

### Figure 4: Rising unemployment owing to globalisation



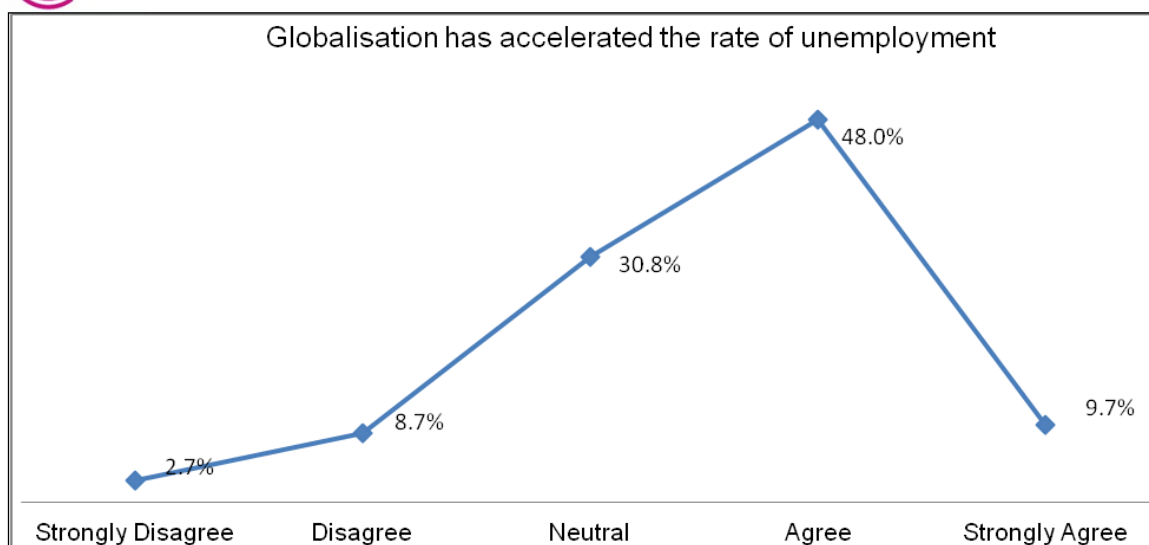


Figure 4 shows that 48% of the respondents agreed that globalisation has increased the rate of unemployment in Kenya, while 9.7% strongly agreed, and 30.8% of the respondents remained neutral. However, 8.7% of the respondents disagreed and 2.7% strongly disagreed with the statement. In total, 57.7% (48%+9.7%) of the respondents agreed that globalisation has increased the rate of unemployment, while a total of 11.4% (8.7%+2.7%) disagreed. The high number of those who agreed with the statement is an indication that unemployment has indeed increased in Kenya since globalisation.

### Mergers, acquisitions and unemployment

The rationale for this section was to establish if there is a connection between the various mergers and acquisitions in Kenya, and the increasing rate of unemployment. In other words, to ascertain specifically if mergers and acquisition, which is a rising trend in the era of globalisation, has resulted in increased job losses.

**Table 13: Rising unemployment owing to mergers and acquisitions**

Organisational mergers and acquisitions has increased levels of unemployment				
	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent	
Valid Strongly Disagree	8	1.7	1.7	
Disagree	15	3.1	4.8	
Neutral	98	20.3	25.1	
Agree	301	62.3	87.4	
Strongly Agree	61	12.6	100.0	
Total	483	100.0		

(N=483)

Table 13 shows that 62.3% of the respondents agreed that mergers and acquisitions in organisations in Kenya has increased levels of unemployment, while 12.6% strongly agreed, and 20.3% remained neutral. However, 3.1% of the respondents disagreed and 1.7% strongly disagreed those organisational mergers and acquisitions have increased levels of unemployment. Cumulatively, 74.9% (62.3%+12.6%) of the respondents agreed with the statement, while cumulatively, 4.8% (3.1%+1.7%) disagreed. The high percentage of those who agreed with the statement is an indication that organisational mergers and acquisitions has indeed increased levels of unemployment since globalisation.

### **Organisational restructuring and job destruction**

The rationale for this section was to establish whether there is a link between organisational restructuring, and the growing trend of employee layoffs amongst Kenyan organisations in recent times.

**Figure 5: Growing trend in employee layoffs owing to organizational restructuring**

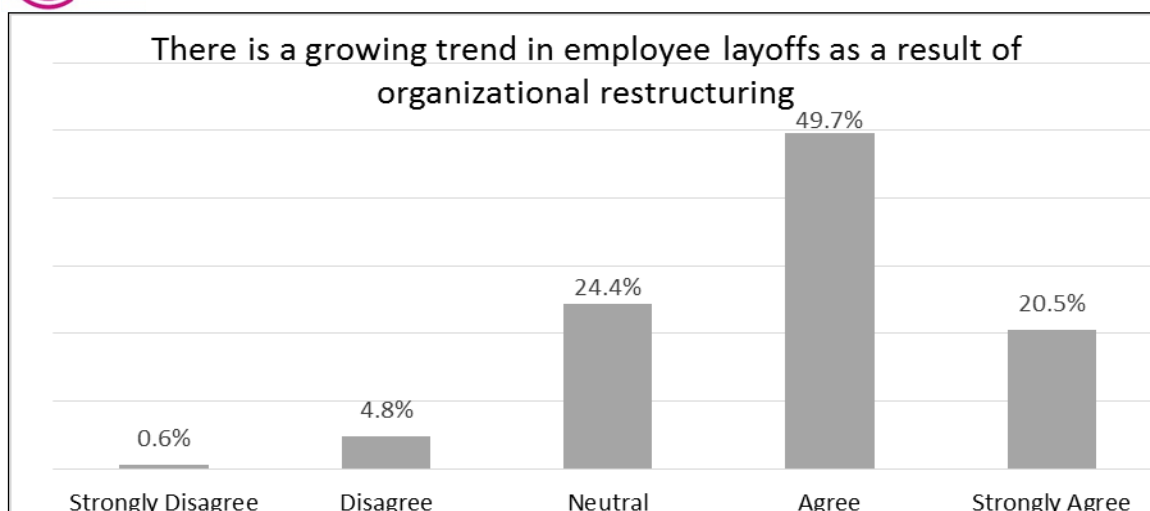


Figure 5 shows that 49.7% of the respondents agreed that there is a growing trend in employee layoffs as a result of organisational restructuring, while 20.5% strongly agreed with the statement, and 24.4% remained neutral. However, 4.8% of the respondents disagreed and 0.6% strongly disagreed that there is a growing trend in employee layoffs as a result of organisational restructuring. Cumulatively, 70.2% (49.7%+20.5%) agreed with the statement, while cumulatively, 5.4% (4.8%+0.6%) disagreed. The high number of those who agreed with the statement indicates that there is a growing trend in employee layoffs as a result of organisational restructuring, which has increased since globalisation.

### **Qualitative data analysis on recent trends and developments in the workplace since globalisation and their impact on employment relations in Kenya**

The responses indicate that more pressure is exerted on workers in the current workplace, and workers obliged to the pressure due to fear of being retrenched. FKE 2 said that: *“because retrenchment comes with company restructuring, those who leave the company are psychologically affected and those who remain are assigned new responsibilities. Sometimes those who remain are forced to work extra hours to make up for the lost workforce, which greatly affects the employment relations”*. Despite the negative impact of retrenchments, the above response indicates that workers who have better skills and experience are either promoted or they escape retrenchment because their colleagues who are less skilled or have no skills are retrenched instead. It further creates panic and a lack of interest for work, since employees are uncertain about their fate before completion of the retrenchment exercise. Retrenchment also helps companies

to reduce their overheads, hence increase their profitability, which has driven more companies to undertake more retrenchments in recent times. KAM 1 noted that: *“workers have lost interest in their job because they have divided attention to look for other jobs before they are laid off. Also, there is stress to the few remaining workforce since they have to put in more time to maintain production”*. The responses generally show that rising incidents of retrenchments have indeed negatively affected employment relations in Kenya, since globalisation.

KEPSA 2 commented that: *“technology in the form of computer is good as it changes the way things are done e.g. before computers came, there were the typewriters that if one made a mistake, it would take you a lot of time to correct a typed mistake, but right now you can type something and correct immediately if there is a mistake. Right now management can make decision in real time because information is shared in real time”*. The respondents’ views show that technology has improved the ways things are done in many companies, but at the same time it is the major reason for most retrenchments in many companies.

## Discussion of findings

The study established that most organisations have resorted to outsourcing more on their routine activities in recent times, thereby rendering many workers redundant for possible retrenchments. Outsourcing of some activities were solely undertaken by management without consulting with workers to obtain their inputs. The study established that retrenchments have increased in Kenya since globalisation. From the research, modern technology has led to a reduction in employees’ workloads, which may potentially trigger redundancy in the workplace by management, with less or no involvement of employee representatives. The current state of affairs could have negative repercussions for harmonious employment relations. Modern technology has indeed contributed to job destruction in the workplace, which ultimately has a negative effect on the relationship between employers and employees owing to retrenchments as a result of redundancy. From the study, it is unlikely that most casual employees will be hired on a permanent basis in the near future.

The responses indicate that casual employees are not in regular employment and thus do not have a steady income. It further states that they are vulnerable to financial problems, which result to instability families. In addition, casual employees are exploited as a cheap source of labour with minimum costs. These employees greatly contribute to a firm's profitability, yet they are remunerated poorly compared to permanent employees, as most of them do not belong to any trade union and their employment seems very insecure.

### **Limitations and future research**

The findings are based on the perceptions of participants/respondents that were sampled, which may not necessarily reflect the views of participants in other sectors or regions. Moreover, the mental functioning of the respondents could have an impact on the answers that they provide in the questionnaire. This could lead to outright misrepresentation of the recent trends and developments in the workplace since globalisation and their impact on employment relations in Kenya. The information was collected from Kenya only, which limits the reliance on the data in terms of generalisation. The data was captured from workers and their organisations, while other members of the broader public were not given an opportunity to express their views, which may not fully cover the perceptions of all working class individuals and potentials that are affected by the aforementioned recent trends and developments in the workplace and its impacts on their respective employment relations.

### **Recommendations and Conclusion**

The findings show that as a result of downsizing, retrenchments created panic and some lack of interest in work, since employees do not know their fate before the retrenchment exercise is completed. Most workers seem to have lost interest in their job because they have divided their attention to look for other jobs before they are laid off. Thus organisation should plan well for post retrenchment effect in order to minimise on the interruption of organisation's operations.

There has been an increase in the engagement of labour brokers to recruit employees on their behalf; this reduces the confidence and attachment between employee and



employers, which may affect performance. Employers should strive to engage the prospective employees directly during the recruitment process. There is an increasing tendency for organisations to engage employees on a contract and/or casual basis as opposed to a permanent basis, while others are engaged on a temporary basis. These employees may not give their best in terms executing their task as they feel discriminated. Therefore, employers should endeavor to employ workers on permanent basis.

The study has established that there is an increase in outsourcing of services. In fact, as long as the venture may be viable to the employers in terms of cost cutting, it will continue to affects employees and may lead to high labour turnover. Organisations should minimise outsourcing and only explore it when there is no other alternatives.

## **Conclusion**

Since the advent of globalisation, there have been innumerable new trends in the global workplace, and particularly in Kenya, which have shaped employment relations. Most organisations in Kenya have resorted to mergers and acquisitions to boost their performance since globalisation; many organisations have established similar or almost similar lines of products or operations, and thus create stiff competition, thereby making mergers and acquisitions a viable option to take over the less performing organisations in order to withstand putative global competition.

Globalisation has contributed to the high level of retrenchments in Kenya. In the wake of globalisation, workers undertake a lot of work pressure for fear of being retrenched, because retrenchment comes with company restructuring. There is also an increase in the use of technology in recent times, which brought some benefits to Kenyan organisations. It is clear that one of the major changes that have been triggered by globalisation is technological advancement, and in the current era most organisations have embraced advanced technology, which goes a long way towards improving efficiency, cutting costs and thus increasing productivity. This may result in mixed effects on employment relations, which depends on its effect on workers.

Technology has improved output, but in the process many workers have lost their jobs and some are still being laid-off owing to their incompetence to use advanced technologies, such as computers. Technological changes have resulted in loss of jobs among some managers and senior staff that lack technological competencies. Most organisations in Kenya have increased engagement in outsourcing services since globalisation as a way of reducing the costs of operations in order to maximise profits and remain competitive.

In the wake of globalisation, many organisations in Kenya have become pressurized to remain competitive. This has mostly emerged from new entrants in the markets, as they have employed sophisticated means of operations that guarantee them profitability at a lower cost. Thus, organisations that are finding it difficult to break-even have resorted to downsizing, rightsizing and accelerated retrenchments in order to remain afloat in the competitive race within the global economy.

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## **THE IMPACT OF SOCIAL MEDIA ON UNDERGRADUATE STUDENTS LEARNING ABILITY IN A UNIVERSITY IN THE WESTERN CAPE**

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### **Abstract**

With increased social media popularity and usage, the need to understand the impact on undergraduate students' learning ability becomes more imperative. This paper examines evidence of respondents' perception of the impact that social media have on learning ability. This quantitative study utilised the survey data collection method to collect data from 200 randomly selected respondents from a participating university in the Western Cape. A semi-structured online questionnaire was administered as a data collection instrument via email from which 83 responses were received. Responses received were analysed

using Statistical Packages for Social Sciences (SPSS) to describe respondents' perception of the impact of social media. Descriptive statistics represented variables in frequencies and percentages and Inferential using Chi-Square and Bivariate logistics regression were used to measure the impact of Social media on learning abilities. A p-value  $\leq 0.05$  were considered statistically significant. The study found a perceived positive impact of social media on students' learning ability. The finding of perceived positive impact relates to measurement elements such as time, usage rate and communication skill. The paper concludes that social media have immense potential to develop the learning ability of undergraduate students. It also has the potential to distract students from acquiring such ability with consequent psychological, stress, and poor performance. This paper contributed to the understanding of the impact of social media on the development of undergraduate students' learning ability. The use of multi-modal teaching platforms, not necessarily integrated with learner management systems, and aspects of social media inclusion as part of teaching and learning material, are recommended for consideration in further research.

