STRATEGII MANAGERIALE

MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES

Revistă editată de Universitatea "Constantin Brâncoveanu" Pitești

Anul XIV, nr. III (57) / 2022

Editura Independența Economică

COLECTIV EDITORIAL:

Prof. univ. dr. Alexandru Puiu – Fondatorul revistei şi Preşedinte al consiliului ştiinţific, Fondatorul Universităţii "Constantin Brâncoveanu"

Consiliul ştiinţific:

Raymundas Kalesnykas - International School of Law and Business, Vilnius, Lituania Vergil Voineagu, ASE București Dumitru Miron, ASE București Viorel Lefter, ASE București Victor Manole, ASE București Ovidiu Puiu, Universitatea "Constantin Brancoveanu" Ion Scurtu, Universitatea "Constantin Brâncoveanu" Marius Gust, Universitatea "Constantin Brâncoveanu" Dumitru Ciucur, Universitatea "Constantin Brâncoveanu" Iuliana Ciochină, Universitatea "Constantin Brâncoveanu" Radu Pârvu, Universitatea "Constantin Brâncoveanu" Elena Enache, Universitatea "Constantin Brâncoveanu" Mihaela Asandei, Universitatea "Constantin Brâncoveanu" Silvia Dugan, Universitatea "Constantin Brancoveanu" Nicolae Grădinaru, Universitatea "Constantin Brancoveanu" Dorian Rais, Universitatea "Constantin Brâncoveanu" Camelia Vechiu, Universitatea "Constantin Brâncoveanu" Sebastian Ene, Universitatea "Constantin Brâncoveanu"

CONSILIUL EDITORIAL:

Redactor Sef:

Dan Micudă

Redactori:

Cristina Şerbanică Cristian Morozan Razvan Decuseară

Georgiana Mândreci (Referent limba engleză) Cristinel Munteanu (Referent limba română)

Autorii își asumă deplina responsabilitate în ceea ce privește materialele publicate.

© Editura "Independența Economică"

Pitești, Calea Bascovului nr. 2A Tel./Fax: 0248/21.64.27

Editură acreditată de către C.N.C.S.I.S.

Niciun material nu poate fi reprodus fără permisiunea scrisă a Editurii.

ISSN 2392 - 8123 ISSN-L 1844 - 668X

CUPRINS

CRISIS MANAGEMENT - METHODS AND THEORIES
Irena Arădăvoaicei (Apolzan)
Cosmin Sandu Bădele
Dr. Lucian Ivan
LOCAL GASTRONOMIC SITES – A WAY FOR RURAL AREAS'
STAINABLE DEVELOPMENT13
Nicoleta Belu
COMMUNICATION MANAGEMENT IN PUBLIC INSTITUTIONS 18
Liliana – Victoria Gherman
DIMENSIONS OF INTEGRATED MANAGEMENT IN SPORTS
GANIZATIONS – THE M.I.O.S. MODEL24
Florian Iancu
Xiaoyu Zhan
IMPACT OF BIG DATA ANALYTICS ON GOVERNMENT
GANIZATIONS TO IMPROVE INNOVATION AND DECISION-MAKING 34
Mesbaul Haque Sazu
Sakila Akter Jahan
THE RISK APPROACH: AN ALTERNATIVE TO THE CLASSIC AUDIT
PROACH45
Phd. Anca Daniela Şenchea
Phd. Anda Necula
Phd. Alice Mariana Preda (Simion)
Phd. Andreea Savu
POOR PERFORMANCE OF SMALL, MEDIUM AND MICRO ENTERPRISES IN
UTH AFRICA - WHAT HAVE RACE AND APARTHEID GOT TO DO WITH IT ? 52
Tendai Makwara
Sibanda Lucky
Iwu Chux Gervase
WORK COMMITMENT IN TIMES OF CRISIS: HUMAN RESOURCE
NAGEMENT PRACTICES IN ORGANIZATIONS63
Cristina Gabriela Vasciuc (Săndulescu)
Bogdan Ştefănescu

CRISIS MANAGEMENT - METHODS AND THEORIES

Irena Arădăvoaicei (Apolzan)¹
Cosmin Sandu Bădele²
Dr. Lucian Ivan³

Abstract

Today, we live in a world of multiple crises whose social, economic, and humanitarian impact is becoming increasingly difficult to manage!

The increasing scale and frequency of crises facing contemporary society, driven mainly by climate change, pandemics, and the effects of hybrid threats, are increasingly generating situations of overlapping crises.

Starting from the attempt to define "crisis", the scientific approach aimed to make a comparative analysis of the most used crisis management models, namely the "life cycle" and the "relational model".

At the same time, our research reveals that the practical approach of crisis management complements the classical event- or process-focused view of crisis management.

The evolution of the crises facing contemporary society shows us that the post-crisis phase offers opportunities to learn and prepare for future crises, which entails the development of a circular process of crisis management, in which post-crisis becomes pre-crisis.

Taking as a benchmark the level of threats facing contemporary society - hyper-volatile, uncertain, complex, and ambiguous ("V.U.C.A."), we conclude that for better management of crisis situations by decision-makers, research on crisis management models should be pursued including the "crisis as practice" approach.

Keywords: crisis, crisis management.

JEL Classification: H12, D81

1. INTRODUCTION

The word "crisis" has its etymological origin in the Greek word "krisis", which in translation means choice, decision, or judgment. It often refers to a turning point or decisive moment, implying that the historical meaning of the word might imply a certain individualism rather than determined action in terms of (re)acting in volatile situations - at least in terms of choosing a decisive moment.

Today the term "crisis" is used in policy documents, government reports, newspaper articles, academic papers, political language, and popular speeches. It is also related to a wide variety of phenomena such as tsunamis, hurricanes, plane crashes, chemical explosions, terrorist attacks, political scandals, urban riots, or health problems.

Crisis management is a critical organizational function.

The concept of crisis management, in a general sense, emerged after the Second World War, based on the study of crises, which expanded in the 1960s and 1970s, particularly in the fields of behavioral science and disaster response.

This discipline became an international policy concept following the Cuban missile crisis of 1962. However, it was recognized that organizational crisis management, as a formal management discipline, did not gain real impetus in Europe until after the Chornobyl disaster in 1986.

Until the mid-20th century, organizations mainly faced relatively similar and repetitive crises, the most common threats being natural disasters and workforce issues. This explains why institutions and companies generally planned for these and other relatively similar scenarios with which they were familiar.

¹ PhD Student at the Bucharest University of Economic Studies (ASE) - Doctoral School of Management, Romania Expert within the Ministry of Internal Affairs, e-mail: irena.apolzan@gmail.com, aradavoaiceiierena22@stud.ase.ro.

² Expert within the Ministry of Internal Affairs, PhD Student at the "VALAHIA" University from Târgoviște.

³ Expert within the Ministry of Internal Affairs, associate professor at the Bucharest University of Economic Studies (ASE).

Technological advances, increased globalization, and an increasingly fast-paced business environment have forced organizations to deal with new and unforeseen crises with increasing frequency.

No matter what kind of crises arise, they will continue to have a cost.

Contemporary societal crises are developing in ways that are increasingly difficult to detect; they are escalating rapidly, and their frequency is increasing: the migrant crisis, the health crisis generated by Covid-19, the refugee crisis in Ukraine, and the energy crisis are just some of the many crises with a global impact today.

2. METHODOLOGY

The research paper has a predominantly theoretical character, mostly of a descriptive nature and to respond to the research topics we have chosen a qualitative method.

In the context of the documentation process, books and scientific articles published in academic and technical journals were studied, including the *American Journal of Industrial* and Business Management, Corporate Reputation Review, Journal of Management, Journal of Public Relations, Public Relations Review, International Journal of Disaster Risk Reduction, Industrial Marketing Management.

To identify the relevant articles, we conducted searches using the key terms "crisis" and "crisis management".

3. PERSPECTIVES FOR ADDRESSING THE CRISIS DEFINING THE CONCEPT OF CRISIS

The interdisciplinary nature of the concept of crisis makes difficult the definition of "crises".

Pauchant & Mitroff (1992), defines crisis as a "disruption that physically affects a system as a whole and threatens its basic assumptions, its subjective sense of self, its existential core" (apud. Pedersen, at.al., 2020, p. 315).

Pedersen, at.al. (2020) define a crisis as "a sequence of events that can have substantial negative consequences if not managed appropriately. In this definition, an event is a delimited element, with a beginning and end, such that it happens or takes place" (p. 315).

CRISIS MANAGEMENT THEORIES

Crisis management theories offer insight into the main functions and concepts of how crises should be managed. Although the two terms are frequently used interchangeably, a crisis management theory is different from a crisis management model because models try to represent the structure or application of crisis management, whereas theories are more abstract concepts.

Among the most popular crisis management theories are situational stakeholder theory, crisis communication theory, attribution theory, and contingency theory. Also, theories from management studies and other disciplines have been employed in crisis management, including resilience theory, the diffusion of innovation theory, and human capital theory (Marker, 2020).

RELATED TERMS

In prior literature, similarly appear alternative terms such as risk and disaster. From Pedersen, at.al. (2020) perspective, "risk refers to the probabilistic likelihood that a crisis may happen and its (often economic) impact", therefore, they conceive the "risk as preceding the crisis". Disaster generally pertains to "nature-induced crises", such as storms, floods, fires, earthquakes, or major accidents. From this point of view, "disasters are a subcategory of crisis" (p. 315).

Posthuma et.al. (2022) consider that "crises are triggered by disruptive deviations of reality from the status quo and current models, shattering expectations and creating feelings of helplessness. Instead of the expected environment, a new reality suddenly interjects itself between people and survival."

In the recent research study Factor Differentiation in Risk Analysis and Crisis Management Posthuma et.al. (2022), concluded that "risk analyses are at the root of rational responses to crises, because risk analyses dissect dangerous situations into identifiable risks for which, according to triage assessment, mitigation of the risk is either highly beneficial or non-consequential during the crisis."

CRISIS AS AN EVENT, AS A PROCESS AND AS PRACTICE

Oscarsson (2022), in the recent study, *Crisis-as-practice: Conceptualizing the role of everyday work practices in crisis management*, argues that the practical approach to crises complements the traditional view of crisis management, which is either event- or process-focused. Hereby, the author presents a comparative analysis of the crisis seen from three different perspectives: as an event, as a process, and as a practice approach, which we summarize in **Table 1.**

Perspectives	Event	Process	Practice	
for dealing	approach	approach	approach	
with crises	T. C	T. C. 1	Tr. C	
Analytical perspectives	It focuses on crises as events, on their nature and consequences, as well as on appropriate preparedness measures and response to such events.	It focuses on how crises develop in stages (crisis phases) in order to understand their dynamics, historical arguments and the multiple consequences, as well as on how crisis resilient systems can be developed.	It focuses on the analysis of crisis management from the perspective of the resources that organizations have, in terms of carrying out their specific activities and professional practices.	
Empirical approaches	Highly volatile environments like natural and technical disasters, severe accidents and major emergencies as well as the key actors managing these events.	Addresses systemic patterns influencing the different stages in the process crisis.	Targets all actors carrying out activities that have implications for the outcome, directions as well as the survival of a social entity during a crisis.	
Ontological perspective	From this perspective, crises are objective events having elements that represent a threat to a social entity.	Crises are self-generated as a result of a prolonged period of "incubation"; they can be manifested by a triggering event. Sequential (linear or causal) phases or steps characterize management.	Crises manifest in certain areas and are treated using situated practices that are appropriate to the context.	
Examples of questions related to the field of research	What consists of effective crisis management? What are the factors that ensure success in the process of planning for crises? How is a system brought back to normal?	What have been the causes and the dynamics of the crisis? How do organisations generate their their own crises? What are the links between stakeholders and problems, during a crisis.	What are the actions that makeup the planning activity practice? How can practitioners manage critical situations during a crisis and how do they justify their actions?	

Table 1: Comparative analysis of different perspectives on dealing with crises (adapted from Oscarsson, 2022, p. 4)

Oscarsson, (2022) concluded that "by highlighting crisis management as dispersed practices that follow the logic of an organization's everyday practices, it becomes possible to argue that crisis management is not exclusively an active and reflexive state, but also something ad hoc, based on resources from routine work practices" (p.7). The author points out that the "crisis as practice" approach can help us to nuance the concept of crisis management by shifting the orientation/emphasis of crisis management as a highly specialized field, dependent on specific practices, to a practice based on a daily documentation activity of the organization that includes elements of crisis management in itself. At the same time, this kind of approach will help practitioners to better understand, engage and improve their own practices, thus making the theory more relevant and usable (p. 8). In Oscarsson, (2022) opinion "future research should focus more on practice, rather than organizing and management principles" (p.8).

Jaques (2007) appreciates that "within a strategic context, crisis management should be seen not just as a tactical reactive response when a crisis hits, but as a proactive discipline embracing inter-related processes ranging from crisis prevention and crisis preparedness through crisis response and on to crisis recovery. When crisis management is viewed in this holistic way the focus turns to process rather than definitions" (p.148).

4. INTERNAL VERSUS EXTERNAL PERSPECTIVE IN DEALING WITH CRISIS

The results of the literature review conducted by Bundy et. al. (2016) and presented in the paper *Crises and Crisis Management: Integration, Interpretation, and Research Development* highlights two distinct perspectives on crises and crisis management that focus on different issues, and which, at the same time, answer different research questions. The first focuses on the internal dynamics of a crisis, while the second focuses on managing the external factors involved.

Figure 1 shows the two perspectives respectively the internal and external in relation to the three main stages of the evolution of a crisis: pre-crisis prevention, crisis management, and post-crisis outcomes.

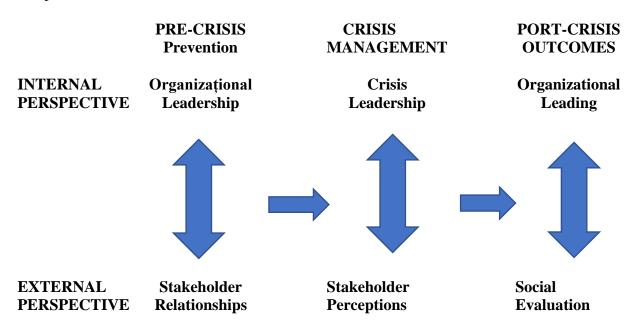


Figure 1: Internal and External Perspectives of the Crisis Process (adapted from Bundy. et.al., 2016)

In their view, the internal perspective focuses on "the within-organization dynamics of managing risk, complexity, and technology" and crisis management involves "the coordination of complex technical and relational systems and the design of organizational structures to prevent the occurrence, reduce the impact, and learn from a crisis." In contrast, the external perspective focuses on "he interactions of organizations and external stakeholders, largely drawing from theories of social perception and impression management" and crisis management involves "shaping perceptions and coordinating with stakeholders to prevent, solve, and grow from a crisis."

5. CRISIS MANAGEMENT MODELS

A *crisis management model* is a conceptual framework for all aspects of preparing for, preventing, coping with, and recovering from a crisis situation.

By visualizing events through a model, it is considered that crisis managers can understand the context and better apply best practices. To this end, in order to strengthen overall organisational capacity as well as to develop their ability to anticipate, avoid and mitigate crises, theoreticians and practitioners in the field have developed and adapted several models over time.

In **Table 2** we present the most known models of crisis management developed by researchers in the field.

	FINK (1996)	GONZALEZ- HERRERO AND PRATT (1996)	MITROFF (1994)	BURNETT (1998)	RELATIONAL MODEL JAQUES (2007)
3 STAGE	4 STAGE	4 STAGE	5 STAGE	6 STEPS	4 CLUSTERE
PRE-CRISIS	PREDROMAL	ISSUES MANAGEMENT	SIGNAL DETECTION	IDENTIFICATION (GOAL FORMATION)	CRISIS PREPAREDNESS
CRISIS	ACUTE	PLANNING- PREVENTION	PROBING, PREVENTION	IDENTIFICATION (environmental analysis)	CRISIS PREVENTION
POST- CRISIS	CHRONIC	CRISIS	CONTAINMENT	CONFRUNTATION (strategy formulation)	CRISIS MANAGEMENT
	RESOLUTION	POST-CRISIS	RECOVERY	CONFRUNTATION (STRATEGY EVALUATION)	POST-CRISIS MANAGEMENT
			LEARNING	RECONFIGURATION (strategy implementation) RECONFIGURATION (strategy control)	

Table 2: Major crisis models (adapted from Marker, 2020)

LIFE CYCLE MODELS

Life cycle models highlight the relationship between different elements of management and it is mainly based on two elements, namely: some problems that are not addressed early tend to become increasing seriousness and greater risky; the longer a problem goes on, the fewer the options available, and intervention cost and resolution increase.

González-Herrero and Pratt (1996) analyse how crises follow a sequential path through four phases: birth, growth, maturity and decline (**Figure 2**).



Figure 2: The Crisis Life Cycle (adapted from González-Herrero și Pratt, 1996)

This model divides a crisis into identifiable stages, illustrates how a crisis changes over time and that the cycle does not end, but rather that its effects persist beyond the decline and end of the crisis.

González-Herrero and Pratt (1996) expanded this model to illustrate the effect of issues management in a crisis situation (**Figure 3**).

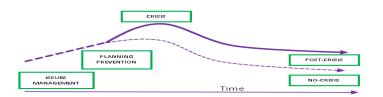


Figure 3: Development of Issues with or Without Management Intervention (adapted from González-Herrero și Pratt, 1996)

By applying *problem management* before a crisis occurs, the authors argue that organizations can change the outcome of crises.

Previously, the crisis would have reached maturity, to eventually decline into the post-crisis phase. "In this adaptation of the model, issues management is shown to be effective as the planning stage results in the prevention of a crisis" (Boudreaux, 2005, p.9).

Referring to this model, Bigelow et al. (1993) found that "Issues do not necessarily follow a linear, sequential path, but instead follow paths that reflect the intensity and diversity of the values and interests stakeholders bring to an issue and the complexity of the interaction among the four factors" (p. 28).

Lamertz, Martens, and Heugens (2003) are critical of what they call "highly stylized" natural history models. "The main source of discontent", they argue, "is that issues often fail to progress along predictable lines, and deviate frequently from the linear, sequential path suggested by evolutionary frameworks." (apud Jaques, 2007, p. 148).

Jaques (2007), considers that "a key weakness of life cycle models is that they are linear, suggesting that activities take place in a sequential fashion, leading to some form of resolution. The models also imply that competing issues are managed one at a time, whereas different issues are often managed simultaneously, frequently each at different phases." Thus, he concluded that, "in reality issue management is inherently not a linear process" (p.148).

RELATIONAL MODEL

Jacques (2007) proposes a model in which crisis prevention and preparedness do not always work in one direction.

The model proposed by him "is predicated on the holistic view of crisis management, that crisis prevention and crisis preparedness are just as much parts of the overall process as the tactical steps to take once a crisis strikes. Furthermore, that the post-crisis cluster of activities has a critical function looping back to preparing for and managing future crises" (p. 150).



Figure 4: Issue and crisis management relational model (adapted from Jacques 2007, p. 150)

Jaques relational model (Figure 4) comprises four major elements crisis preparedness, crisis prevention, crisis incident management, and post-crisis management - each built around clusters of activities and processes.

As the author considers, the model's non-linear structure emphasizes that:

- the elements should be seen as "clusters" of related and integrated disciplines, not as "steps" to be undertaken in a sequential fashion";
- while the pre-crisis and crisis management hemispheres of the model have an obvious temporal relationship, the individual elements may occur either over- lapping or simultaneously. (pp. 150-151).

These elements and the clustered activities are not sequential and, as Jaques underline "in some cases can and should be undertaken simultaneously" - for example în the situation of crisis prevention and crisis preparedness (Jaques, 2007, p. 151).

In addition, Jacques (2007) proposed that crisis management and the field of problem management are related and integrated disciplines. In his opinion the "the best way to manage crises is to understand and manage issues", and in the context of this relational model, he appreciates that "the full scope of issue management in positioned in both crisis prevention and post-crisis management" (2007, p. 151).

More recently, Pedersen et. al (2020) propose a model with five distinct phases: precrisis normality, emergence, manifestation, post-crisis normality. Each phase differs in content, duration, and managerial opportunities.

6. CONCLUSIONS

Our research concluded that a crisis is more than just an event. It is a process that takes place throughout the life cycle, i.e. it is born, goes through an acute stage (crisis) and a post-crisis stage.

Linear lifecycle models that focus on a few elements fail to capture the full dynamics of crisis management disciplines.

The non-linear construct of crisis management considers problem and crisis management in the context of interdependent activities and clusters/groups of activities to be managed at different stages. It includes the role of problem management in both the pre-crisis and post-crisis phases.

Taking as a reference model the evolution of crises faced by contemporary society, like Jacques (2007) we consider that crisis management is not a linear process composed of sequential phases in which problems are managed one by one taking into account that important processes and activities often overlap or occur simultaneously.

Taking as a concrete benchmark the evolution of the health crisis generated by the coronavirus pandemic, we consider that the post-crisis phase offers opportunities for learning and preparing for future crises, which involves the development of a circular process of crisis management, in which post-crisis becomes pre-crisis.

7. RESEARCH DIRECTIONS

The crisis can be addressed from the perspective of a single, large-scale event, but, taking into account the way in which current crises develop and overlap, we consider it useful to conduct further research into identifying a management model that addresses the crisis from a different geometric structure composed by a succession of secondary events that occur over a period of time, such as an ongoing process.

The level of threats facing contemporary society - hyper-volatile, uncertain, complex and ambiguous ("V.U.C.A."), combined with the increasingly overlapping trends in the way crises manifest themselves, calls for further research to identify appropriate crisis management models, adapted to societal developments.

