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People-Related TQM Practices, Organisational Culture, Organisational Justice and Employee Work-related Attitudes for Quality Performance: A Research Agenda

By Shaguntala Durairatnam, Siong-Choy Chong & Mazuki Jusoh

University of Sri Jayewardenepura

Abstract- Total Quality Management (TQM), adopted by organizations to improve performance, has often been reported to have failed. This paper reviews people-related TQM practices, organizational culture, organizational justice, and employee work attitudes (job satisfaction, turnover intention, and job involvement) to gain further insights into implementing TQM to yield anticipated quality performance. Employee work-related attitudes are posited as mediators in the relationship between people-related TQM practices and quality performance. In a unique contribution, the paper conceptualizes the synergistic effect of people-related TQM practices and other people-related factors (organizational culture and organizational justice) as predictors of enhanced employee work-related attitudes and quality performance.

Keywords: *people-related TQM, organizational culture, organizational justice, employee attitudes, quality performance, mediations, synergies.*

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People-Related TQM Practices, Organisational Culture, Organisational Justice and Employee Work-related Attitudes for Quality Performance: A Research Agenda

Shaguntala Durairatnam ^α, Siong-Choy Chong ^σ & Mazuki Jusoh ^ρ

Abstract- Total Quality Management (TQM), adopted by organizations to improve performance, has often been reported to have failed. This paper reviews people-related TQM practices, organizational culture, organizational justice, and employee work attitudes (job satisfaction, turnover intention, and job involvement) to gain further insights into implementing TQM to yield anticipated quality performance. Employee work-related attitudes are posited as mediators in the relationship between people-related TQM practices and quality performance. In a unique contribution, the paper conceptualizes the synergistic effect of people-related TQM practices and other people-related factors (organizational culture and organizational justice) as predictors of enhanced employee work-related attitudes and quality performance.

Keywords: people-related TQM, organizational culture, organizational justice, employee attitudes, quality performance, mediations, synergies.

I. INTRODUCTION

The importance of quality to organizations in the present competitive and globalized business environment is well understood. Total Quality Management (TQM) was conceptualized as an approach to achieve high-quality performance and customer satisfaction. This philosophy, born almost four decades ago, has today penetrated diverse business organizations. Through ISO certification systems and other approaches, various business sectors implemented TQM on the premise that it provides strategic advantages in the marketplace. This belief is based on the prescriptions of the quality gurus (such as Deming, Juran, Crosby and Ishikawa), supported by vast body of research on positive impact of TQM on quality performance (Ahmad et al., 2018; Gupta, Garg & Kumar, 2018; Nair, 2006; Shafiq, Lasrado & Hafeez, 2017; Yeung, 2008, Zu, 2009). However, amidst the plethora of empirical evidence on the positive

implications of TQM, there are also several contradictory views (Benner & Veloso, 2008; Dubey et al., 2017; Jayaram et al., 2010; Jun et al., 2006; Menezes, 2012), illustrating the failure of TQM initiatives to consistently result in enhanced quality performance.

Attempting to explain this inconsistency, many scholars (Davis, Coole & Smith, 2017; Hackman & Wageman, 1995; Manz & Stewart, 1997; Zeng, Zhang, Matsui & Zhao, 2017) have described TQM as a socio-technical system. While the technical systems are more standardized, it is the social system which is prone to variations that causes the inconsistencies in TQM results (Douglas & Judge, 2001; Jun, Cai & Shin, 2006; Khan, Malik & Janjua, 2019; Montes et al., 2003; Wei et al., 2017). In TQM literature, the social system factors have also been described in varied terms such as soft TQM (Rahman & Bullock, 2005; Ooi et al., 2005), people-related TQM (Prajogo & Cooper, 2017, 2017) and infrastructure TQM (Flynn et al., 2005). Previous studies have reported that implementation of 'soft' or people-related TQM will first result in 'soft', i.e., people-related work attitudes, which will, in turn, facilitate the 'hard', i.e., quality, operational and financial outcomes (Adawiyah, 2012; Rahman & Bullock, 2005). The importance of people-related aspects in previous research in explaining inconsistencies in quality performance, directs this paper to focus on people-related TQM practices and intermediary people-related TQM results, which are the employee work-related attitudes. Although the need for studying the mediational role of employee work attitudes was identified (Hackman & Wageman, 1995; Montes et al., 2003), this area has not received much attention. This paper attempts to establish the potential mediation effect of employee work attitudes in the relationship between people-related TQM practices and quality performance.

TQM proponents have advocated viewing of TQM philosophy, from a holistic perspective, as an organization-wide initiative (Hackman & Wageman, 1995; Prajogo & Cooper, 2017). Employees who are exposed to similar practices and policies under the TQM program are more likely to develop shared perceptions, which culminate in a TQM climate in the organization.

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The shared perceptions regarding TQM practices, create positive employee attitudes such as job satisfaction (Prajogo & Cooper, 2017). A scarcity is noted in studies examining the effect of similar TQM climate on other employee work attitudes such as turnover intention and job involvement. It was suggested that people-related factors such as organizational culture (Prajogo & McDermott, 2011; Valmohammadi & Roshanzamir, 2015) and organizational justice (Mohamed, 2014) contribute towards enhancing positive employee attitudes and performance in a TQM setting. However, only a few studies (for example, Bhakshi et al., 2009; Khan et al., 2015; Kim et al., 2017) have focused on the roles of these factors. This paper will address the potential of organizational culture and organizational justice perceptions in driving quality performance through enhanced work attitudes.

Powell (1995) examines TQM as a potential source of competitive advantage viewed from the resource-based view (RBV) perspective. Nevertheless, there is paucity of studies on synergistic effect of TQM practices and other people-related factors in predicting quality performance and employee work-related attitudes. This paper argues that there exist synergistic effects of PTQM practices and other non-imitable resources in building a competitive advantage. These resources, such as organizational culture and organizational justice perceptions acting in synergy with TQM are posited as predictors of augmented employee work-related attitudes and quality performance.

Literature reveals the need to further investigate people-related TQM practices, organizational culture, and organizational justice as drivers of employee work attitudes and quality performance. In addition, mediating role of employee attitudes and the potential synergistic effect of PTQM practices, organizational culture and organizational justice in enhancing employee work attitudes and quality performance needs examination. This paper aims to conceptualize above mentioned relationships to address the research gaps.

Organization of the rest of the paper is as follows. People-related TQM practices, organizational culture, organizational justice, employee work-attitudes (job satisfaction, job involvement, and turnover intention), and quality performance, are reviewed. The paper, then postulates potential relationships for an integrated model to test the proposed relationships. The paper concludes with directions for future research.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

The following sub-sections review the literature on relationships between PTQM practices, employee work attitudes, and quality performance.

a) TQM practices and performance

TQM is an integrated approach to achieving and sustaining high-quality output. As defined by Dean

and Bowen (1994), TQM focuses on the maintenance and continuous improvement of processes and defect prevention at all levels and in all functions of the organization to meet or exceed customer expectations. The association between TQM practices and performance has been well-established (Anil & Sathish, 2019; Ahmed et al. 2018; Mehralian et al., 2017; Nair, 2006; Patyal & Koilakuntla, 2017; Sousa & Voss, 2002 among others). There is consensus in TQM literature that TQM practices comprise of two dimensions. The first is 'hard' TQM practices, also referred to as core practices. The second dimension comprises of the 'soft' TQM practices, known as infrastructure practices (Flynn et al., 1995; Fotopoulos & Psomas, 2009; Lewis et al., 2006; Vouzas & Psychogios, 2007) which contains people and culture-oriented practices. Soft practices are termed as 'people-related TQM practices' in the studies by Prajogo and Cooper (2010, 2017) and Chathurika and Dileepa (2016). The proponents of the importance of soft TQM (e.g., Prajogo & Cooper, 2010, 2017; Ooi et al., 2005; Rahman & Bullock, 2005) claim that such practices empower and support employees to maximize their potential in contributing to high-quality outcomes. A conducive environment is created where the "hard" TQM is easily implemented. The PTQM practices of focus in this paper follow the study of Prajogo and Cooper (2010, 2017) and Ooi et al. (2005). They include top management commitment, employee empowerment, employee involvement, training, and teamwork.