**Keywords:** Social Media; online learning; Learning Ability, Learner management system, and Interactive

**Jel Classification:** Y8; Z0

## Introduction

The understanding of the impact of social media comes with anxiety, excitement and necessity as the balance between students learning abilities become constrained by a ubiquitous technology-oriented learning environment. Al-Khalifa and Garcia (2013:2) found that although social media plays a pivotal role in our daily lives by allowing undergraduate learners to connect with other learners, interact, share information and create a culture of social, learning and development it also comes with the potential to disrupt learning, social and developmental initiatives. The interaction and collaboration can promote social development but is also disruptive, in part, due to a learner's inability to manage and balance the need to learn and play. While the capability of social media is certain, there are lots of uncertainties regarding users (students) capability to manage the use in a manner that balances learning and play in favour of optimal academic performance. This paper examines the impact of social media on an undergraduate students' learning ability.

### *Why student use social media?*

According to Junco *et al*, (2011), the use of Twitter as a learning tool improves written communication when used to interact with friends individually or in a group discussion. These interactions also provide opportunities to share pictures, videos, ideas, information and blogs, thus developing creative skills. Despite stated benefit, Twitter, like other social media, has been identified to have negative impacts such as depression (Pantic *et al*, 2012: 90-93), anxiety (Farahani *et al*, 2011: 811-814), and even drug abuse (O'Keeffe and Clarke-Pearson, 2011: 800-



804). Other negative impacts of social media are on emotional and social levels such as love, affection, belonging and acceptance when using the platform (Schiffman et al, 2009:125).

To manage the negative impact of social media use, communication between lecturer and students are established during lectures in order to develop creativity, innovation and a positive attitude among students on the use and time management benefit. Wei *et al*, (2012: np) noted that students use of the Short Messaging Services (SMS) to send message during lectures can be distracting to students and their colleagues. Responding to the distraction caused by social media use, creates more distraction (Richtel, 2012: np).

### **Literature review**

The increased usage, capability and pedagogic potential of social media demonstrate how powerful the platform has become. For undergraduate student, this powerful social media platform comes with both anxiety and excitement, as alluded to by Sheldon, (2008). A review of the importance, system integration, time spent, usage rate as well as the relationship with other variables as well as the negative impact of social media in the literature, is presented below:

#### ***Social media and its importance***

Social media, as an online platform, allows users to register, activate and share information. The platform also facilitates social interaction and collaboration between and among students (Bryer and Zavattaro, 2011: 327; Chen and Bryer, 2012: 88). For undergraduate students, this is real excitement that comes with numerous aspirational opportunities requiring a balancing ability in order to maximise learning opportunities. Furthermore, (Lusk, 2010) agree because opportunities presented for students in terms of tertiary guidance and supports. Boyd (2007) noted that the emergence of social media brought significant changes in teaching and learning environments, where interaction and communication is achieved with more ease, speed and convenience.

Social media could be a useful platform if the education sector integrates teaching platforms in order to assist students to grasp information quicker and to develop creative thinking. By doing so, it will encourage a positive attitude, self-confidence and will also improve communication skills among students. Social networking sites (Facebook, Twitter, WhatsApp and LinkedIn) are largely used as communication tools because the platform motivates students to create discussion groups to work on e.g. assignments, projects or tests. Although social media are important vehicles

for interaction, collaboration and communication among students, integration with learner management systems is required, together with a complete appraisal and consideration of benefits for the development learning abilities in students.

### ***Integration of social media with learning management system***

According to Asur and Huberman (2010), social media, like social networking sites (SNS), have a major influence in the way people communicate, share information and interact with each other. Chatting online, therefore, has become more prevalent today than to meet up with friends in person. E-learning or the distance learning method has become a unique selling point for private learning institutions that allows students to access their learning management system in order to retrieve course material and to submit assignments remotely. Some among the older generation prefer the face to face facilitation because they are more focused in order to succeed at their studies, while on the other hand, the younger generation becomes more mature in self-study and less reliant on a lecturer.

Patel *et al*, (2013) argued that it is important to have intellectual groups and SNS's as it could be valuable to students and professionals because of the skills acquired with usage. With learning ability becoming a benefit element, or outcome, used to support and promote the use of social media, learning tasks should be developed and deployed on social media in order to encourage increased learning usage and also to enhance learning. Redmond and Lillis (2010) stated that tertiary institutions could find social media such as SNS's valuable when integrated with a learning management system. On the other hand, Stokic *et al*, (2013) argued that limited computer applications capacity may undermine such integration effort. Carter and Nugent, (2011) and Jadin *et al*, (2013) noted the popularity in usage of social media platforms like YouTube, Facebook, WhatsApp, blogs & wikis but stressed that information sharing content should be educational rather than social. The sharing of educational content can be achieved through deliberate alignment of social media as teaching and learning exchange platforms. In this regard, various academic related topics can be shared, and learners directed to useful sites where they may access additional reading materials for their assignment.

Social media has seen an increase of users over time, and many lecturers have speculated whether the use of social media affects students' grades (Choney, 2010). Furthermore, Lenhart *et al*, (2010), found that 57% of frequent users were between the ages of 18-29 years and had more than one

social profile. According to Pempek *et al*, (2009), most users spend around thirty minutes daily, chatting, during nighttime (9pm-midnight) and around 45 minutes per day on Facebook. Careful consideration of students' learning and development is needed in order to consider the integration of social media platforms and learner management systems to mitigate the potential negative impact of time spent and usage rate among students.

### ***Time spent and usage rate among student***

San Miguel (2009) argued that there is a close connection between the time spent on Facebook and students' academic performance. In a similar study, the American Educational Research Association acknowledged at the annual conference in San Diego California (2009) that users spend less time learning which leads to reduced academic achievement (Abaleta *et al*, 2014). Besides spending time on social media, previous studies noted that reduced undergraduate students' academic achievement can also be attributed to the simultaneous situation of learning while social media sites are running in the background – causing distraction to learning. This view is shared by Karpinski and Duberstein (2009) who, in a study of Ohio Dominican university students found reduced academic achievement due to distraction caused by social media use. Khan (2009) noted that Facebook users end up having a poor academic result. Englander *et al*, (2010) suggested that social media could have a damaging effect on the academic performance of a student. Thus, Nalwa and Anand (2003) found that students who abuse social media forget about their important duties such as homework or studying and therefore end up obtaining poor learning outcomes. Students should be able to monitor their time when accessing social media.

Other researchers (Jacobsen and Forste, 2011) found that the relationship between use of mobile phones and academic performance is damaging, among first year university students in the United States. The reason could be that first year students' find it difficult to adjust to a new environment and lecture rooms. According to Yen *et al*, (2009), there is a connection between mobile phone users and their learning skills, with negative effects upon acceptance. In a further study of Taiwanese university students by Hong *et al*, (2012), it was found that although mobile phones were used on a daily basis, such usage was not related to learning alone but for several purpose like chat, social interaction and just browsing the internet, with negative effects on learning. A study of Spanish high school students (Sanchez-Martinez and Otero, 2009) established a correlation between the abuse of using mobile phones and learning performances.

### ***The relationship between social media use and academic performance***

Ahmed and Qazi (2011), Pasek and Hanqittai (2009), in their study, found no connection between social media users and their academic results. According to Martin (2009), who conducted research at Whittemore school of Business and Economics among approximately 1200 students, found a connection between the time spent on social media and academic performances. Further research at the University of New Hampshire (2010) found that students' use of social media does impact their learning skills. In another study Kist (2008) indicated that 97% of youth in the United States have an internet connection and 75% of the youth access the internet more than once a day. This study also revealed that about half of the youth who have an internet connection also have social media profiles to chat to friends (Kist, 2008). The understanding of the relationship between social media use and academic performance would help to mitigate the negative impact of social media that is pertinent to this paper.

### ***Negative impact of social media***

The use of social media in classrooms can differ across contexts based on students' learning ability and negative impacts of social media on learning could be attributed to several reasons such as distractions (e.g. depression, psychological effect) different personality types, safety and privacy concern (cyber bullying) which are therefore pivotal to self-control when using social media. Social media may prove to be distraction in class and exacerbates learning challenges for students who are unable to control or manage the use of social media while lectures are in progress. Hansen *et al*, (2017), states that the interactivity potential of online application has the potential to distract learner attention during lectures and to promote communication and dialogue among friends outside the learning environment.

### **Research objective, questions**

This study seeks to understand the impact of social media on undergraduate students' learning ability through the following research question:

- Does the use of social media impact the students learning ability?
- Does social media have a negative or positive influence?
- What is students' perception of social media?
- Which social media sites do students use frequently?
- How much time do students spend on social media?

## **Research Design and methodology**

This paper has systematically reviewed the literature and will elaborate on the quantitative research approach that utilised descriptive statistical tools and computational techniques to examine and analyse empirical data on the impact of social media usage in teaching and learning (Borg & Gall, 1989). Compared to the qualitative approach, the quantitative research approach is suitable for this study as it seeks to describe the impact of selected variables on social media users. A survey design method was applied in order to collect, analyse and describe empirical data on students' perception of the impact of social media (Rolstad, Adler, and Rydén, 2011) and also to achieve improved understanding of the investigative phenomenon. The survey research design is suitable for this study because it responds to stated research questions.

### ***Population sample and data collection***

Respondents for the study comprised undergraduate students from year one to three in the Business and Management Sciences faculty at a university in the Western Cape. Students from the department of Management, Faculty of Business were selected using convenient random sampling. The choice sample selection was based on ease and accessibility of data as the researcher was a part time lecturer at the time of data collection. Although other sampling techniques like purposive and non-probability have their own benefits in quantitative study, the convenient random sampling method was used because it is indeed convenient and suitable since no pre-determined selection criteria is necessary and all among the population have an equal chance of being selected (Teddlie & Yu 2007). A total of 58,5% female and 41,5% males participated in the online survey and the 83 response received represents 42 percent of the 200 questionnaires distributed (Kendall, 2011:31).

### ***Data collection and analysis process***

An online survey utilising a structured questionnaire was sent to respondents via e-mail. This data collection instrument was used to collect empirical data over a period of 1 month in 2018 from undergraduate students. A pilot study was conducted to test respondents' understanding of the questions in the questionnaire. Any misunderstandings were clarified before the questionnaire was finalised and send out for the actual survey. The pilot study was done to avoid incomplete, and/ or biased responses that could potentially undermine understanding of descriptive analysis of data. All questions in the questionnaire were designed on five-point Likert scales. The scale ranged from

strongly disagree to strongly agree in investigating the impact of social media on students' learning ability at the selected university in the Western Cape.

### ***Data analysis***

Data were extracted from the online survey tool into Microsoft Excel ® version 2019 where it was coded, cleaned, and then inputted into the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) v25 for Data Analysis. Categorical data were displayed in frequencies format as well as percentages (%) and summary of statistical analysis in the form of means and standard deviations (SD) were presented in tables and charts. The Chi-square (X<sup>2</sup>) test was undertaken to ascertain the association between categorical variables and their percentages in order to establish the level of statistical significance between the associated variables. The bivariate analysis was done to find out the odds of risk association (using odds ratio, ORs). The ORs was conveyed with their 95% CI and corresponding p-values. An observation is considered statistically significant if the p-value is less than 0.05 at a 95% confidence interval

### ***Validity and Reliability***

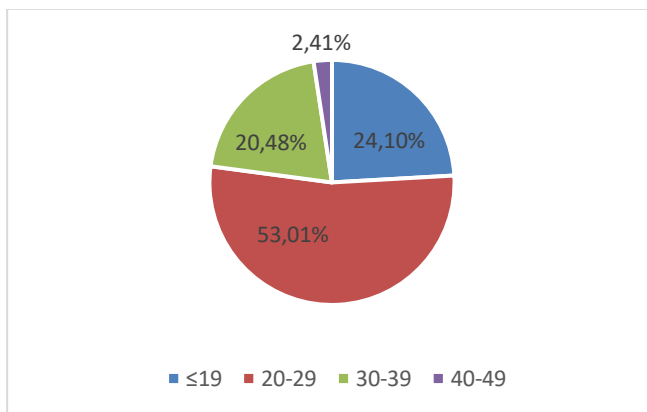
The validity and reliability of findings is determining by data and unit of measurement parity of opinion and contextual evidence. According to Creswell (2013), the balance between the accuracy of opinion and context relevance of data is an important determinant of validity. Sirard & Russel (2000:440) have stated that the primary objective needed to achieve a valid finding is to ensure that the measuring instrument is tested and found to be reliable. The opinions of various authors were researched and reliability was determined as pertaining to methods applied to different measuring instrument and occasions – would the application of different procedures lead to the same results? (Welman & Kruger, 2001: 139; Collis & Hussey, 2003). In this study, the survey of student perception was done through the administration of questionnaires to selected respondents following a pre-test to eliminate ambiguity and confusion. The questionnaire was revised to simplify data collection process and quality of responses. Reliability is the level to which a similar finding will be achieved if the study is to be repeated at another time by another researcher (Creswell, 2013). Malhotra (2010: 318) states that reliability assumes that measurement result is the same and consistent, when repeated, with previous study.

### **Presentation of findings**



This section presents the responses given by respondents through the administration of the survey conducted utilising the structured questionnaire. To make interpretation and analysis easier, tables and graphs are presented first, followed by its interpretation and analysis.