At the same time, we believe that the "crisis as practice" approach requires further research by both academics and practitioners.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- 1. Bundy, J., Pfarrer, M., D., Short, C., E., & Coombs, W., T. (2016). *Crises and Crisis Management: Integration, Interpretation, and Research Development*, Journal of Management, 43(6), pp. 1661-1692, <u>Journal of Management</u>. Available at: https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206316680030
- 2. Bigelow, B., Fahey, L., & Mahon, J., F. (1993). A typology of issue evolution. Business and Society, 32(1), pp.18–29.
- 3. Boudreaux, B. (2005), *Exploring a multi-stage model of crisis management: utilities, hurricanes, and contingency*. A thesis presented to the graduate school of the university of florida in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of master of arts in mass communication.
- 4. Coombs, W., T. (2007). Protecting Organization Reputations During a Crisis: The Development and Application of Situational Crisis Communication Theory. Corporate Reputation Review, 10(3), pp. 163–176, Palgrave Macmillan Ltd., Available at: www.palgrave-journals.com/crr
- 5. González Herrero, A., & Pratt, C., B. (1996). *An integrated symmetrical model for crisis-communication management*. Journal of Public Relations, Research, 8(2), 79–105. Available at: https://doi.org/10.1207/s1532754xjprr0802 01
- 6. Jaques, T. (2007), Issue management and crisis management: An integrated, non-linear, relational construct. Public Relations Review, 33(2), pp.147-157, Available at:

DOI:10.1016/j.pubrev.2007.02.001

- 7. Oscarsson, O. (2022). *Crisis-as-practice: Conceptualizing the role of everyday work practices in crisis management*. International Journal of Disaster Risk Reduction, 83, Available at: https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijdrr.2022.103438
- 8. Pedersen, C., L., Ritter, T., Benedetto, C., A. (2020). *Managing through a crisis: Managerial implications for business-to-business firms*. Industrial Marketing Management, 88, pp. 314-322. Available at: https://doi.org/10.1016/j.indmarman.2020.05.034
- 9. Posthuma, R., Kreinovich, V., Zapata, F., Smith, E. (2022). *Factor Differentiation in Risk Analysis and Crisis Management*. American Journal of Industrial and Business Management, 12 (10), Available at: DOI: 10.4236/ajibm.2022.1210083
- 10. Marker, A. (2020). *Models and Theories to Improve Crisis Management*. Available at: https://www.smartsheet.com/content/crisis-management-model-theories

LOCAL GASTRONOMIC SITES – A WAY FOR RURAL AREAS' SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT

Nicoleta Belu¹

Abstract

Over the last years and in a special context, spending one's free time in rural areas has become an increasingly sought-after option of tourists.

Less crowded tourist destinations, the diversity of outdoor activities, unique culinary experiences all turn rural areas into places with special tourist potential.

In this context, Local Gastronomic Sites as a new type of public catering are an option to consider by rural and gastronomic tourism enthusiasts, and also with a view to the chance of sustainably developing rural environment, to preserving and disseminating special traditions, customs, and intangible cultural heritage.

Key Words: tourism, rural areas, gastronomy, sustainable development

JEL Classification: Z32

Introduction

Recent years have brought about major changes, with the tourist phenomenon in rural area acquiring new meanings. Life simplicity and naturalness, spirituality, specific traditions and customs, participation in agricultural or craft activities, including in the gastronomic occupations in a certain area are attracting more and more tourists. In this context, culinary tourism is appreciated as the most active and creative tourist segment.

Defined as an experimental trip to a gastronomic region for leisure, relaxation as well as to visit various local culinary producers, for participation in gastronomic festivals, culinary exhibitions, gastronomic contests, food tastings, culinary tourism directly contributes to the economic development of an area, region or even country, by highly capitalizing on all specific resources.

Background of Romanian gastronomy

The history of Romanian gastronomy is closely linked to Romania's so often troubled history to which an important contribution has also been its geographical position. Here, on the border between the West and the East, today's authentic Romanian gastronomy has been formed along the years, under various influences.

The archaeological remains over the last decades show that Dacian food consisted of meat, game, boiled cereals (stews made of millet, buckwheat, wheat), boiled vegetables, fruit such as grapes, apples, pears, along with honey and of course indispensable fragrant wines. During the Roman occupation, the Romans brought along new dishes such as bread (flatbread or leavened bread), cold-pressed olive oil stored in amphorae, and also a variety of soups and juices. In addition to dishes, the Romans improved the cooking techniques with new cooking utensils, such as the "test" pot, a clay pot with a lid, still used nowadays.

When various migrant peoples came to our land until the thirteenth century, eating habits kept changing, people used to eat in a hurry, they used to eat raw herbs, and also raw tenderized meat. The Slavs from the south of the Danube brought sour meat and vegetable soups into the Romanian cuisine, and in the houses of famous people of the times, they would use two-pronged forks brought by Venetian merchants.

¹ PhD Associate Professor, "Constantin Brâncoveanu" University of Pitești, nicolbelu@yahoo.com

After that period, until 1820, the Ottoman occupation left its mark on the Romanian cuisine to which other influences were added: Greek, Arabic, Armenian, Byzantine. Due to the large tributes to the Sublime Porte, more and more wheat was grown which the Turks did not want, and more and more pigs were raised, hence the famous dish name "pomana porcului".

In 1653, following his trip to the Romanian Principalities, Paul of Aleppo wrote about how he was served at the Royal Court: with extremely varied dishes served on platters, with gold and silver spoons and forks. Royal meals did not lack oil, olives, lemons and peas. He also wrote peasants' food at that time consisted of meat, fish, especially borsches, also milk, ewe-cheese, many vegetables (onion, leek, garlic, cabbage, horseradish, radish, cucumber and celery). In the monasteries, they would mainly eat boiled beans, oil-fried lentils, and vegetables boiled in salted water, with cider instead of wine. At the same time, coffee as well as tobacco and narghile became well-known.

The influence of church was felt, too, with the Romanians being known as a people with strong religious beliefs through their specific monastic dishes: "cozonac," "sarmale," "piftie," nettle food, dock food, green borsch, sarmale with rice and raisins, and also with nuts, mushroom food, bean caviar, eggplant balls, fish cooked in various ways, all those are just some of the contribution of monastery dishes to the current Romanian gastronomy.

As of the year 1700, the westernization of the Romanian cuisine has been going on: the Austro-Hungarian Empire has influenced Transylvania and Banat; Russia has influenced Moldova; France, Greece, and Italy have influenced Muntenia, whereas Turkey and the East have influenced Dobrogea.

Transylvania and Banat, and to a certain extent Bucovina, have been influenced by the Austro-Hungarian cuisine: soups often made sour with sour cabbage or vinegar juice, enriched with eggs and sour cream, paprika, soup, goulash, Hungarian-style sausages are just a few examples.

The 1948 generation, that is boyars' children returning home from their studies in Western Europe revolutionized the gastronomy of those times. There were the first cookbooks written in Romanian, e.g. "200 Recipes for Dishes, Cakes and Other Housework," where the authors M. Kogălniceanu and C. Negruzzi stated that the Romanian cuisine was rudimentary, people ate "neîngrijit, la întâmplare și că nu există mâncăruri alese" (Eng. "carelessly, at random and no dainty food.")

"Mici/ mititei" meat rolls appeared in the Romanians' meals over a century ago, thanks to innkeeper Iordache Ionescu. He was famous in Bucharest for his exceptional sausage recipe and discovered the "mici/ mititei" meat rolls by chance. One evening, the innkeeper ran out of sausage coatings and had to put the filling alone on the grill.

Along with "România Mare," Romanian gastronomy became modern. Luxury restaurants were inaugurated in the big Romanian cities, where master chefs trained in Western Europe used to cook, and there were also the famous slum pubs and bistros which were often the most appreciated. The most famous was by far Casa Capṣa - confectionery, hotel, restaurant, the property of Grigore Capṣa, whose own recipes had unparalleled taste and refinement. Additionally, there was the famous Joffre cake specially created by modifying an original recipe for the Bucharest festive dinner in honour of Marshal Joseph Joffre.

The communist period was famous by the fact that at least in the beginning they attempted to remove Western-influence dishes as much as possible (served more often and exclusively for the high-class dinners of the time) and gradually ended up with rationalized nutrition. The years right after the 90's were characterized by the rapid take-over of fast-food or junk-food dishes to the detriment of traditional Romanian dishes.

In conclusion, it can be said that for a long time gastronomy used to be something related only to wealth, at the same time a prerogative and concern of the elites of the time. Since the latter half of the twentieth century, advances in all areas of social life, the chances of

easy access to food have changed that perspective. There have been numberless innovations in the world of cooking, starting with the Nouvelle Cuisine Trend whose representatives focus on fresh, simple and tasty food, and also on simple and elegant food appearance and plating. The idea of cooking complicated dishes which used to require much carefulness and had to be served in a pretentious way has been given up. Consistent intricate dishes have been replaced by quickly healthily cooked food, in small portions, elegantly presented, addressing all five senses, the visual being as important as the gustatory one.

Late 20th century also meant the emergence of *fusion* cuisine characterized by the fact that it allows for and promises the most appetizing cultural transfers. It combines elements typical of several culinary traditions without identifying itself with any of them, starting from its openness to new experiences while observing the growing sophistication of tastes. The trend has taken various forms ranging from the inspired combination in a delicious synthesis of several of regional cooking ingredients and methods on to fantasy explosions which combine elements of various traditions with new ideas in order to create original recipes. It is the dawn of globalization on the plate, combining traditional products with cooking methods, but scientifically regarding what processes take place in the pan. The concept of molecular gastronomy was launched in 1969 to show how physics and chemistry can work together in food preparation.

The 3rd millennium brought about new gastronomic challenges which are generated by a new living standard and implicitly eating habits. Against such a background, there is a risk of forgetting certain traditional dishes, even a certain food culture. It is about a tendency to ignore culinary diversity to the detriment of standardizing taste when it comes to food. Therefore, there is a trend that is spreading both aggressively and efficiently: the *fast-food* concept, very well adapted to the hectic life nowadays, which has profoundly changed the concept of food and meal. Against the background of such gastronomic offensive, another phenomenon has occurred - *slow-food* - an eco-gastronomic trend symbolized by a snail, which started from the idea that the rampant industrialization of food markets and the globalization are destroying culinary diversity, part of cultural diversity.

The phenomenon is also present in Romania, with the confrontation between old, rich gastronomic tradition, built during thousands of years ago versus modernity, namely fast food. Feeding oneself is not just simply getting energy supplies. It means much more than that, it means the entire millennial human existence.

Local Gastronomic Sites – A Factor in Rural Areas' Sustainable Development

Local gastronomic sites are private kitchens inside rural houses where culinary products are prepared and served, according to area-specific recipes, directly to the end-user, for a maximum number of 12 people; culinary products must be cooked from raw materials coming mainly from the primary production of their own household as well as from local producers or from officially approved/registered establishments according to health, veterinary, and food safety standards. The new type of public catering unit has been regulated by Order no. 106/2019 on amending and supplementing the Veterinary-Sanitary and Food Safety Regulation for the veterinary-sanitary-food safety registration procedure of obtaining and directly selling/retailing animal or non-animal origin food, as well as of producing, processing, storing, transporting and marketing non-animal origin food products, approved by Order no. 111/2008 of the President of the Romanian National Sanitary Veterinary and Food Safety Authority.

Local gastronomic sites known as family-owned catering units have the following specific elements:

• they can operate in all-year/seasonal households, agricultural farms, fish farms, sheepfolds, wine/fruit farms, wineries, hunting places;

- owners and family members can prepare and serve food directly to end-users (no more than 12 people simultaneously) in their own households;
- food products can be obtained both from primary production in their own farms/households and from other local producers;
- the raw materials used to prepare food must come only from authorized/registered sanitary-veterinary- food safety units;
- in terms of the share of primary products and other raw materials/food, they must predominantly come from their own households or from local producers.

The menus in the local gastronomic sites include a limited range of dishes: at most two kinds of soups or sour soups, two main courses and possibly dessert, in line with the characteristics of the area.

The conditions to set up a local gastronomic site are:

- any form of legal organization such as: authorized natural person, sole proprietorship, family-owned enterprise or limited liability company;
- registration in line with veterinary, health and food safety standards also in compliance with the provisions of Order no. 111/2008 of the Romanian Sanitary Veterinary and Food Safety Authority (ANSVSA), namely observing the steps needed for site registration as restaurants, as defined in Annex 1, Chapter II, Point 1, Letter a) of ANSVSA Order no. 111/2008 with subsequent amendments and completions;
- serving food produced only by themselves and by their family members, and the health of all those preparing food must be checked periodically;
 - registration with the Romanian Agency of Fiscal Administration (ANAF).

In order to get a sanitary-veterinary registration, an application must be submitted (including a minimum of data such as: name and address of the unit, object of activity, places to sell products obtained within one's own unit, number of working staff, etc.) to a county sanitary-veterinary department for food safety, or to such department in Bucharest also including other documents such as:

- design of the place where production activities are to take place;
- a copy of the confirmation certificate or, as the case may be, of the registration certificate issued by the trade register office attached to the court whose territorial area the unit carries out its activity in;
 - a copy of the identity document of the economic operator's legal representative;
 - a proof that the tariffs laid down by the specific legislation in force have been paid.

Before issuing a sanitary-veterinary and food safety registration document for the activities carried out within retail units, the competent sanitary-veterinary department shall verify the submitted documents and carry out an on-the-spot inspection. They check whether those places follow the legislation in force, namely they must be clean and well maintained in such a way as to avoid contamination, and must be provided with adequate sanitation and refrigeration facilities for a proper quality of the working environment and of the products used, and also for keeping and checking appropriate temperature conditions of food products.

The development of rural communities and local tourism can also be achieved by setting up local gastronomic sites in Romanian villages where one can consume dishes made from local products obtained by traditional, authentic methods. Thus, the gastronomic circuit directly contributes to the sustainable development of a rural area, ensuring the harmonization of links among tourism, economic development and environment preservation. It contributes, among others, to the creation of new jobs in rural areas, to keeping the cohesion of local communities and to preserving culinary traditions.

A local gastronomic site is an efficient way to capitalize on the products of peasant households in family-type catering units, taking account of the specifics of each tourist area/region, with well-known gastronomic traditions. Unlike restaurants or guesthouses, local gastronomic sites offer tourists the opportunity to benefit from traditional local dishes produced and served directly by family members in their own households, in accordance with the legal requirements concerning hygiene and without affecting consumers' health.

Conclusions

The natural and anthropic legacy of the Romanian village is invaluable. The beauty of the people and places, the traditions, the customs dating back thousands of years, the specific gastronomy, all make the Romanian village an irresistible tourist attraction nowadays. The development of rural communities and local tourism can also be achieved by setting up local gastronomic sites in Romanian villages, where one can consume dishes made from local products obtained by traditional authentic methods. Thus, the products from peasant households in a local community are highly capitalized, meals are served in genuine settings, and the village becomes again a place for socialization and cultural communion.

Local gastronomic sites give extra charm to a Romanian village by generating attractiveness and added value in peasant households, thus consolidating the identity profile of an area.

A local gastronomic site is an efficient way to capitalize on the products of peasant households in family-type catering units, taking account of the specifics of each tourist area/region, with well-known gastronomic traditions. Unlike restaurants or guesthouses, local gastronomic sites offer tourists the opportunity to benefit from traditional local dishes produced and served directly by family members in their own households in accordance with the legal requirements concerning hygiene and without affecting consumers' health.

Local gastronomic sites are new reliable opportunities for rural and gastronomic tourism enthusiasts for whom the authenticity of culinary experiences prevails, thus contributing to the development of rural environment in a sustainable way, by creating new jobs, keeping the cohesion of local communities, and preserving culinary traditions in harmony with nature.

References

- 1. *** Manualul IMM-urilor în gastronomia locală;
- 2. *** ASOCIAȚIA IVAN PATZAICHIN- MILA 23, Ghid de bune practici de igienă și producție culinară Punct Gastronomic Local;
 - 3. www.ansvsa.ro

COMMUNICATION MANAGEMENT IN PUBLIC INSTITUTIONS

Liliana – Victoria Gherman¹

Abstract

Communication is considered a valuable tool for obtaining high performance within an organization. In public institutions, the specialists in communication represent the strategic counsellors of the top management.

The managerial communication should focus on the interpersonal communication in the institutional framework. In this way, communication must support the achievement of the institution's mission.

An efficient communication process is determined by knowing the institutions activities, the system of decision making and receiving the feedback.

Communication, as the function of the modern management, must ensure the adequate circulation of the information inside the institution, but also in the external context by using the modern means of communication.

Keywords: management, communication, public institution, information, modern means of communication

J.E.L Classification: D83

As a function of management, communication is the process of ensuring the correct flow of information within the organisation and in its relations with the external environment; in the latter case, the aim is above all to obtain useful information about relevant organisations and to disseminate promotional information about one's own organisation. The complexity of diversified activities and information in a highly competitive climate makes communication a key management function. It is very well known that the one that has the most complete information, in the most operational way, has the power. (Puiu A., 2021)

Communication plays an essential role in public institutions, and the success of the organisation depends largely on its quality. Nowadays, activities are almost inconceivable if there is no effective and polite communication between managers, employees and citizens.

Communication is a system of transmitting messages which can be mental processes i.e. conclusions, thoughts, inner decisions or physical expressions i.e. attitudes, gestures etc. People take the message, process it to understand it and launch it, and they can bring some changes as well.

Communication takes place in a specific setting, which has several distinct aspects: physical, cultural, socio-psychological and temporal.

The physical aspect refers to the concrete physical environment, the microclimate; the cultural aspect takes into account traditions, lifestyle, moral and local norms; the socio-psychological aspect refers to the position and social status of the interlocutors and the formality of their relationships; the temporal aspect denotes the validity of time, i.e. the moment and chronological order in which the message is placed in a sequence of other consecutive messages.

In the process of communication, actions constitute a rule of the game, an ethic based on a double benefit, i.e. in the interest of both partners. An intelligent message acts on the negotiator's psyche, sometimes leaving him or her not fully aware of this aspect and under the impression that he or she is in fact deciding according to his or her own interests.

.

¹ Associate Professor, PhD, "Constantin Brâncoveanu" University of Pitesti, Faculty of Management Marketing in Economic Affairs Braila, email address: liliana.gherman@yahoo.com

Figure 1

Perception Note: The way of sending the information system Communication system Knowledge Symbols The way of sending the information

If we look at the communication process as a system, the processes to be analysed are: perception, memory and delivery of information, knowledge for obtaining and interpreting information, symbols and their request, the way of sending the message.

Communication should not be reduced to a simple expression of problems. From this point of view, there is a difference between 'saying' and 'communicating' or between 'hearing' and 'listening'. Saying is a one-way process, while communicating involves the transfer of information in both directions (Cândea R. M. and Cândea D., 1996).

When we refer to communication we consider three components: outward communication which includes verbal and nonverbal actions noticed by the interlocutors; metacommunication which refers to the perceived meaning of the message i.e. what is understood beyond the word; intra-communication is the communication process by which we communicate a received message, we do not argue ourselves, we do not answer questions, we do not admonish, we "talk" to ourselves.

An important role in communication is played by the message, which is the complex element of the communication process. A message has at least two dimensions: the content, which refers to information about phenomena, and the relationship, which refers to information about the correlation between phenomena. The message can be conveyed through verbal language, i.e. using words, and through non-verbal languages that use something else than words as a means of expression, e.g. body language, language of things, language of space, language of time.

Verbal communication plays a key role in public institutions. Communication must take into account the values of civilisation, economic, political, natural, religious and specific factors, as well as the individual characteristics of the interlocutors.

Verbal communication allows a logical interplay of questions and answers in a flexible spontaneous flow, which is not possible when negotiations take place in writing or by other techniques.

A number of activities are carried out through verbal communication: obtaining and passing on information; drawing up proposals; expressing opinions, whether convergent or divergent; reaching agreement and concluding deals or disagreement, with its effects of blocking negotiations or postponing them.

Another quality of verbal communication concerns the possibility of clarifying certain issues during discussions. The role of clarification is mainly to test the degree of understanding of the phenomenon and the common conclusions.

There are known requirements and restrictions in verbal communication:

- full respect for the principle of politeness in expression, which is distinguished by complexity and elements of refinement. In order to achieve this principle, it is necessary to decode the socio-cultural background of the partner, because phrases that are normal and natural for us may be offensive to the partner. Politeness has been likened to a golden key that

opens all doors, but at the same time it should be borne in mind that excess politeness, excess ceremony is often as badly rated as lack of politeness.

In verbal communication one should avoid "suicide phrases" such as "you didn't understand me", "I wasted so much time with you", "I didn't travel thousands of kilometers to deal with anyone", etc.

- **the moderation of speech** means avoiding extremes, such as: presenting one's own problem as a monologue, which can be psychologically a form of aggression towards the interlocutor; entering into a so-called silence which leads to the interruption of the discussion.

Regarding the first aspect, it is necessary to speak but not interrupt the partner too often, to take the initiative but not to suffocate him/her with excessive presentation of our problems, to give information or answer questions in such a way as to make it easier to take a decision.

- **listening to the other person.** Sometimes **"silence (listening) is golden**". The tactic of listening is recommended not as an expression of incompetence, but as the patience to wait for the partner's reactions to one's statements, proposals and offers.

Listening can be in turn:

- active listening, which involves a series of activities designed to ensure that the message is received correctly and retained optimally;
- interactive listening, which involves the possibility of interacting directly with the speaker in two ways, by asking questions and by asking for confirmation of the message. (Dr. Puiu A., Dr. Moarcăș O., Dr. Gherman L., 2001)

Listening can also take place when the message contains non-critical information, at the factual level when looking for specific information in the message, and at the empathic level when seeking to perceive the message from the speaker's frame of reference.

- avoiding frequent interruptions and disapproval during discussions. Repeated interruptions and disapprovals irritate the interlocutor and can lead to nervousness, to the breakdown of communication taking place within an organisation or between representatives of the public institution and citizens;

Public communication can be formal when it is carried out through channels specific to the organisation's structure and is required by the functional relations between employees of different departments and citizens. This type of communication is found in the regular activities of the organisation. In the case of informal communication, i.e. information that is not directly related to the activity, the channels used are other than formal, the rules of communication are less strict. Formal and informal communication networks coexist and sometimes interfere with each other, in the sense that informal communication can block the flow of information in the formal network, distort it according to the relationships and interests of those involved, or, on the contrary, make formal communication more flexible and improve it.

Formal communication networks exist in the organisation chart, which is the document that represents the functional organisation of activities and the nature of the subordination and coordination relationships between departments. The conduct of formal written or oral communication is governed by a series of implicit and explicit rules concerning the content of information, the responsibility for compliance with who issues and who controls and signs in the case of written messages.

Communication techniques differ according to the direction of information flow:

Top-down communication takes place in line with situations arising or the issuing of decisions, provisions, instructions, information. The concrete forms used by an organisation can be decisions, information circulars, brochures or manuals with rules and instructions, company newspapers, radio messages, reports to the General Assembly of Employees or Shareholders.

Upward communication can be a response to various situations and messages from management or the transmission of requests, complaints, opinions. The forms used may be memos, reports, regulated by the rules of organisation and operation. In addition, the management may use data from opinion or attitude questionnaires to support its decisions. Recent techniques for collecting employee dissatisfaction are the so-called "hot-lines" and "open door".

But public communication is not limited to these forms; there are specific ways of operational, two-way communication between hierarchical levels, different departments such as meetings, committees, interviews, focus groups.

There are organisations with rigid communication structures that do not allow horizontal communication within or outside the group, which can be an advantage when the activity requires a so-called 'unity of command' (military-type structures) or, on the contrary, a disadvantage if the activity requires flexibility and dynamism in communication (industrial, commercial, service or public relations structures). In the latter case, the official who has to solve a problem with the help of a counterpart in another department or workshop would be wasting a lot of his time and that of his superiors. It is much more practical for the activity to be able to communicate horizontally. It is generally accepted that hierarchical networks are more rigid and slower, but they allow control and reinforce authority, while a less strict organisation allows more democratic and flexible communication, providing participants with more satisfaction.