Quality performance refers to the quality of products and services, process variability, delivery, cost of scrap and rework, cycle time, and customer satisfaction (Zu et al., 2009). TQM implementation and the resulting performance are explained by scholars, based on Socio-Technical Systems (STS) theory of Trist and Bamforth in 1951 (Manz & Stewart, 1997). The STS theory relies on the premise of joint optimization between social and technical considerations rather than emphasizing one over the other. Maximum performance can be achieved only through joint consideration of social and technical aspects (Pasmore, 1995).

b) People-related TQM practices and employee work-related attitudes

The immediate outcomes of TQM implementation are employee work-related attitudes (Morrow, 1997; Prajogo & Cooper, 2010; Sadikoglu & Zehir, 2010). Karia and Aasari (2006) stress that TQM produces positive effects on employees by improving their satisfaction and commitment and thereby enhancing organizational effectiveness. Employee attitudinal outcomes identified in the extant TQM literature include job satisfaction (Amin, 2017; Arunachalam & Palanichamy, 2017; Chathurika & Dileepa, 2016; Chen & Ayree, 2007; Karia & Assari, 2006; Molina et al., 2014; Mosadeghrad, 2014; Ooi et

al., 2000; Prajogo & Cooper, 2010, 2017; Wickramasinghe, 2012), turnover intention (Guchait & Cho, 2011, Yee, Ooi & Keong, 2011), and job involvement (Tang, Chen & Wu, 2010; Ooi, Arumugam & Teo, 2005).

The growing interest in employee job satisfaction has led to studies on antecedents and consequences in TQM literature (Matzler, Fuchs & Schubert, 2004). Chang, Chiu, and Chen (2010) argue that satisfied employees tend to be more loyal to the organization and that a loyal workforce is a pre-requisite for successful TQM implementation. Among the factors emphasized as drivers of job satisfaction in the TQM domain, are training and development, leadership, teamwork, employee participation, and employee empowerment (Ahire, Golhar, & Waller, 1996; Chang, Chiu & Chen, 2010; Ooi, Arumugam, & Teo, 2005). On the contrary, some studies do not discover any significant correlation between these two variables (Daily & Near, 2000; Mohr & Puck, 2007). The premise that TQM poses high pressure working environments (Menezes, 2012) leads to questioning of the association between TQM practices and job satisfaction, reporting a negative relationship between process management in TQM and job satisfaction (Akdere, 2009). The focus on job satisfaction as an outcome of TQM practices has received increasing attention. (e.g., Chathurika & Dileepa, 2016; Karia & Assari, 2006; Ooi et al., 2007; Prajogo & Cooper, 2017; Sadikoglu & Zehir, 2010). However, studies investigating job satisfaction arising from TQM implementation are limited in scope. The impact of increased job satisfaction on quality performance was not empirically tested in the TQM context.

Turnover intention is interpreted as the desire of employees to voluntarily change companies or employers, or the desire to willingly terminate the organizational membership that will end the employer-employee relationship (Yue, Ooi & Keong, 2011). Yue et al. (2011) also reported on the substantial empirical studies conducted regarding the positive influence of TQM practices on turnover intention. Employees' participation in organizational quality initiatives enhance their affective response resulting in higher job satisfaction and greater intent to stay (Gardner & Carlopio, cited by Yue et al., 2011). Hence, the implementation of TQM improves turnover intention (Guimeraes, 1997). Specifically, human resources-focused TQM practices such as employee empowerment and teamwork have been found to have a positive and significant influence on employee satisfaction, leading to higher levels of loyalty and lower turnover intention (Jun et al., 2006). Despite the widespread consensus that TQM is a way of managing organizations to improve quality performance, there is less agreement on the contribution of TQM in improving in job satisfaction and turnover intention (Yue, Ooi &

Keong, 2011) indicating the need for further empirical studies to reinforce the relationships.

Job involvement is the level of psychological identification of an individual with a specific job in which he or she is engaged (Wickramasinghe & Wickramasinghe, 2011). On the one hand, individuals, highly involved with their jobs, extend more time and effort into their jobs (Huang et al., 2016). On the other hand, employees exhibiting low job-involvement tend to leave the organization, withhold work effort, or engage in various undesirable on-the-job activities. Job involvement is studied in the TQM context, albeit sparingly. The studies in this area include Karia and Aasari (2006), Ooi et al. (2005), and Karia and Ahmad (2000), reporting that soft TQM practices such as training, teamwork, empowerment have significant relationships with job involvement. However, studies investigating job involvement in the TQM context are limited to identifying whether TQM practices act as antecedents of job involvement. The investigation into its consequences in TQM settings shows neglect.

Based on the literature, employee work-related attitudes, the immediate outcomes of PTQM implementation are delineated. The following subsection presents a literature review of organizational culture and its established link to employee work-related attitudes and its potential as a driver of performance at the employee and organizational level.

c) *Organizational culture, employee work attitudes, and quality performance*

Organizational culture distinguishes one organization from another (Prajogo & McDermott, 2011). Organizational success requires building a supportive corporate culture (Mosadeghrad, 2014), providing a foundation for implementing TQM (Kaluarachchi, 2010; Mosadeghrad, 2006; Wardhani et al., 2009). Siehl and Martin (1990) propose that culture potentially has a direct effect on factors such as morale, commitment and job satisfaction. The 'intermediaries' influence organizational effectiveness. In contrast, cultures that emphasize on formal structures, regulations are negatively associated with quality improvement activities (Ferlie & Shortell, 2001). Numerous studies highlighted that cultural variables drive TQM success (Dean & Bowen, 1994; Hackman & Wageman, 1995; Katz et al., 1998; Kujala & Lillrank, 2004; Metri, cited by Prajogo & McDermott, 2011; Tata & Prasad, 1998; Powell, 1995; Mosadeghrad, 2006). Accordingly, TQM programs would succeed if the organizational culture is compatible with the TQM discipline (Kujala & Lillrank, 2004).

The Competing Values Framework (CVF) has been popularly used to represent the multidimensionality of organizational culture. This framework considers specific relationships between different cultural dimensions and types of performance

(Prajogo & McDermott, 2011). Developed by Quinn and Spreitzer (1991), CVF captures four cultural dimensions along two axes. The first axis contains flexibility-control, and the other axis describes development vs. stability. Combining these dimensions presents four quadrants, each representing a unique cultural type, namely group, developmental, hierarchical, and rational (Leonard, 2015). The CVF culture dimensions have been shown to influence varied outcomes at the employee and organizational levels. For example, Prajogo and McDermott (2011) state that flexibility and control are critical for testing whether underlying cultures prompt the pursuit of different strategic goals in terms of quality. Rational culture, oriented towards control and external activities, is positively related to product quality. Kim et al. (2017) reported that authoritarian organizational culture (which is comparable with the hierarchical culture domain of CVF), impairs the organization-employee relationship quality and thereby positively influences turnover intention.