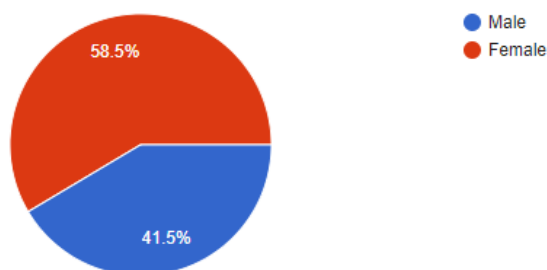
Figure 1: Age group



Source: survey data (2020)

A total of 83 questionnaires were returned out of 200 questionnaires distributed. About 53.01% of the participants were between the ages 20-29, 24.10% ≤19 years and 20.48%, 30-39 years. The least were those 40-49 years (2.41%). The total percentage represents the specific faculty, Business and Management Sciences faculty at the Cape Peninsula University of Technology where the questionnaires were distributed. It could be observed that female participation far exceeded that of their male counterparts.

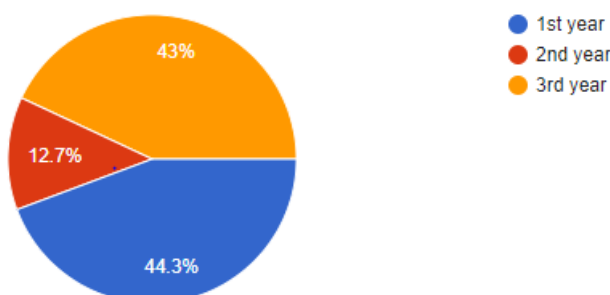
Figure 2: Gender



Source: survey data (2020)

About 58.5 % of the participants were females and 41.5% males.

Figure 3: Education level – year of study



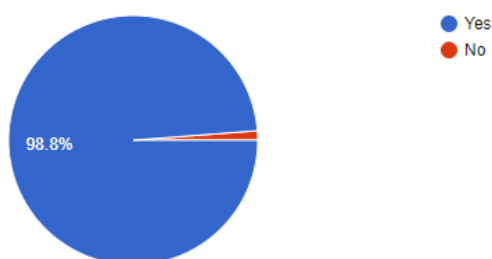
Source: survey data (2020)

Figure 3 indicated the students' year levels of studies at the university using social media as a medium of communication. Most of the respondents (44.3%) which are 1<sup>st</sup> year students, are more actively participants using social media platforms, following with (43%) 3<sup>rd</sup> year students; and lowest percentage (12.7%) of 2<sup>nd</sup> year students uses social media.

Despite the initial selection and deployment of 200 online questionnaires to respondents, only 83 were completed and received with the rest not responding because of time constraints and assessments. A total of 117 participants did not return any questionnaires which resulted in a 42% response rate. Even though the response rate fell below 50%, research indicates that an increase in response rate does not increase the truthfulness of a survey. According to Visser *et al*, (1996) even

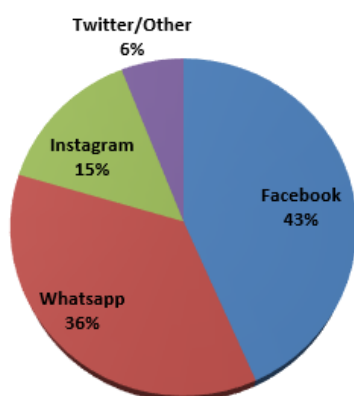
though your questionnaire response has a lower rate (near 20%) it might produce more accurate results than those with higher response rates (70%).

Figure 4: Do you use any kind of social media sites



The above results indicated by participants that 98.8% uses Social media while 1.2% does not make use of the platform.

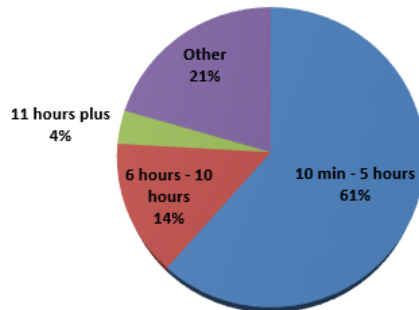
Figure 5: Which social networking site do you use?



Source: survey (2020)

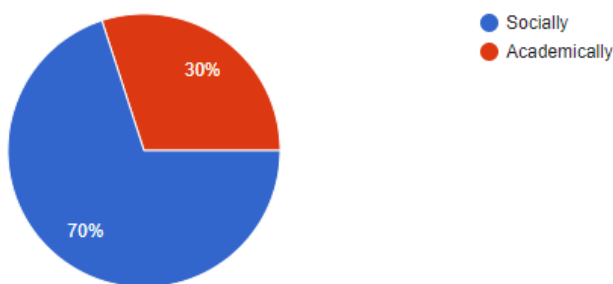
As shown in Figure 5, the majority of the 43% respondents uses Facebook which is the most used application among students, while 36% of the respondents uses WhatsApp; only 15% respondents' uses Instagram; and 6% of the respondents uses Twitter/Other sources.

Figure 6: How much time do you spend per day on social media?



With reference to above chart 3.5, the majority of the respondents, at 61%, spend 10min -5 hours on social media; while 21% of the respondents gave other reasons; and 14% of the respondents spend between 6 -10 hours; lastly, 4% of the respondents spend more than 11 hours and more. The study shows an average student spends between 10min- 5 hours using social media on their mobile devices. We can speculate, based on the above information, that there is a correlation between two dynamics which is that the more time a student spends using social media, the less time student has to attend to educational matters such as class work, assignments and assessments which would impact their learning ability or academic performances negatively.

Figure 7: What do you use Social Media for?

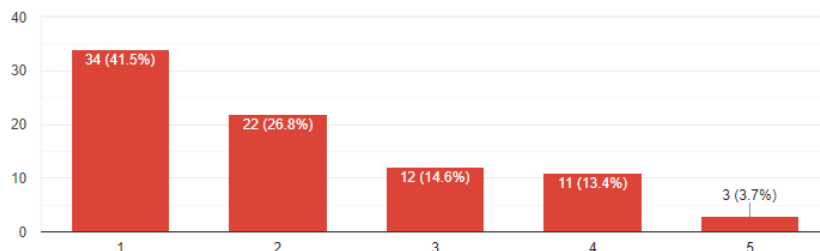


The majority of the respondents (70%) as represented in Chart 3.6 uses social media for social use: to chat to friends, family and other users. 30% of the respondents uses social media for Academic purposes only for example: group discussions, to complete an assignment or for sharing information about upcoming assessments. The charts below indicated the respondents feedback based on the impact of social media on learning ability.

Figure 8: I attend lecturers on time

I attend my lectures on-time

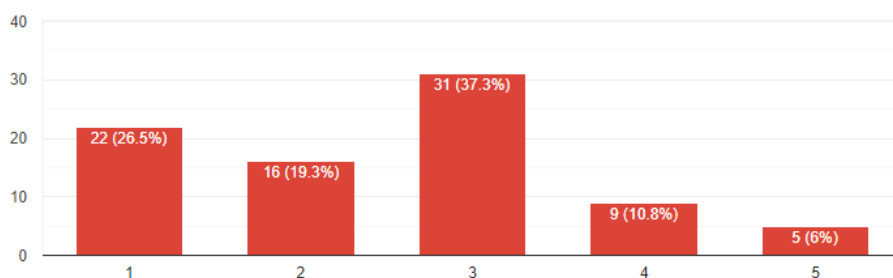
82 responses



Source: survey data (2020)

According to Figure 8, the majority of the respondents 68,3% (41.5% agree and 26.8% strongly agree) that important to attend lecturer on time; while 14.6% are neutral and rest of the participants 17.1% disagree compare 21% disagree and 8% strongly disagree with statement.

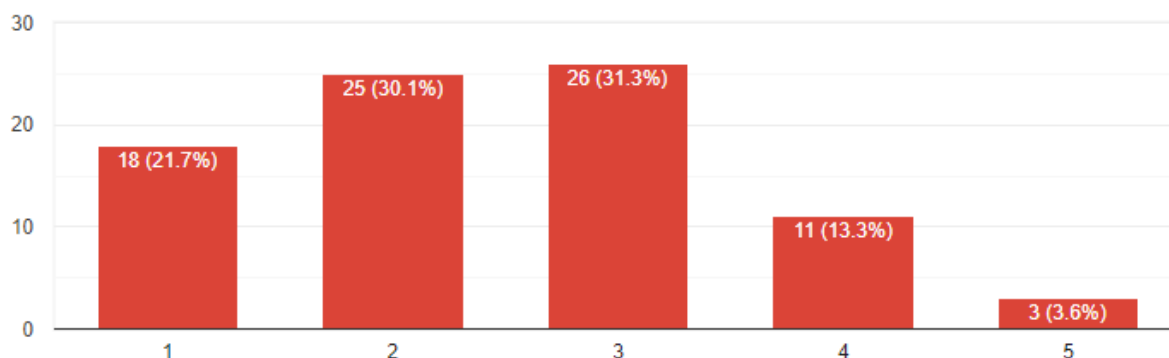
Figure 9: I always look forward to my lectures



Source: survey data (2020)

According to Figure 9, the majority of the respondents 37,3% are neutral with the statement; while 26.5% strongly agree and 19.3% agree with statement and rest of the respondents stated that they do not agree with statement (10.8% disagree and 6% strongly disagree).

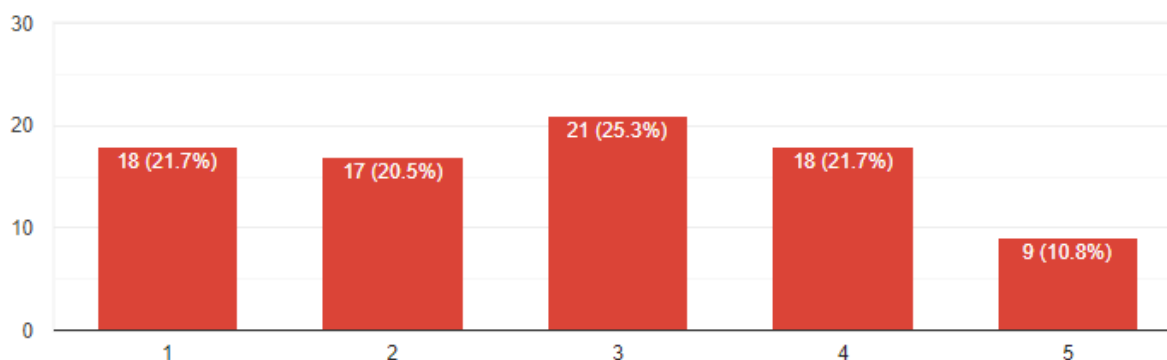
Figure 10: I comprehend my lectures and understand the lecturer when in class



Source: survey data (2020)

According to Figure 10, the majority of the respondents 31,3% are neutral; while 30,1% agree and 21.7% strongly agree with statement and 16,9% (13,3% disagree and 3,6% strongly disagree) that they do not agree with the statement.

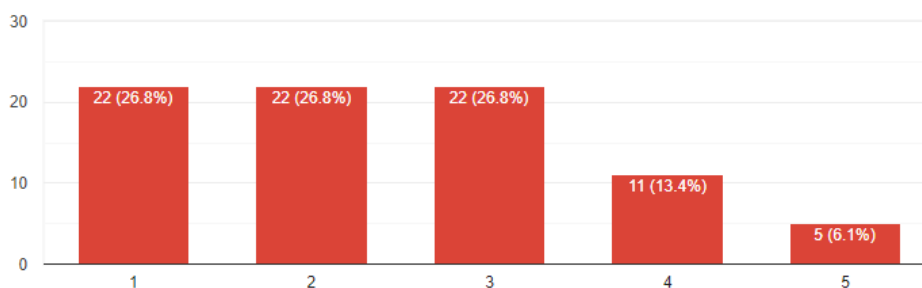
Figure 11: When I have an important assignment I get it done ahead of time



Source: survey data (2020)

According to Figure 11, the majority of the respondents 25,3% are neutral with the statement that assignment are completed ahead of time; while 21,7% strongly agree and 21,7% disagree and 20,5% of the respondents agree with statement and rest of the respondents 10.8% strongly disagree with the statement.

Figure 12: I can figure out instructions for my assignments by myself

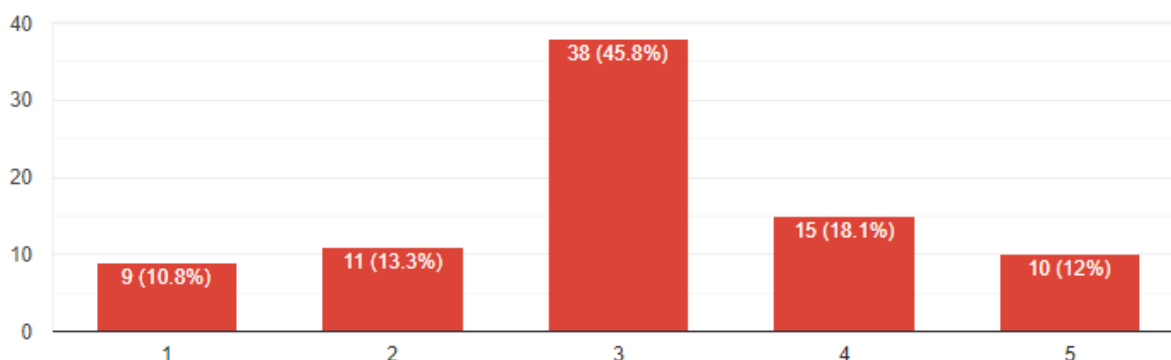


Source: survey data (2020)

According to Figure 12, the majority of the respondents 26,8% strongly agree, 26,8% agree and 26,8% are neutral with statement. The rest of the respondents 19,5% (13,4% disagree and 6,1% strongly disagree) with the statement.