Parallel to formal communication, informal communication is initiated between individuals to exchange information that is not directly related to the work. Over time, formal communication networks are formed, based on emotional criteria (like or dislike), common interests within an organisation; the channels used are different from formal ones, the rules of communication are less strict.

The means of communication in a public institution: verbal, non-verbal or by means of media, are chosen according to the specific task, the content of the message, the specific receiver. Oral communication is quicker and produces greater satisfaction, but in the case of standard messages: instructions, regulations, rules, reports, written communication is more appropriate, both because it can be disseminated more quickly and in a more standardised way and because it can be more useful in establishing responsibilities in dispute situations.

Written communication is used in the organisation for messages that need to have continuity or to establish responsibility in an unambiguous way. Written communications may represent elements of accounting records, they may be documents that will be kept for some time in archival holdings, they may be used as evidence in court. The larger the organisation is and the more complex the activity, the greater is the proportion of written documents in the overall communication.

In an organisation, written communication can be standardised, i.e. all the forms that systematise information about different aspects of the work, or occasional. The route of written communications may be clearly defined (especially in the case of standardised communications, there are people and even specialised departments who draw them up, direct their flow or approve them), but there are also occasional written communications, which have a less rigorous route.

As a rule, public institutions have a clear description of all these aspects, or even strict regulations.

Through their activity, public institutions must envisage to satisfy the general interest of the population, with the obligation to get closer to the members of the local community and maintain permanent contact with them. Public administration must communicate, be open to dialogue, respect and take the citizen into account.

Public communication is the form of communication specific to the work of public institutions in the general interest. The messages conveyed include information of public interest, making citizens aware of the existence of public sector organisations, how they operate and what they do, and the legality and appropriateness of decisions taken. At the same time, public communication aims to make known the needs and wishes of the population so that public institutions, through their role and powers, can meet them, thus achieving a general interest.

The role of public communication is to convince the public that institutional policies and public decisions are in the general interest, thus winning the support of citizens. Citizens must be informed about the existence and functioning of public services, their grievances must be listened to, their wishes and needs must be taken into account.

In the case of public administration institutions, the representatives of the public institution must communicate with the citizen. In the process of communication, the relationship between the civil servant and the citizen plays an important role. The communication units, i.e. the civil servant as sender and the citizen as receiver of messages, have clear objectives: the sender aims to inform, to convince, to guide, to capture interest, to be effective, and the receiver will strive to be attentive, to understand, to remember.

Communication with citizens is achieved through: the media, official newsletters, websites, information centres, exhibitions, information activities, debates, communication sessions, research programmes, cultural and educational activities, NGOs, citizens' advisory committees, participation in competitions, own publications, posters, written and oral transmission of various types of information to and from the management and specialist structures of public administration institutions.

Citizens come into contact with local public institutions and, as a result, need to know how to address themselves to satisfy a legitimate interest, what documents they need to fill in, what procedures they need to follow. Local public institutions have an obligation to provide the public with practical information to make citizens aware of the rules they have to follow in their dealings and to facilitate their access to local public services.

An open partnership relationship will facilitate the two-way flow of information. The initiator of this relationship must be the administrative institution, which has an obligation to seek the most effective and specific models for feedback and knowledge of local resources.

Some communication barriers may arise in communicating with citizens.

In the communication process there are sometimes communication difficulties, so-called communication barriers, such as:

- Regarding the sender-receiver relationship: emotional state of the receiver; routine, which influences receptivity; lack of attention in receiving the message; hasty conclusions on the message; lack of interest of the receiver in the message;
- At the language level, the same words may mean different things to different people, particularly because of differences in training and experience; difficulties of expression; awkward expression of the message by the sender; use of confusing words or expressions.

There is a complex link between communication and information in public institutions. Information is the source on which communication is based, but also the way in which it is expressed. Communication is correct if it is based on correct information, but also if it correctly conveys the information held.

The information is assimilated by the receiver as a result of clear communication appropriate to his cultural background and aspirations, or the same information may not be received if confused communication is used.

The quality of communication is therefore crucial to the understanding of the information transmitted by the sender to the receiver.

Bibliography:

Cândea R., Cândea D., "Comunicarea managerială: concepte, deprinderi, strategie", Ed. Expert, București, 1996

Puiu A., "Management. Analize și studii comparative, ed. a III-a revizuită, Ed. Independența Economică, Pitești, 2021

Dr. Puiu A., Dr. Moarcăș O., Dr. Gherman L., "Teorii și tehnici de comunicare", Editura Independența Economică, Pitești, 2001

DIMENSIONS OF INTEGRATED MANAGEMENT IN SPORTS ORGANIZATIONS – THE M.I.O.S. MODEL

Florian Iancu¹ Xiaoyu Zhan²

Abstract:

Today's world is full of changes to which education in general and sports activities in particular necessarily lead to good and optimal perceptions of change and open new opportunities for the future. Therefore, the integrated management system of a sports organization involves many factors that give the organizatioa good functioning and performance. The integrated management system of a spororganization is built on the basis of an agreement between the sports organization and the actors involved which establishes a set of mutual commitments according to the objectives envisaged by each party involved. Thus, any sports organization, in order to achieve its objectives, must promote effective strategies from a triple perspective: sports performance (sport dimension); resource management (managerial dimension); legal regulation (legal dimension). These are found in the legal regulations that refer to partnerships between clubs and different actors who agree on mutual commitments based on certain essential elements. In general, there are certain elements that are addressed in these agreements such as the nature of the resources collected, the forms of exchange, the way in which the resources are allocated, etc. There are three types of stakeholder: - internal group stakeholders, political group stakeholders, economic group stakeholders. This trio of stakeholders is based on certain agreements that support the smooth running of the sports club. This involvement brings the sports club to the top of the league table.

Keywords: Integrated management, sports organization, managerial size, social integration.

JEL classification: F15, J53, L83,

1. The sport dimension

The sporting dimension is the way in which the sporting objective, sporting ambition, leadership and other elements that contribute to the overall sporting dimension are linked. This dimension is based on the strategic objectives of the sport organisation:

- objective, it can approach the competition from a competitive or sporting point of view. The first approach has relative dominance over the competition and the competitors in the competition. And the second approach refers to the objective that the team has set itself. Usually, this objective is one focused on winning the match. The competitive objective is to reach the top of the elite clubs in the league, which will bring visibility to the organisation. This type of objective is set by the organisation in principle for the long term because promotion in the league is not done immediately after winning a match, but after a portfolio of matches won over a long period of time;
- leadership, refers to the manager's ability and skills to bring together all the components and actors to achieve the objectives. This type of leader is referred to in the literature as the point man and thus, he possesses the necessary leadership to keep the sports organisation on the heights of success. The leader together with the actors listed above and the know-how of the organisation makes the sports organisation achieve measurable and tangible performance in the sports world. The election and appointment of the leader at the top of the organisation can be done by the members of the organisation through a democratic and transparent election process, or it can be appointed by the partners.

2. The managerial dimension

The managerial dimension refers to the way the sports club is managed and coordinated. The management of the club is based on the skills of the manager and his/her ability to

¹ Phd Candidate, Valahia University of Targoviste, Doctoral School, iancuflorian27@yahoo.ro

² Phd Candidate, Valahia University of Targoviste, Doctoral School, xiao@xiao.ro

manage the situation in the organisation. Human resources are an important factor in the development of the sports organisation, because without them the activities of the organisation would not be possible:

- human resource management refers to the human resource in a sport organisation. Here the human resource is between volunteers and staff already employed in the organisation. A mistake made by sport organisations is that as they move up the performance pyramid, the human resource of volunteers, which is an important resource that benefits the sport organisation, is overlooked and neglected. The recruitment of players or coaches is also part of the human resources area, which is part of the strategic policy of the sports organisation. Recruitment can be done locally, regionally, nationally or even internationally if we are talking about an organisation that operates in the area of international competitions. As a rule, players are recruited who are highly rated on the international market and who come from schools or clubs that are involved in their training and development. The best example is in football, where players can be bought from various clubs or football schools for a fee. Coaches can also be bought by sports organisations for a fee.
- financial management refers to the financial side of a sports organisation. Sports organisations, like any other organisation, have a financial-accounting area, i.e. the area that deals with the organisation's finances. That is why at the beginning of each year the budget forecast for that year is made. The revenue of sports organisations comes from the sale of tickets to events, from sponsorships, from budget allocations made by local authorities and from other sources of funding. The budget can be supplemented by the sale of players in the case of organisations that are able to sell such players. As a rule, those operating in the major sports leagues sell players to other sports clubs. Therefore, in the case of local organisations, it is necessary for local governments to be financially involved in the development and promotion of local clubs.
- the assets concern the material base, the sports grounds, and its various properties. Efficient management of these assets is necessary, as assets are important for a sports organisation because it needs a more modern and larger material base. In this way, a wider range of sporting events can be covered. A sports organisation that has a well-equipped material base can train without paying rent, as is the case with other smaller organisations that do not have a well-equipped material base. The facilities can also be rented for major events or matches, thus bringing revenue to the club's budget.

3. The extent of legal regulation

The strategic plan of each organisation takes into account both internal and external regulations of the organisation:

- internal regulation implies the existence of an internal regulation of each sport organisation. This regulation takes into account the history of the club, the identity it has and wishes to promote, and the culture of the organisation. In sports clubs, these rules may change from time to time depending on changes in legislation, changes in sports equipment or other important changes. Major sports clubs have separate headquarters and even museums where they display all their history and even all the trophies they have won. This brings visibility to the club but also gives a tinge of confidence and a real calling card to the club. The clubs have a statute of operation, a board of directors made up of local or regional business people.
- External regulation refers to the involvement and role of the state in sports organisations. The state intervenes in grassroots sport, i.e. at the level of school inspectorates which promote and support sport, at university level, at the level of amateur or professional sports clubs and organisations, and lastly it also supports performance and Olympic level sport. The state intervenes in professional sport through external regulations which concern: the trend towards professionalisation of individuals and structures, the definition of the legal

framework of public authorities, the establishment of appropriate rules set by sports authorities.

- professionalism concerns the professionalisation of sports clubs. Professionalisation brings to the club a status of perfection and a good functioning at high levels and standards. This promotes the club into the professional league of elite sport.

All the three dimensions presented constitute what we call in this scientific approach the three dimensions of the sports organisation (Figure 1).

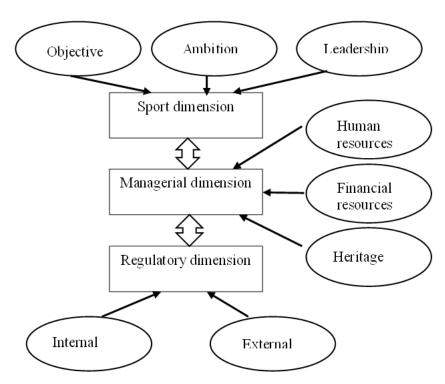


Figure 1. Three-dimensionality of the sport organisation

Source: Author's research

4. Principles underlying the design of the M.I.O.S.

In the design of the M.I.O.S. the following aspects were taken into account: the principle of social integration; the principle of social inclusion.

4.1. Principle of social integration

Integration is the biological, neurological, and psychological process of comprehension, assimilation, and involvement of an element (impulse, signal, operation, information) by another unifying and superordinate element (Popescu, 1987). Nowadays, adaptation to existing conditions is done efficiently and on the basis of profound development. The author J. Piaget argued that certain structures are developed in the human psyche. The content of our experience is organized in sets of structures with certain meanings (Popescu, 1987) which process both existing and new information. Therefore adaptation is possible with the help of two processes:

- the assimilation process, where information about objects and behaviour is obtained and processed at the level of the psychic system. This processing is done on the basis of a well-established and well-founded plan. The process of using available schemata to integrate new information into one's cognitive experience is called assimilation (Mih., 2010).
- the process of accommodation integrates patterns of knowledge that refer to the previous state so that this can be overcome. We can say that accommodation is the adjustment of one's own mental schemes according to the characteristics of the new objects/events with

which the individual comes into contact (Mih., 2010). This leads to a balancing act where mental structures coordinate complex and highly diversified activities. This evolutionary dynamic leads to new accommodations and increases the individual's capacity to adapt.

Integration, approached at the human level, manifests itself both at the psychological level as functional static (favouring processes that assimilate information from existing psychological structures) and functional dynamic (those processes of accommodation, formation of new structures, but also modification of existing ones to cope with new demands) (Golu, 1975).

Social integration is defined as the process of incorporation, and assimilation of the individual into social units and systems (family, group, collective, society), by shaping according to social data and requirements (enculturation, socialization), adapting to the conditions of social life (Popescu, 1987). From a psychological point of view, social integration conditions the formation of the individual's personality, both in terms of psychosomatic (psychomotor) development and certain environmental factors (natural, technical environment, etc.). Therefore, social integration is an intense and active identification in a group, in its mentality, its specifically lucrative, entertaining and aspirational activities (Şchiopu, 1997) A concept closely related to social integration is the concept of socialization, which is a process of social-human improvement with social products and activities necessary for the development of the individual in the community to which he belongs. Socialisation is concerned with the following elements: assimilation, internalisation of the values present in social life; education of the social sense and taste for what is valuable in society; formation of attitudes of social involvement; formation of value judgements in line with those of society (Vințanu, 2008).

Socialization together with the development of the individual leads to the assimilation of values, norms, rules, a highly developed thinking and creative capacity. Socialisation refers to the maturation of the individual through:

- assimilation of knowledge and development of unique personality (psychological meaning);
- addressing social roles, rights and obligations (sociological meaning);
- accumulation of cultural values and norms (cultural significance).

The socialisation process has several areas of completion:

- the first is the psychological zone refers to those psychological traits through which the individual acquires an identity in relation to other individuals;
- the second is the social zone, which refers to those social skills and roles that are useful for social integration;
- the third area is the cultural area where symbols, values of the living environment and certain cultural patterns are assimilated (Schiffrnet, 2002).

Today's society has certain educational models and paradigms, some of which are accepted by society, others are not. Social behaviour adapts to social statuses and roles in order to penetrate the community using specific languages, symbols, etc.

4.2. Personality and social integration

Personality is a reflection of those characteristics specific to a person that result from an analysis of a subject's behaviour, which can be influenced by the socio-cultural environment and the individual's everyday life. Personality is the element that mediates the reception and acceptance of external influences, integrates them into its structures and transforms them into guiding and regulating levers for all human manifestations. Personality leaves its mark on every psychological phenomenon, on every reaction and even on a person's face (Creţu, 2004).

The concept of personality focuses on the human being who has a social existence and a cultural belonging. Analysed at the level of the individual, personality can be seen as a bio-psycho-socio-cultural system which has its roots in the early stages of the individual's

development in society and which ultimately determines the individual's psychosomatic, psychosocial and psychocultural characteristics.

Thus, personality is that unique and original characteristic of each individual. In the construction of personality, the starting point is the unique hereditary acquisition (those indicators of specificity, group and individual, which are transmitted with the help of the genetic code), and each individual has a unique personal-historical identity (it addresses those experiences, certain activities and relationships that lead to the formation of the course of personality). Personality is a unique and non-repeatable combination of the general human elements, group characteristics and special characteristics of the individual, which is the result of the individual's psychological development.

Personality is that systematic and particularly complex ensemble of characteristic features of the concrete human being, in what is original, individual, relatively stable and distinguishes him from other people (Epuran, 1994).

It can be said that personality comprises stable cognitive (decision making and decision making) and executive behaviours in certain situations. These behaviours have a triple biopsycho-social determination resulting from the assimilation of the natural and social environment to the biological structures of the individual coming from ancestors on the direct branch. The resulting assimilations, accommodation, modification are those characteristic behaviours that come from the natural and social environment of the individual. Self-knowledge is perceived as a specific attribute of personality. In the construction of self-knowledge, integration into the sociocultural environment is taken into account, as well as the acquisition of social roles, psychosocial relations between the individual and the environment (Radu et al. 2020).

4.3. The principle of social inclusion

The social inclusion process is the set of multidimensional measures and actions in the fields of social protection, employment, housing, education, health, information-communication, mobility, security, justice and culture aimed at combating social exclusion and ensuring the active participation of people in all economic, social, cultural and political aspects of society (Radu, 2009).

The World Bank approaches social inclusion as a process of fighting extreme poverty and fostering shared prosperity. Social inclusion is that outcome and process of improving the terms and conditions under which citizens participate in today's society. Thus, the World Bank defines social inclusion as "the process of improving the circumstances/conditions for individuals and groups to be part of and contribute to society.

Social inclusion supports poor and marginalised people to be able to benefit from those global opportunities without affecting their lives and to enjoy equal opportunities in markets, services, social, sports, cultural areas, etc (Tăbîrcă et al., 2021).

In 1993 the European Union identified the problem of social exclusion, which was analysed and described as follows: "social exclusion refers to the multiple and changing factors that have the effect of excluding people from participation in the normal social interactions, practices and rights of modern society. Poverty is one of the most obvious such factors, but social exclusion also refers to inadequately served rights of housing, education, health and access to services.

Social exclusion affects individuals and groups, particularly according to their backgrounds (rural/urban) when forms of discrimination and segregation occur; "social exclusion highlights the deficits of social infrastructure and the risk of creating and consolidating a split, two-faced society.

In the White Paper on Sport, the European Union recognises the value of sport as a tool for social inclusion, education and socialisation. Although there are many obstacles to the practice of sport at different hierarchical levels. These include low financial resources, lack of

information, sports venues. Partnerships between sport organisations and local, regional or national authorities are limited or even absent in some cases.

Sport in most cases involves the civic side being active, improves dialogue between partner bodies and can create a strategy for a more prosperous future.

An approach from a legislative perspective but also from a policy perspective on sport and social inclusion, the state must define general directions of action, while local and regional authorities have the role of implementing the regulations set. Social inclusion through sport refers to the state level, but also the autonomous level on two tracks:

- the first direction is that of sport policies at all levels, so that the exposed population will avoid the risk of social exclusion;
- the second direction refers to the development of plans and policies focused on improving the living conditions of the population.

Actions aimed at sport must have a multidisciplinary approach, thus encouraging the integration of the population into sporting activities. This is why sports are seen as spaces for participation and tools for socio-cultural integration. Sport is a phenomenon that brings about interaction between society, individuals and groups of individuals. The better the policies for promoting sports are implemented by local and regional administrations, the greater the chances of more individuals participating in events.

Structural policies must be implemented within sports organisations that will work across all sports sectors, both regionally and nationally. The following principles will be taken into account in this case:

- Establishment of an internal department within sport organisations that will deal with social inclusion for sponsoring sport campaigns and events, sport-specific research that will bring concrete results for better social inclusion of disadvantaged groups and those with health problems (groups of obese individuals):
- Obtaining collaborations and sponsorships with partners who bring added value and an experience already lived by them.
- Meetings and bilateral partnerships even with foreign countries to carry out pilot projects in partnership.

In sports organisations at management level, it must be decided to include people of different origins and cultures on the boards of directors in order to encourage democratic participatory processes. In such cases, the following should be pursued:

- partnerships with marginalised communities, cultural minorities, etc.
- non-discriminatory management and vision for people from different cultural backgrounds, disabilities, minorities, etc.
- allocation of responsible positions in the organisation to people of different origins and the possibility to participate in the election of managers.

Sports organisations must also lobby politicians and the media to bring the issue of social exclusion to the fore, and the arguments must be addressed realistically and without prejudice. Workshops can be held with press participation on people with health problems, events to disseminate information and the benefits of sport on the body, and the involvement of champions in advertising spots to promote the sport. These champion stories will bring much popularity to the sport and the sports organisations involved.

Volunteering should not be forgotten in sports organisations as it is an important pillar in supporting the organisation. Volunteers have an added value on funding and social cohesion. Through their work the organisation will reduce its costs considerably, which adds value to the organisation. They can be involved in projects with a social inclusion theme, intercultural dialogue themes and other activities that help the organisation itself.

In the field of sport there should be social inclusion projects in and through sport. Financially speaking, the costs of such activities are high and therefore it is recommended to

set up a system of certificates showing the social quality of the project to encourage private and public sponsors to fund projects based on the emotional impact of the event.

It can be noted that in terms of social inclusion, it started from the problems identified in order to create strategies for implementation at community level to cover the public sector, private, civil societies, voluntary associations, and sponsors working together to produce a major positive impact at local, regional, national and even international level.

The M.I.O.S model was designed taking into account the three axes (major themes) of development of the scientific approach (Figure 2.)

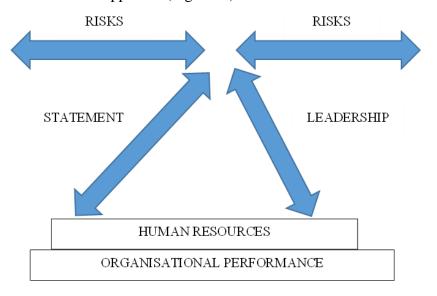


Figure 2. Components of the model

Source: Author's research

The presentation structure of each component is as follows:

- 1. Strategy used
- 2. Objective pursued
- 3. Possible management tool to be used

Figure 3 shows the components of the motivation process carried out as a result of the conducted research:

- Motivation planning;
- Ensuring cohesion in an organization;
- Motivation through he development of talents within the team.

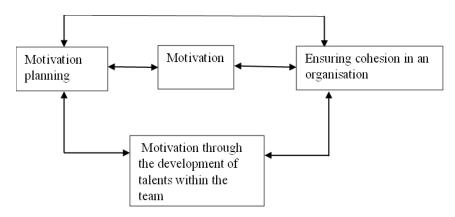


Figure 3. Motivation within the team

Source: Author's research

The stages of planning motivation are:

- 1. The strategy used for motivation planning involves constantly updating what needs to be done in the day-to-day activities of the organisation in order for the objectives to be achieved.
 - 2. The objective pursued, the achievement of the tasks assigned to each employee.
 - 3. The following managerial methods and techniques can be used as a management tool.

4.4. Setting SMART objectives (E)

In order to be achievable, targets must be set in a very strict manner:

- S- simple, specific (concrete and understandable);
- M- measurable, with an associated indicator and deadline;
- A- ambitious, by highlighting the potential of each individual, stimulating and motivating them.
 - R- realistic, i.e. to be accessible and achievable;
 - T- time-bound to be achieved:
 - E- environmentally friendly, in full respect of the changing environment.

Delegation which is considered one of the fundamental tools of management consisting of entrusting one or more people with the performance of a task, mission or objective. Delegation means taking on new responsibilities: willingness to delegate, ability to delegate, ability to delegate, recognition of work done. Motivating delegation is not only about taking responsibility, but also about building trust at all levels of the organisation.

Organise annual meetings to evaluate the way in which the tasks or assignments entrusted to you have been carried out, and to assess the management's position and motivation. The annual meetings are intended to be a moment of privileged dialogue between the manager and his collaborators, a time of qualitative exchange in order to approach the results, objectives and career of the collaborator in a motivating and co-construction logic.