This paper conceptualizes different dimensions of organizational culture as predictors of employee work-related attitudes and quality performance. The ensuing sub-section seeks to understand whether organizational justice, another important people-related factor in the TQM domain, has similar predictor potential.

d) *Organizational justice, employee work attitudes, and quality performance*

Organizational justice is an umbrella term used to refer to the perceptions of individuals on the fairness of decisions, decision-making processes within organizations and the influences of those perceptions on behavior (Lavell, Rupp & Buckner, 2001). Organizational justice has been operationalized as three specific types, namely distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice (Bryne & Cropanzano, 2001). The impact of organizational justice perceptions on performance is believed to stem from equity theory (Adam, 1963). Accordingly, when employees perceive injustice, they seek to restore justice, mainly by altering their level of performance. Employees who believe that they are treated fairly are more likely to undertake tasks that go beyond the minimum expectations of their position and to work diligently to solve organizational problems (Aselage & Eisenberger 2003).

As stated by Bryne (2005) and Hamid (2009), fair treatment has significant effect on individual employee attitudes (satisfaction, absenteeism, turnover intention, organizational citizenship behavior, and job performance). Mohamed (2014) reported a positive correlation between organizational justice components and quality performance. Previous studies indicate that the employee perception of organizational justice is a key predictor of positive work attitudes including job satisfaction that may contribute to retaining them in their

organizations (Bhakshi et al., 2009; Colquitt et al., 2001; Cropanzano et al., 2007; Greenberg, cited by Choi, 2011). Distributive justice and procedural justice have been found to result in increased job satisfaction and job involvement, and a negative impact on turnover intention (Khan et al., 2015; Suifan et al., 2017). Kim et al. (2017) reported that organizational justice has a positive impact on improving organization-employee relationship quality and thereby has a negative impact on turnover intention.

The literature shows that organizational justice influences performance indirectly through its impact on employee attitudes and behaviors. Studies investigating the direct relationship of organizational justice perception to firm performance are scarce. Notwithstanding, more rigorous studies are required to understand the direct and indirect influences of perceptions of all organizational justice dimensions on employee attitudes such as job satisfaction, turnover intention, job involvement, and quality performance. The literature discussed above predicts that organizational justice is an apt driver of employee work-related attitudes and quality performance.

Based on the literature reviewed above and the discussion thereon, this paper poses the following research question.

Research question 1: What are the relationships between people-related TQM practices, organizational culture, organizational justice, employee work attitudes, and quality performance?

The following propositions are formulated to test the relationships queried in the first research question.

P₁: People-related TQM practices are related to quality performance.

P₂: Organizational culture is related to quality performance.

P₃: Organizational justice is related to quality performance.

P₄: PTQM practices are related to employee work-related attitudes.

P₅: Organizational culture is related to employee work-related attitudes.

P₆: Organizational justice is related to employee work-related attitudes.

P₇: Employee work-related attitudes are related to quality performance.

The following sub-section discusses the mediating effect of employee work-related attitudes.

e) *Mediating effects of employee work attitudes*

Organ (1977) used the Social Exchange Theory (SET) to explain the relationship between employee attitudes and organizational effectiveness. The mediating roles of employee work attitudes such as job satisfaction, job involvement, and turnover intention are

based on SET, which suggests that employees engage in positive or negative behaviors in response to positive or negative actions, seen to originate from the organization. Conversely, when employees experience dissatisfying conditions, they will react by resorting to counter-productive work behaviors (Crede et al., 2007). Soft TQM practices such as participative decision making, employee empowerment, employee involvement, and training create a conducive and intrinsically motivating environment. In a TQM environment, favorable work attitudes result through the development of a supportive work environment (Flynn et al., 1995), fostering teamwork (Zhao et al., 2004) and engagement in more job related pro-social behaviors (Organ & Konovsky, cited by Zhao et al., 2004). Based on these premises, it is postulated that favorable employee attitudes resulting from the implementation of TQM practices will, in turn, lead to improved performance.

The relationship between employee attitudes and organizational effectiveness is well supported empirically. Employee job satisfaction has been reported as a mediator for many high involvement practices and varied forms of performance (Khan, Malik & Janjua, 2019; Otoo et al., 2019; Prasad & Prabhudesi, 2018; Sadikoglu & Zehir, 2010; Trivellas & Santouridis, 2009). Gregory et al. (2009) also suggest that employee attitudes can be mediators of the relationship between organizational culture and organizational effectiveness.

In TQM literature, the vacuum in the study of the mediational role of employee work attitudes is identified by scholars (for example, Hackman & Wageman, 1995; Montes et al., 2003; Yousef, 2000). The mediation by employee work attitudes, including job satisfaction was conceptualized by Montes et al. (2003) and was reported as partially mediated by Sadikoglu and Zehir (2010). This paper aiming to conceptualize additional insights in this regard to enrich TQM literature relating to mediating effects of employee work attitudes raises the second research question as follows.

Research Question 2: Do employee work attitudes mediate the relationships between people-related TQM practices, organizational justice, organizational culture, and quality performance?

The propositions below are posited to empirically test the potential mediating effects.

P₈: Employee work-related attitudes mediate the relationship between people-related TQM practices and quality performance.

P₉: Employee work-related attitudes mediate the relationship between organizational culture and quality performance.

P₁₀: Employee work-related attitudes mediate the relationship between organizational justice and quality performance.

This paper has posited PTQM practices, organizational culture, and organizational justice as predictors of employee-work attitudes and quality performance. Potential mediating effects of employee work attitudes also have been suggested with literature supported. The following sub-section discusses the potential synergistic effect of the people-related drivers in enhancing the impact on employee-work attitudes and quality performance.

Synergistic effects of People-related TQM, organizational culture and organizational justice on employee work attitudes and quality performance.

In the face of intense competition in the global market, organizations face pressure to remain competitive. Therefore, organizations need to be ahead of the competition in multiple dimensions of performance, including product quality (Kanchanapong et al., 2014). Numerous studies attempted to identify the resources that drive excellent operational performance. Under the Resource-Based View (RBV) perspective, it is argued that combining different resource bundles may result in synergistic effects on operational performance (Khanchanapong et al., 2014). Powell (1995) points out that TQM is one such non-imitable resource that can produce economic advantage (Finningan, 1992). TQM creates value through a variety of improvements including, understanding customer needs, improved customer satisfaction, improved internal communication, better problem solving, higher employee motivation and commitment, stronger supplier relations, as well as reduced defects and waste (Powell, 1995).

TQM in synergy with other practices has been shown to result in enhanced performance. According to Pool (2000), TQM implementation, together with a supportive organizational culture, enhances organizational learning, suggesting the synergy between TQM and culture. This view suggests that organizational culture is a potential resource to pair with TQM to gain competitive advantage. Also, the synergistic effect of procedural justice with high-involvement HR practices was studied by Searle et al. (2011). Since high-involvement HR practices (including employee empowerment, training, and teamwork) are comparable to people-related TQM practices, this paper posits a potential synergistic effect of people-related TQM practices and justice perceptions in enhancing employee level and organizational performance. Many studies investigated the synergistic effect between TQM and other technical and operational systems (e.g., Kaur, Singh & Ajuha, 2013; Vupalapatti, Ahire & Gupta, 1995; Youseff & Youseff, 2018). However, a vacuum exists in studies of TQM with employee-related 'soft' factors. Given the importance of employees as an integral part of organizational competitiveness, it is beneficial to identify people-related factors such as culture and

justice perceptions, which may act in synergy with TQM initiatives to enhance organizational performance.

Based on the above discussion, there arise the following research questions relevant to the TQM domain.