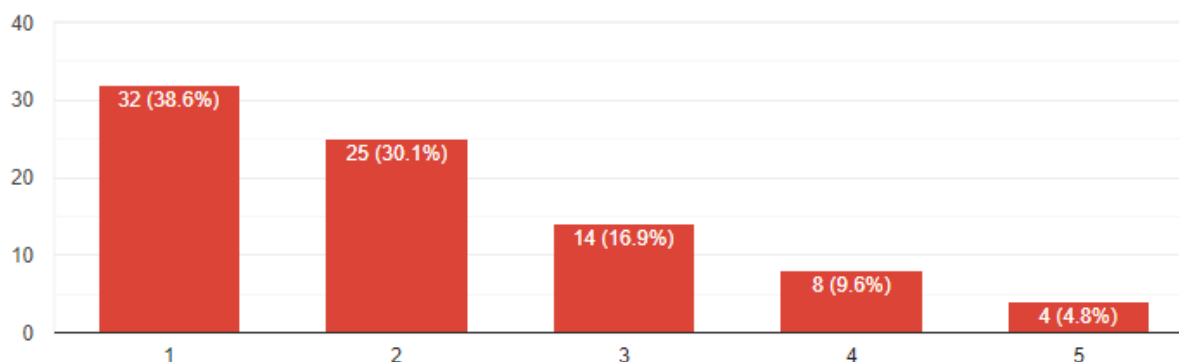
Figure 13: I do my school work assignment on time without procrastinating



Source: survey data (2020)

According to Figure 13, the majority of the respondents 45,8% are neutral with the statement; while 18,1% disagree and 12% strongly disagree and rest of the respondents 13,3% agree with 10,8% strongly agree with the statement.

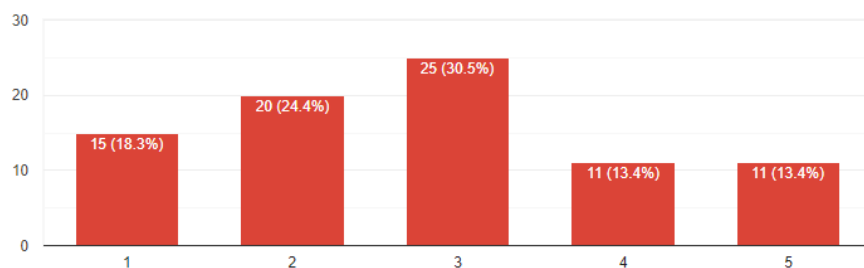
Figure 14: I always look forward to learning new skills and master them quickly



Source: survey data (2020)

According to Figure 14, the majority of the respondents 68,7% (38,6% strongly agree and 30,1% agree) that they always look forward to learning new skills and master it quickly; while 16% of the respondents are neutral and rest of respondents 14,4% (9,6% disagree and 4,8% strongly disagree) with the statement.

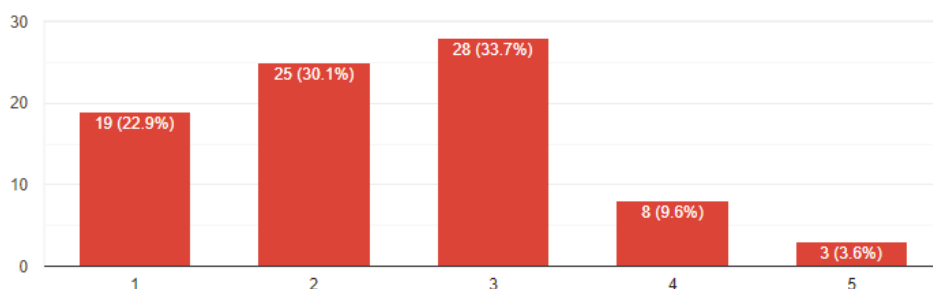
Figure 15: I am able to refrain from distractions caused by social media or my friends and stay on my study



Source: survey data (2020)

According to Figure 15, the majority of the respondents 30,5% are neutral; while 24,4% agree and 18,3% strongly agree with statement and rest of the respondents 13,4% disagree and 31% strongly disagree with the statement.

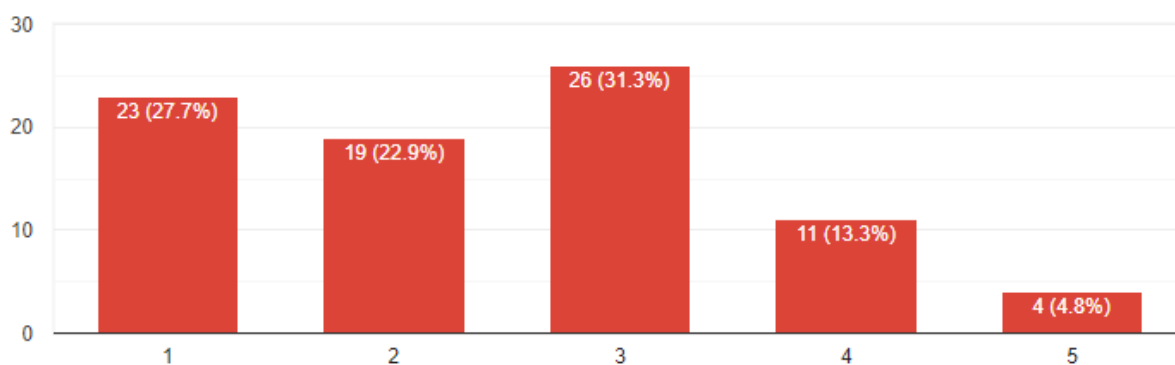
Figure 16: I understand my class notes and material very well



Source: survey data (2020)

According to Figure 16, the majority of the respondents 33,7% are neutral; while 30,1% agree and 22,9% strongly agree and rest of the respondents 9,6% disagree and 3.6% strongly disagree that they understand their class notes and material very well.

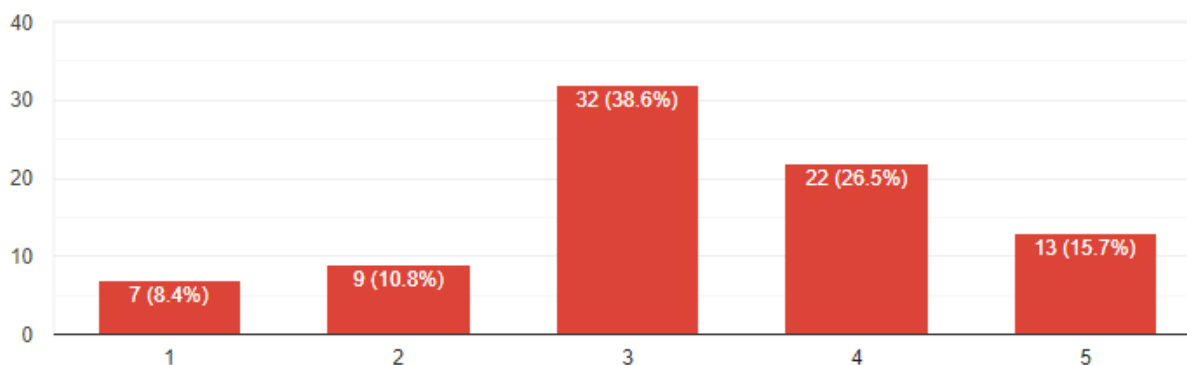
Figure 17: I stick to my studies even when there are challenging times



Source: survey data (2020)

According to Figure 17, the majority of the respondents 31, 3% are neutral; while 27,7% strongly agree and 22,9% agree with the statement. The rest of the respondents 13,3% disagree and 4,8% strongly disagree that they do not stick to their studies during challenging times.

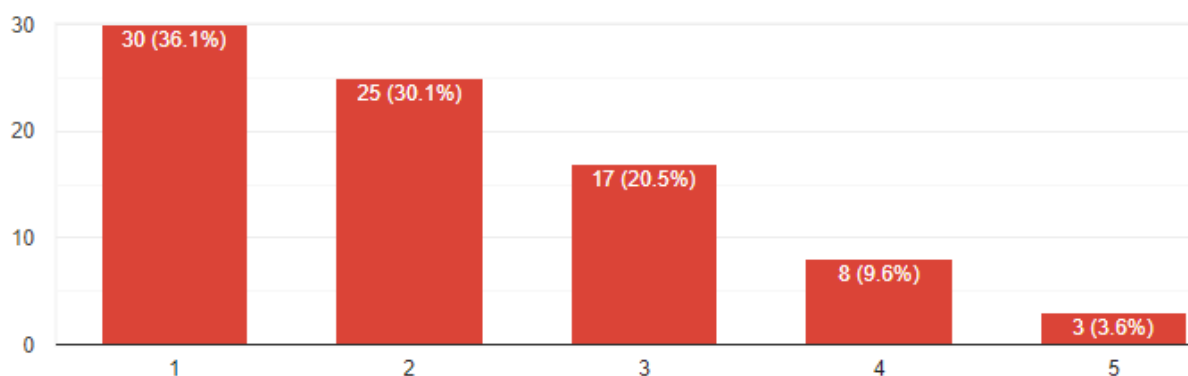
Figure 18: Overall, can you rate the influence of social media on your learning ability



According to Figure 18, the majority of the respondents 38,6% are neutral; while 26,6% disagree and 22,9% strongly agree with the statement. The rest of the respondents 10,8% agree and 8,4% strongly agree that social media does not influence their learning ability.

#### Rate the perception of social media on your learning ability

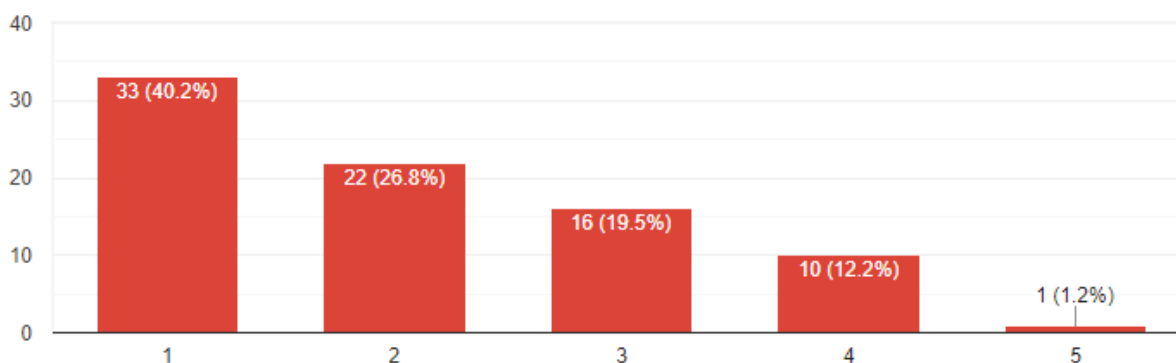
Figure 19: Keep up to date with current affairs



Source: survey data (2020)

Figure 19: The majority of the respondents, 66,2% (36,1% strongly agree and 30,1% agree) strongly agree and agree that generally social media help students to keep up to date with current affairs: while 20,5% of the respondents are neutral and rest of respondents strongly disagree and disagree (13,2%) that not a contributor factor to keep up to date with current affairs.

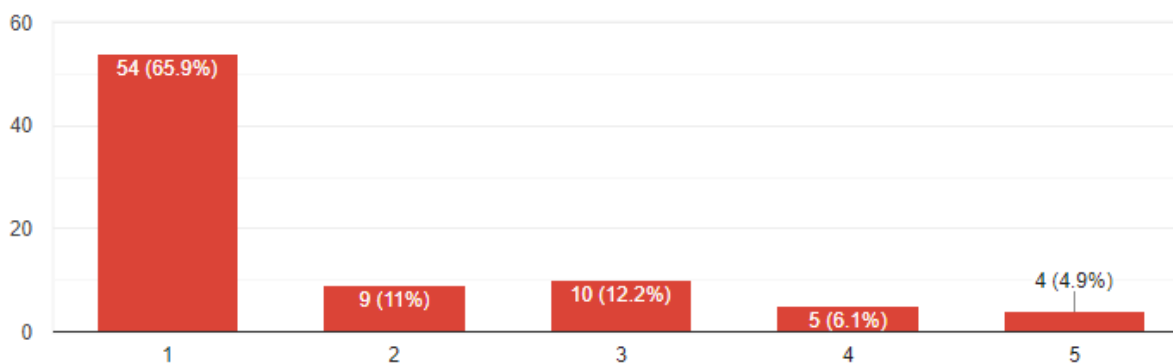
Figure 20: Broaden your knowledge about technology



Source: survey data (2020)

Figure 20 shows that the majority (67%) of the respondents strongly agree and agree with the statement that technology does develop an understanding and broaden their knowledge; while 19.5% neutral and rest of respondents disagree and strongly disagree (13,4%) that the use of technology does not increase their knowledge. Based on these responses, respondents therefore find technology as a useful and effective tool.

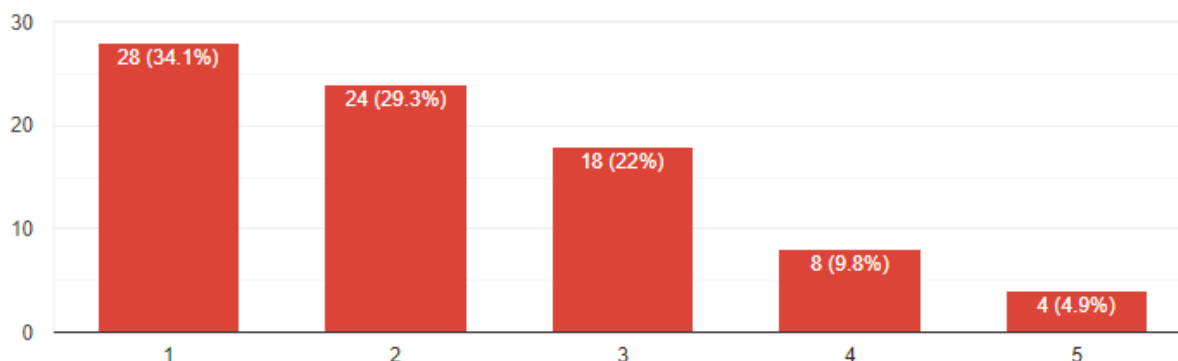
Figure 21: Quick and easy way to connect with friends, students and family



Source: survey data (2020)

According to Figure 21, the majority (54%) of respondents strongly agree with the statement that use of social media is primarily to communicate with friends and family and 9% agree with the statement; while 12.2% are neutral and rest of the respondents disagree and strongly disagree (11%) of the respondents do not agree with statement.