Strengthening the motivation of employees by giving them positive or negative signs of recognition. The objectives of using such a method are:

- to strengthen the motivation of a team, of an employee;
- to create a bond between the members of an organisation, to maintain internal cohesion;
- to enhance the behaviour and self-esteem of the person receiving recognition.

Eric Berne is the one who introduced the concept of positive stroke, i.e. the individual's need to be recognised in a professional context A positive stroke must have five qualities (Figure 4.).

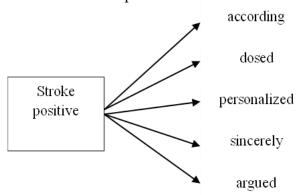


Figure 4. Qualities of a positive stroke

Source: Author's research

The proposals resulting from the research to ensure cohesion in an organization are:

- 1. Strategy used team cohesion is an important lever for motivating employees.
- 2. The objective pursued employee loyalty is the objective of such a strategy to achieve high organisational performance.
 - 3. The managerial tools used consist of the following methods.

Ensuring a climate of cohesion within the organisation to prevent the psychosocial risks that are encountered today in a tumultuous world where change is the main element of contemporary society. There are various ways of ensuring cohesion within an organisation:

- organising various joint actions such as: breakfast, team lunches, Christmas lunch, etc.
- arranging a social space for breaks and meals;
- celebrations, anniversaries (with or without gifts);
- giving a joint gift in situations of marriage or birth of a child;
- addressing thoughts in certain difficult situations (death, bereavement, etc.).

Social integration through sport is analysed as an interactive process of knowledge, assimilation, fair play, teamwork, dedication, understanding, tolerance, etc. These processes are based on the relationship between young people and the society in which they live, which is why sport is a social integration process. Young people want to develop their personalities to the best of their ability, to have higher aspirations and better values in society. This can be achieved through education and long-term goals.

5. Conclusions

The expansion of the sports industry worldwide and the commercialisation of sports events and competitions has forced sports organisations and their managers to become more adaptable to different situations. This is reflected in the increasing number of university sports management courses, which require the development of business skills as well as industry-specific knowledge or experience to be successful. At the same time, there has been an increase in professional and academic associations dedicated to sport management and the variety of professionals and specialists with whom sport managers need to interact throughout their careers.

Acknowledgment: This work is supported by the project POCU 153770, entitled "Accessibility of advanced research for sustainable economic development - ACADEMIKA", co-financed by the European Social Fund under the Human Capital Operational Program 2014-2020

References

- 1. Boyle, R. and Haynes, R. (2000). *Power Play: Sport, the Media and Popular Culture*. Sydney: Longman.
- 2. Braithwaite, J. (2008). Regulatory Capitalism: How it Works, Ideas for Making it Work Better. Cheltenham, UK: Edward Elgar.
- 3. Crețu Tinca, (2004). Psychology of Education, University of Bucharest: CREDIS.
- 4. Dragoş, P. F. (2014). Study regarding the role of motivation in the sport performance activities. Baltic Journal of Health and Physical Activity, 6(1).
- 5. Dressler, G. (2003). Human Resource Management. New Jersey: Prentice Hall.
- 6. Drucker, P.F. (1990). Lessons for successful nonprofit governance. Nonprofit Management and Leadership, 1.
- 7. Dubruille P. (1992). "Les enjeux du management en secteur non-marchand", Gestion 2000, n°1.
- 8. Dugalic, S. (2005). Financial and marketing aspects of strategies in sport, Sports College, Belgrade.
- 9. Epuran, M., Horghidan, V., (1994). Psihologia educazione fisica, București, Editura ANEFS.
- 10. Golu M., (1975), Principii de psihologie cibernetică, București, Editura Științifică și Encilopedică.
- 11. Gomes. S., Kase, K. and Urrutia, I. (2010). *Value Creation and Sport Management*. Cambridge, UK:Cambridge University Press.

- 12. Graaff, A. (1996). Service quality and sport centres. *European Journal for Sport Management*, xx/2.
- 13. Grange, P. (2013). *The Bluestone Review: A Review of Culture and Leadership in Australian Olympic Swimming*. Melbourne, Australia: Bluestone Edge.
- 14. Gratton, C. and Taylor, P. (1991). *Government and the Economics of Sport*. London: Longman.
- 15. Mih. Viorel (2010). Educational Psychology, Vol I. Cluj-Napoca: ASCR.
- 16. Popescu Neveanu., P (1987). Dictionary of Psychology, Bucharest, Albatros Publishing House.
- 17. Radu, V. (2009). Globalizarea sistemelor informaționale financiar-contabile. Bibliotheca.
- 18. Radu, V., Florea, N. V., Radu, F., & Tabirca, A. I. (2020). Improving Long-Term Relationships between Organizations and Customers using Marketing Databases and Simulation Models. *Journal of Science and Arts*, 20(2), 395-418.
- 19. Schifirnet C., (2002). Sociology, Bucharest: comunicare.ro.
- 20. Șchiopu U., (1997). Dictionary of Psychology. Bucharest, Babel Publishing House.
- 21. Tăbîrcă, A. I., Tănase, L. C., Radu, V. (2021). Social Costs of Globalization in Emergent Economies. *LUMEN Proceedings*, 15, 84-93.
- 22. Vintanu N., (2008). Education, Bucharest, Zerana Flores Publishing House.
- 23. Social Assistance Law art. 6 lit. cc. of Law no. 292/2011 -
- 24. Commission of the European Communities, 1993.

IMPACT OF BIG DATA ANALYTICS ON GOVERNMENT ORGANIZATIONS TO IMPROVE INNOVATION AND DECISION-MAKING

Mesbaul Haque Sazu¹ Sakila Akter Jahan²

Abstract

One of the most significant research topics that draws considerable attention and interest around the world is big data. While big data contributes to the standard of decision-making, it also helps improve and extend the expertise within this specific segment by utilizing the latest technology available. This analysis covers the literature relevant to the standard of big data and the impact of it on the quality of decision-making. A descriptive strategy was also used by going over the literature of printed and published structured research, together with a survey of questionnaires concerning individuals coming from the New York Police Department (NYPD), to gather all their opinions and views within this specific segment. The result from the literature evaluation and survey resulted in proposing a theoretical, conceptual based on the numerical and quantitative strategy. The results of this analysis have discovered that the quality of big data predicts the standard of decision-making in the government sector. Therefore, the standard of big data within NYPD does a tremendous job in the quality of decision-making.

Keywords: big data · Information methods · Mediating element, NYPD

Abbreviations: NYPD- New York Police Department, BD- Big Data, BDA- Big Data Analytics

JEL Code: M10, M21

1. Introduction

Big data is made up of incredibly big datasets that are examined computationally to disclose associations, trends, and significant patterns, particularly associated with other interactions and human behavior. Big data is a phrase that refers to the use of information sets, which are very big and complicated, that conventional data processing program programs cannot properly deal with for analysis. Recently, the standard of information, and the use of its in highly effective decision-making, has turned into a crucial element in turning the sustainability and development of organizations (Basyurt, Marx, Stieglitz, & Mirbabaie, 2022). The decision-making procedure is normally dependent on the product quality and precision of the information, and then expertise. Information will be described as raw and the center of any approach, whereas info will be the outcome or maybe result on the processing activity within the type of outputs with useful significance and value. This year, based on the (Chen, Chiang, & Storey, 2012) big data will be identified for a group of information, large for dimension, exceeding the abilities of standard details through the compilation, processing, storage, analysis, and management of directories. Big data additionally includes a tiny proportion of organized info, though a large proportion is unorganized. The idea of big data and its benefits have rapidly turned into a worldwide truth. There is simply no individual meaning of big data, as a few definitions explain it due to the use of computer systems, communication devices, mobile devices, along with Internet uses. Most individuals around the world use portable cell phone to generate voice calls, drive textual content communications, email, and browse the web to buy services and goods, and spend through transaction methods via their credit cards (Al-Sai & Abualigah, 2017). Notwithstanding, numerous individuals are constantly exploring social media websites, updating written content, and publishing emails. All this creates information and boosts the amount of electronic material being hosted and saved, which eventually brings about

¹ Case Western Reserve University, Cleveland, USA, mesbasazu@gmail.com

² Independent University, Bangladesh, Dhaka, Bangladesh, <u>sakila.j@protonmail.com</u>

substantial details, revenues, and obstacles. The dimensions, quickness, and then assortment of information is the same improving. The importance of information is to find information and draw out information.

Lately, BD have become a desirable and widespread occurrence in management, political and economic areas. In addition, because of the rapid and rapid changes and advances seen during the last several years, particularly found in America, it has come to be essential to look at the reasons which nations have gathered using the opportunities related to BD (Kambatla, Kollias, Kumar, & Grama, 2014). Furthermore, it is essential to determine the anticipated advantages and to identify the difficulties from this brand-new innovation. Even though the America is among the major nations that produce considerable amounts of information, the ability to safety belt this information continues to be a task. Thus, the issue of BD is represented in many ways:

- (a) Through the importance of looking at the effect of big data on the quality of decision-making.
- (b) To figure out probably the most crucial and important variables connected with the job of BD.
- (c) To check out the impact of big data as an intermediary), towards the standard of good decision-making.
 - (d) To comprehend the advantages of the USA's method to gather BD.

The issue of the investigation may be surmised depending on the scarcity of investigation within this area, which has devoted itself to optimizing the expenditure of big data, being an influencing aspect with good decision-making (Korosteleva, 2016). The literature evaluation performed within this analysis has shown that lots of research has established that there is a weak point within the optimum expenditure of big data by many organizations, to allow for good decision-making. For instance, throughout 2021, the analysis entitled "Big Trial" and data found that no distinct design establishes the connection between the impact and big data on the standard of decision-making.

The benefits and contribution of the research will not merely revisit the benefits of the extent and big data of its complexity within various applications and fields performed by earlier researchers and scholars. Rather, this analysis explores the uniqueness of big data by learning the use of its and the expenditure produced by different places, in addition to resulting advantages. More to the point, this analysis will highlight the connection between the effect of big data and decision makers, and the key elements that must be existing to successfully use the information. Appropriately, this analysis examines the use of big data in federal departments, what about other areas within the America. Additionally, to figure out the different methods and methods that the USA has used as part of its expenditure technique to use BD, by computing the advantages and evaluating towards the encounters of various other places. This analysis is designed to determine the elements which have led to purchasing big data by evaluating the effect and effect of big data on the standard of decision-making in deep federal organizations within the USA.

2. Literature Review

Hadoop is a computing wedge now associated with big data. Due to its high availability of its fault tolerance, expandability, and then costs that are low, have grown to be a standard format for big data methods (Grubmüller, Krieger, & Götsch, 2013). Nevertheless, Hadoop's Distributed File System HDFS storage space process is difficult to deal with end user uses (Grubmüller, Krieger, & Götsch, 2013). Thus, the more prevalent procedure is to send traditional computing benefits to user-facing storage space methods, for example HBase and Redis (Grubmüller, Krieger, & Götsch, 2013). Throughout 2021, Hadoop conducted research to look at the organizational framework of big data by analyzing many versions for

structuring and organizing big data. The objective of the analysis was also to conceptualize the accessible technological innovation programs and programs to deliver the requirements of big data, and to organize the programs according to their functions and components in organizational versions (Kim, Choi, & Byun, 2019). Nevertheless, the guide system within the doc is irrational for analytically oriented storage space parts, as search engines and general performance abilities depend intensely on the aggregation version and are not versatile sufficiently for queries (Woodford, 2011). Even though, it could be an alternative for semi structured information preparing due to the potential performance of its and scalability within the online flow region (Morabito, 2015). Furthermore, to keep the flow of semi structured functions or maybe information from online weblogs, a regular airer is needed. For instance, based on how much storage space is offered, there might be a write/create struggle, or perhaps presently there could be information flatly damage if the understand node within the master slave design breaks bad before creating the information to the servant. This is perfect for the flow of workloads, which are added just, that often happen in occasion logs (Chon & Kim, 2022). In addition, it could be a function to keep semi structured details within the raw information archive. During the coming areas, big data and decision-making variables are talked about, together with describing the different sub factors connected with every.

2.1 Big Data Factor

Big data includes a wide range of complex and big data that will be tough to control utilizing traditional info methods, provided with their data source system, which processes information using regular programs, programs (Desenberg, 2013). Many problems dealing with operators could be the ability to get into info, the time and required associated with portability, storage space, looking and commuter routes of information. Even though, considering the improvement of info engineering over the last several years, and the fast growth on the Internet, the need for information apps has grown reputable; likewise, the requirement to evaluate an extensive variety of information and their related human relationships (LaBrie, Steinke, Li, & Cazier, 2018). Nevertheless, unlike separate and smaller categories of information, managing them is now very complex. Today, big data is among the most crucial energy sources of info for federal government and non-government organizations and has now additionally turned into important financial and highly valued supply for nations as a catalyst for originality. It is expected that big data will be not merely a crucial supply of info, but also more delicate towards the protection of nations. On the flip side, BD have empowered the finding of legal and commercial linkages, whereby the uses that help big data fight terrorism and crime (Reddick, Chatfield, & Ojo, 2017). Additionally, to figure out the flow of protection information in an appropriate and timely fashion. Big data involves clusters of information of huge sizes and storage space regions, which go over the capability of regular systems and software inside their ability to browse and get info within an extremely short period (Kambatla, Kollias, Kumar, & Grama, 2014). Processing and data management within a suitable period are prerequisites for dealing with big data, because of the huge volumes of information that are transferring constantly, which usually causes it to be hard to browse and interact with the information. Inside most instances, the magnitude and scale of big data require overwhelming storage space capability that conventional storage space press dealing with cannot cater for. Provided the problem, the improvement of special tools and new systems to deal with and control BD will easily supply the ways by which people can use and get the information fast, effectively, along with higher effectively.

2.1.1 Data Quality

Big data has pushed the need for gifted info managing experts in deep software application advancement makers, for example Oracle. These suppliers have invested more than fifteen billion dollars in software program and information control application (Rukanova, et al., 2021). Throughout 2020, the application business was estimated at over hundred billion dollars, in addition to rapidly increasing by nearly ten billion dollar every year; roughly two times the pace on the software program. Based on a single appraisal, one third of the earth's saved info is in the type of static and alphanumeric reputation information, probably the most useful type for many major detail's apps. This displays the amount and magnitude of rarely used information (Rozario & Issa, 2020). Although many vendors provide ready-made fixes to cater for big data, business industry experts suggest the improvement of inner remedies intended to control and resolve the business's current predicament, when the business has enough specialized abilities (Korosteleva, 2016). The adoption and application of big data in deep federal government provides innovation, productivity, or cost-efficiency, but not without its disadvantages or drawbacks. Information evaluation usually requires many periods of federal government to function jointly to produce innovative and new tasks to get the preferred outcomes. For example, for federal government, one of the vital uses for big data within the systematic area is the recording of information for big helium collisions (Bertot, Jaeger, & Hansen, 2012). You will find approximately 250 thousand receptors, which provide details in a frequency of forty thousand situations a minute. Appropriately, big data engineering does a tremendous job from the precision of results and data.

2.1.2 Data Relevance

Big data are frequently unstructured; disorganized, of altering quality, and sent to innumerable servers anywhere. Regarding big data, there is surely a feeling or even common notion of the vastness of the information itself, somewhat compared to its detail and preciseness. Prior to the arrival of big data, evaluation was restricted to test a restricted number of hypotheses, which were developed just before gathering the information. Making the information to speak, human relationships which were not earlier envisioned or even apparent bit by bit developed. For example, Twitter is usually used to foresee the overall performance in the inventory sector, and Amazon provide items to customers in line with the suggestions and scores of many owners. Furthermore, LinkedIn, Twitter, Facebook produces a "social graph" of consumer human relationships to indicate what computer users like.

Even though big data will likely be based on the values created and preserved around the world within cases that are many as proof, the information is not just a reenactment of older regulations put on to brand new problems, along with consequently a comprehension of the immediate requirement for completely brand-new quality of concepts is required. Big data is now an essential component of the therapy, and recognition of issues including local weather shift, illness eradication, the development of economic growth and efficient governments. Nevertheless, via the growth of big data, there are numerous problems that organizations must be much better prepared to use the science, which will unavoidably change ourselves, institutions, and society. Techniques have dropped 3 major parts, which have been properly used around secrecy safeguards, namely, approval and observation of people, withdrawal, and then lack of knowledge. The truth is, among the most significant disadvantages of big data, many customers believe their privacy has become violated. Additionally, numerous organizations have managed the trouble afforded by big data, reaching information as a sad truth, instead of looking at it for the real value of its. Many individuals are likely to see BD as a synthetic restriction created by methods in the long run. Nevertheless, these days, the specialized or maybe technological innovation earth has swung around 220 folds. Even though, at this time, there are, and try to, limits on how much info is often effectively handled, these will be much less restricted and restricted as time passes. Thus, the criticism of a huge information version can be viewed through 2 aspects. The first comes from people who doubt the inference of big data based upon standard or maybe the same methods, along with the next, from individuals who doubt the way it is currently applied.

2.1.3 Variety of data

Big data shipping is an outstanding method to deal with huge volumes of information saved and obtained within a prompt fashion. (Kim, Choi, & Byun, 2019) statement suggested that to cope with big data, there are many variables. These are info method operators, ideal learning, authentication guideline strategies, information category, the process of bunch evaluation of the information saved, and information integration. Additionally, algorithms, printer mastering engineering, understanding of sorting and organic dialect processing that manages the end user. Furthermore, the identification of information patterns, the fast detection of irregular proof, electronic signal processors, mastering subject, and digital simulation, non-subject to control, and it is automated (Korosteleva, 2016). The task of dealing with considerable quantities of information is not brand new. Historically, modern society has been effective with restricted quantities of information, as resources, storage, organization, and then evaluation were restricted. Furthermore, the info was filtered, depending just along the littlest portion, to effortlessly analyze it. In accordance with the 2020 Global Trends Study, advancements in deep source preparation and item quality present by far the most substantial advantages relating to big production information. Particularly, the information offers an infrastructure to facilitate transparency, and that is the ability to identify concerns in procedures like sporadic elements, performance, and then accessibility. Additionally, predictive processing, like a practical method of close to zero disappointment and transparency, takes a lot of advanced forecasting tools and data for an organized procedure for handling the information to get useful information.

2.2 Factors of Decision-Making

Businesses depend on excellent decision-making to achieve strategic goals towards the expansion and success of the organization and shareholders, and to resolve the issues experienced by the organization (Korosteleva, 2016). Decision-making typically involves the brainstorming of suggestions and adding ahead proposals and recommendations to enhance the business of the organization, within fulfilling its objectives. In addition, by determining the essential info required and articulating the pros and cons of every proposal or idea, that helps figure out the best proposition and generate amendments until attaining the best choice (Grubmüller, Krieger, & Götsch, 2013). This, therefore, allows the institution to attain the objectives of it wearing the least likely period, and even conduct the operations of it's with the largest degree of effectiveness and efficiency. The next part covers the decision-making progression and phases.

2.2.1 Problem Identification Accuracy

The issue identification phase is the original phase performed at the decision-making operation. This phase is performed to determine the decision or problem produced, and the effort necessary to solve a specific issue (Kim, Choi, & Byun, 2019). Particularly, the size and dynamics of the issue will affect the procedure and time to solve the issue inside determining. Most curious people relating to the decision-making course of action will be engaged in getting their input and perspectives on the source of the issue and determine the people influenced by the issue. The decision makers throughout this phase recognize the dynamics of the issue, the dimensions of its, and the circumstances or maybe condition that generates the issue (LaBrie, Steinke, Li, & Cazier, 2018). The value on the issue should not be wrongly

identified as the signs, time and causes to solve the issue to generate an appropriate and effective choice. Method info is directly integrated into this technique throughout the facilitation, perseverance, and then identification of the issue. This level is usually difficult through the inference, which would be the presence of something which hinders the achievement or some tasks of goals.

2.2.2 Information Accuracy

Within comprehending the issue, the precision on the info gathered up and examined is crucial. This will help recognize the main cause or maybe explanations which have resulted in the issue and precedes the proposition stage. Throughout this point, practical and suitable options and alternatives are revealed and analyzed. This requires information and information relevant to and connecting towards the issue to become accessible to the public (Rozario & Issa, 2020). Furthermore, the capability of decision makers is vital throughout this phase, as they will depend on the gathered energy sources of info provided as info concerning the issue at giving hands. Appropriately, the info should be relevant and accurate to enable decision makers to evaluate, assess and talk about some figures or facts to recognize options; choices that will guide to a suitable choice (Woodford, 2011). Consequently, within comprehending the issue, they should also grasp the simple fact on the circumstances or maybe condition, by proposing alternate options to resolve the issue.

2.2.3 Evaluation of Alternatives

The analysis stage of options is essential during the decision-making course of action, and it is usually considered the most crucial point, because it will determine the dynamics of the determination picked out of a selection of options (Desenberg, 2013). Significantly, this point thinks the results through the prior phase; the options, supporting elements, organizational policies, viewpoint of all the organization, the possibility of every answer and timing. Just about all the elements will constitute a good choice, getting produced and shortlisting of options when needed (Kim, Choi, & Byun, 2019). Furthermore, rational believing, visualization and forecasting the result on the determination is supreme throughout this phase of the meditation process. Analyzing options helps rating and ranking every answer and shortlisting to evaluate the advantages and drawbacks of every answer. Choosing most appropriate available standards also influences the rightest option, danger, and then objectivity. Requirements becoming the best in many situations (Reddick, Chatfield, & Ojo, 2017).

The researcher of the research currently spotlights that phony involvement by specialists and subordinates belonging to this specific area depends upon the forecasting feature. Particularly, the amount and style of alternate remedies rely on many factors: role of all the organization, the policies it is true, the material resources of its, the perfect time readily available towards the determination developer, the director's decision-making perceptions, and his or maybe her ability to consider creatively and logically, based mostly on innovative believing, expectations, perceptions, and suggestions (Basyurt, Marx, Stieglitz, & Mirbabaie, 2022).

2.2.4 Decision Accuracy

Decision-making procedures must become incorporated; coherent with current info methods to grow the understanding of supervisors around the suggested judgement which will be produced. The integration of info systems will help support the precision of decision-making (Korosteleva, 2016). Furthermore, the time to create and pick a choice will affect the product quality of last choice, obtaining the perfect result or maybe the best effect to solve the issue. Decision makers will also have to think about the ramifications of their choice, depending on the ability to carry out the perfect solution or even modify (Kim, Choi, & Byun, 2019).

Additionally, out of the evaluation performed by the decision makers, it will be apparent in many situations what triggered the issue, and what choice must become developed, achieving the best outcomes or even results. In addition, there are variations between the evaluation of the decision and the problem made. Decision makers can fix the issue without resolution. On the other hand, a choice may be created without fixing the issue, as indicated by (Bertot, Jaeger, & Hansen, 2012), because the evaluation might disclose that the issue is moated beyond the domain name on the organization's responsibility. With this situation, decision makers do absolutely nothing, aside from telling managing of their intention. This sort of progression is a tradeoff between the readily available options and picking out the best option based on the requirements and concerns (LaBrie, Steinke, Li, & Cazier, 2018).