Research Question 3: Are there synergistic relationships between people-related TQM practices and organizational culture in predicting employee work attitudes and quality performance?

Research Question 4: Are there synergistic relationships between people-related TQM practices and organizational justice in predicting employee work attitudes and quality performance?

There is a need to empirically test whether culture, justice perceptions, and TQM exhibit synergistic effects in enhancing employee work attitudes and quality performance. The propositions below are posited to bridge the identified gaps.

P₁₁: There is a synergistic relationship between people-related TQM practices and organizational culture in predicting employee work-related attitudes.

P₁₂: There is a synergistic relationship between people-related TQM practices and organizational justice in predicting employee work-related attitudes.

P₁₃: There is a synergistic relationship between people-related TQM practices and organizational culture in predicting quality performance.

P₁₄: There is a synergistic relationship between people-related TQM practices and organizational justice in predicting quality performance.

In line with the concept of RBV, it is postulated that organizational culture and organizational justice complementing people related TQM produce synergistic effects in driving competitive advantage, including quality performance. Future studies based on this perspective may yield valuable insights into the potential of such synergistic effects in enhancing employee and organizational performance.

III. CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

The paper has, through literature review and discussion, identified research gaps, raised research questions, formulated hypotheses to test the potential relationships. Figure 2.1 presents an integrated model, proposed for testing employee work-related attitudes and quality performance in TQM settings.

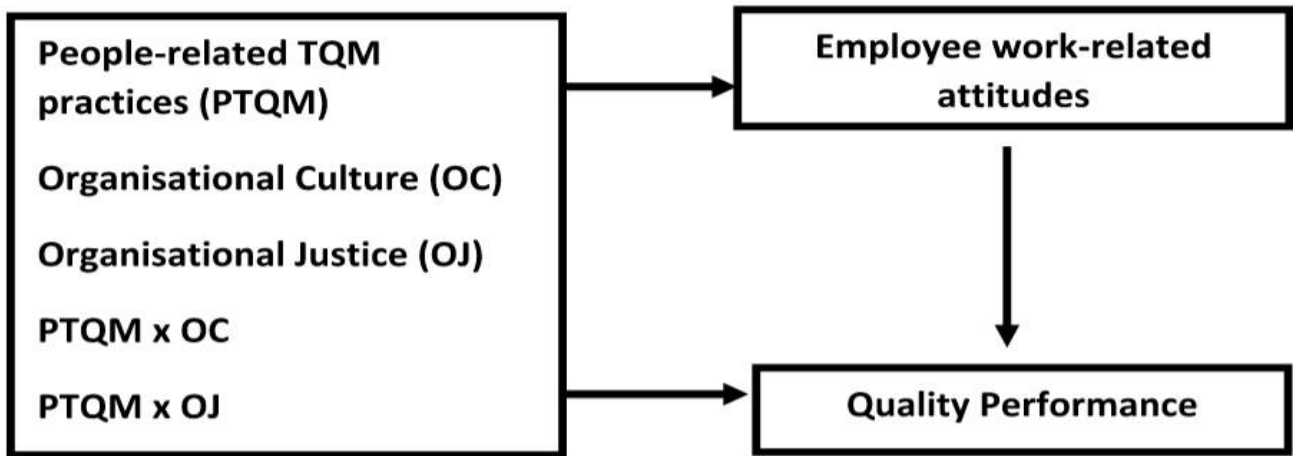


Figure 1: Conceptual Framework

IV. DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

The paper prompts research into scarcely studied areas focusing on PTQM practices predicting employee work-related attitudes and quality performance. This contribution opens out a new dimension to the TQM domain, and empirical testing in varied contexts. The paper extends the extant TQM literature by incorporating concepts from the domains of organisational culture and justice. Dean and Bowen (1994), comparing the TQM literature with management theory, called for the extension of TQM by drawing from management theory and that TQM and management theory should be informed by each other on areas of

vacuum. The incorporation of the organizational justice theory and CVF is a contribution towards this end.

Contributing to the need to focus on the immediate outcomes of TQM implementation (Morrow, 1997), the paper also suggests future research on relationships of employee work attitudes (job satisfaction, turnover intention, and job involvement) with people-related TQM practices, organizational culture and organizational justice. TQM, given its mission of advancing organizational performance, is prescriptive in orientation (Dean & Bowen, 1994). Sitkin et al. (1994), commenting that TQM is led by practitioners rather than researchers, proposed that future research on TQM use theory from existing organization literature and translate

to TQM approaches. This paper serves to make a theoretical contribution by conceptualizing TQM above the prescription level to understanding of organisational behaviors. The mediational roles of job satisfaction, turnover intention, and job involvement are theorized through the SET and are positioned as a path to explain the quality performance.

TQM was suggested as a non-imitable resource creating a competitive advantage. At the outset, the paper identified that the synergistic effects of TQM, along with other non-imitable practices of the organizations were not addressed in the TQM literature. This paper makes a significant contribution to narrow the gap by suggesting a framework for studies in this direction.

Moreover, this paper presents a universally applicable model to empirically test the factors driving quality performance and employee work attitudes. Transcending the boundaries of the traditional determinants of quality performance, the paper posits organizational culture and organizational justice as drivers of quality performance and employee work attitudes, which is a noteworthy theoretical contribution. The model extends previous studies by adding job involvement as an immediate outcome of TQM implementation.

On the practical side, the paper attempts to shift the focus of managers of TQM from a highly technical to a social orientation. The importance of employees at all levels in maximizing TQM results has been pointed out, highlighting specific employee attitudes requiring focus. Achievement of quality performance is through the mediating effect of employee work attitudes. Therefore, management attention on crafting and implementing strategies to enhance job satisfaction, job involvement, and to mitigate turnover intentions is imperative.

V. CONCLUSION AND FUTURE RESEARCH DIRECTIONS

This paper has achieved its objectives, starting with comprehensively reviewing the PTQM practices, organizational culture and organizational justice. The potential in predicting in predicting employee work attitudes and quality performance, is also postulated. Employee work attitudes are conceptualized as mediators in the relationship between people- related TQM practices, organizational culture, organizational justice, and quality performance. The synergistic relationship between people- related TQM practices, organizational culture, and organizational justice are proposed as predictors of employee work attitudes and quality performance. Based on foundations of socio-technical systems theory, organizational justice theory, competing values framework of organizational culture, social exchange theory, and resource-based view

perspectives, the paper provides an integrated approach for employee work attitudes and quality performance. The paper uniquely contributes to theoretical issues underpinning quality performance and employee work attitudes.

Organizations invest considerable resources on TQM implementation, and failure of the initiative to yield anticipated results will lead to loss of confidence in TQM philosophy. In light of the insights of the critical role of organizational culture and organizational justice in achieving quality performance, managerial focus towards embedding a conducive culture is imperative. Enriched quality performance is achieved through a focus on driving team working and developmental orientation through continuous improvement team activities. Also, putting in place policies and practices for fair distribution of rewards is a prerequisite for change initiative programs such as TQM.

This paper has suggested only three employee work attitudes as mediators, i.e., job satisfaction, turnover intention, and job involvement. Other work attitudes, such as commitment and motivation, were identified (Montes, 2003). Future studies are recommended to look at the roles of more work attitudes to gain a comprehensive understanding of how TQM works in organizations.

A research study linking the people- related TQM practices, organizational justice, organizational culture, and quality performance mediated by employee work attitudes is currently undertaken on the apparel industry in Sri Lanka. The findings will further reinforce the value of this paper, both in theory and practice. A subsequent publication will present the findings.