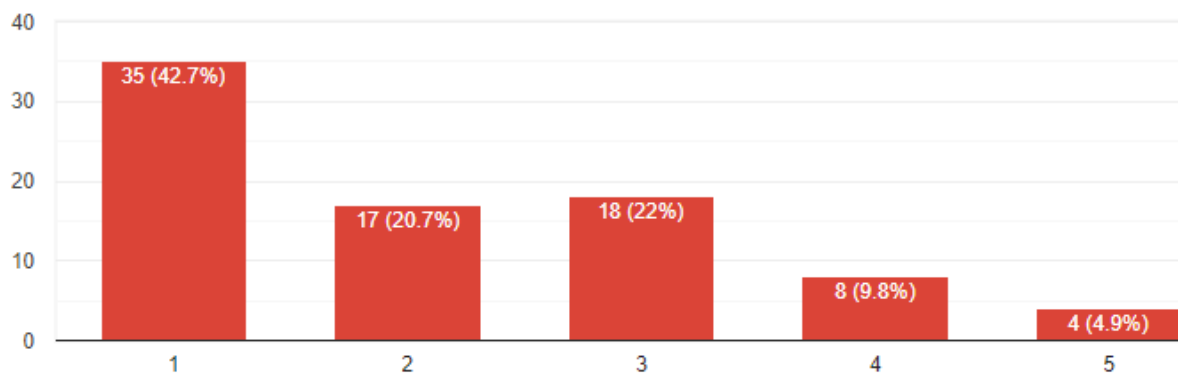
Figure 22: Increase knowledge, thinking and creative skills



Source: survey data (2020)

As seen in Figure 22, the majority (34,1%) of the respondents strongly agree that social media does increase knowledge, thinking and creative skills and 29.3% agree; while other hand 22% are neutral and rest of the respondents 14.7% (disagree: 9.8% and strongly disagree: 4.9%) with statement. Most of participants (63.4%) indicated that social media increases their knowledge, thinking and creative skills.

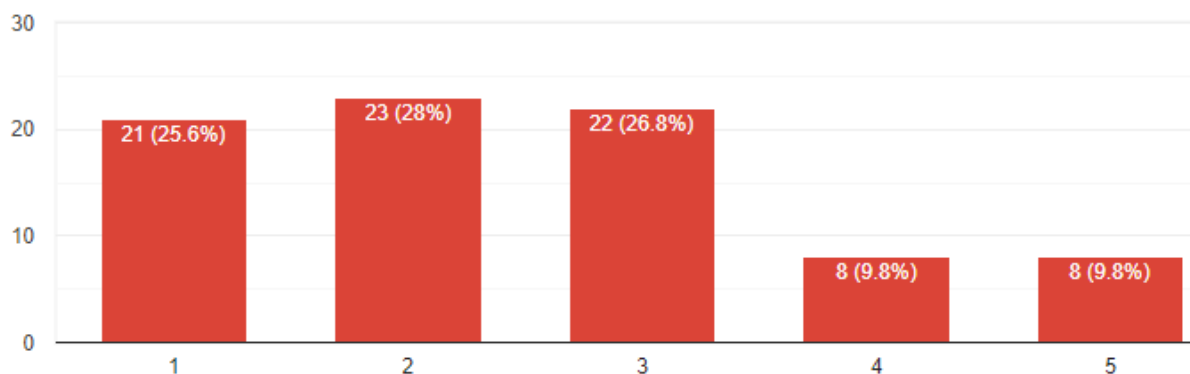
Figure 23: Source information



Source: survey data (2020)

According to Figure 23, the majority of the respondents (42.7% strongly agree) that social media is a source of information; while 22% are neutral and 20.7% of the respondents agree with statement and rest of respondents do not agree with statement (9.8 disagree and 4.9% strongly disagree). Respondents find social media as a powerful tool because they can at any time access or share information.

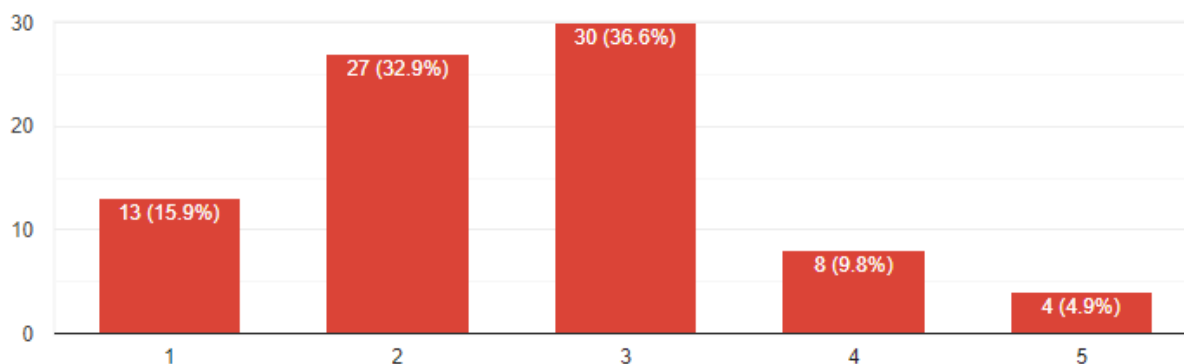
Figure 24: Tool to help understand study material



Source: survey data (2020)

According to Figure 24, the majority of the respondents 28% agree; while 26.8% are neutral however 25.6% strongly agree with statement. On the other hand, 19,6% (disagree 9.8% and strongly disagree 9.8%) that using social media not an effective tool to understand study material.

Figure 25: Time spent on social media



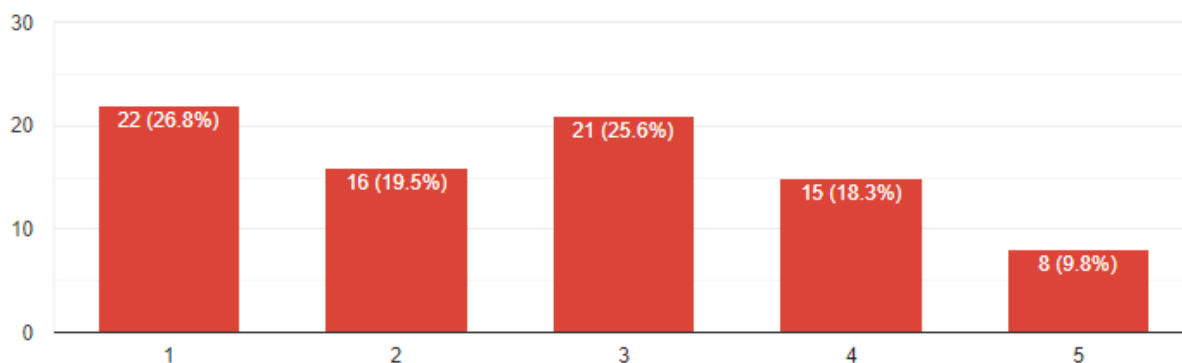
Source: survey data (2020)

According to Figure 25, the majority of the respondents 36,6% are neutral; while 32,9% agree and 15,9% strongly agree with statement. The rest of the respondents 9,8% disagree and 4,9% strongly disagree.

#### Rate the negative influence of social media



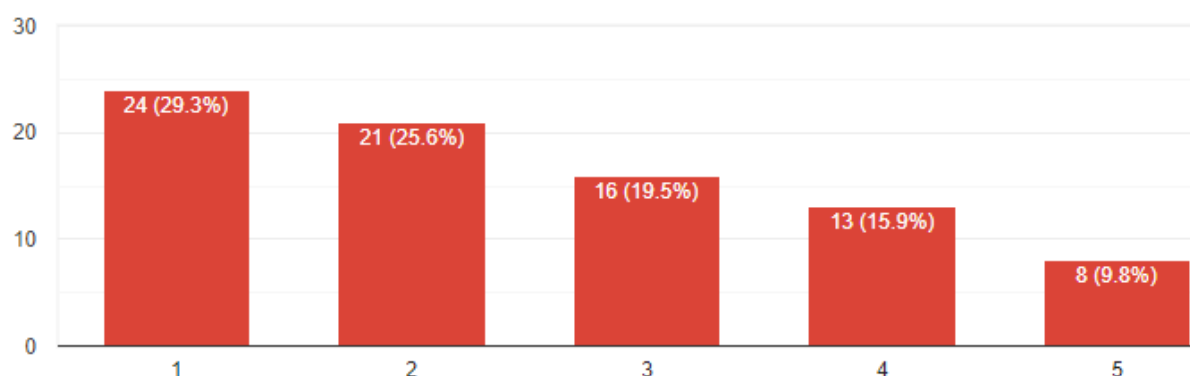
Figure 26: Anxiety, Depression



Source: survey data (2020)

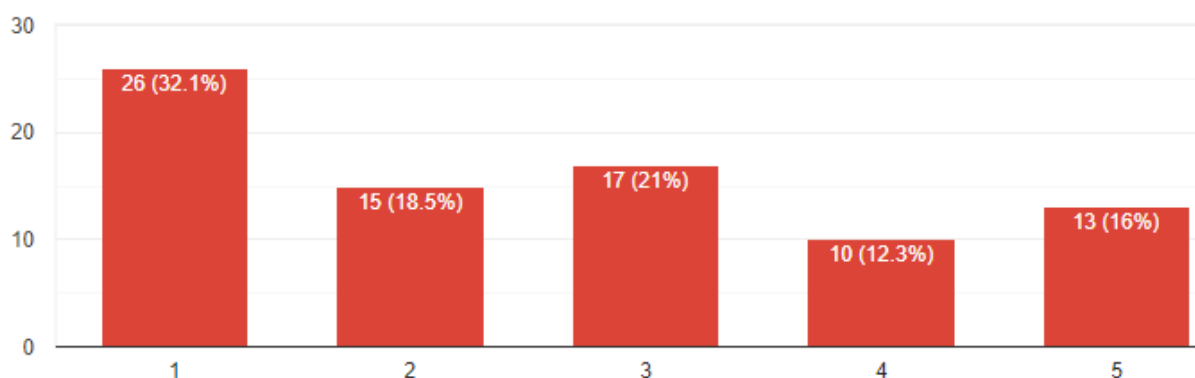
According to Figure 27, the majority of the respondents 26,8% strongly agree that social media causes anxiety and depression; while 25.6% are neutral and 19.5% agree with statement however 18,3% disagree and 9.8% strongly disagree with the statement.

Figure 28: Time wasting



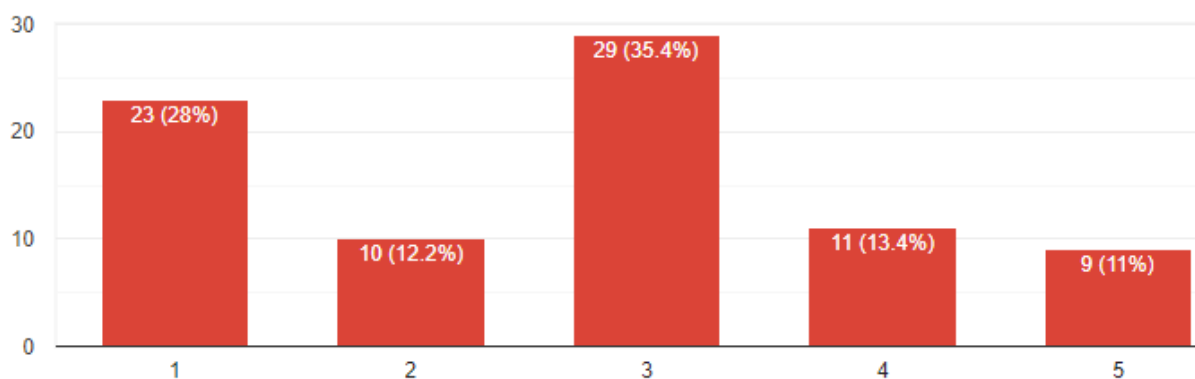
According to Figure 28, the majority of the respondents 54,9% (29,3% strongly agree and 25,6% agree) that social media is a time wasting tool; while 19,5% are neutral and rest of the respondents 15,9% disagree and 9,8% strongly disagree with statement.

Figure 29: Cyberbullying



According to Figure 29, the majority of the respondents 32,1% strongly agree; while 21% are neutral, 18,5% agree with statement that social media causes cyberbullying. The rest of the respondents 16% strongly disagree and 12,3% disagree.