3. Research Method

With this research, the hypothesized variables and their relationships within the unit were derived through the prior literature within the designs and theories, together with the literature recommended previously. Figure one displays the suggested conceptual framework. An eight-item questionnaire was created for this analysis, consistent with current literature, which used big data as a crucial element in the quality of decision-making, using a multi-item Likert weighing machine. The variables had been calculated using a scale; five 'Strongly Agree' and one 'Strongly Disagree'. Paper-Based survey and an online within the type of questionnaires was utilized for the information compilation procedure. Individuals from the New York Police Department participated in the survey.

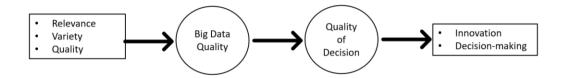


Figure 1: Relationship between big data and decision and innovation

4. Data Analysis and Results

4.1 Descriptive Analysis

Dining room table one presents the hostile and regular deviation of every adjustable within the present analysis. Each respondent was required to show their opinion within finishing the survey questionnaire. The standard of big data recorded a hostile rating of 4.93 from 5.0, by way of a regular deviation of 0.64, indicating the respondents agreed that the standard of big data within Abu Dhabi Governmental Organizations is decision-making, and his is grounded on greatest methods. Furthermore, the product quality afforded by big data allowed NYPD to talk about awareness with many other organizations. The standard of decision-making documented the hostile rating of 4.81 from 5.0, by a regular deviation of 0.69, indicating that the respondents agreed which restructuring of energy and changing organizational buildings was crucial. Additionally, workers have been mindful that complications will always occur, so workers persist to get over them. NYPD functionality was also considered remaining stiletto compared to how other businesses or maybe organizations in similar industries are carrying out. In fact, NYPD's place within the market was deemed good and associated with a comparably tall standard format.

4.2 Measurement Model Assessment

Many goodness-of-fit indices exceeded their respective typical approval amounts, as indicated by last studies. Thus, demonstrating that the measurement design exhibited an excellent match with the information gathered up. Thus, the analysis of psychometric qualities of the measurement design concerning construct dependability, convergent validity, indicator reliability, along with discriminant validity might be proceeded with. The values of all the person Cronbach's alpha coefficients within this analysis exceeded the suggested importance of 0.72. In addition, for examining construct dependability, the values of all composite dependability surpassed 0.72. In addition, the values of just about all typical variance extracted surpassed the suggested importance of 0.50. Dining room table one shows that almost all things in this analysis had component loadings above the suggested importance of 0.5. Dining room table two displays the outcomes for discriminant validity while using the (Kambatla, Kollias, Kumar, & Grama, 2014) criterion. It was discovered that the square root on the AVEs on the diagonals is better compared to the correlations between constructs, indicating excellent discriminant validity.

Table 1: Statistical info: mean, SD, Alpha, AVE

Constructs	Item	Indicators	Loading (>0.5)	M	SD	α (>0.7)	Ave. (>0.5)
Quality of big data	QB1	Quality	0.71	4.93	0.64	0.80	0.52
	QB2	Relevance	0.76				
	QB3	Variety	0.75				
Quality of innovation & decision	DM1	Innovation	0.83	4.81	0.69	0.81	0.54
	DM2	Decision- making	0.68				

Table 2: Results of discriminant validity

	Factors	1	2
		QB	DM
	QB	0.79	0.43
2	DM	0.40	0.74

4.3 Structural Model Assessment

Figure two and Table three depict the structural airer evaluation. It is observed that the quality of big data greatly predicts the standard of decision-making. Thus, H1 is recognized with. Know-how sharing also defines twenty-three per dollar of the variance within the standard of decision making.

Table 3: Structural path analysis

Hypothesis	Relationship	Std. beta	Std. error	t-value	<i>p</i> -value
H1	$QB \rightarrow DM$	0.44	0.06	8.44	0.001

5. Discussion

The essential dynamics of decision-making are affected by day pursuits accompanied by organizational behavior. This truth was started from the start of the research. Effective and accurate decision-making is necessary in all types of organizations, pulling reverence from each inner and outside organizational domain. Appropriately, the standard of correct decision-making is now a continuing matter for organizations around the world, producing the demand for much deeper comprehension of the elements essential within this specific place. Putting together the idea which decision-making by managing has commonly ended in abysmal disaster, which has attracted the curiosity and interest of scientists to check out and describe the usage of certain theories and paradigms.

6. Theoretical and Practical Implications

The ramifications related to crucial theories, and how these add to the principles and theories which underlie organizational anxiety and the best exercise in decision making, are crucial to comprehend. This analysis paves the way in which greater knowledge of how big data is now among the most crucial aspects in supporting decision makers towards attaining additional predictably their objectives and goals. The results of this research show that the standard of big data has a tremendous impact on decision making, which means that the product quality of big information is lodged within the standard of decision making. Particularly, this is simply because, inside the standard of decision-making, workers don't simply go together with what information is kept within the info process but are rather motorists of how you can safety belt big data belonging in a deferent fashion. Despite the hypothesized connection, serious information is a minor predictor of the quality of decisionmaking, while the predictive outcome was not a major body. (Kim, Choi, & Byun, 2019) present crucial reasons that could explain this, in that they argue that the quality of big data is essential to organizational results in standard, particularly in the function of alter. The effect on the quality of big data might therefore be much more in the quality of decision-making course of action itself, instead of the formula on the quality of decision-making policy. Appropriately, that points towards the quality of big data as a crucial application towards the standard of decision-making. As stated previously, both quality of the quality and decisionmaking management of big data anticipates the standard of decision-making. Furthermore, the standard of decision-making management can include directives targeted at worker tensions, which might enhance the all-round predictive consequence of the standard of BD.

This analysis even further enables you to securely set the standard of big data as a vital variable in the setup of utilizing big data to improve and facilitate good decision-making. The significance of the results in relation to the idea of big data is based on the reality that it opens the doorstep for academic study to further examine the principles as interlinked principles. Notwithstanding, this analysis has considered the principle of quality in decision-making about how complexities impact it. The results also earn space for additional critique in quality decision-making and serve as a precedent with the improvement of crossbreed clothes airers that illustrate the interrelationships disclosed. The existing analysis has deep ramifications for the standard of decision-making, which has been viewed towards a lot more lasting institutional advancement. NYPD must recognize and understand the effect of big data on the quality of decision-making, while using the primary explanation that shows exactly how managing policies can effectively setup big data. Particularly, this may help inhaling focus out of various other organizations to develop a prosperous design within the area.

7. Limitations and recommendations for Future Research

A limitation on this research is the method the information was gathered, which was cross sectional instead of longitudinal. The longitudinal technique may enhance the knowledge of the causality and associations between the variables. Thus, potential study needs to check the connection between the variables by doing cross cultural scientific studies as endorsed by prior scientific studies.

8. Conclusion

With this research, the idea of big data and decision-making was talked about, dependent on executing an intensive literature evaluation and survey of individuals coming from the New York Police Department. The connection between the standard of big data and decision-making from point of view on the principle of intricacy can help you control manufacture accurate and well-informed choices from an organizational point of view. An intensive conversation was confirmed using these 2 parts in the management of intricacy

within the organizational context. More and more, big data within info methods is constantly changing into substantial info that is used and examined by decision makers to fix organizational issues. Thus, the info should be accurate and reliable to determine substitute fixes and to generate educated choices. For that reason, the range of information resources, the info accessible, and alternate fixes to issues may benefit the organizational decision-making procedure. This is backed through the conceptual design, hypothesizing the variables and human relationships.

Significantly, the dynamics of info and information kept as part of info methods must be regular, since the info usually corresponds to the choices considered. Furthermore, the dissemination of information is sometimes part of accordance and dependent on the variety of information platforms. Thus, big data kept and residing inside directories must be properly organized and organized to facilitate the examination of solutions and problems. With respect to the primary investigation issue, which wanted to look at the connection between the standard of big data and quality of decision making, the results exposed that the standard of big data predicts the standard of decision making. This is also backed by the realization that the standard of big data in NYPD plays a vital role in the profitable quality of decision-making control. A last observation because of this research associated with big data setup tends to be that organizations must boost their shelling on development and research to boost organizational efficiency and advantages related to this technology.

Acknowledgements

None

Conflict of interest

None

References

- 1. Al-Sai, Z. A., & Abualigah, L. M. (2017). Big data and E-government: A review. *international conference on information technology*. 8, pp. 580-587. IEEE. doi:10.1109/ICITECH.2017.8080062
- 2. Basyurt, A. S., Marx, J., Stieglitz, S., & Mirbabaie, M. (2022). Designing a Social Media Analytics Dashboard for Government Agency Crisis Communications. *Australasian Conference on Information Systems* (pp. 1-8). Sydney: Government Agency SMA dashboard. doi:https://doi.org/10.48550/arXiv.2202.05541
- 3. Bertot, J. C., Jaeger, P. T., & Hansen, D. (2012). The impact of polices on government social media usage: Issues, challenges, and recommendations. *Government information quarterly*, 29(1), 30-40. doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/j.giq.2011.04.004
- 4. Chen, H., Chiang, R. H., & Storey, V. C. (2012). Business intelligence and analytics: From big data to big impact. *MIS quarterly*, *36*(4), 1165-1188. doi:https://doi.org/10.2307/41703503
- 5. Chon, M. G., & Kim, S. (2022). Dealing with the COVID-19 Crisis: Theoretical Application of Social Media Analytics in Government Crisis Management. *Public Relations Review*, 48(3). doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pubrev.2022.102201
- 6. Desenberg, J. (2013). Mind the Gap: Bringing Planning and Analytics Together in Government. *Public Manager*, 42(4), 34.
- 7. Grubmüller, V., Krieger, B., & Götsch, K. (2013). Social Media Analytics for government in the light of legal and ethical challenges. *E-Democracy and Open Government*, (pp. 185-195).
- 8. Kambatla, K., Kollias, G., Kumar, V., & Grama, A. (2014). Trends in big data analytics. *Journal of parallel and distributed computing*, 74(7), 2561-2573. doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jpdc.2014.01.003
- 9. Kim, E. S., Choi, Y., & Byun, J. (2019). Big data analytics in government: Improving decision making for R&D investment in Korean SMEs. *Sustainability*, 12(1), 202. doi:https://doi.org/10.3390/su12010202
 - 10. Korosteleva, E. A. (2016). The European Union, Russia and the Eastern region: The

- analytics of government for sustainable cohabitation. *Cooperation and Conflict*, 51(3), 365-383. doi:https://doi.org/10.1177%2F0010836716631778
- 11. LaBrie, R. C., Steinke, G. H., Li, X., & Cazier, J. A. (2018). Big data analytics sentiment: US-China reaction to data collection by business and government. *Technological Forecasting and Social Change*, 130, 45-55. doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/j.techfore.2017.06.029
- 12. Morabito, V. (2015). Big data and analytics for government innovation. *Big data and analytics*, 23-45. doi:https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-10665-6_2
- 13. Reddick, C. G., Chatfield, A. T., & Ojo, A. (2017). A social media text analytics framework for double-loop learning for citizen-centric public services: A case study of a local government Facebook use. *Government Information Quarterly*, 34(1), 110-125. doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/j.giq.2016.11.001
- 14. Rozario, A. M., & Issa, H. (2020). Risk-based data analytics in the government sector: A case study for a US. *Government Information Quarterly*, 37(2), 1-13. doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/j.giq.2020.101457
- 15. Rukanova, B., Tan, Y. H., Slegt, M., Molenhuis, M., van Rijnsoever, B., Migeotte, J., & Post, S. (2021). Identifying the value of data analytics in the context of government supervision: Insights from the customs domain. *Government Information Quarterly*, 38(1). doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/j.giq.2020.101496
- 16. Woodford, M. (2011). Simple analytics of the government expenditure multiplier. *American Economic Journal: Macroeconomics*, 3(1), 1-35. doi:10.1257/mac.3.1.1

THE RISK APPROACH: AN ALTERNATIVE TO THE CLASSIC AUDIT APPROACH

Phd. Anca Daniela Senchea¹ Phd. Anda Necula Phd. Alice Mariana Preda (Simion) Phd. Andreea Savu

Abstract

This study will focus on addressing risk. The purpose of this article is to highlight the importance of the risk approach in the pursuit of effectiveness and efficiency in audit work. To demonstrate this, we will first show the limitations of the classical audit approach, then illustrate the importance of the risk-based approach, and finally present the approach to auditing according to this approach. A risk-based approach also improves an organization's decision-making process, regardless of its industry focus. Therefore, a risk-based approach consists of identifying, assessing, and understanding risks, as well as the subsequent application of measures proportionate to these risks to ensure their effective mitigation.

Keywords: auditors, risks, audit, company

JEL Classification: M42

INTRODUCTION The business world has changed dramatically in recent years. Indeed, thanks to

technological development, companies have become more competitive and their structures have changed significantly. This development has led to significant flows both within companies and to or from third parties (customers, suppliers, credit organizations), but mainly an unprecedented development of fraud techniques that now affect all hierarchical levels and all sectors of activity. Audit quality has become a major issue for the accounting and auditing fields. Traditional audit approaches have some limitations against the regularity and honesty of financial statements. The statutory auditor, whose role is to control the regularity of the companies' accounting records and the veracity of their observations regarding the documents that justify them, has a right to alert if they find irregularities. The failure of auditors to detect numerous anomalies, despite changes in professional standards, calls into question a model of legal auditing centered on the larger objective of fair image and candor. The audit approach is a technique that is based on an in-depth and preliminary reflection on the nature of the risks that characterize the company. And only after this evaluation process will the auditor define his control program. This may lead him, compared to a traditional approach, to lighten his checks on sections or areas of accounts on which his reflection allows him to believe that the risks are low, and on the other hand, to initiate much more extensive investigations. This approach not only allows auditors to reduce the time budget but also to detect risks and protect themselves in the future. This approach also helps to strengthen the level of reasonable assurance and assurance that remains the ultimate objective of every auditor. In this regard, the question I would try to answer in this article is the following: To what extent can the use of a risk-based audit approach be a better alternative to the traditional audit approach? To answer this question, I will first reveal the limitations of the classical audit approach, then we will present the importance of the risk-based approach, and finally, we will cite its, different stages.

¹ Phd. Anca Daniela Şenchea, Phd. Anda Necula, Phd. Alice Mariana Preda (Simion), Phd. Andreea Savu -Universitatea Valahia din Târgoviște

REVIEW OF THE SPECIALTY LITERATURE

From the classical approach to the risk-based approach

Inadequacies of the classical approach Audit can be defined as the examination carried out by a competent and independent professional to express a reasoned opinion on the regularity and honesty of the financial statements. The objective is to conclude the image", so the sincerity and not the accuracy of the accounts. The traditional audit app to accounts was based on of analysis of internal control and inventory controls but in controls or only slightly differentiated way. The summary documents (financial statements, balance sheet, general register, journal, accounting ng documents) restart ting point of the audit. Its mode of operation consists in performing a cycle opposite to that of the mechanics of building financial statements. The auditor will limit his control over the financial statements to the control of accounting documents, he does not situate the audit problem as a whole and is limited to figures and documents. They are then interested either in the areas that represent a significant part of the activity reflected in the annual accounts or accounts elements of the final statements that present significant variations compared to those of the last financial year or in the study of the evolution of certain reports over time. The main objective of the auditor is simply to ensure that the information contained in the accounts is supported by supporting accounting documents. Auditing is done in a routine and unintelligent manner. If the audit is done in a routine and unintelligent manner, then this approach has many limitations resulting from insufficient planning and failure to consider (insufficient consideration) internal control.

Insufficient planning: In this approach, the auditor does not situate the audit problem as a whole. It focuses all its attention on ensuring that the information contained in the financial statements is justified by convincing accounting documents. This then leads him to verify the reality of the accounting records.

Insufficient consideration of internal control: The fact that the auditor verifies that the financial statements are justified by supporting accounting documents very often leads him to perform an exhaustive examination of said documents. However, it will be difficult for him to understand an accounting fact that has not been recorded in the accounts. This could then lead them to issue a favorable opinion when there are material anomalies in the financial statements due to the non-recognition of certain transactions. Consequently, it will be difficult for the auditor to follow this approach, perform an effective audit, and reach an opinion that reflects both the result and the financial and patrimonial situation of the company, from where a new audit approach appears: the risk-based approach, which is based on an in-depth and prior reflection on the nature of the risks that characterize the company.

Risk-based audit approach The statutory audit is insurance against the risks of poor accounting and financial information. Therefore, the auditor must identify these risks before performing his controls. What type of risk should be identified? These may be risks specific to the company, given the nature of its business, the weaknesses or dysfunctions of its organization or its financial situation, as well as risks specific to the company's sector of activity, the company or company. Only after this evaluation of the process will the auditor define his control program. This can lead him, compared to a traditional approach, to ease his controls on sections or areas of accounts where his thinking will help him undertake much larger investigations in other sectors. This risk-based approach, the logic of which is based on common sense, is not necessarily familiar to all auditors, as it banishes systematicity and requires making choices in controls. However, it has three major qualities: it allows the anticipation of problems before closing, the adaptation of controls over the accounts to the environment of the audited organization; responds to companies' desire to quickly communicate their financial statements. However, the auditor cannot list all the risks borne by the company. Indeed, the assessment carried out by the statutory auditor complies with the sampling rules which make it possible to limit the amount of work to be carried out, while providing an assurance reasonable about the faithful image. Thus, at the beginning of the audit mission, it is appropriate to target the risk-generating activities and to define not all the risks associated with each activity, but only the key risks likely to compromise the achievement of the objectives of the activity in question.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Forty semi-structured individual interviews were conducted by the author, of this study. Interviews took place from September to December 2022. This type of interview allowed me to receive information on a series of guiding questions and to provide the various interlocutors with a framework in which they could express themselves freely, from a qualitative perspective. The inventory of the communications carried out and their analysis made it possible to better understand the different elements related to audit risk. The conclusions of this analysis are presented in the RESULTS section. Also, the use of articles, information leaflets and, brochures, newsletters, allowed me to create the interview, guide. The topics covered in the interviews with the auditors were aimed at knowing the information about the different types of risks, as well as the ways to prevent and eliminate or reduce them.

RESULT

Risk-based audit approach

The approach proposed below is inspired by that used by auditors in major international audit firms. The techniques used are:

Knowledge and identification of risks The first step of the audit process is the knowledge of the audited company, which is of particular importance because it determines the progress of the other phases of the process. The auditor must therefore acquire a general knowledge of the company, its particularities, and its economic and social environment to better understand the events that may have a significant impact on the accounts subject to his audit, it also makes possible better planning of its mission so that it can focus its checks on the areas that pose the greatest risk. General awareness can generally include four essential phases:

- Collecting information;
- Analysis of different families of risks;
- Determination of significant areas;
- Summary of risks and plan of action.

Gathering information about the company The auditor must have a general knowledge of the company that allows him to direct his mission and understand the significant areas and systems. The information to be collected in this phase should allow the identification of the general risks borne by the company. The two major components of this phase are:

Preliminary work to know the company: At the end of this work we must highlight the external factors and the internal factors or influencing factors that affect the company's activity. The premiums are not directly controllable by management. When reviewing external factors, the auditor's main objectives are to obtain information to help him understand the company's business and the changes that have occurred and to identify situations that indicate potential areas of risk. These external factors are obtained through external documentation: specific regulations applicable to companies, documentation of the profession, etc. Internal factors are the financial and operational characteristics of the company: these are the conditions and circumstances of the company's business that have an impact on its operations. By reviewing the financial and operational characteristics of the company's activity, the auditor becomes aware of the company's internal conditions and circumstances that impact its operation. This knowledge also relates to the consideration of the control environment that responds to the identified risks.

The second part consists in establishing the first contacts with the company: interviews with the leaders and the various heads of departments, on-site visits, etc., which will make it possible to develop the work program and break it down.

Analysis of different risk families This involves identifying and defining the main types of risk that the auditor may detect as part of his mission. These different types of risks are the potential risks commonly accepted in this sector of activity but which weigh differently on firms depending on the orientation of their activities and their internal organization.

Determining significant areas and systems At the end of these first two stages of gathering information and identifying risks related to the audited firm, the auditor identifies significant areas and systems. The identification of these significant areas presupposes the prior determination of a significance threshold. It can be defined as the amount from which an error, inaccuracy, or omission can affect the regularity and honesty of the summary statements, as well as the true picture of the result of the financial year, and the financial situation of the company. This threshold is quantified by taking into account several quantitative and qualitative benchmarks.

Risk summary and approach plan The preliminary stage of risk understanding and analysis allows the auditor to gather all the general information about the firm. It can:

- understand the elements that influence the figures to be verified;
- evaluate the general degree of risk that will be faced;
- identify the significant transactions and accounts on which he will focus his efforts;
- adapt its control program accordingly.

The analysis of the particular characteristics of the companies, related to their activities and their general environment, allows the auditor to identify those that could have the effect of reducing the audit risk or, on the contrary, increasing it. Both will guide the audit process. The companies have the following distinctive characteristics, which could result in a reduction of the audit risk:

- The existence of a regulated internal control function on which the audit activity can be based;
- The importance of assets managed on behalf of third parties;
- Repetitiveness of transactions and automation of processing, which play an essential role in the reliability of information systems;
- Absence of specific accounting principles and schemes to facilitate the control of accounts;
 From these observations, it emerges that the following should be prioritized in the audit strategy:
 - Good functioning of the internal control;
- Coherence of the formation of the result through detailed analytical examination and analysis of information systems.

Evaluation of internal control The quality of internal control exercised within a company largely determines the final phase of the audit process and especially the control of accounts. Indeed, a good assessment of internal control provides greater assurance to the auditor and will therefore allow him to significantly reduce the work of auditing the accounts that the auditor will have to perform. On the contrary, a weak appreciation of internal control leads to the deepening of account controls. Internal control consists of all control measures, accounting or otherwise, that management defines, applies, and monitors, under its responsibility, to ensure:

- Completeness of records;
- Accuracy of accounts;
- Authorization of transactions;
- Authorization of access to assets and records;
- Accounting and audit control.

The auditor assesses the company's internal control according to its objective of certifying the summary statements. Accordingly, it will only perform a review and assessment

of internal control for the systems leading to significant accounts that it has identified in the planning phase of its engagement. The assessment of internal control primarily involves understanding the data processing procedures implemented in the company to verify the proper function and correct application of these procedures by performing compliance tests. The procedure to be followed by the auditor, to evaluate the degree of risk control through internal control, is the following:

- To communicate the organization manual or arrange the systems and procedures used in entering data into the accounting programs;
 - Ensure that he has understood and retained this description (using compliance tests);
- To deduce the satisfactory (strong points) and less so (weak points) procedures and ensure that they are applied permanently (permanence tests);
 - Conclude by highlighting strengths and weaknesses.