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Specification of a Model for the Study of Reproductive Choice

By Cruz Garcia

Abstract- The discussion and specification of a model for the study of reproductive choice was the objective of this paper. A documentary study was carried out with an intentional selection of sources indexed to Dialnet, Latindex, Publindex, Redalyc and Scielo from 1961 to 2019. The relationship between the calculation of costs and benefits with risk behaviors was established, although the design of the investigation limited the discussion with the consulted literature, suggesting the extension of the work from the information published in Copernicus, Ebsco, Scopus and WoS.

Keywords: sexual health, reproductive health, rational choice, interruption of pregnancy.

GJMBR-G Classification: JEL Code: M10



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Abstract - The discussion and specification of a model for the study of reproductive choice was the objective of this paper. A documentary study was carried out with an intentional selection of sources indexed to Dialnet, Latindex, Publindex, Redalyc and Scielo from 1961 to 2019. The relationship between the calculation of costs and benefits with risk behaviors was established, although the design of the investigation limited the discussion with the consulted literature, suggesting the extension of the work from the information published in Copernicus, Ebsco, Scopus and WoS.

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I. INTRODUCTION

The objective of this paper is to discuss the theoretical, conceptual and empirical frameworks around the freedom of choice and with respect to the sexual and reproductive rights of entrepreneurial female heads, specific case merchants of coffee products and services.

It carried out a desk study with a sample source repository indexed in Latin America -Dialnet, Publindex, Latindex, Redalyc and Scielo - during the period from 1961 to 2018 accordance with the criteria information search by keyword; freedom of choice, sexual and reproductive rights, heads of family and entrepreneurship.

The document will serve to establish the topics and axes of discussion in the agenda, as well as to discuss the scope and achievements to specify a model for the systematic investigation of the problem and balance and prospective scenarios.

II. HISTORY OF REPRODUCTIVE SEXUAL RIGHTS

The relationship between reproductive rights, centered on the decriminalization of abortion and the freedom of choice over one's own body, with respect to self-management and administration of financial resources aimed at subjective well-being is demonstrated (Sandoval, García y Bustos, 2016).

Since the 1970s, rape as an aggravating circumstance of abortion was a probable cause in the decriminalization of those who requested the assisted interruption of pregnancy; however, public health policies in general and reproductive health in particular did not allocate sufficient funds for the equipment,

promotion and medical assistance in the bulk of the population until well into the 1980s (Amuchastegui, Flores and Aldaz, 2015).

The concept of reproductive autonomy is crystallized in 130,824 cases of assisted interruption, 7,653 in minors, 73% of the cases were requested by residents of Mexico City, 24% of the State of Mexico and 3% of other entities. Regarding the cases in which the request was made, but did not attend the assisted interruption session, they only represented 13.5%. 83% of requests and interruptions were made by people whose age ranges between 18 and 35 years and only 4% of cases have been made more than once (Conapo, 2014).

Regarding the levels of instruction, 8.3% finished only the primary, 32.9% finished the secondary, 17.2% studied a higher level, 0.4% a technical level and 1.7% did not. He mentioned some level of studies (Inmujeres, 2014).

III. THEORIES OF FREEDOM OF CHOICE

The theory of happiness of Aristotle (384-322 BC) suggests that there is a close link between happiness and rationality. In such a relationship, the reasoning capabilities correspond to the choice. In this sense, the rational and free individual will be the one who pursues happiness through the calculation of their objectives, achievements and expectations that make up a virtuous circle of learning and continuous knowledge, as well as a constant review of the scope and limits of the capacities of thinking, reasoning, planning and systematization.

However, the Aristotelian approach ignores the factors of need and motivation as drivers of human relationships between individuals who share objectives and synchronize capacities aimed at achieving their expectations. Humanist theory holds that human relations determine the purposes, goals and tasks or collaborations between those who show a legitimate interest in benefiting each other (García, Morales, Méndez, Delgado, Vilchis and López, 2015).

In this way, the humanist theory, unlike Aristotelian thought, warns that the sum of the wills and efforts is more significant than the high capacity of reasoning of an individual.

One aspect of humanism is in Maslow's pyramid of hierarchy of needs and motivations, which points as the basis of any personal relationship to the

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needs of scarcity or deficit, those that derive from the lack of training and the absence of constant motivation.

Then, the physiological needs that allude to the feeding and maintenance of the organisms and consequently, suppose features of prevention of diseases and accidents, performance enhancers and productivity.

If efficiency, effectiveness and effectiveness are determined by good nutrition and maintenance of brain neurons, then safety needs allude to the perceptions of individuals. In this sense, the risks and threats expected in the face of an immeasurable and unpredictable event in its consequences suppose a system of constant monitoring of strategies and styles for the prevention of crime and violence (García, 2012).

Therefore, security opens the expectation of belonging or categorization and identity towards a reference group or towards another group that wants or wishes to belong. That is to say that security needs, focused on prevention and protection, even in the claim, are antecedents of the attachment and care of an environment in which the closest people are valuable because they form part of the security scheme of the individual (García, Carreón, Aguilar, Rosas and García, 2014).

Once people come together and develop their interpersonal relationships, they feel the need to encourage their affections and emotions. This is the case of the relationship between governors and the governed with respect to a security project. In this way, recognition emerges as a need of the first order once all those exposed have been met (García, 2011).

Transcendence, according to the Maslowian theory, is the goal of the needs and the maximum achievement of the capacities impelled by the motivational systems. It is needs to be more than of having, apparently belonging or (García, Carreón, Hernández, Bautista and Méndez, 2012).

However, the freedom of choice to be present in each of the needs, now of carrying out the actions and implement the capabilities, seems to be determined by a social and ideological structure that would determine the hierarchy of these. Therefore, freedom of choice seems to be rather transitory and applicable in moments and circumstances in which a decision is made that is not entirely deliberate or completely convincing (Hevla, Villar and Martínez, 2006).

In the case of the full exercise of sexual and reproductive rights, the theories of freedom of choice only contextualize the possibilities based on the priorities of individuals, avoiding ideological issues and social mobilization such as sexuality and interruption. assisted pregnancy unwanted or unplanned (Carreón, Hernández, Morales and García, 2013).

Classer's theory of rational choice considers that individuals behave as agents that compete in an economic system for resources, or else they are actors

that a political system defines the strategies of action and mobilization with the intention of carrying out a conflict and a change of social or collective dimension (García, 2013).

Reproductive rights are, in the first instance, represented by a sector of the population as an instrument of support against an unwanted pregnancy or that in any case compromises the plans of the woman involved. In this sense, social representations or the objectification, anchoring and naturalization of beliefs, perceptions, motives, attitudes and intentions of cases occurred, present events and future scenarios in which the management and administration of resources play an important role, many times essential and central in decision-making when requesting and assisting an assisted interruption of pregnancy (Moscovici, 1961).

Even such a decision supposes a series of expectations that are determined by the available information about the risks of requesting and carrying out the assisted interruption. It is a freedom of choice delimited by the rights of third parties. Stuart Mill proposed that freedom is the determinant of choice, but if it involves third parties, then it is the election that affects freedom (Zaratiegui, 2001).

In the opposite case, when freedom generates choices that inhibit the rights of third parties, progress is asymmetric. If there is more consensus liberties and d and elections, then progress is embodied in a representative democracy. Therefore, freedom is divided into that of thought and action or instrumental (Romero, 2014).

The reflection of the environment can be unlimited, but the intervention in its processes is limited by the rights of third parties. It deals with ethical principles in which it is intended to regulate human relations, the establishment of its objectives, the instrumentation of its capabilities and the achievement of its goals.