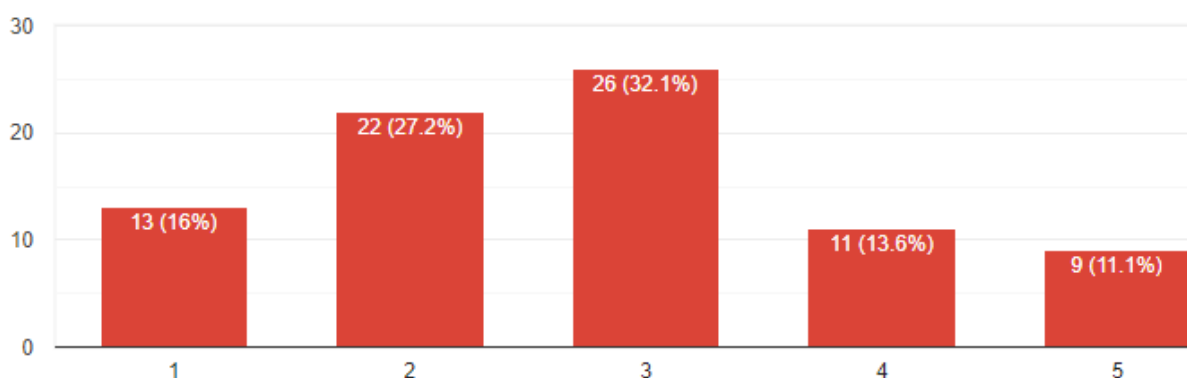
Figure 30: Personal data leakage



According to Figure 30, the majority of the respondents 35,4% are neutral; while 28% strongly agree with statement and 13,4% disagree and 11% strongly disagree that social media cause personal data to be leaked.

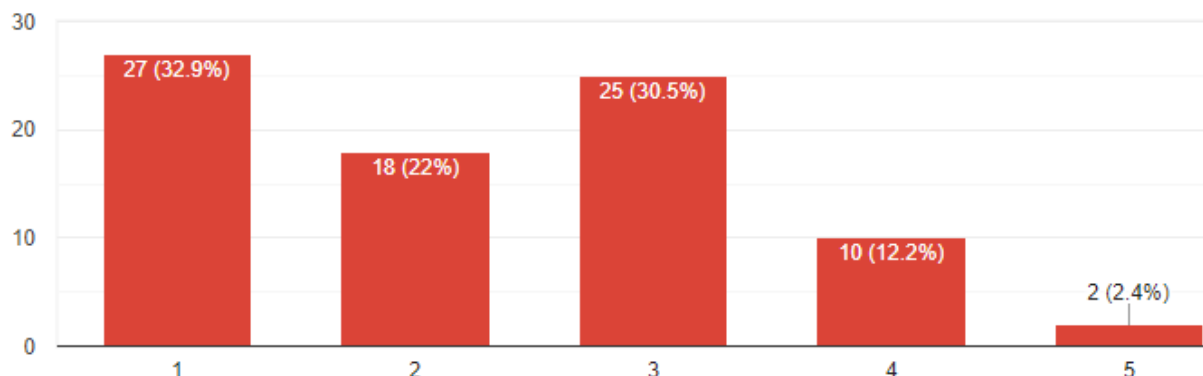
### **Rate the positive effect of social media**

Figure 31: Build your confidence for day to day interaction



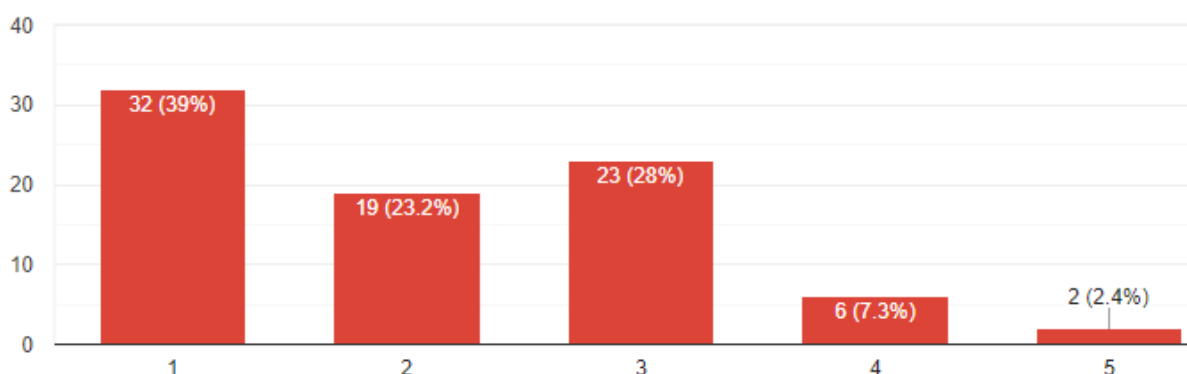
According to Figure 31, the majority of the respondents 32,1% are neutral; while 27,2% agree and 16% strongly agree) that using social media builds confidence for your day to day interaction. The rest of the respondents 13,6% disagree and 11,1% strongly disagree with statement.

Figure 32: Find employment



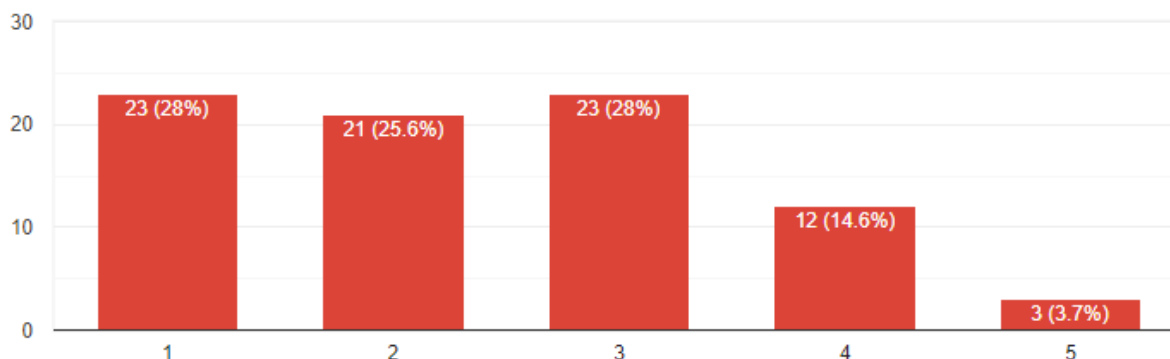
According to Figure 32, the majority of the respondents 32,9% strongly agree that social media does help them to find employment; while 30,5% are neutral and 22% agree with the statement and rest of the respondents 12,2% disagree and 2,4% strongly disagree that social media does not help them to find employment.

Figure 33: Opportunity to share ideas, lead online discussion and collaboration



According to Figure 33, the majority of the respondents 39% strongly agree; while 28% are neutral; 23,2% agree with the statement. The rest of the respondents 7,3% disagree and 2,4% strongly disagree) with the statement.

Figure 34: Social networking enhances the learning process



According to Figure 34, the majority of the respondents 28% strongly agree and 28% are neutral; while 25,6% agree with statement but the rest of respondents 14,6% disagree and 3,7% strongly disagree that social networking enhances your learning process.

Table 1: Measuring Learning Ability

Learning Ability	Frequency n=83	Percentage (%)
Poor Learning ability $\leq 5$	40	48.19
Good Learning ability 6-11	43	51.81

### Overall Learning Ability of Students

In measuring overall Learning Ability of Students, Eleven (11) different questions were asked on varying learning abilities and scored, based on a Likert scale methodology (1. Strongly Agree 2. Agree 3. Neutral 4. Disagree and 5. Strongly Disagree). They were all positive questions in one direction except Question 11, which was reversed. Those that either strongly agreed or agreed in favour of practices that encourage positive learning were scored 1 and those that answered otherwise 0. The scores were summed for all participants. Participants with overall good learning ability were scored 6-11, and those with overall poor learning ability were scored  $\leq 5$  as shown in Table 1. Overall, good learning ability was slightly higher in proportion compared to poor learning ability (51.81% vs. 48.19%).

**Table 2: Association between Time spent a day on social media and students learning ability using (Chi-Square and Bivariate Logistics Regression)**

Time spent a day on social media	Learning Ability		Total	df	$\chi^2$ (p-value)	OR (95% CI)
	Poor n=38 Freq (%)	Good n=42 Freq (%)				
>3 hours	24 (60.0)	16 (40.0)	40 (100.0)	1	4.06 (0.043)*	2.79 (1.12-6.89)
≤3 hours	14 (35.0)	26 (65.0)	40 (100.0)			

\*Statistically significant ( $p < 0.05$ ),  $\chi^2$ =Chi-Square, **OR**=Bivariate Logistic regression

There is a statistically significant association observed between Time spent a day on social media and students learning ability, as those that spend more than 3 hours daily on social media had a statistically significant greater proportion for poor learning ability compared to those with good learning ability (60.0% vs. 35.0%,  $\chi^2=4.06$ , 0.043).

The bivariate logistic regression analysis showed that students who spend more than 3 hours on social media a day had an increased odds for poor learning ability, as they were 2.79 times more likely to have a poor learning ability compared to those that spend 3 hours or less (OR=2.79;  $p=0.043$ ; 95%CI: 1.12-6.89). In other words, spending more time on social media showed 2 times higher odds for having poor learning ability as shown in Table 2.

## **Limitations and strengths of the Study**

The selection of undergraduate students at a selected university may provide a very limited response on the perceived impact of social media on learning. It may be assumed that perceptions of post graduate students may differ from those of undergraduates and this becomes a limitation regarding generalisability of research finding. Consequently, the convenient random sampling that was initially planned for 200 undergraduate students only managed to receive 83 online completed questionnaires due to certain factors e.g. students not interested in the survey, no or little time to complete, focused on mid-year assessments etc. The selection of the participating institution and undergraduate students was done using convenient random sampling that maybe assumed to be both a limitation and strength. A limitation of this study is that a lack of generalisability exists, and yet the strength is the knowledge that responses received are fairly corroborative of the reality that speaks to respondents' contexts.

## **Contribution to knowledge**

The data presented in this paper contributes to the understanding of the impact that social media have on learning abilities of undergraduate students. This understanding is described in research studies as positive, though it can be assumed that a negative impact also exists for social media users. The findings presented here is based on respondents' perception of social media on learning abilities as described through the examination of time spent, cognition and demographic of users. The participants indicated that social media impacts their learning ability in a positive way because it enhances communication skills, creative skills and assists with their studying.

## **Conclusion and recommendation**

As social media usage and associated cost increases, so too does the need to understand the impact it has on undergraduate learning abilities. In this study, although empirical evidence shows that 60% of the students spend around 10min -5 hours per day on social media, the limited time spent is perceived as having a positive impact on learning ability as shown in Table 18. The perceived positive impact of social media, as described in this paper, excludes the possibility of negative impact such as distraction and learning abilities in general not specific to academic development. The integration of social media in learning management systems, therefore, could create more negative impacts with potential to undermine the positive impact of social media for teaching and learning.



The perceived positive impact of social media, on the one hand, is good to justify integration into learning management systems and may prove social media to be effective, fast and cheap interactive and information sharing platforms. On the other hand, it helps to spread fake news faster which has the perceived potential to harm students' motivation to learn, cause psychological distress and expose students to dangerous and harmful social networks, and may also impact negatively on information and time management abilities of students. Just as with previous studies, the description of the impact of social media provided in this paper is limited to responses received and the methodological approach used. The researcher is thus providing opportunity for further study that could utilise different methodological approaches to collecting new data sets.

### ***Recommendations***

This paper recommends the following:

- Management of tertiary institutions should develop awareness, of the impact of using social media, on undergraduate students' learning ability;
- Utilise multi-modal platforms to support teaching and learning activities – online tutorials, assignment submissions and group discussion;
- Management of tertiary institutions should provide technical and psychological support groups for online courses;
- Promulgation of regulations regarding the use of mobile devices in classrooms i.e. to have them switched off or turned on silent mode.

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## FACTORS AFFECTING FINANCIAL SUSTAINABILITY OF WATER AND SEWERAGE PROVISION IN CAPE TOWN, SOUTH AFRICA

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### **Abstract**

*Financial sustainability of water and sewerage provision is undermined by consumers' inability and reluctance to pay service fees. South African municipalities are providing water and sewerage services at high maintenance and operational costs, households and businesses that are unable and/or committing to pay their full accounts timeously. This study examines the provision of water and sewage service and presents strategic framework to manage revenue collection to achieve financial sustainability of water and sewerage provision. The study applied the interpretive research method to collect and analyzed data for improved understanding of service provision and revenue collection mantra. The main objective of this study was to investigate factors affecting financial sustainability of water and sewerage provision in Cape Town. In this study an interpretive research method was embraced and qualitative research design was used to collect qualitative data by means of interviewing the senior officials using semi structured interviews. Narrative methods of analysis were applied in analyzing data collected from randomly selected Cape Town officials including observations and secondary data. The results showed that although Cape Town is making efforts of generating revenue by means of enforcing water and sanitation services payments, there is still a percentage of residents that refuses to pay for services resulting in revenue loss. The other reason for loss of revenue was unaccounted water which was the focus of Water and Sanitation. The reasons advanced for unwillingness to pay for water and sanitation services by consumers were unemployment, poverty, unequal distribution of services and general ignorance.*

**Keywords:** [Cost recovery, financial sustainability, maintenance and operational costs, revenue management](#)

**Jel Classification:** G38**Introduction**

The South African constitutional structure formed a multi-sphere system of government, with separately sphere of government, each sphere has legislative and executive self-government powers embedded by the Constitution. These government spheres form a unitary decentralised system which is interdependent and interrelated to each other with political power, administrative accountability and fiscal responsibility (USAID, 2009). Bestowing to the Constitution of Republic of South Africa, (1996) each municipality has a prerogative to govern its own local government affairs together, come up with its own initiatives which must be in line with national and provincial legislation. Thus, the above point of argument demonstrates that local government should provide unbiased and accountable community base to its local citizens. Municipality should also ensure the provision of community based services is guarantee and its sustainability is not compromised and further ensure social and economic development. Municipality should uphold a conducive and healthy environment and lastly inspire community and organisational involvement in the matters of local government.