The auditor should proceed to the detailed description of the internal control procedures. The company's procedures manual (if any) can be used to gather useful information. In addition to the operations described in the classic audit missions, special attention must be paid to the IT environment of the audited company. Among the points that the description must take into account imperatively, we mention:

- Highlighting the accumulation of tasks within the company, a fundamental source of risks;
- Detailed description of flows and operations that do not respect the principle of separation of duties;
- At the end of his work of studying and understanding the internal control procedures, the auditor must be able to distinguish the strengths that he must validate and the weaknesses that can generate fraud to prevent it and determine the threshold of meaning.

Auditing accounts The approach to auditing accounts relies heavily on the auditor's assessment of internal control given the large volumes and number of accounts to be processed. The strengths identified during the internal control review work will make it possible to ease or deepen the closing work on certain accounts. The auditor must, however, perform at each closing:

- Overall analytical examination;
- Reconciliations between management data and accounting data;
- Analysis of suspended accounts.

These checks should enable him to form an opinion on the balances of the balance sheet accounts and to ensure that income and expenditure have been recorded correctly and exhaustively. This stage aims to ensure the reality of the assets and the exhaustive nature of the liabilities. The degree of importance given to this phase depends on the understanding and evaluation of internal control. In the course of his engagement, the auditor obtains sufficient and appropriate evidence to establish reasonable assurance that allows him to issue certification. To this end, it has various control techniques, in particular plausibility document checks, physical observation, direct confirmation, and analytical examination.

- Checks on the documents: refers to the examination of documents received by the company, documents created by it, internal checks, etc.
- Physical observation: consists of examining goods, accounts, or how a procedure is applied. This is one of, the most effective ways to ensure the existence of an asset. However, only the existence of the good is confirmed, the other elements such as ownership of the asset, and the assigned value must be verified by other techniques. Among the elements that can be the subject of a physical examination, we note:
 - **tangible fixed assets**;
 - inventories;
 - **4** commercial receipts;
 - **4** cash.

• Direct confirmation: consists of obtaining directly from third parties who have commercial or financial relations with the company, information about the balance of their accounts or the transactions made with it. The main ca direct confirmation refers to fixed assets, stocks, receivables, payables, banks, personnel, etc. the choice of the balances to be confirmed must take into account all the particularities of the controlled enterprise. These are mainly: large balances, old balances, canceled accounts, and abnormal and I balances.

The analytical examination consists of:

- Making comparisons between the data resulting from the annual accounts and previous, subsequent and forecasted data;
 - Analyze fluctuations and trends;
- Studying and analyzing the unusual elements resulting from these comparisons. The overall review of the annual accounts aims to verify that the balance sheet, the profit and lo, the account, and the annex:
- They are consistent, given the general knowledge of the company, its sector of activity and economic context;
 - They are consistent with the accounting data;
 - They are presented according to the accounting principles and regulations in force;
 - I take into account events after the closing date.

It also makes it possible to verify that the annex complies with the legal and regulatory provisions and that it contains all the information of significant importance regarding the company's financial situation and results. Several analysis procedures can be used, including:

- Comparing the data from the annual accounts with those from previous or projected accounts etc.:
 - Comparison as a percentage of turnover of various items in the profit and loss account. Any significant deviation must be analyzed and explained by the company.

Following his checks, the auditor will certify that the annual accounts are regular,

honest and give a true and fair view of the results of the operations of the previous financial year, as well as of the financial position and assets of the company at the end of that year. It will state that it has performed the due diligence considered necessary according to the standards of the profession. The annual accounts will be attached to the report. If he certifies with reservations or refuses to certify, the auditor must clearly state the reasons for this and, if possible, in figures, the incidence. The report is presented in two parts:

- Opinion on the annual accounts
- Checks and specific information.

CONCLUSIONS

Without context, the risk-based approach has multiple advantages for auditors in that it allows them to perform shorter, but also better-targeted tasks. This risk-based approach has at least three major qualities: it allows anticipation of problems before closing, an adaptation of controls over accounts to the environment of the audited firm; finally, it responds to companies' desire to communicate their financial statements quickly. The application of the risk-based audit approach in the current context made it possible to measure the importance of this method, which is based on common sense and banishes systematicity and repetition and forces to make choices in the verifications. This advantage allows auditors to focus on areas of risk and vulnerability in the company and detect fraud, if applicable. It also makes it possible to prevent several cases of fraud that did not appear during the statutory audit missions carried out by another firm, applying the traditional audit approach.

However, despite its importance, this approach is not used by most auditors. Therefore, there are several reasons for this reluctance.

First, the concepts of risk are generally not clearly understood.

Auditors believe that risk assessment requires special skills or specialized IT tools. Although the auditor's activity consists in verifying the accounting data and in particular the balance sheet and the profit and loss account, the scope of his investigations must go beyond this narrow framework. If it wants to carry out its mission effectively, it is important to also examine a certain number of factors whose accounting impact is more or less direct. Indeed, one cannot judge the company's financial statements by ignoring the technical, commercial, legal, fiscal, and social realities. The auditor will have to use all his reasoning qualities to detect these anomalies that can be fatal to the company; indeed, conducting an audit engagement requires minds to be trained and techniques to be mastered.

Acknowledgment:

This work is supported by project POCU 153770, entitled "Accessibility of advanced research for sustainable economic development - ACADEMIKA", co-financed by the European Social Fund under the Human Capital Operational Program 2014-2020

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Arenes, L. (2003) Audit. An Integrated Approach,, Eight Edition, ARC Publishing, ChişinăuStolowy, H., Pujol, E., Molinari, M. (2003). Audit financier et contrôle interne L'apport de la loi Sarbanes-Oxley.

Dănescu, T. (2007) Financial Audit. Convergence between Theory and Practice, Ericson Publishing, Bucharest.

Dobroţeanu, L.; Dobroţeanu, C.L. (2002) Audit. Concepts and Practices. National and International Approach, Economică Publishing, Bucharest

Hechmi, A. (2007). Guide pour l'utilisation des normes internationales d'audit dans l'audit des petites et moyennes entreprises.

O. R. Whittington, K. Pany. Principles of Auditing & Other Assurance Services, 18th Edition, McGraw Hill Education, 2012. Cours des comptes européenne (2012). Manuel d'audit financier et d'audit de conformité.

Oprean, I.; Popa, I.E.; Lenghel, R.D. (2007) Audit and Financial Control Procedures, Risoprint Publishing, Cluj NapocaViet, H.T.V (2011). Les dimensions de la performance des cabinets d'audit légale selon les auditeurs - tentative d'explication théorique.

Pons, N. et Vidaux, F. (2004). Audit et fraude. Les publications de l'IFACI, collection « la fraude dans tous ses Etats ».

Todea, N.; Stanciu, I. (2009) Study regarding Materiality in Financial Auditing, Audit Financiar Magazine, 10

POOR PERFORMANCE OF SMALL, MEDIUM AND MICRO ENTERPRISES IN SOUTH AFRICA - WHAT HAVE RACE AND APARTHEID GOT TO DO WITH IT?

Tendai Makwara¹ Sibanda Lucky² Iwu Chux Gervase³

Abstract

Small, Medium and Micro Enterprises (SMMEs) are expected to significantly contribute to socio-economic development of South Africa. Despite the various private and public institutional agencies in place to bolster the role of SMMEs, these SMMEs continue to perform poorly. The poor performance of SMMEs has been linked to race and Apartheid. Through a literature review, we explored this attribution of SMMEs' poor performance to race and apartheid, considering that many argue that the apartheid legacy is the root of many challenges encountered by SMMEs. Our results are, however, ambivalent. They suggest that, although apartheid and race remain critical issues in explaining some existing structural challenges that SMMEs encounter, their effects may have been superseded by other post-apartheid issues that undermine SMMEs' performance. We, therefore, conclude that the causes of the poor performance of SMMEs in South Africa stretch beyond race and apartheid and call for an exhaustive analysis of broader issues that undermine SMMEs' performance in South Africa.

Key words: Small, Medium and Micro Enterprises (SMMEs); Business Performance; South Africa; Apartheid; Economic development

JEL Classification: F63, L26

1. Introduction and background

A host of literature studies and statistics in South Africa confirm the country's poor state of the Small, Medium and Micro Enterprises (SMMEs) ecosystem. The desire to understand better what factors underlie such poor performance also seems to be shared. Various studies have examined small business failures and the reasons thereto (Bushe, 2019), how local SMMEs compare to other Brazil, Russia, India, China and South Africa (BRICS) nations, and lessons that could be drawn from such comparative studies (Noshad et al., 2019). The 2019 International Finance Corporation (IFC) study emphasises the significant contribution of small enterprises in sub-Saharan Africa, where a big proportion of the population is employed in small firms. Rens et al. (2021) explored the impact of business incubations on SMMEs' growth potential. At the same time, Fatoki (2021) investigated small business performance against access to finance. However, although stated in inferential terms in other studies, the interrogation of SMMEs' performance in racial terms is a grey, underexplored and often neglected area.

Government institutional accounts (for example, Small Enterprise Development Agency (SEDA), (2018) and other research institutes (for example, Trade and Industrial Policy Strategies (TIPS), (Real Economy Bulletin, 2017)) render nominal accounts of ownership patterns based on race among other aggregates but do not go as far as contextualising the meaning of performance indicators concerning the general SMME performance in the country. While the GEM 2021/2022 report highlights the participation of various races in entrepreneurial activities in South Africa, it leaves out pertinent information on business failure based on race (Bowmaker-Falconer & Meyer, 2022). Perhaps, within a country where race is a polarising concept in everyday experiences, such avoidance is understandable. However, ignoring race issues in SMMEs has the effect of promoting a generalist approach

¹ Lecturer, Higher Education Department, Boston City Campus, Stellenbosch, South Africa

² Lecturer, Higher Education Department, Boston City Campus, Stellenbosch, South Africa, corresponding author, email: ckisto@gmail.com

³ Professor, School of Business and Finance, University of the Western Cape, Cape Town 7535, South Africa

towards academic, practice and policy formulation imperatives. Arguably in South Africa, reflecting on race and SMME performance is necessary, considering the widely floated and often unchallenged assertion that the apartheid legacy is responsible for many of the challenges that SMMEs encounter. In a nutshell, it appears apartheid has become a default explanation for every problem that SMMEs encounter, notwithstanding the fading footprints of the past era in the post-1994 business environment. Arguably, the continual referencing of apartheid concerning many small business challenges is an indirect way of dragging the perceived racial issues that can further contrast the performance of White owned and Black-owned businesses, even when such contrasts may have little to do with race. In that context, what race and apartheid have to do with the overall performance of SMMEs in South Africa may have become a practical question to ponder.

1.1. Clarification of terms

Specific to this study, we briefly clarify the following terms to provide some context: apartheid system; race; SMMEs, and business performance metrics. Since this study aims to explore the potential attribution of apartheid to SMMEs' poor business performance, clarity on the terms may help readers.

1.2. Apartheid and race

Apartheid refers to a system put in place by the Nationalist Government after the 1948 election aimed to separate Whites from non-Whites and classify people into four races: Whites, Blacks, Indians and Coloureds (Mahajan, 2014). The segregation was done through urban planning and housing development policies leading to the creation of townships. In this paper, we refer to those disadvantaged by the apartheid system as non-Whites (Blacks, Indians and Coloureds). As part of the apartheid system, Blacks, coloureds, and Indians were disadvantaged while Whites were advantaged. Non-Whites were discouraged from becoming entrepreneurs, and the practice was deemed criminal activity (Mahajan, 2014; Odeku, 2021; Sixaba & Rogerson, 2019). Mostly, non-Whites had limited options to become employees in townships – a dormitory for supplying labour to the mining industry. Next, we explore the existence of any links between SMMEs' poor performance and race and apartheid.

1.3. SMMEs and business performance metrics

The Government Gazette No. 42304 of the Republic of South Africa groups SMMEs into three categories based on annual turnover and the number of employees, and these are (i) Small, (ii) Medium and (iii) Micro Enterprises (Government Gazette, 2019). Such firms employ between zero and 250 employees with an annual turnover of up to R220 million. However, the turnover varies per industry, and so does the number of employees, depending on the size of the firms. Considering the above criteria, it may appear sufficient to measure business performance based on growth in terms of the size of employees, turnover and profits (Olutunla & Obamuyi, 2008). However, reliance on measuring performance solely based on quantitative and financial measures is misleading. In their study addressing performance measurement issues by small and medium enterprises in Cape Metropolis, South Africa, Maduekwe and Kamala (2016) alerted that utilising only financial measures results generates a false and incomplete picture of the small business's performance. They, therefore, encouraged the use of non-financial measures as they capture the other hidden strategy and social performance scores that financial figures fail to account.

2. The State of SMMEs in South Africa

According to the Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (GEM), which publishes informative and authoritative longitudinal study annual reports on entrepreneurship activity in various countries, the challenges inhibiting entrepreneurial activity in South Africa have remained the same for a long time (Herrington & Kew, 2018). Since 2001, South Africa has made little

progress towards dealing with SMME issues relating to government policies on the regulatory environment, access to finance, and education and training. While confirming these challenges as endemic to the success of the small business economy, the Minister of Small Business Development, Stella Ndabeni-Abraham, underscored the centrality of red tape practices that spoke to the disintegrated systems that government has, for example, regarding procurement arrangements and also slow legislative reviews of policies that still prohibit a small business from participating in the economy. The Minister also cited the complicity of the private sector players who close up their value chains from small business players (BusinessDay Live, 2022: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=qzxqRMG0HIs), suggesting that small firms often find themselves sandwiched between two influential forces that on the one hand are expected to support them, but literary are also accelerating their downfall. Hence considering such business practices where private sector players restrict SMME's participation in the value chain Makwara (2022) argues it is fair to situate large firms as both enablers and threats to small business growth in South Africa.

The context of the above challenges suggests they affect entrepreneurs of all kinds regardless of race and political heritage emanating from an apartheid history. However, it may be argued that since apartheid as a system impacted the social capital of whites and nonwhites, there may be direct and indirect effects of apartheid towards poor business performance. Juxtaposing the question of apartheid and resource inherence among black people while defending the rationality of the Broad-Based Black Economic Empowerment (BBBEE) legislations, South African President Cyril Ramaphosa stressed, "I do not know many black people who have inherited wealth from their parents, and yet on the white side in this country, nearly every white person has inherited something from their parents" (Shiko, 2022). The essence of such statements argues for acknowledging apartheid as a window for assessing economic, social and small business participation levels between racial groups in the country. Therefore, if the poor performance of SMMEs is attributed to apartheid, perhaps there is a need to explore the relevant social capital of white entrepreneurs versus non-white SMME owners, which may also explain how they differ in dealing with the challenges they encounter. Apartheid may have a long-term impact on the social capital of non-whites, such as education and low entrepreneurial culture and access to resources to participate in the economy. Considering that non-whites were denied access to quality education and inhibited from starting businesses (Bvuma & Marnewick 2020), they are likely to enter into the entrepreneurship fray with lesser skills compared to their White counterparts.

As alluded to in the GEM Report 2017/2018 (Herrington & Kew, 2018), the government policies are to some extent burdening SMMEs due to additional administrative requirements which require compliance on the SMMEs and, in some cases. According to Scheba and Turok (2020), formalisation processes for South African entrepreneurs are quite stringent. SMMEs must register a business, pay taxes and comply with labour laws, to mention a few. Failure to comply results in fines, for example, not following relevant procedures when laying off an employee. Due to the increasing frustration of formalising businesses in South Africa, business owners end up short-cutting the system (Khoase et al., 2020).

Furthermore, government agencies such as SEDA and National Youth Development Agency (NYDA) have insignificantly contributed to providing solutions to SMMEs. Maloka and Dlamini (2016) decry that these agencies are ill-equipped to offer proper advisory services and their invisibility owing to poor marketing of their services and location. Herrington and Kew (2018) added that SMMEs owners experience severe challenges accessing government agencies to acquire funding. For example, many township business owners seeking these services lack the literacy skills to use internet platforms such as for business registration (Maloka & Dlamini, 2016).

Several literature sources cite government policies, the regulatory environment, access to finance, and a lack of education and training as problematic areas that negatively impact the success of SMMEs (Chimucheka, 2013; Herrington & Kew, 2018; Makwara, 2022). Bhorat et al. (2018) highlight how large businesses harmfully impact SMMEs, such as late payment on goods or services rendered, setting impossible standards SMMEs have to meet to qualify to have a business relationship with large firms, and the absence of long-term contracts. Owing to the bad business practices of big companies, oligopolistic markets exist in some markets (Buthelezi, Mtani & Mncube, 2018:9). Makwara (2022) also refers to the above behaviour in his study about how big businesses are a threat to SMMEs because of their size, market dominance, and their close ties with the government.

From a behavioural perspective, several studies have established that few black South Africans are interested in operating small businesses (Musabayana & Mutambara, 2022; Preisendorfer, Bitz & Bezuidenhout, 2012). In contrast, white people are three to five times more active in self-employment than their black counterparts (Preisendorfer et al., 2012). In their study, Herrington, Kew and Kew (2010) reported that black Africans were far less likely to be involved in entrepreneurial activity than other racial groups in the country. Along with this claim, they added that entities owned by whites and Indian entrepreneurs were more likely to mature into new firms than those of Black African and Coloured races. Regarding SMME failure rates, Maduku and Kaseeram (2021) report that an average of 60% fail within the first few years of existence. As per the GEM 2021/22 report, the high SMMEs failure rate has become common knowledge, and as a result, even those who wish to embark on an entrepreneurial practice are discouraged due to fear of failure (Bowmaker-Falconer & Meyer, 2022). Entrepreneurial activities become risky without the necessary support. Thus, many who end up opening businesses may do so because of a lack of alternative means of survival. Such an insight may suggest that SMME owners venture into business due to high unemployment, with business ideas lacking uniqueness, thus potentially contributing to the poor performance of SMMEs.

Furthermore, various authors cite the lack of education as a major contributor towards entrepreneurial decisions and managerial skills (Makina et al., 2015; Mbonyane & Ladzani, 2011; Tshuma, 2022). Besides being distinct from the previous regime's business climate, this new generation of entrepreneurs is endowed with many resources that were lacking during apartheid, including government support agencies, though, as argued above, these seem to be delivering little benefit to entrepreneurs. Examples of the above agencies include the SEDA, NYDA, access to financing agencies, entrepreneurship education, and improved education and training (Bowmaker-Falconer & Herrington, 2020). The benefits of government agencies to businesses include attracting government contracts (Olomi, Charles & Juma, 2019), business development opportunities (Iwu, 2018) and tax incentives (Wakefield & Swanepoel, 2022). Echoing a similar view Sekele (2016) argued that the solid entrepreneurial support structures available to small businesses in the country nullify arguments suggesting a lack of access to an enabling and facilitating environment for enterprise development. Against this new background, it becomes preposterous to seek to validate the poor performance of blackowned SMMEs contrasted with the perceived better performance of white-owned entities based on claims of racial advantages of one race over another.

Moreover, due to the current load-shedding, businesses are experiencing low productivity, damage to equipment and loss of profits (Ateba, Prinsloo, & Gawlik, 2019; Dewa, Van Der Merwe & Matope, 2020). Generally, post-1994, scholars have argued that infrastructure development issues negatively impact small business sector growth (Chimucheka, 2013), irrespective of racial differences. Thus it is understandable that calls for the government to develop infrastructure such as transportation and power generation to support local development (Asitik, Sharpley and Phelan, 2016) through policy development

(Iwu, 2018) and investing in physical, economic, or social infrastructure (Makhathini, Mlambo & Mpanza, 2020) have become commonplace. Considering the above, is the poor performance of SMMEs not a result of other structural and economic issues, including poor governance and not necessarily race and apartheid?

3. Race and SMME performance - connecting the dots from apartheid years

It is commonly stated that the apartheid era propagated unfair, unjust, discriminatory and race-based practices that ordinarily made it difficult for non-White entrepreneurs to thrive (Mahajan, 2014). Some accounts emphasise that opportunities pre-1994 black ownership of SMMEs were highly restricted, or at best, mainly survivalist (Mahambehlala, 2019), owing to the apartheid legislation and practices. However, it is also too simplistic to assume that all White-owned SMMEs enjoyed privileges and support that can account for their better performance in the SMME sector post-1994. In fact, literature suffers from a curious lack of holistic apartheid-era data (Mariotti & Fourie, 2014), resulting from the exclusion and inaccessibility of data on economic activities by non-white racial groups, which makes it challenging to make substantive claims about the status of the SMME economy. While the conditions appertaining pre-1994 unduly favoured White business entities, small business sector issues such as its overall size, importance to the economy and what privilege Whiteowned entities enjoyed are less apparent. Instead, literature shows that an apartheid economy was dominated by White-owned large firms (Bhorat, 2018), which largely maintained relationships with the government and facilitated the perpetuation of apartheid policies in the country through, for example, differential pay structures. Supposedly thereof, relative political capital between small and large firms determined access to government support, with SMMEs unlikely to receive much support from the government due to a lack of political capital in the context of sustaining the apartheid agenda.

Although Lloyd (2018) claims that during apartheid, new White enterprises enjoyed greater support, not only from government policies but also from private sectors and banks, this view appears to be simply a conclusion based on a simple association between race, politics and assumed privileges gifted for simply being white under apartheid. Various studies shed a contrasting perspective on this simplification. Preisendorfer et al. (2012) stressed that, during apartheid, the government focused on large corporations and neglected the small business sector. In fact, during the apartheid era, there was a conspicuous absence of small businesses in the dominant sectors of the economy and very little attention was paid to small enterprise promotion in public policy (Herrington, Kew & Kew, 2010). This view was earlier made more explicit by Berry et al. (2002), who emphasised that during apartheid, South Africa's SMME economy was either largely neglected by policy-makers or actively discouraged by repressive measures in the case of black-owned enterprises. In the same vein, Ladzani (2010) concurred and acknowledged that, although some small business support agencies existed during apartheid, these tended to be overall less effective. Collectively this literature posits an underlying premise that being a white small business entity came along with no distinctive substantial advantages, at least as far as policy-directed support was because they were viewed as less important in sustaining the agendas of the colonial government. Potentially, therefore, it is pervasive to attribute the current performance of white SMMEs based on the supposed nominal privileges of the apartheid regime, which they may not even have enjoyed as much as is assumed. In any case, almost three decades after the supposed period of set privileges, it is rational to accept that any perceived direct benefits from that period must have been overtaken by events, time and the dawn of new social and economic order. However, against this assertion, Seleke (2016) lamented that the injustices of the apartheid system are alive and still harm the progress of black entrepreneurial endeavours. To the extent that this premise situates emerging entrepreneurs as victims of history, arguably,

it practically demonstrates the ineffectual nature of current practices, policies and initiatives to grow the small business sector, oblivious of the country's political, racial legacy. Hence, commenting on the status of black entrepreneurship, Preisendorfer et al. (2012) asserted that, although apartheid provides a convenient basis for different causal mechanisms that need to be spelt out, nevertheless it is not in itself sufficient to explain the current lack of black entrepreneurship in South Africa. Thus, to a greater extent, it may be argued that the current performance and role in the economy of SMMEs owned by Blacks and Whites should be explained within the post-1994 operational environment.