IV. SPECIFICATION OF THE CHOSEN REPRODUCTION MODEL

The study of reproductive choice, defined as the balance of environmental requirements with respect to freedoms, needs, motivations and management and consensus capacities, can be carried out following the logical trajectories of the relationships between the variables used in the theoretical framework and conceptual wielded.

In the model, the freedoms of choice are determinants of the reasons that everyone develops in their desire to establish differences with respect to needs. From the Aristotelian perspective (hypothesis 1), the link between liberties and happiness is in the capacities, but from Maslow's vision, it is the needs that mediate the relationship between freedoms and choices.

Therefore (hypothesis 2), an election will be defined by the hierarchy of human needs, although the reasons are inherent to the needs, the freedoms of choice separate the needs of the motives to establish the limits of the individual process with respect to a process collective.

Consequently (hypothesis 3), capacities are factors that from the approach they define the rational choices of actors and agents rather than of individuals or groups. It is assumed that the election process reflects a context of scarcity and competition for resources. Therefore, a greater capacity for processing and assimilating liberties, supposes the hierarchy of needs and the delimitation of the reasons for carrying out an election.

However (hypothesis 4), the observation and anticipation of the reproductive choice is different from a rational choice based on costs and benefits, or, different from a consensual choice based on the availability of information, deliberation and agreements or co-responsibility. It is first and foremost the result of the influence of liberties and their regulation on needs, motives and capacities. That the freedom of thought and the freedom of action, according to the stuartmillista theory they are two factors that can be integrated in the model to explain a choice of reproductive type.

V. FINAL CONSIDERATIONS

The contribution of the present work to the state of the question lies in the discussion and specification of a model for the study of reproductive choice, although the design of the documentary research suggests the extension of the model from the literature search in repositories such as Copernicus, Ebsco, Scopus and WoS.

Velez, Rosas and Garcia (2018) demonstrated that the choice and partner, sexual and reproductive depends on the expectation of relationship whenever the couple succeeds in establishing their decisions based on the degree of commitment to the relationship, but if not, then the choice will depend on people close to the couple, such as the mother.

In the present work it has been highlighted that the choice of couple follows the guidelines of rational decision making in which costs and benefits establish a criterion to be followed.

Quintero, Valdés, Delgado and García (2018) demonstrated that the reproductive choice is rather assessed by perceptions of aversion to the prevention of diseases, propensity to risk behaviors and aversion to a healthy future, suggesting that sexuality is an emergent phase of risky lifestyles.

In the present study, a continuum is established that goes from the freedom of choice to the restorative

action that supposes self-care itself that has been conceptualized as a reaction to contingencies and risks.

García, Morales, Méndez, Delgado, Vilchis, López and García (2016) showed that the interruption of pregnancy is not the result of a rational, deliberate, planned and systematic choice since it is rather the product of the combination of cultural and cognitive factors.

In the present work, reproductive choice has been discussed as part of a valuation and normative corpus focused on costs and benefits, but in relation to a reference and belonging group. It is a complex decision process in which the interpersonal relationships are conditioned by the subjective and inter subjective norms, as well as by the dispositions towards the relationship and the commitment of loyalty and fidelity.

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Institutional Models of Welfare State and Its Housing Policy

By Vsevolod Nikolaiev & Oleksii Kucherenko

Abstract- Four models of social state, modern trends in their convergence, the place of post-socialist countries in the classification of social states are considered using domestic and foreign scientific publications. Two general institutional models of the state, western and not-western, their genesis and essential characteristics are also described. On this basis, the manifestation of the features of various models in real socio-economic processes in Ukraine are analyzed. An attempt is made to determine the dominant model and to search for the vector of movement towards an objectively determined model. The barriers caused by the manifestation of antagonistic features of complementary models are analyzed.

Farther, the relationship between the models of a social state and their housing policy is examined. The contradictions in the development of the housing sector of the country caused by unjustified and inconsistent steps of its reform in accordance with existing and objectively determined model are demonstrated. The necessary changes in the state housing policy of Ukraine, the prospects of future research and new housing policy concept are determined.

Keywords: welfare state, model, country, development, housing policy.

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Institutional Models of Welfare State and its Housing Policy

ІНСТИТУЦІЙНІ МОДЕЛІ СОЦІАЛЬНОЇ ДЕРЖАВИ ТА ЇЇ ЖИТЛОВА ПОЛІТИКА

Vsevolod Nikolaiev ^α & Oleksii Kucherenko ^σ

Abstract- Four models of social state, modern trends in their convergence, the place of post-socialist countries in the classification of social states are considered using domestic and foreign scientific publications. Two general institutional models of the state, western and not-western, their genesis and essential characteristics are also described. On this basis, the manifestation of the features of various models in real socio-economic processes in Ukraine are analyzed. An attempt is made to determine the dominant model and to search for the vector of movement towards an objectively determined model. The barriers caused by the manifestation of antagonistic features of complementary models are analyzed.

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I. Постановка Проблеми.

Конституційне проголошення нашої країни соціальною державою [1, ст. 1] зумовлює необхідність визначення загальної моделі її реалізації, контролю прояву цієї моделі у різних сферах суспільного життя, у тому числі, у житловому забезпеченні громадян.

У вітчизняних аналітичних документах, підготовлених авторитетними інститутами та науковцями, економічні реформи і розбудова системи соціальної підтримки населення пов'язувались з принципами і методами лібералізму [2].

Оскільки у державних стратегічних документах чітких положень щодо типу соціальної держави в Україні не існує, виникає питання про можливість застосування тих чи інших моделей та достатності інституційних передумов для їх формування, зокрема при аналізі державної житлової політики у ланцюжку «соціальна держава – соціальна політика – житлова політика».

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Так, у кінцевому рахунку і у контексті моделі соціальної держави вимагають наукового аналізу здійснені кроки щодо майже повної приватизації житлового фонду; усунування управління будинками; перекладення на мешканців відповідальності за технічний стан зношених будинків, організації та фінансування капітальних ремонтів; а з іншого боку - масове надання комунальних субсидій власникам житла при низькому рівні доходів і заощаджень населення. Доцільність цих кроків, вірогідно, по-різному виглядатиме у контексті тих чи інших моделей соціальної політики і соціальної держави.

II. Аналіз Останніх Досліджень і Публікацій.

Велика кількість зарубіжних та вітчизняних науковців одноставно визначають соціальну державу як правову, орієнтовану на людину, її добробут, безпеку та розвиток. Але положення про соціальну державу, за даними Т. Токарського [4, с. 356], містяться у конституціях не всіх, а лише трьох держав Західної Європи: ФРН (1949 року), Франції (1958 року) та Іспанії (1978 року). Юристи відзначають, що це покладає на такі держави відповідальність за безумовне дотримання відповідних орієнтирів і принципів у державному управлінні, незалежно від обставин [5].

У практиці різних європейських країн визначені кілька моделей держави і державного втручання в економіку, добробут суспільства, окремих груп та громадян. Три варіанти моделі капіталістичної соціальної держави¹ (нім. – *Sozialstaat*), або держави добробуту (англ. – *Welfare State*)² в економічно розвинених країнах Заходу були розглянуті і систематизовані передусім у роботі Г. Еспінга-Андерсена [6.] де автор, на нашу думку, домігся передусім політичних аспектів проблеми.

¹ У цій статті ми не вдаємося до аналізу відмінностей у поняттях соціальної держави та держави добробуту.

² Цікаво, що *Welfare State* має два значення: соціальне забезпечення (a system in which the government looks after and pays for people who are sick, old, or who cannot get a job – Cambridge Dictionary) і соціальна держава (Американський Англо-Русский словарь), держава загального добробуту (Большой новый Англо-Русский словарь).