Consumers are unable and/or not willing to pay for water and sewerage provision which results into financial unsustainability. According to Alence, (2002) the lack and willingness to pay municipal bills generates financial difficulties and jettison and/or weakens financial sustainability of water and sewerage provision. Some of the studies on the service delivery objective for all with utility financial sustainability, have recommended that communities have to be involved in deliberations on service provisions and the maintenance of infrastructures (Godfrey and Obika, 2004 and Kyessi, 2005). The intensification in financial revenue is in line with the prevailing international practice used by developmental agencies rising funding to reimburse for shortfall in project financing (Booyesen, 2001a). The success of the practice of recovery of cost would make provision for budgetary resources constraints on capital expenditure, allowing the extension of water and sewerage services to all South African households (DWAF, 1994b).



## LITERATURE REVIEW

The literature of the paper is review as under

### **The Model of Sustainable Service Delivery in Local Municipalities**

Municipalities have the duty to develop for the municipality to accomplish its administrative, budget and planning processes to ensure that basic requirements of the society is prioritized and community is developed socially and economically, and partaking in national and provincial development platforms is improved. The above objective will be accomplished through the execution of an Integrated Development Plan (IDP) and Strategy of the municipality, together leveraging of development capital and related resources (Pretorius and Schurink, 2007). Furthermore, municipalities should vigorously advance public and private sector co-ordination of resources and investment to meet developmental objectives and be financially sustainable.

### **Benefits of Meeting Water and Sewerage Millennium Development Goals**

According to OECD (2011), water and sewerage provision produce considerable achievements for human wellbeing, economic development and to the environment as a whole. The report further advised that affording clean drinking water and sewerage reduces health risks and allow time for education and other fruitful activities together with labour force increase productivity. Quality sewerage removal assists in quality surface waters with benefits for the environment together with economic sectors that depend on water resources like fishing, agriculture and tourism. Likewise, the World Health Organisation (WHO) has anticipated that almost 10% of the global burden of diseases could be forbidden in emerging nations through water, cleanliness and sanitation interventions.

WHO estimated that USD 84 billion per annum in benefits could be generated if water and sanitation development goals are to be met. Amongst the benefits that could be achieve include time gains of three quarters and the rest driven by lessening diseases relating to water (OECD, 2011). According to Gadgil, 1998; Kuylenstierna et al., 1998; United Nations, 2002; Hamdy et al., 2003 by the year 2050 around 40% of the population around the world will experience water scarcity. Great amount of time, income and other resources is devoted by underprivileged people to safeguard water to meet their basic needs. If water scarcity and competition for water increases in quality and quantity

together with location that would threaten advancements made in eradicating poverty, public health and food production, more especially in developing countries like South Africa. Water allocation can be judged among users from the economic efficiency view point, where allocation of water are part of investment project series (Cai et al. 2003).

### **Economic Impact of Water and Sewerage Service Provision**

In the past couple of years and up to now, water and sewerage provision has been one of the points of focus in the local government in South Africa and critical alterations are progressively happening. The manifestation of these changes in South African municipalities is the introduction of new oversight national department of Water and Sanitation under Minister Nomvula Mokonyane and the introduction of new technologies to combat challenges facing water and sewerage provision, for example, dry sanitation and desalination of sea water as an alternative to clean water toilet flushing system. This new technology system has been introduced by Minister Mokonyane to the public in a nationwide campaign by her department on 22 May 2015. With the budget of R16 billion, with more than R800 million going towards water planning and R12.5 billion going towards water infrastructure development in 2015/2016 financial year alone (SABC, 2015). Provision of clean satisfactory water and sewerage services becomes vitally important in the countries' economic development. If inhabitants' access cleans water, this improves their health, which in turn provides them the opportunity to channel their energy towards economic undertakings. Most economies in Africa are sustained by agricultural production and activities which in turn is sustained by water. Statistics SA, (2016) quoted in the Agriculture Market Intelligence report (2017), pointed out primary agriculture in South Africa contributes about R66.7 billion (2%) Gross Domestic Product of South Africa at the end of the second Quarter in 2016.

### **Factors Affecting Financial Sustainability of Water and Sewerage Provision**

To achieve financial sustainability it is important to identify and address some of the key financial constraints that could affect and impact on financial sustainability of water and sewerage provision. These key financial constraints were acknowledged by PwC, in their National Financial Sustainability report Study of Local Government commissioned by the Australian Local Government Association. They acknowledged the following shared features of municipalities characteristically facing financial sustainability limitations which fairly often include:

- Revenue growth insignificant
- Cumulative non-core involvement delivery due to pressure from community demands, with some municipalities inclined to step outside the provision of non-traditional service.
- Cost growth that far exceeds revenue generation. Cost and revenue growth deviation leads to municipalities operating on a shortfall which results in postponing infrastructure renewal expenditure.
- Some municipalities has a tendency or they are inclined to run on operating deficits which results in postponing and under spending on the renewal of infrastructure, more especially on community groundwork resulting in annually recurring crafting backlog.
- Some municipalities lack robust financial and asset management ability which are crucial to recognising sustainability glitches, resulting in renewal elevation expenditure.
- In some municipalities forming a small proportion have limited access to rate revenue due to small annual rate increase and initial low rating base.

## RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The research methodology of the paper is discussed under the headings below.

### Data and Sample method

An interpretive research method was implemented for this study. The interpretive research method aims to offer understanding into how a specified occurrence is interpreted and understood (Saunders *et al*, 2012a). Dissimilar to the other technique such as the exploratory research method that provides an explanation of the experimental phenomenon. Usually phenomena like factors affecting financial sustainability of water and sewerage provision recounts to experiences of factor importance – such as economic recession, or the development of an understanding of impact of the recession and inflation cost of services and increase in service charge. Interpretive method is compatible with qualitative research design that has been used to gather qualitative data using convenience sampling method to selected respondents within water and sanitation division of the municipality (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005).

I consider this research method to be appropriate for the study because it required a report on factors affecting financial sustainability of water and sewerage provision. The study adopted a convenience sampling method.

### **Collection of observation data**

According to Saunders (2009), primary observations involve the researcher writing down what was said at that particular time. In this research, the researcher was a primary observer since he was present when the action happened. The researcher kept a diary of what was happening. The researcher wrote down discussions that would have happened on a particular day so as not to forget. Designed and Administered semi-structured questionnaires were used for the interviews to gather primary data needed to attain the aims of the research from the Water and Sanitation department's executive management. The interviews were recorded and later transcribed.

### **Semi structured Interviews**

Primary data was collected by means of interviewing senior official of water and sanitation department using designed and administered structured interviews. Structured interviews allowed the researcher to ask open-ended questions to get in-depth knowledge about the factors affecting financial sustainability of water and sewerage provision as a research subject. The researcher took notes, use transcriptions and audio recordings to capture data throughout interviews. The data collection instrument was open questions by means of recorded interviews with selected municipal officials. Yin, (2003a) argues that collecting data in case study interview becomes an essential method to employ. This is due to the fact that case studies research is about human affairs that should be reported and interpreted through the eyes of specific interviewees and respondents that are well informed providing important insights about the phenomenon (Yin, 2003a).

### **Water and Sanitation Executive Management Sample Profile**

There are 14 Executive management officials in water and sanitation department who are selected as respondents for this research and an interview request letter was sent to each official to ask for the date specified on the letter for an interview. This request letter for an interview was followed up by numerous telephone calls to each respondent to ascertain the availability for the interview to be conducted. Below is a profile of respondents as per the sampled population,

### **Water and Sanitation Executive Management Officials Profile of Respondents**

Population	Sample Number	Total	Respondents Total Number	Respondents Percentage
Water and Sanitation Executive officials	14		8	57%

Source: Beda's Respondents profile, 2015

As explained in the sample consisted of 14 executive management official of Water and Sanitation and because of non-availability and tight schedule of some of the respondents, out of the 14 official 8 officials were interviewed for this study. The processes of interviewing was semi structured and all 8 respondents were asked the same questions and given an opportunity to respond to each question.

### Interviews

According to Blaxter et al, (2006) cited in Alshengeeti (2014), choosing to do interviews is important for researchers as it gives them the chance to access information which is not necessarily accessible using questionnaires and observations. Before I Conducted interviews I sought permission from the respondents to audio-record the interviews. I provided reasons to the respondents as to why I preferred the interviews to be audio-recorded. This concurs with Saunders (2009) assertion that permission must be granted to audio record an interview and that the interviewer must provide reasons for that (Healey and Rawlinson, 1994, cited in Saunders, 2009). I held number of separate interviews with management of City of Cape Town, water department. Saunders (2009) explains that in order to produce data which is reliable as well as reducing biasness, interviews can be recorded.

Theron and Wetmore (2005) cited in Matibane (2010), postulates that in participatory observation, variations of conversation and observation are used. Theron and Wetmore (2005), as cited in Matibane (2010), suggest that under participatory observation, the researcher has to be a resident of the community for a period of time, in which he/she wishes to observe. At the time of the research, the researcher was an employee of the city of Cape Town, so was able to attend some of the staff meetings where issues regarding water and sewerage provision were discussed. These meetings were attended by shop floor workers, middle managers as well as top management.

### Importance of observations

Observations help researchers understand participants' nonverbal communication which might help to understand how they feel. According to Schmuck (1997) cited in Kawulich (2005), observations help researchers understand the nature of relationship between participants and the people they interact with and how much time do they spend doing different activities. According to Marshall and Rossman (1995), cited in Kawulich (2005) participant observation provides researchers with an opportunity to understand meaning of words that are used by participants in interviews. Participant observations also make observers aware of the behaviour that participants would not want to portray if they knew that they were being observed (Kawulich, 2005).

## **Presentation of Results**

Below is a presentation of the results from the gathered data.

### **Interviews**

Factors, challenges and initiatives that the researcher gathered from interviews are going to be presented in this section.

### **Factors affecting financial sustainability**

From the interviews conducted, interviewees mentioned the following factors that are having an impact on financial unsustainability of water and sanitation department. These are; ability to pay, unemployment, audit, budgeting, economy, payments of rates and taxes, internal processes, culture, employees' development, funding and resources like cars, instruments.

### **Challenges affecting financial sustainability**

One of the challenges the interviewees mentioned is that the residents do not understand why they should pay rates as they believe that these kinds of services must be offered for free. Another challenge is culture of not paying rates. In South Africa, the behaviour of not paying for basic services has developed into a culture which is engrained particularly in low-income households. Another challenge is the high rate of unemployment. As the unemployment rate sours, majority of residents find themselves struggling to fend for food let alone basic services like water and sewerage provision.

### **Initiatives undertaken to address the challenges**

There are various initiatives which are being undertaken by the City of Cape Town Water and Sanitation department in order to address the issue of financial unsustainability. The initiatives being undertaken by the management include improving revenue collection. This is confirmed by the Department's Annual Report (2016/2017) which shows that



revenue collection stands at 80%. There was an improvement in revenue collection of 3.82 % from the year 2015/2016 to 2016/2017 (Annual Report, 2016/2017).

### **Observations: Community interactions**

Below is a presentation of factors and initiatives that the researcher gathered from community observations.

#### **Factors**

Through interactions with the community of Khayelitsha, the researcher identified various factors which define the willingness and ability of residents to pay for the services. The department's financial sustainability partially depends on the revenue it collects from the residents. One of the factors is information availability. Residents indicated that there is lack or no information on whom to contact if they need help, therefore, they end up not getting the information they need most. Also most residents said that they were not able to pay for the services as they were either unemployed or earned less. Most residents pointed to dilapidated facilities such as faulty metres and tapes as having an effect on financial sustainability of water and sewerage provision. Residents lamented that engagement and accessibility of other related services was at a record low.

#### **Challenges**

On the part of residents, lack of information as to who to contact when faced with water or sewerage related problems is one of the challenges that residents in Cape Town meet. Residents added that there is no call centre awareness and if one happens to call, he or she waits forever before the call is responded to. Residents also indicated that there is a lack of knowledge and no nearest walk in centres as they are not publicly known. Lack knowledge about sub council offices and trust in area councillors addressing their plight of the community was mentioned as another challenge. Residents living in informal settlement and surrounding areas feel that they are being created as secondary citizens.

### **Observations: Normal daily tasks and staff meetings**

Below is a presentation of factors and challenges the researcher gathered from observations in staff meetings and when doing normal daily tasks.

#### **Factors**

As the researcher was an employee of the Department at the time of doing the research, he had the opportunity of attending staff meetings where issues relating to service delivery were discussed. Through observations during meetings and when doing normal daily activities, the

searcher identified the following factors as affecting the financial sustainability of the Department. These are;

### Challenges

One of the challenges facing the department is long and frustrating procurement processes leading to slow service delivery. Top management lacks knowledge about Financial Municipal Management Act which is a necessary requirement in managing finances of municipalities. The researcher also noted that too much time was spent in meetings which hampered service delivery. The crucial stage of planning is implementation. The department is facing a challenge of lack of implementation and action orientated focus. Poor workmanship by private contractors affects the provision of services. There is also lack monitoring and evaluation with regards to poor workmanship by private contractors.

### Challenges and strategies: Department records

Below is a presentation of challenges and strategies the researcher gathered from through document analysis. According to the WCWDM Strategy (2015/2016), the department faces critical challenges which need focus and these are: *'financial viability challenges; ratio of collection and willingness to pay for services; metering and billing; ensuring full cost recovery and acceptability of the tariffs by the consumers; reduction in unaccounted for water; high financial requirements; high cost of doing business, and high debt due to non payment.'* Challenges relating to customer satisfaction are; *"meeting Service Charter standards; improved provision in accordance with the City's own set desired target levels of basic services to informal settlements and backyarders; availability of services for infrastructure expansion; appropriate service standards and level of service; providing a targeted improved level of service, and provision of affordable service"* (WCWDM Strategy, 2015/2016).

### Strategies

Below are initiatives which the Department of Water and Sewerage Provision in Cape Town is undertaking in order to enhance financial sustainability of water and sewerage provision;

### Creation of jobs

According to its Annual Report (2016-2017), the Department surpassed its job creation target by 17% when it created 5971 job opportunities against a target of 5100. Most authors allude struggling of municipalities to non-payment of services by consumers. The job opportunities created by the

department will go a long way in empowering communities which will then enhance their payment capability for the services the department is providing.