Unfortunately, existing scholarship is yet to propagate an exclusive post-colonial perspective that extols SMME performance in South Africa, and thus it remains sensible for many to locate connections between poor SMMEs performance and race through an apartheid prism. Tshuma (2022) lament the failure of South Africa to address deep structural legacies highlighting the persistence of issues such as prevalent poverty levels, unemployment and inequality, and barriers to market entry for SMMEs. Regarding non-White entrepreneurs, there is a greater emphasis on how apartheid distorted the emergence of a formal SMME sector but less on its nature and size under apartheid. While politics rendered it less conducive to establishing thriving formal small businesses (Bvuma & Marnewick, 2020), Black entrepreneurs had limited business opportunities in black communities as survivalist SMMEs. Thus, it could be argued that while the apartheid caveat hypothetically places white SMMEs in better standing compared to black SMMEs under apartheid, they possibly share a similar background in so far as lack of government support is concerned and their insignificant role in the economy. That is not to say that White-owned SMMEs could have had better access to business support services such as bank loans. However, literature that has examined the utilisation levels of such support services, and if ever they did, considering that the apartheid neglected their needs (Berry et al., 2002; Preisendorfer et al., 2012) is almost non-existent, hence difficult to measure the impact of those services to the performance of white SMMEs. However, of importance is that, whereas race could affect the right to do business and access specific markets between Black and White entrepreneurs, there is little evidence that it did little to solicit government support and, ultimately, level of economic contribution. If this framing is correct, therefore, SMMEs' performance post-apartheid on racial terms owes little to the acclaimed 'evils' of apartheid.

In any case, the post-1994 operational environment emerged remarkably different from the apartheid era. To begin with, it brought in newly inclusive legislation, policies, small business sector agendas and affirmative action programmes that sought to dismantle the nuances of race-based privileges in the economy (Seleke, 2016). As a result, it entrenched a small business development agenda that popularised the incorporation of formerly excluded racial groups into the mainstream economy and lauded the small business economy as one of the avenues to promoting social equality. Enacting programmes such as the Broad-Based Black Economic Empowerment (BBBEE) to level the playing field and promote black entrepreneurship comes to mind. However, researchers have an emerging consensus that the B-BBEE programme has not worked (Fransen & Helmsing, 2016; Musabayana & Mutambara, 2022) owing to implementation shortcomings, bureaucracy and political hijacking for the benefit of the ruling black elite. Moreover, the passage of time since 1994 has ushered in a new generation of entrepreneurs, mainly young people, arguably free and uninhibited by the so-called ills of apartheid, such as denying education to black people. Thus, suggesting that the post-1994 experiences condition their entrepreneurial culture.

Some researchers have attributed the different entrepreneurial inclinations and successes between racial groups to factors such as different levels of access to social capital, quality of education and inherited risk-taking cultures. However, the strength of these factors in rationalising any perceived differences in entrepreneurial development in racial terms is

arguably not straightforward, considering the country's social, political and economic dynamics unfolding. For example, since 1994, South Africans have had the opportunity for cross-cultural learning and interracial networking, resulting in altered entrepreneurial personalities of blacks and whites alike. In their study, Fransen and Helmsing (2016) demonstrated the proclivity of black-owned handicraft businesses to break segmentation barriers and establish formal entities as their white counterparts. Specifically, the study found that segmentation is no longer determined by race, further demonstrating concurrent changes in the post-1994 business climate and the declining role of race as a moderating factor in business success. In that regard, the thought of Groenewald (2022) that skin colour cannot be used as a generalised indicator of a disadvantage comes to mind.

Furthermore, some emerging evidence even suggests that more support is being targeted towards black than white entrepreneurs, consistent with affirmative action. For example, Hewitt and Janse van Rensburg (2020) examined the role of business incubators in developing the small business community and found that the incubators provided support to black entrepreneurs only, excluding their white counterparts. These findings affirm the sentiments of Ntlamelle (2015), who bemoaned the negative impact of exclusionary race-based affirmative action programmes embedded in South Africa's incubation programmes on white-owned businesses. As Hewitt and Janse van Rensburg (2020) stressed, such exclusions of white entrepreneurs prevailed without being explicitly mentioned, suggesting that there is a need for caution in attempts to popularise the notion that white entrepreneurs enjoy unassailable access to entrepreneurship support services when compared to their black counterparts.

Conclusion

The above contentions do not seek to underplay the impact of systemic injustices of apartheid that continue to undermine entrepreneurship development in the country. Rather, they question whether South Africa has not yet reached a cut-off point where history should no longer bear and cover up the deficiencies of the post-1994 small business development strategies. For too long, race and apartheid have been exploited as entry points to rationalising the numerous difficulties undermining progress in the SMMEs sector. Nevertheless, many of the challenges seemingly restraining the success of SMMEs are a result of present-day manifestations of corruption, bad governance, failure to implement transformation policies and ill-conceived small business development strategies. The failure of the government agencies and the persistence of the major challenges of SMMEs' poor performance as per the GEM questions the quality of business ideas pursued by SMMEs. Survivalist entrepreneurs tend to venture into business after failing to secure employment, leading to "me-too" businesses that may struggle to convince financiers and attract support from government agencies. Such entrepreneurs may even lack some business management skills, which have also been widely cited as having a critical impact on business success. Furthermore, it is worth exploring the impact of the support rendered by government agencies on the success of SMMES. The question is 'where are the government agencies going wrong if SMMEs continue to fail despite the plethora of interventions?".

Business success should not be attributed to one aspect but a combination of complex issues, such as the influence of weak infrastructure and arduous business formalisation processes. Despite government interventions towards the success of SMMEs, various stakeholders must work together for the success of SMMEs. The private sector may also support the SMMEs but help the industry grow instead of viewing the industry as a competitor. For example, private businesses may consider mentoring SMMEs in business incubators to develop competitive business ideas and managerial skills before being left to run independently.

Nonetheless, the propriety of these obvious challenges in the small business ecosystem, race and apartheid issues continue to be relevant to any serious discourse about small business performance. In our view, race and apartheid issues continue to influence systemic variables that directly and indirectly affect small business operations, for example, access to some markets by black entrepreneurs is still technically denied by oligopolistic large firms that emerged from the apartheid era (Buthelezi, Mtani & Mncube, 2018), and banks appear to discriminate against black SMME borrowers (Mbedzi & Simatele, 2020).

References

- 1. Asitik, A.J., Sharpley, R. & Phelan, C., 2016. Establishing the link between entrepreneurship, built capital, and poverty reduction in rural northern Ghana., *International Journal of Arts & Sciences* 9(2), pp. 493-508.
- 2. Ateba, B. B., Prinsloo, J. J., & Gawlik, R., 2019. The significance of electricity supply sustainability to industrial growth in South Africa. *Energy Reports*, 5(1), pp. 1324-1338.
- 3. Berry, A., von Blottnitz, M., Cassim, R., Kesper, A., Rajaratnam, B. & van Seventer, D. E., 2002. The economics of SMMES in South Africa. *Trade and Industrial Policy Strategies*, *1*(1), pp. 1-110.
- 4. Bhorat, H., Asmal, Z., Lilenstein, K. & Van der Zee, K., 2018. SMMEs in South Africa: Understanding the constraints on growth and performance. Development Policy Research Unit, [pdf] Available at: http://www.dpru.uct.ac.za/sites/default/files/image_tool/images/36/Publications/Working_Papers/DPRU%20WP2 01802.pdf [Accessed 13 November 2022].
- 5. Bowmaker-Falconer, A. & Herrington, M., 2020. Igniting start-ups for economic growth and social change. *Global Entrepreneurship Monitor South Africa (GEM SA) 2019/2020 report*, [online] Available at: https://www.gemconsortium.org/file/open?fileId=50671 [Accessed 28 October 2022].
- 6. Bowmaker-Falconer, A. & Meyer, N., 2022. Fostering entrepreneurial ecosystem vitality 2021/2022 report. *Global Entrepreneurship Monitor South Africa (GEM SA) 2021/2022 report*, [pdf] Available at: https://www.usb.ac.za/wp-content/uploads/2022/07/GEM-SA-National-Report Online July-2022.pdf [Accessed 28 October 2022].
- 7. Bushe, B., 2019. The causes and impact of business failure among small to micro and medium enterprises in South Africa. *Africa's Public Service Delivery and Performance Review*, 7(1), pp. 1-26.
- 8. BusinessDay Live, 2022. *Leadership in small business*. YouTube, [video online] Available at: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=gzxqRMG0HIs [Accessed 10 November 2022].
- 9. Buthelezi, T., Mtani, T., & Mncube, L., 2018. The extent of market concentration in South Africa's product markets. *Journal of Antitrust Enforcement*, 7(3), pp. 352-364.
- 10. Bvuma, S. & Marnewick, C., 2020. Sustainable livelihoods of township small, medium and micro enterprises towards growth and development. *Sustainability*, 12(8), pp. 1-17.
- 11. Chimucheka, T., 2013. Overview and performance of the SMMEs sector in South Africa. *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences*, 4(14), pp. 783-783.
- 12. Dewa, M. T., Van Der Merwe, A. F., & Matope, S., 2020. Production scheduling heuristics for frequent load-shedding scenarios: a knowledge engineering approach. *South African Journal of Industrial Engineering*, 31(3), pp. 110-121.
- 13. Fatoki, O., 2021. Access to finance and performance of small firms in South Africa: The moderating effect of financial literacy. WSEAS Transactions on Business and Economics, 18, pp. 78-87.
- 14. Fransen, J. & Helmsing, B., 2016. Breaching the barriers: The segmented business and innovation system of handicraft exports in Cape Town. *Development Southern Africa*, 33(4), pp. 486-501.

- 15. Government Gazette, 2019. Revised Schedule 1 of the National Definition of Small Enterprise in South Africa, [pdf] Available at: https://www.gov.za/sites/default/files/gcis_document/201903/423041gon399.pdf [Accessed 28 October 2022].
- 16. Groenewald, P., 2022. *Ramaphosa confirms AA and BEE here to stay*, *Politicsweb* [online] Available at: https://www.politicsweb.co.za/documents/ramaphosa-confirms-aa-and-bee-here-to-stay-pieter [Accessed 10 November 2022].
- 17. Herrington, M. & Kew, P., 2018. Is there a change in attitude towards the small and medium business sector in South Africa 2017/18. *Global Entrepreneurship Monitor*, pp. 1-84. [pdf] Available at: https://www.gemconsortium.org/file/open?fileId=50411 [Accessed 10 November 2022].
- 18. Herrington, M., Kew, J. & Kew, P., 2010. *Tracking entrepreneurship in South Africa: A GEM perspective*, [online] Available at: https://www.researchgate.net/profile/Jacqui-Kew/publication/317566088_GEM_South_Africa_2009_Tracking_Entrepreneurship/links/593ff9
 https://www.researchgate.net/profile/Jacqui-Kew/publication/317566088_GEM_South_Africa_2009_Tracking_Entrepreneurship.pdf
 [Accessed 10 October 2022].
- 19. Hewitt, L. M. M. & Janse van Rensburg, L. J., 2020. The role of business incubators in creating sustainable small and medium enterprises. *Southern African Journal of Entrepreneurship and Small Business Management*, 12(1), pp. 1-9.
- 20. IFC, 2018. The Unseen Sector: A Report on the MSME Opportunity in South Africa, [online] Available at: https://www.ifc.org/wps/wcm/connect/industry ext content/ifc external corporate site/financial+institutions/resources/msme-opportunity-south-africa [Accessed 10 October 2022].
- 21. Iwu, C. G., 2018. The sustainability of small or medium enterprises growth in emerging markets. In *Proceedings of the International Conference on Business and Management Dynamics* (ICBMD), pp. 213-221.
- 22. Khoase, R. G., Derera, E., McArthur, B., & Ndayizigamiye, P., 2020. Barriers to start-up and sustainable growth of SMMEs: a comparative study between South Africa and Lesotho. *African Journal of Business and Economic Research*, 15(2), pp. 137-157.
- 23. Ladzani, W., 2010. Historical perspective of small business development initiatives in South Africa with special reference to Limpopo province. *Problems and perspectives in management*, 8(3), pp. 68-79.
- 24. Lloyd, W., 2018) South Africa's White Entrepreneurs: An Evolution from Opportunity to Necessity. In: Dana L.P, Ratten V & Honyenuga B.Q. African Entrepreneurship: Challenges and Opportunities for Doing Business, Palgrave Macmillan, Cham, Switzerland. Pg. 275-287.
- 25. Maduku, H. & Kaseeram, I., 2021. Success indicators among black owned informal Small Micro and Medium Enterprises' (SMMEs) in South Africa. *Development Southern Africa*, 38(4), pp. 664-682.
- 26. Mahajan, S. (Ed.)., 2014. *Economics of South African townships: Special Focus on Diepsloot*. World Bank Publications, [pdf] Available at: https://documents1.worldbank.org/curated/ar/217211468302413395/pdf/Economics-of-South-African-townships-special-focus-on-Diepsloot.pdf [Accessed 10 October 2022].
- 27. Mahambehlala, T., 2019. Small, medium and micro enterprise development challenges in a post apartheid South Africa: Lessons learnt. Unpublished master's thesis.
- 28. Makhathini, M. S., Mlambo, V. H., & Mpanza, S., 2020. Infrastructure provision as a catalyst for local economic development in South Africa. *Strategic Review for Southern Africa*, 42(1), pp. 97-120.
- 29. Makina, D., Fanta, A. B., Mutsonziwa. K., Khumalo, J. & Maposa, O., 2015. Financial Access and SME Size in South Africa. Occasional Research Paper. Midrand, South Africa: FinMark Trust, [pdf] Available at: https://finmark.org.za/system/documents/files/000/000/480/original/Financial-Access-and-SME-Size-in-SA.pdf?1615197965 [Accessed 31 October 2022].

- 30. Makwara, T., 2022. Large Firms as Threats to Small Business Survival in South Africa: An Exploratory Literature Review. *Journal of Management and Entrepreneurship Research*, 3(1), pp. 14-25.
- 31. Maloka, C. M., & Dlamini, M., 2016. Challenges facing government agencies in providing non-financial support to SMMEs in the upper end market. SAAPAM Limpopo 5th Annual Conference.
- 32. Mariotti, M. & Fourie, J., 2014. The economics of apartheid: An introduction. *Economic History of Developing Regions*, 29(2), pp. 113-125.
- 33. Mbedzi, E., & Simatele, M., 2020. Small, micro and medium enterprises financing: Costs and benefits of lending technologies in the Eastern Cape province of South Africa. *Journal of Economic and Financial Sciences*, 13(1), pp. 1-10.
- 34. Mbonyane, B. & Ladzani, W., 2011. Factors that Hinder the Growth of Small Businesses in South African Townships. *European Business Review*, 23(6), pp. 550–60.
- 35. Musabayana, G. T. & Mutambara, E., 2022. The Implementation of the Broad-Based Black Economic Empowerment (B-BBEE) policy in South Africa a myth or a reality—a focus on SMEs. *Australasian Accounting, Business and Finance Journal*, 16(1), pp. 1-13.
- 36. Noshad, M., Amjad, M., Shafiq, M. N. & Gillani, S., 2019. Performance and Obstacles of SMEs: An Empirical Evidence from BRICS Countries. *iRASD Journal of Economics*, *I*(2), pp. 113-131.
- 37. Ntlamelle, T., 2015. The efficacy of SMME incubation as a strategy for enterprise development in South Africa. Unpublished Masters Thesis, University of the Witwatersrand
- 38. Odeku, K. O., 2021. The Impact of the Covid-19 Pandemic On Black-Owned Small and Micro-Businesses in South Africa. *Academy of Entrepreneurship Journal*, 27, pp. 1-5.
- 39. Olawale, F., 2021. Sustainable Finance and Small, Medium and Micro Enterprises in South Africa. *Academy of Accounting and Financial Studies Journal*, 25(7), pp. 1-7.
- 40. Olomi, D., Charles, G., & Juma, N., 2018. An inclusive approach to regulating the second economy: A tale of four Sub-Saharan African economies. *Journal of Entrepreneurship in Emerging Economies*, 10(3), pp. 447-471.
- 41. Olutunla, G. T. & Obamuyi, T. M., 2014. The Effect of Income and Education on Entrepreneurial Intentions in Nigeria. *African Journal of Business Management*, 2, pp. 195-200.
- 42. Preisendorfer, P., Bitz, A. & Bezuidenhout, F. J., 2012. In search of black entrepreneurship: Why is there a lack of entrepreneurial activity among the black population in South Africa? *Journal of Developmental Entrepreneurship*, 17(01), 1250006, pp. 1-18.
- 43. Real Economy Bulletin, 2017. SPECIAL EDITION: THE STATE OF SMALL BUSINESS IN SOUTH AFRICA. TIPS Publication, pp. 1-38.
- 44. Rens, V., Iwu, C. G., Tengeh, R. K. & Esambe, E. E., 2021. SMEs, Economic Growth, and Business Incubation Conundrum in South Africa. A Literature Appraisal. *Journal of Management and Research*, 8(2), pp. 214-251.
- 45. Scheba, A., & Turok, I. N., 2020. Strengthening Township Economies in South Africa: The Case for Better Regulation and Policy Innovation. *Urban Forum*, *31*(1), pp. 77-94.
- 46. SEDA, 2018. Small Enterprise Development Agency SMME, Quarterly Update 1st Quarter 2018, Small Enterprise Development Agency.
- 47. Sekele, L., 2016. *Entrepreneurship: The ultimate white privilege? News24*, [online] Available at: https://www.news24.com/news24/xArchive/Voices/entrepreneurship-the-ultimate-white-privilege-20180719 [Accessed 3 October 2022].
- 48. Shiko, C., 2022. Our people inherited poverty' Ramaphosa hits back after calls for the scrapping of bee, Jacaranda FM [online] Available at: https://www.jacarandafm.com/news/news/poverty-what-our-people-have-inherited-ramaphosa-hits-back-after-calls-scrapping-bee/ [Accessed 10 November 2022].
- 49. Sixaba, Z., & Rogerson, C. M., 2019. Black economic empowerment and South African tourism: The early pioneers. *African Journal of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure*, 8(4), pp. 1-10.

- 50. Tshuma, M. M., 2022. Accelerating private sector job creation and poverty reduction in South Africa's townships. South Africa Towards Inclusive Economic Development, [pdf] Available at: https://sa-tied.wider.unu.edu/sites/default/files/SA-TIED-WP211.pdf [Accessed 28 October 2022].
- 51. Wakefield, H. I., Yu, D., & Swanepoel, C., 2022. Revisiting transitory and chronic unemployment in South Africa. *Development Southern Africa*, 39(2), pp. 87-107.

WORK COMMITMENT IN TIMES OF CRISIS: HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT PRACTICES IN ORGANIZATIONS

Cristina Gabriela Vasciuc (Săndulescu)¹ Bogdan Ștefănescu²

Abstract

This article ponders on the impact of management practices throughout the COVID-19 crisis on the work engagement within organizations. Our study thus makes it possible to strengthen, on the one hand, the existing literature on work commitment, through qualitative methods, and, on the other hand, research focused on employee engagement within organizations. For this, we chose to carry out a qualitative survey within two organizations: a reception center for asylum seekers and a multinational organization. To analyze these data, we used the theoretical framework of work engagement developed by Saks (2006). Our analysis allowed us, first of all, to observe how organizations managed the employees during the COVID-19 pandemic, which led to the modification of two main management practices, namely the organization of work and the management of skills. Second, we realized that these two management practices were closely related to three precursors of work engagement (Saks, 2006): work characteristics, organizational and managerial support, and reward. Finally, we could observe that these three precursors had a relationship of mutual influence with the two mentioned management practices and that they also had an impact on work commitment.

Keywords: organization, crisis, work commitment, management

JEL Classification: A14, M12

INTRODUCTION

Organizations have found themselves on the front lines facing the consequences of a health crisis unprecedented in our contemporary era. These organizations are, by their nature, made up of networks of inter-knowledge and mutual assistance that are very important in dealing with crises (Archambault, 2020). Since the spring of 2020, certain surveys have accurately shown the consequences of the health crisis on the functioning of these organizations. Very much of the organizations were strongly or very strongly affected by the crisis and saw their activity greatly reduced (more than two-thirds of the organizations reduced their activity by at least 60%). While some organizations, especially cultural and sports organizations, have had to stop their activities with part-time employees, others have resorted massively to teleworking. This new organization of work has ensured a certain continuity in their operation. Organizations have therefore had to adapt in the event of an emergency and diversify their work. A significant part of it carried out actions outside the usual field of activity (manufacture of textile masks, psychological support, borrowing of computer equipment, etc.). If organizations responded to the urgency of the crisis, especially due to a wave of generosity and a great involvement of their employees and volunteers, the first studies seem to point out that they were not prepared, from an organizational point of view to facethe pandemic.

In our research, the objective was to provide empirical data on the repercussions of the COVID-19 health crisis on the functioning of organizations, especially in terms of the use of human resource management practices and the effects it has had on employees. More specifically, we wanted to focus on the commitment to work of these people, through the following issue: how do human resource management practices (HRMs) influence the work commitment of employees within organizations in times of crisis? To answer this question, we conducted an exploratory qualitative study by comparing the situations of the employees of two organizations: a Center for the Reception of Asylum Seekers and a multinational organization in Bucharest. Our communication is organized as follows. First of all, we return,

¹ PhD, Valahia University of Târgoviște, crisabebe2005@yahoo.com

² PhD, Valahia University of Târgoviște, bogdanstefanescu@yahoo.com

to literature, to the debates surrounding HRM practices within these organizations, and we focus on the theoretical concept of commitment to work. Next, we detail the research methodology specifying the options for collecting and processing data. Finally, we present and discuss the results to respond to the problem.

REVISITING LITERATURE: THE LINKS BETWEEN MRU PRACTICES AND WORK COMMITMENT

Long before the health crisis, organizations underwent many changes in their management practices. These changes have sometimes even led to questions about individuals' commitment to work. Indeed, the world of work has undergone profound changes since the 1990s, which were accentuated in the 2000s, bringing with them an increase in certain conditions such as stress, burn-out, absenteeism, accidents at work, etc. This management change initiated by New Public Management has thus brought with it techniques from the private sector to the public sector. In order to analyze precisely the consequences of the crisis on engagement in work, it is necessary to return first of all to the evolution of the HRM practices of these organizations, and then to constitute the theoretical framework mobilized in research on commitment to work.

1. HRM practices in organizations, through the prism of work commitment

In order to understand the commitment to work of the actors within the organizations, it is necessary to understand the characteristics and practices of these particular organizations.