Концепція трьох моделей капіталістичної держави добробуту піддавалася критиці з боку багатьох зарубіжних і вітчизняних дослідників, які вказували на недоліки такої класифікації: ігнорування гендерного фактору (домашньої праці жінок), неправомірність або дискусійність віднесення тих чи інших країн до певного типу, існування лише двох, або ще четвертого типу держав, необхідність застосування взагалі інших класифікацій тощо. Разом з тим, у класифікації Г. Еспінга-Андерсена досить чітко визначилася відмінність між основними моделями соціальної держави.

Ліберальна держава забезпечує лише мінімальний (для умов цієї країни) рівень соціальної підтримки для обмеженого числа нужденних громадян з загальним покладанням на кожного ініціативи та відповідальності за рівень власного добробуту.

Корпоративна держава розподіляє відповідальність за рівень добробуту між владою, роботодавцями та особою, виступаючи гарантом соціального забезпечення, але його здійснюють самі громадяни за власні кошти через страхові фонди та інші фінансові механізми.

Соціал-демократична держава характеризується найбільшим рівнем соціального патерналізму та меншою відповідальністю людини за свій добробут при високому ступені перерозподілу благ, рівномірному і достатньому соціальному забезпеченні всіх громадян.

Численні вітчизняні та російські автори: Б. Ганьба, О. Головащенко, В. Гошовська, Д. Єрмоленко, Н. Ларіна, Л. Любохинець, О. Кузміньський, К. Лайкман, В. Мілецький, О. Панкевич, С. Прилипко, П. Рабінович, Т. Семигіна, О. Сергієнко, В. Скуратівський, В. Сокурєнко, Т. Токарський, В. Торлопов, Л. Четверікова, В. Шаповал, І. Яковюк та багато інших присвятили велику увагу аналізу моделей соціальної держави з позицій права, історії, економіки, державного управління, соціології тощо. Більшість їхніх публікацій присвячені дискусіям щодо термінології, класифікації держав, факторам, які бралися при цьому до уваги або були відсутні. Вітчизняні автори В. Геєць [7], Л. Ільчук [8], Е. Лібанова [9], О. Овсієнко [10], Л. Сергієва [11], О. Скрипнюк [12], Н. Хома [13], О. Яременко [14], чії роботи ми проаналізуємо, присвятили свої дослідження пошукам місця України серед соціальних держав різних типів, або пропозиціям щодо відповідних векторів у державній політиці.

Усі автори відзначали, що названі вище моделі не зустрічаються у чистому виді. На практиці завжди можна спостерігати сполучення елементів основних моделей при перевазі рис однієї з них. Однак, на нашу думку, це не означає виправдання співіснування у державі чи у певній її сфері антагоністичних рис різних моделей.

На цьому фоні, вітчизняних досліджень щодо співвідношення рис тієї чи іншої моделі держави з їхніми фактичними проявами у певних сферах суспільного життя, уникнення відповідних протиріч -

недостатньо. Зокрема немає наукового аналізу протиріч державної житлової політики.

Мета статті: на основі аналізу наукових публікацій систематизувати основні риси різних моделей соціальної держави, співставити їх та законодавство і практику державного управління в Україні, зокрема щодо прояву у житловій політиці, виявити протиріччя, які заважають розвитку житлової сфери та спробувати як шляхи їхнього розв'язання намітити нові завдання житлової політики.

III. Виклад Основного Матеріалу.

Повернемося до детальнішого аналізу моделей соціальної держави, прояву їхніх рис в Україні, після чого перейдемо до аналізу зв'язку між моделями держави та її житловою політикою.

Істотні риси моделей соціальної держави розглядаються нами як такі, що, як правило, не допускають співіснування у рамках однієї країни.

Ліберальна модель характерна для англо-американського світу з його специфічною історією (Велика Британія, США, Австралія та інші). У такій моделі рівень декомодифікації (забезпечення прийняттого стандарту життя незалежно від трудового внеску) низький, а рівень стратифікації (розшарування за прибутками, власністю, освітою, владними повноваженнями, професійному престижі, стилі життя) високий. Значна частина соціальних за своєю сутністю послуг надається приватним сектором, тобто купується споживачами. Державна допомога є цільовою, обмеженою вузьким колом нужденних та тимчасовою. Перевірка на нужденність (*means testing*) є невідмінною умовою для отримання права на соціальну допомогу.

Як зазначає Л. Ільчук, ліберальна модель ефективна в умовах економічної стабільності або підйому, а не в умовах кризи і спаду, які супроводжуються згоранням соціальних програм і призводять до значного погіршення становища багатьох соціальних груп. Характерно, що така соціальна політика можлива за відсутності або слабкості лівих політичних сил у країні [8].

Корпоративна модель територіально характерна для країн Центральної Європи (Німеччини, Франції, Австрії та ін.). Тут уряди використовують механізм соціального партнерства. Бюджетні витрати на соціальні заходи приблизно дорівнюють страховим внескам працівників і роботодавців; основні канали перерозподілу перебувають або в руках держави, або під її контролем. При цьому держава надає перевагу системі страхового захисту. Розмір соціальної допомоги перебуває у пропорційній залежності від трудових доходів і страхових платежів. Має місце неповна зайнятість, рівень соціальних допомог і податків поміркований. Корпоративна модель має обов'язковою передумовою наявність високоорганізованого згуртованого суспільства.

Соціал-демократична модель характерна для країн Північної Європи - Швеції, Норвегії, Данії,

Фінляндії, а також у певній мірі - Нідерландів і Швейцарії. Соціальні права пов'язані там лише з громадянством країни і не залежать від перевірки нужденності чи персональних страхових внесків. Саме держава та її організації виступають головними надавачами соціальних послуг через оподаткування і перерозподіл доходів. Пріоритетними завданнями політики соціал-демократичної держави вважаються загальна зайнятість, вирівнювання доходів населення та пом'якшення розшарування суспільства за рівнем доходу. Розвинутий державний сектор економіки служить основою фінансування соціальної сфери, зміцненню якої сприяє високий рівень оподаткування. Боротьба з бідністю поєднується з підтримкою високих стандартів життя всіх громадян. Основа цієї моделі – ефективне виробництво, об'єднання роботодавців і профспілок, договірні відносини між ними, які контролюються державою. Упровадження такої моделі соціальної політики є можливою у тій політичній системі, де на уряд значною мірою впливають профспілки і партії соціал-демократичного спрямування.

Деякі автори вважають корпоративну модель проміжною між двома іншими. Деякі додатково розглядають проміжний між першими двома типами *родинний* (за нашим визначенням), або середземноморський тип соціальної держави. Модель

характерна для Іспанії, Італії, Португалії, Греції, де ступінь відповідальності держави за добробут громадян близький до ліберального, але орієнтований на відносно більшу добровільну допомогу для нужденних осіб, що надходить від близьких, родичів, церкви, місцевої влади. Модель має також ознаки корпоративної держави, але сімейна функція соціальної безпеки відіграє значно важливішу роль. Державний контроль за діяльністю інституцій соціального захисту є слабким, а державні соціальні послуги є доволі нерозвиненими.

Зведені характеристики типів соціальної держави наведені у табл. 1.

У контексті наведеної класифікації колишій СРСР, якщо не зважати на відсутність політичних свобод, великі видатки на оборону і значну підтримку зарубіжних країн, орієнтованих на побудову соціалізму, також можна було б розглядати як соціал-демократичну державу [4, с. 353] з тою додатковою різницею, що вирівнювання відбувалося за низькими споживчими стандартами.