### **Development of employees**

The department exceeded its targets. The Department, in its Annual report (2016-2017) admits that to reach an optimal level of staff is difficult with only using the available resources due to the prevailing economic conditions.

### **Equipment**

The report says that a total of 24 433 of water meters have been replaced against a target of 22000. Also, a total of 24866 sewerage meters have also been replaced against a total of 11450 (Annual report, 2016-2017). This shows that the department is doing all it can to address the issue of dilapidated equipment.

### **Customer service**

The Department created a new website where stakeholders would find useful information regarding water services. In order to provide flexibility and easy of the process involved in service provision, development and implementation of an electronic portal whereby customers can capture their own meter reading. This is has been introduced as part of initiative for meter-reading campaign which the water and sanitation department initiated whereby rate payers are required to SMS or send their reading thorough e-portal (Annual Report, 2016-2017).

### **Adherence to legislations**

Adherence to legislations is important for municipalities since it reduces the vulnerability to fines and penalties. This reduces financial constraint which in turn increases financial sustainability. The Department's Annual Report, (2016-2017) shows that it has been adhering to legislations as evidenced by the ISO certification which was awarded many branches which fall under Department. These branches include the Finance and Commercial Branch and Support Services.

### **Financial Support**

The interviewees emphasised the need for the local government to help departments since their resources are not adequate. Furthermore, the City of Cape Town and The Nature Conservancy, an international conservation organization, have agreed to set up a water fund which aims to safeguard water supplies and biodiversity while supporting local livelihoods (Annual report (2016-2017)). The Department initiated a project whereby The Brakkof Reservoir, which supplies the city with water, was to be repaired. The main aim was to prevent water loss, natural disasters, vandalism and contamination which have effects of increasing costs if not addressed. Other reservoirs were to be repaired the same purpose as well.

## **Revenue collections**

Water and sewerage collection did improve by 3.82 % from the year 2015/2016 to 2016/2017. Although water and sewerage collection stands at 80 % respectively, the improvement from the previous year to the current one is not a significant one.

## **FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

### **Findings**

The study shows similarities between the findings of this study (factors) with those of other studies done by different researchers on the related topic. These factors are; accessibility (Statistics South Africa, 2016), resources (Statistics South Africa, 2016), culture (Morudu, 2017), human capacity (Westhuizen and Dollery, 2009; Vhonani, 2010), monitoring and evaluation (Kanyane, 2014), planning (Kanyane, 2014), communication (Kanyane, 2014), affordability (Bekink, 2006). As the author is a resident of Khayelitsha, a township in Western Cape, he has been interacting with the communities at meetings or at social events. One of the factors affecting financial sustainability of water and sewerage provision in Cape Town as suggested by the community members is engagement.

According to Bekink (2006), many South African residents are not able to pay for basic services. Fjeldstad (2004) emphasized the fact that a relationship exists between ability and willingness to pay. Most people, who are willing to pay, have the ability to pay as well. However, there are other residents who are able to pay but not willing to due to the frustration they endure because poor service delivery. Kumar (2013) cited in Pieters (2015), mentions non-payment by consumers as one of the challenges that affects municipalities' capability in improving their revenue base. Another difficult mentioned by the interviewees is lack of sound financial management models to use in running municipalities. Pieters (2015) alludes the success of service delivery in local governments to a sound revenue system as the provision of goods or services is mainly dependent on the availability of funds.

Kanyane (2011) cited in Mantzaris, (2014) suggests that a municipal budget is the basic mechanism that can be used for financial municipal management. Kanyane (2011) further says that municipal stakeholders such as mayors must have a concrete understanding of the Municipal Financial Management Act and other legislations, and how they can be

applied. The Act enhances effective municipal finance management in local government by creating treasury norms as well as guiding standards for performance.

### **Recommendations**

- Cape Town municipality must ensure that its employees are developed through continuous training.
- Cape Town municipality must ensure effective revenue control system is put in place as well as keeping the cost of capital at a minimum.
- Cape Town municipality must ensure that communities in Cape Town benefit through its projects, in terms of employment and business opportunities.
- Water and Sanitation department must promote public participation in determining water tariffs and preparedness of the underprivileged to pay for services.
- Water and Sanitation department must ensure effective communication for revenue enhancement by designing an effective communication strategy
- Water and Sanitation department must achieve political commitment and alignment of goal in the institution by continuous community engagement and capacity building.
- Water and Sanitation department must establish community platforms whereby residents are given roles to play in the debate of issues regarding water and sewerage provision.
- Improve the long and frustrating procurement processes leading to slow service delivery through reducing the number of steps involved in procurement.
- Management must be well acquainted with the Municipal Financial Management as to be effective in decision making regarding the management of finances of municipalities.

### **6. CONCLUSION**

The results of the study indicate that the Department is facing challenges in developing as well as motivating its employees. This is partly due to lack of adequate funds. The Department must mobilizes sufficient financial resources so as to develop and retain the staff. Mdlongwa (2014) stresses that paralysis in service provision by municipalities is partly due to a lack of adequately skilled workforce. The Department must ensure that its revenue collection mechanism is effective and also that all other charges levied against users recover the costs involved in water and sewerage provision. The department must also ensure that the cost of capital is kept at a minimum. While the department is doing a lot to maintain some of its assets like taps, there is still a lot which need to be done to take care of the rest of the assets. The timely maintenance of the assets will eliminate

unnecessary costs and time lost in attending to frequent breakdown of machinery and equipment. The Department must also reduce irregular spending.

The Auditor General Report (2018) indicates that most municipalities put themselves under financial distress due to unreasonable spending. The Department must ensure that any investment in projects relating to water and sewerage provision leads to job creation for the communities of Cape Town. This will go a long way in enhancing the income of the residents and improve their ability to pay for the services provided by the Department. Any waste products from the Department's operations must not compromise the health of the community as this will have an effect on their ability to pay for the water and sewerage services as they will be channelling all their resources towards their health. The Department must establish community platforms whereby influential leaders of the communities are identified and given roles to play in the debate of issues regarding water and sewerage provision. This will improve participation and understanding by community members since they would feel included in decisions that affect them. The platform can be used to attract divergent views about how to improve service provision as well as gaining trust from the residents. Since the financial resources of the Department are constrained, it would be wise to engage the Provincial Government for additional funding of some projects.

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## FROM THE QUALITY EDUCATION TO THE EDUCATION QUALITY IN THE UNIVERSITY SYSTEM OF LEARNING

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**Abstract:** *The present paper speaks about the challenges and many facets the academic education confronts with. Thus, at the beginning we presented, in short, the historical perspectives of quality culture in the university system of learning, beginning with Middle Ages and up to the nowadays, stressing the mission of the universities. The new university culture is the next part of the work; here we speak about the variety of practice from behalf of employees and academic suppliers and also about the qualification requirements dictated by the labour market constraints or the market pressure. The applicative part is represented by the analysis of the situation as concern the insertion on the labour market of our graduated. In the end we jumped at conclusions.*

**Keywords:** *academic education, labour market, quality culture*

**Jel Code:** A13; I21;

### Historical perspective of quality culture in the university system of learning

From its beginning, during the Middle Ages, the university was seen as a source of science or knowledge of high quality, as advanced science and practice, useful for the community members, despite the level of their welfare. As a matter of fact, within the twelfth and thirteenth centuries in Bologna, Paris, Oxford, Montpellier, Padua and other cities there were youth associations which attended the courses of a scholar; that offered them recognition above any other formal school program at the time. The fame of the scholar level of knowledge and good practice was recognized in the local and even abroad community and meant a guarantee of the quality of his teaching. The great amount of science materials (books, manuscripts and so on) during the mediaeval society was deposited in the monastery libraries or the bishops or archbishops palaces. That is why the recognition of the new educational entity by the holy chair or by the bishopric administration represented for centuries the formal recognition or certification – that is today accreditation - of the quality of education in so many cases.

We can say that at the beginning of the university education, quality was an intrinsic dimension of the concept of university itself. The quality of the university education consisted in the fame of the teaching scholars and it was recognized by the authority that approved its functioning.

The mission of universities and their public recognition as good quality education suppliers changed significantly during the ages. Within the modern period, the concept of quality of education faced a lot of changes, so as universities can better respond to the more and more various

expectations of societies. The quality of university education became one of the most significant values – Alma Mater.

It would be a mistake to think that university resisted time erosion through immobility and seclusion. On the contrary, it continuously adapted to those requirements of the society which were considered compatible with its own mission and vision. Many universities managed to cultivate and even subordinate the economic, social, cultural and political context in order to promote their role in society, in accordance with their own values, attitudes, beliefs (1, p. 10-13).

Every university declares its mission in society; this declaration represents a mix of the following functions mentioned below. The university vision is the strategy adopted by the academic community on medium and long term to implement the mission.

- Formative function, the so-called socio economic function of education consists in the social need to cultivate the attitude towards work and the rapid insertion in the active professional life. The training of the trainers is an essential component of this university function;
- Innovative function, named the scientific research function of the university, consists in the stimulation and capitalization of innovation and original creation; without this component, knowledge horizon and human performances could not have been developed;
- Occupational mobility function supposes competent assistance of high education population for a rapid adaptability to the permanent changes on the labor market under the influence of the technical progress and the impact of the new informational and communication technology;
- Culture transmission function consists in production and dissemination by the members of the academic community of cultural and scientific creation in and out university community, using the most diverse communication means;
- Political function supposes the consequent promotion of the democratic premises of the social construction and governance, active citizenship, moral and professional ethics under all aspects of life and work;
- Continuity university function consists in training of the new generation of researchers and teachers, attentive selection and motivation of those who are to be accepted in academic staff, so that universities be in future also a referential point of society (2, p. 8-12).

Under the influence of these above mentioned factors of modern and post modern society and also under the influence of causes or requirements both local and regional, we assist to the following:

- the massification of university education, firstly in developed states and then in the emergent ones;
- the increase and diversification of public and private suppliers of learning programmes, comparable to universities offer;
- rapid development of academic education not only as a public service, but also as a commercial service on local market or in international transactions;
- dramatic changes in student-teacher interaction as the access to the modern informative means become cheaper and more facile since the childhood;
- rapid increase of international cooperation between universities as well as students, researchers and teachers international mobility (1, p.12).

### **The university new quality culture**

In conformity with the new approach, quality is tight connected to learning results (the level of knowledge, competence and generic aptitudes, values, attitudes).

The reports of some quality researches in different business fields illustrate a variety of practice from behalf of employees and academic suppliers. There are examples of practice which perpetuate specific discrepancies between academic qualification and the requirements of job position; there are also examples of good practice based on the dialogue between universities and business environment. The discrepancies are to be seen either in supra specialization of the graduates or in their insufficient education.

The specialists utter: the changes in the nature of qualification requirements are dictated by the labour market constraints or the market pressure. This affirmation means:

- on one hand to strength the dialogue with employees and other groups of interest in elaboration of a new curricula and providing study programmes and to improve communication with the rest of the society for a better understood reforms which take place in the academic system of education;
- on the other hand, to change the institutional culture of quality in universities so that the employment of the graduates to become a key issue for every member of the academic community. In other words, the new culture of academic education quality, the responsibility for the graduate insertion on the labour market is a common cause for four actors with a final scope:
- university, faculty, department which offers a study programme which leads to a university qualification offered to the labour market;

- each teacher implied in the process of teaching, learning and assessment of the results;
- each student which aware chooses a study programme in order to become a specialist with a distinct academic qualification on a labour market characterized by the intern competition and international wideness;
- employees and professional associations that have the social duty to transmit directly or via alumni toward universities their opinions and desires as concern the level and capacities a graduate has to posses when applies for a job, a position (1, p. 16-18).

### **The situation of graduates' insertion on the labour market**

As concern our graduates – The Faculty of Economics Science Campulung – the situation of insertion on the labour market reveals the following:

Promotion July 2016: 25 graduates, 56% female and 46% male, 46% without working during the academic studies; 54% having jobs connected to their specialization - accounting. In the following years 26% were employed (from the ones which were not employed when graduated).

Promotion September 2016: 10 graduates, 50% female and 50% male, 40% without working during the academic studies; 60% having jobs connected to their specialization - accounting. In the following years 22% were employed (from the ones which were not employed when graduated).

Promotion July 2017: 32 graduates, 12% without working during the academic studies; 60% having jobs: 60% connected to their specialization - accounting and 40% with jobs in other fields of activity. In the following years 32% were employed (from the ones which were not employed when graduated).

Promotion July 2018: 43 graduates, 20% without working during the academic studies; 80% having jobs: 89% connected to their specialization - accounting and 11% with jobs in other fields of activity. In the following years 31% were employed (from the ones which were not employed when graduated).

Promotion July 2019: 32 graduates, 9% without working during the academic studies; 91% having jobs: 88% connected to their specialization - accounting and 12% with jobs in other fields of activity. In the following years 17% were employed (from the ones which were not employed when graduated); we have to take into consideration the pandemic situation in this case.

The present paper is part of a more ample research. Additional analyses referring to the description of demographic characteristics of the students, such as: thier routs of transition and their access



towards academic education; students time budget; students financial resources; students employment are to be present in the following studies.

## Conclusions

The analysis of the graduates took into consideration the following desagregation dimensions of information: graduate year, field of study, sex; it is to mention that all the studied promotions are in accordance to Bologna process.

The main conclusions of the study reveal that there is a link between the high school profile and the field of study chosen for faculty; a great part of our graduates decide to start their univerisity after they fulfilled other transitions: family, job etc; they also tend to keep their job during studies and further on; the great majority do not extend their periods of study; they did not participate in foreign mobilities.

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