Organizations are characterized by their social project and the presence of actors of different status: volunteers and employees. The development of the voluntary sector, sometimes called the fourth public sector, is a response to the withdrawal of the state, the latter increasingly outsourcing its missions of general interest and social utility. However, these structures are not immune to changes initiated by public policies and are living a similar fate to public sector organizations through this change of management. The latter translates into a rationalization of costs leading to a strengthening of the management and evaluation requirements associated with the granting of public funds. Organizations need to analyze their goals in relation to the real needs in a territory and adapt their functioning to meet them. Organizations evolve them in the midst of a paradox between their social project and adaptation to managerial practices to meet the demands of the environment. As a result, organizations are increasingly adopting "classical" management practices to deal with the competitive pressures of their environment (Ndiaye and Cousineau, 2020) and to acquire some form of legitimacy before public authorities (Hospitable and Templar, 2018). This involves in particular the implementation of management tools, as well as the professionalization of the management of their human resources. This professionalization involves, among other things, the use of human resource management practices in various fields. This management also results in the recruitment of more and more young university graduates to apply the good management of their organizations required by public and/or private funders.

In this paper, we will focus mostly on HRM practices, as well as on the management tools implemented to achieve these practices. HRM practices vary depending on the culture of the organization. There are many typologies around this notion of HRM practice, but in general they include practices such as recruitment, training, job analysis, compensation or performance evaluation (Hornsby and Kuratko, 2003; Jeffrey and Donald, 2003). A called HRM practices are likely to positively influence employees' satisfaction and commitment to work: work organization and job characteristics, recruitment (selection, reception and integration), training, compensation, benefits, communication and participation, work-life balance, leadership, and performance evaluation. The increasing development of HRM practices in organizations brings paradoxes and complex reflections for the actors of these organizations.

Combes and Ughetto (2010) thus mirror engagement in organizations and companies. On the one hand, involvement in organizations is defined as an altruistic dedication, with a

sense of sacrifice, to a collective cause. On the other hand, in corporate engagement, the feeling of "motivation" prevails, modulated by the rewards given and the regulation of leaders. This mirroring is all the more interesting with the observation of the managerial turn in organizations and the evolution of the profiles of the associative actors.

Engagement is multipositional in interdependent timelines and modalities, or even Becker (1960) recalling that commitment is theoretically mobilized in the study of professional careers. In other words, an individual's involvement in organizations can evolve over time: an individual can get involved to meet an altruistic or personal need, or even both at the same time. Despite profound changes in the management of their organizations, these organizations still establish themselves in representations as a world of self-sacrifice and commitment. It is all the more interesting to discuss this issue of engagement according to changes in context, such as the consequences of managerial change or even economic and health crises. It therefore seems to me necessary to delineate the concept of commitment to work and to specify how it will be mobilized in our research.

1. Commitment to work

In order to understand the concept of employment engagement, it is important to identify the different types of engagements present in the literature. The commitment concept has a multitude of definitions, with a particular emphasis on three common formulations:

- 1. The personal commitment of employees (Khan, 1990; May et al., 2004; Shuck et al. ., 2013) represents a state in which employees "bring" their personality and feel an emotional connection with their work.
- 2. Employee commitment to work (Bakker et al., 2011; Rich et al., 2010; Christian et al., 2011) is characterized by vigor, dedication and sense of sacrifice with a strong identification of the employee with his work.
- 3. Organizational Commitment of Employees (Meyer and Allen, 1991; Carrier Vernhet et al., 2014) is defined by an employee's attachment to his organization and the consequences for the decision to remain a member.

In this work, we focus on getting involved in work. Indeed, in the research, we are interested in management practices in times of health crisis and the repercussions that changes could have had on the work commitment of organizational actors in organizations. According to Schauefeli and Bakker (2004, p.295), work commitment is a "persistent affective-cognitive state that is not focused on a particular object, event, or behavior." This type of commitment is related to the professional consciousness of an individual, giving him the responsibility to respond to the needs of society and to remedy technical and organizational shortcomings. Engagement in work has three dimensions. Firstly, the "vigor" corresponding to a permanent investment in work and a mental resistance in the face of difficulties. Subsequently, "dedication" is related to the meaning of work. More specifically, the work is considered as one or more challenges to achieve. Finally, "absorption" refers to the fact that the individual is totally involved in his work, not to mention the energy mobilized over time.

There are certain patterns to determine the relationship that an individual has with the workplace. For example, Schauefeli and Bakker (2004) presented a demand-resource model. This model emphasizes that resources relate to positive aspects of management practices (autonomy, support, recognition, etc.) resulting in a higher level of commitment to work. On the contrary, the requirements correspond rather to negative management practices (conflicts, overwork at work, etc.) reducing in this case the level of commitment to work.

Three conditions that favor engagement in work:

- 1. consistency with a clear working environment and directives,
- 2. appropriation of the values of the organization
- 3. reciprocity related to the rewarding of employees for their work.

Saks (2006) presents a model that highlights the antecedents and their consequences for the work commitment of individuals. These antecedents are the characteristics of the job, the perceived organizational support, the perceived support of the manager, the rewards and recognition, the procedural justice and, finally, the distributive justice. Although Saks (2006) studied two types of engagement, we chose to focus on work commitment at the expense of organizational engagement. Indeed, we want to look at the consequences of the health crisis on the commitment of individuals mainly in terms of their daily work and not on their attachment to the organization in which they evolve. As such, we show the link between antecedents and work involvement. In Saks' work (2006), this type of engagement is positively linked to job satisfaction and organizational citizenship behaviors, and negatively to the intention to leave the organization.

In this continuity, each antecedent refers to precise concepts, which we wanted to support thanks to the related literature. First, Hackman and Oldham (1975) determine the characteristics of the job according to three elements: the variety of skills, the importance of the tasks, and the identity of these tasks.

In terms of reward and recognition practices, their implementation may have several objectives. Indeed, mobilizing rewards could help motivate employees, attract or retain them, communicate values, or even facilitate a transition within the organization. The awarding of rewards can thus prove to be a cheap solution for the company to act positively on the productivity and morale of the employees. The sense of justice is determined by the gap between recognition methods and the feeling of recognition perceived by employees. The type of recognition implemented within the organization has effects on the motivation and work commitment of employees.

We use the Saks model (2006) as a framework for analyzing our research on the repercussions of the health crisis on the work commitment of people working in organizations.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

In this part, we present our data collection, in particular through the presentation of the organizations studied. Next, we explain the data processing and analysis. As a reminder, our methodology should allow us to respond to our problem, which is this: how do human resource management practices (HRMs) influence the work commitment of employees within their organizations in times of crisis? We develop our problem in two research questions: How have the organizational activities of the two organizations been structured in times of health crisis? and How has the commitment of employees to work been affected by these HRM practices in the times of the COVID-19 crisis?.

Data collection As part of this study, we chose to conduct a qualitative survey because it fits the exploratory nature of this research. The survey is based on 20 semi-structured individual interviews conducted with organizational actors from two different organizations. These actors have different statuses: in organization 1, employees can be qualified as "supervisors" (socio-educational, medical, managerial, managerial and associative presidential teams), while in organization 2, they are "beneficiaries general purpose employees". Indeed, the first organization is a Reception Centre for Asylum Seekers. Its organizing actors support asylum seekers in their legal, administrative and social process. Organization 2 is, in turn, a multinational organization in Bucharest.

The objective of the experiment is to create new activities – responding to an unmet need – to generate activity for long-term jobseekers in the area. The study of these two organizations is a matter of a certain "methodical opportunism". This opportunism allows the observation work to be reoriented along the way, according to the constraints specific to the field.

For the sake of heterogeneity, and in order to have a representation of all the functions of the organizations studied, we interviewed several types of actors (from administrator to

social worker or even multipurpose employee). In addition, the interviewees have various profiles: men, women, with more or less experience in office. The purpose of this heterogeneity is to obtain different data on the perceptions of actors depending, in particular, on their function or even on their age. The 20 interviews were all conducted in the year 2022.

Guide of the interview mobilized with the company's employees for the purpose of employment, it was structured, in a first version, inductively from field observations then co-built with the field actors of the territory. All interviews were recorded and then transcribed in full.

Data processing and analysis We conducted a content analysis. This analysis was carried out in two stages, eventually performing manual processing using the collaborative writing software "Google Docs".

RESULTS

To operationalize the Saks model (2006), we focused on identifiable HRM practices during the COVID-19 health crisis. Indeed, we decided to look at these antecedents in the light of HRM practices and in particular the management tools implemented. We are committed to answering in this first subsection the following research question: How were the organizational activities of the two organizations structured in times of health crisis?

A change in activity during COVID-19: elements of context The health crisis has led to a series of changes within the two organizations studied. In a first case, it was necessary to adapt the activity to continue to support the most precarious during the pandemic. On the other hand, a change in the work allowed the organization to participate in the collective effort of this crisis. In both cases, we will see how these organizations have adapted and modified their activities in the face of this new context.

Indeed, the work had to be adapted to meet the first needs of the organization. It was necessary to support the collective and partnership aspect of the work in order to further ensure the support mission. Similarly, certain activities were established, usually outside the scope of the association, such as the distribution of food products. Instead, due to barrier measures and, in general, the management of emergency situations, certain activities had to be stopped. What should be kept in these activities to prevent the spread of the virus? Indeed, the reduction in wages during the COVID-19 crisis, caused by many employees with reduced hours, sick leave or teleworking, has created a need for recruitment. The reduction in wages has had the effect of creating uncertainty related to the planning of activities. A number of changes, related to the organization's need to adapt quickly, led the management to implement a business continuity plan to prioritize the actions carried out by the association. This prioritization has focused on the reception, safety and health of people, to the detriment of certain areas of support.

A change in the activity within the company for the purpose of employment As far as the company for employment purposes is concerned, we have been able to observe that the COVID19 crisis has had the effect of reducing the activity of certain employees to the point of causing a total cessation of their activity. On the other hand, during this period, certain activities appeared, especially those related to the manufacture of masks, the protection of care workers or even for the inhabitants of the territory. The multinational organization studied is oriented towards the development of activities that provide a response to the needs of the population during the health crisis. Thus, the company acquired material means to support the expansion of the activity in order to meet the increasing demand for production.

Elements of convergence in the structuring of the activity in the times of COVID-19 Although the functioning of the two structures that we have just presented was different during the pandemic, we want to highlight their convergence towards reorienting the actions on the basic and public needs, utility activities. This reorientation has been done at the expense of certain tasks incumbent on employees in normal times, such as the duty of training. Indeed, in the case of the reception centre for asylum seekers, the activities of the employees are oriented towards the reception of persons, their safety and their health. In the case of the multinational organization, the employees' activities focused on the manufacture of masks and protections for the medical assistance staff as well as on the services provided to the population. We see, therefore, that the two structures have limited their activities in order to reorient themselves on emergency and essential missions, at the level of their public but also of the population on the territory. Having highlighted the activities of these two organizations in the times of COVID-19, we now want to highlight the practices of HRMs within these two structures during the COVID-19 crisis.

Saks' model under the prism of MRU practices Empirical material allows us to identify different MRU practices related to a history of engagement in work, according to the Model of Saks (2006). Thus, in this second part of the results, we strive to answer the second research question: How has the commitment of employees to work been affected by these HRM practices in the times of the COVID-19 crisis?

Therefore, we structure our results according to these antecedents and identify the relationships of mutual influence between HRM practices and these antecedents during the COVID-19 health crisis.

Characteristics of work influenced by many HRM practices According to Hackman & Oldham (1975), the three major characteristics of work are the variety of skills, the importance of tasks and the identity of tasks. As regards the variety of skills, this characteristic has been particularly affected by the increase in the skills required by certain individuals in the exercise of their work. As training has been reduced during COVID-19, employees have developed their skills mainly through experience in times of health crisis. The work environment has had a major impact on management practices related to the importance of pregnancy. Indeed, the change in activity led to a restructuring of the missions: only the necessary tasks were to continue, and this to the detriment of the missions considered secondary. The proportion of their tasks increases during the emergency situation: they have been resourceful people in times of crisis. In this continuity, and in relation to the identity of the tasks, the actors had to equip themselves in the face of the health crisis, this time at the strategic level of the organization, by developing new management tools such as business continuity.

Organizational support and support of the visible manager in management practices

The results show that the organization and the manager support the increased commitment to the work of the employees to respond to the emergencies caused by the health crisis, at the level of the organization, but also at the level of the organizational environment. The organizational support was felt especially at the level of the employees.

The skills of an employee responsible for safety at work have also been recognized.

Therefore, we structure our results according to these antecedents and identify the relationships of mutual influence between HRM practices and these antecedents during the COVID-19 health crisis.

Characteristics of work influenced by many HRM practices According to Hackman & Oldham (1975), the three major characteristics of work are the variety of skills, the importance of tasks and the identity of tasks. As regards the variety of skills, this characteristic has been particularly affected by the increase in the skills required by certain individuals in the exercise of their work. As training has been reduced during COVID-19, employees have developed their skills mainly through experience in times of health crisis. The work environment has had a major impact on management practices related to the importance of pregnancy. Indeed, the change in activity led to a restructuring of the missions: only the necessary tasks were to continue, and this to the detriment of the missions considered secondary. The proportion of their tasks increases

during the emergency situation: they have been resourceful people in times of crisis. In this continuity, and in relation to the identity of the tasks, the actors had to equip themselves in the face of the health crisis, this time at the strategic level of the organization, by developing new management tools such as business continuity.

Organizational support and support of the visible manager in management practices

The results show that the organization and the manager support the increased commitment to the work of the employees to respond to the emergencies caused by the health crisis, at the level of the organization, but also at the level of the organizational environment. The organizational support was felt especially at the level of the employees.

The skills of an employee responsible for safety at work have also been recognized.

Rewarding and recognition practices: management practices in the service of engagement

We note, in this continuity, that the recognition of the work of the employees has a positive impact on their commitment to work and is closely correlated with the previous antecedent: organizational support. Indeed, during the crisis, organizations did not hesitate to leave more room for manoeuvre for employees to take initiatives and responsibilities in crisis management. The organization seems to highlight certain organizational activities, which were not necessarily valued until then. Employees receive positive feedback about their work activity. We see that in both structures the recognition of employees is done mainly by appreciating their presence and involvement in their work. Thus, we find that the implementation of recognition practices has a positive link on the motivation of employees and on their commitment to their work in the activities valued during the COVID-19 crisis. We might, however, wonder what structures they have put in place for employees whose activities stopped during COVID-19 or who have resorted to teleworking.

In conclusion, we note that each antecedent in the literature regarding the employment commitment of employees is correlated with one or more HRM practices, in particular: work organization and skills management. Similarly, we highlighted in our results three main antecedents: the characteristics of the work, organizational support and support from the manager/supervisor, as well as the reward and recognition. These HRM practices have thus highlighted antagonistic movements of commitment to work.

Within the organizations studied, the reorganization of work towards the reorientation of activities and the management of skills had two major, and antagonistic, repercussions on the commitment to work. The first consequence is that within the two organizations, the commitment to significant work related to the activity has increased during the health crisis. The knowledge of the employees' work by the organizational environment of the structures gave them a sense of pride, encouraging their commitment to work. This commitment to activity is directly related to the need to be useful, but also to stay busy. In addition, in exchange for employees' commitment to basic needs, employees were able to use and develop their skills in more important or new activities in their usual tasks. The results thus highlight the need to highlight employees' skills as a form of recognition to promote their commitment to work. On the contrary, the commitment of employees to work during the pandemic has allowed the organization to develop new skills within it regarding the activities targeted. Indeed, employees mobilized in times of COVID-19 have been largely supported by their manager and their organization, thus contributing to this sense of usefulness and skills development, strong features of the meaning of work. The second consequence is the emergence of a contrary movement, during the health crisis, on the part of a certain number of team members: a reduction in commitment to work activity. While some respondents could not imagine that they were limiting and ceasing face-to-face work, having a sense of abandonment by users, others were physically removed from their work activity. This physical distance had an impact on their commitment (many resorted to partial unemployment

and only a few to telework) and did not experience the COVID-19 episode in the same way. This had repercussions on the cohesion of the team, as individuals felt the crisis lived differently. Indeed, some work activities have been reduced or even stopped during the health crisis.

Due to the lack of having a so-called "necessary" activity in times of health crisis, the work of some employees was suspended and led to a devaluation of the work activity.

During the COVID-19 pandemic, some actors have seen their field of action disrupted: their traditional missions have sometimes been put on hold while entrusted with new missions. We can say that antagonistic movements of commitment to work have been at work in this health crisis: on the one hand, an increase in commitment to work that has been synonymous with public utility in times of crisis; on the other hand, a disengagement caused by a cessation of activity or a withdrawal of people. Thus, we have seen a spectrum of engagement that ranges from non-engagement to over-engagement during this time of the COVID-19 health crisis. Observing the operationalization of these HRM practices in times of health crisis reveals a history of employment engagement for individuals. Thanks to these practices identified in our field work, we realized that three antecedents have mainly returned to the times of COVID-19. These are the features of work, organizational support of managers and supervisors, as well as reward and recognition. In addition, these three antecedents are particularly visible through two HRM practices, which are work organization and skills management.

To cope with the pressures of their environment, organizations have changed their activities. This has led, for example, to the implementation of management tools, the promotion of initiatives taken or even the granting of new responsibilities. These changes have had the effect of reorienting work on tasks considered essential during the COVID-19 crisis. This is related to this type of commitment, which is linked to the professional consciousness of an individual, giving him the responsibility to meet societal needs and fill technical and organizational shortcomings. In addition, within the two organizations studied, we could see that the COVID-19 crisis has allowed the growth of new skills within a valuable activity during the pandemic, as well as the assumption of initiatives and responsibilities in relation to this activity.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, we sought to answer the following question: how do human resource management (HRM) practices influence the work commitment of employees within their organizations in times of crisis? The results led us, first of all, to note that the COVID-19 pandemic has led to a change in the organization of work, directing organizations to their activities of basic needs. Secondly, I noticed the commitment to work through the structure of Saks' model (2006). To do this, we have highlighted the four history of work engagement based on HRM practices implemented during the health crisis. The results showed that three antecedents of work engagement were particularly represented in our research, namely: work characteristics, organizational support, managers and supervisors, as well as reward and recognition. Third, we have highlighted the two antagonistic movements of commitment to work during the COVID-19 crisis. When employees are affected by changes in work organization and skills management, they show themselves to be committed to their work during the COVID-19 crisis. On the other hand, where the change in the organization of work, through the cessation of certain activities and the absence of the development of skills, have the effect of 'excluding' employees de facto, it leads to a reduction in the employees' commitment to their work. The paper therefore highlights two antagonistic directions in times of health crisis, generated by imperatives of emergency management, which require the use of management practices. The research thus enabled us to operationalize the Saks model (2006), proposing that HRM practices are indicators of the history of employment engagement, i.e. practices directly observable within organizations. The study is thus consistent with the continuity of the existing literature on the commitment to work through qualitative methods. We will thus contribute to the growth of quality work related to commitment to work.

Organizations evolve them in full paradox between their social project and adaptation to managerial practices to meet the demands of their environment. As such, the results allowed us to highlight the three characteristics of commitment to work, namely: "- force" (permanent commitment to work and mental resistance to difficulties), "dedication" (related to the meaning of work, work is considered as one or more challenges to be achieved) and finally "absorption" (the individual is totally invested in his work and does not count the energy mobilized over time). The presence of the three dimensions of engagement in the workplace in the organization of work in the times of COVID-19 has allowed some employees to flourish professionally. Indeed, employees mobilized in times of COVID-19 have been largely supported by their manager and their organization, thus contributing to this sense of usefulness and skills development, strong features of the meaning of work. Therefore, we could develop these three dimensions in future research, thus allowing us to observe our research object from another theoretical angle.

Acknowledgement: This work is supported by project POCU 153770, entitled "Accessibility of advanced research for sustainable economic development - ACADEMIKA", co-financed by the European Social Fund under the Human Capital Operational Program 2014-2020

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Archambault, E. (2020). Quel monde associatif en période de Covid-19? Un panorama des situations et problématiques associatives sous confinement. Revue Internationale de l'Economie Sociale

Bakker, A. B., Albrecht, S. L., & Leiter, M. P. (2011). Key questions regarding work engagement. European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology, 20(1), 4-28.

Becker H. S. (1960), « Notes on the Concept of Commitment », The American Journal of Sociology, vol. 66, n° 1, p. 32-40.

Carrier Vernhet, A. C., Commeiras, N., & Desmarais, C. (2014). Organizational commitment: In sickness and in health? The results of a qualitative study. Revue de Gestion des Ressources Humaines, 4(94), 3-25.

Christian, M. S., Garza, A. S., & Slaughter, J. E. (2011). Work engagement: A quantitative review and test of its relations with task and contextual performance. Personnel Psychology, 64(1), 89-136

Combes, M. C., & Ughetto, P. (2010). Malaise dans l'association: travail, organisation et engagement. Travailler, (2), 153-174.

Hackman, J. R., & Oldham, G. R. (1975). Development of the job diagnostic survey. Journal of Applied psychology, 60(2), 159.

Hornsby, J.S., Kuratko, D.F. (2003), « Human Resource Management in US Small Business: A Replication and Extension », Journal of Developmental Entrepreneurship, Vol. 8, No.1, p. 73–92.

Kahn, W. A. (1990). Psychological conditions of personal engagement and disengagement at work. Academy of Management Journal, 33, 692-724.

May, D. R., Gilson, R. L., & Harter, L. M. (2004). The psychological conditions of meaningfulness, safety and availability and the engagement of the human spirit at work. Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 77(1), 11-37.

Meyer, J. P., & Allen, N. (1991). A three-component conceptualization of organizational commitment. Human Resource Management Review, 1(1), 61-89.

- Ndiaye, A., & Cousineau, M. (2020). Mise en lumière des paradoxes entre les salariés et les bénévoles. Propositions d'un management adapté. @ GRH, (3), 119-143.
- Ospital, D., & Templier, C. (2018). La professionnalisation des associations, source ou perte de sens pour l'action bénévole? Étude du cas Surfrider Foundation Europe. RIMHE: Revue Interdisciplinaire Management, Homme Entreprise, (3), 3-25.
- Rich, B. L., Lepine, J. A., & Crawford, E. R. (2010). Job engagement: Antecedents and effects on job performance. Academy of Management Journal, 53(3), 617-635.
- Saks, A. M. (2006). Antecedents and consequences of employee engagement. Journal of managerial psychology.
- Schaufeli, W. B., & Bakker, A. B. (2004). Job demands, job resources, and their relationship with burnout and engagement: A multi-sample study. Journal of Organizational Behavior: The International Journal of Industrial, Occupational and Organizational Psychology and Behavior, 25(3), 293-315.
- Shuck, B., Ghosh, R., Zigarmi, D., & Nimon, K. (2013). The jingle jangle of employee engagement: Further exploration of the emerging construct and implications for workplace learning and performance. Human Resource Development Review, 12(1), 11-35.