Попри це, споживачі житово-комунальних послуг сплачували приблизно 20% їхньої вартості. Принаймні, такі історичні інституційні передумови та інерції у пострадянських країнах треба і досі враховувати.

Таблиця 1: Характеристики типів соціальної держави

Характеристики	Типи (моделі) держави			
	Ліберальна	Корпоративна	Соціал-демократична	Родинна
Географічне розташування	Англо-саксонський світ	Центральна Європа	Північна Європа	Південна Європа
Декомодифікація	Низька	Середня	Висока	Низька
Вплив держави на розшарування	Збільшує	Зберігає	Зменшує	Зберігає
Різниця у доходах	Велика	Середня	Мала	Велика
Бідність	Проширена	Середня	Не поширена	Поширена
Рівень безробіття	Низький	Високий	Низький	Високий
Домінанти	Ринок	Сім'я і громадські організації	Держава	Сім'я

Джерело: складено автором на основі класифікації [6].

Якщо розглядати сучасну Російську Федерацію як правонаступника СРСР та визначити її місце серед інших моделей, то ситуація виглядає наступним чином [8].

Соціально-економічна політика держави орієнтована на поліпшення якості й рівня життя населення на основі розвитку національної економіки, підвищення політичної ролі країни у світі. Держава виходить з того, що, на протигагу вирівнюванню, повинен існувати гарантований мінімум соціальних благ, що враховує регіональні особливості й історико-культурні традиції всіх народів країни (ліберальний підхід). Але перешкодою на цьому шляху є зношеність

основних фондів, яка не компенсується новими інвестиціями, а це призводить до технологічного відставання економіки від світового рівня. Відбувається вивіз капіталу, відплив кваліфікованих фахівців. Зростає розшарування населення. Країна намагається враховувати досвід розвинених далекосхідних країн, у яких важливе значення надається регулюючій ролі держави.

Тож за межами території розглянутих вище країн можна виділити специфічну постсоціалістичну російську модель держави, яка відображає особливості історичного шляху країни, її євразійського місцезнаходження, багатонаціональні традиції.

Як зазначає Д. Сковронський [15], на прикладі східноєвропейських країн, які не входили до географії Г. Еспінга-Андерсена, була доведена неефективність сліпого копіювання моделей розвинених країн (зокрема, ліберальної) та необхідність пошуку нових рішень. Так, лібералізація призвела до розшарування суспільства за доходами і майновим станом; зменшення частки середнього класу, національних та конфесійних конфліктів, пошуку знову “сильної влади” з патерналістськими очікуваннями, зростанням апатії у суспільстві.

Особливо гостра ситуація склалася в Україні, де в процесі реформ відбувся перехід економічної і політичної влади до панівних кланів і у подальшому перерозподіляється між ними.

Таким чином, термін «соціальна держава» стосується лише розвинених країн. Але відповідна конституційна норма вимагає шукати в Україні шляхи її реалізації.

Як ми зазначали, в основу класифікації моделей соціальної держави у всіх випадках було покладено кілька загальних критеріїв: інституціональні, територіальні, економічні, політичні, ідеологічні, національно-культурні тощо, які цікаво дослідити на прикладі нашої країни, аби класифікувати її не за декларативною ознакою, а за реаліями. При цьому треба ураховувати вплив політичних сил (партій, рухів, профспілок, державної влади) на соціально-економічні процеси. Так, наприклад, Д. Севрюков слушно зазначає, що стан економіки є важливим фактором, але не єдиним. Склад правлячих парламентських та урядових коаліцій, специфіка їхніх взаємовідносин з соціальними партнерами суттєво впливають на зміст соціальної політики. Соціальна політика не повинна базуватися на популістських рішеннях керівництва держави в залежності від виборчого процесу. Вона насамперед повинна враховувати розвиток економіки, а відтак - можливість збільшення витратків на соціальну сферу [8] і не про те віднесення країни до того чи іншого типу, а адаптація до нових історичних умов, наслідки реальних структурних змін, обумовлених необхідністю виживання або розвитку самої держави, визначають ефективність і направленість її політики [16].

Протиріччя формування української моделі. У процесі руху України до моделі соціальної держави важливе значення має послідовне використання міжнародного досвіду у цій сфері із урахуванням інституційних особливостей країни.

На жаль, як зазначають більшість авторів, сучасна соціальна політика є суперечливою. Так, попри доволі спірний стрибок до лібералізації після соціалізму, ефективна реалізація відповідної економічної моделі є можливою лише за наявності певних інституціональних передумов, до яких можна віднести: впорядкування прав власності на всі види економічних ресурсів, які використовуються у суспільному виробництві і є достатніми; розвинене

конкурентне середовище; наявність розгалуженої мережі приватних інститутів соціального захисту [10].

Ми погоджуємося з О. Овсієнком, який доводить, що інституціональні передумови втілення концепції ліберальної держави в Україні були і є недостатніми. Наслідком негативної дії низки чинників є спотворений характер розподілу доходів у суспільстві, неможливість їх використання як достатнього джерела фінансування соціального захисту значної частини населення; блокування підприємницької активності у секторі малого та середнього бізнесу. Намагання останнього вийти з-під юрисдикції вітчизняного права зумовлює проблематичність нагромадження капіталу-власності у процесі трудової діяльності [10].

Тому соціалістичне минуле України робить цікавим аналіз рис соціал-демократичної моделі, близької до неї німецької моделі соціального ринкового господарства, а також середземноморської моделі у частині ролі сім'ї.

М. Окладна та Х. Якименко [17] відзначають, що якщо держава визначає себе як соціальну, то вона повинна забезпечувати інтереси усього суспільства, але при цьому особливо увагу звертати на вразливі групи громадян. Зокрема в період економічних криз така потреба зростає, а ресурси зменшуються. Виникає питання, чиї інтереси є пріоритетним: економіки і суспільства в цілому, чи соціальних груп, чи окремих громадян. У цій ситуації проявляється сутність держави. Дійсно, реалізація соціально-економічних прав в умовах кризи може бути ускладнена, хоча формально проголошена. Але у соціальній за Конституцією державі у всіх випадках її соціально-економічні гарантії повинні супроводжуватись закладенням у державний бюджет коштів на їх реалізацію. Якщо ж проблема перекладається на суспільство, то соціальність держави не реалізується у повній мірі.

Реалізація задекларованих соціально-економічних прав залежить і від управлінської спроможності державних органів раціонально й ефективно використовувати наявні фінансові і матеріальні можливості. Держава має нести відповідальність перед людиною за результативність та ефективність управлінських рішень.

Так, Н. Хома вважає, що у зв'язку з економічними причинами, відсутністю законодавчої бази загальна ідея соціальної держави в Україні реалізується досить складно і болісно. Практика свідчить, що у найближчому майбутньому держава неспроможна реалізувати в повній мірі гарантовані Конституцією України соціальні права. Більшість з нормативно-правових актів із соціальних питань або взагалі не виконуються, або виконуються частково. Соціальна політика не сформувалася як комплексна стратегія. Вона фактично підмінена нагромадженням різноманітних видів погано обґрунтованих виплат, пільг, субсидій тощо, не підкріплених можливостями бюджетного фінансування [13].

Дотримання соціальних гарантій, збільшення витратків на розвиток соціальної сфери є непосильним

тягарем для держави. Соціальні потреби найбільш уразливих прошарків населення не задовільняються. Тому, на думку В. Співака, нашу державу у кращому випадку можна охарактеризувати як напівправову і напівсоціальну, або таку, що знаходиться на шляху до соціальної держави. Демократична, соціальна державність є більш орієнтиром, ніж реальністю [18].

Категоричнішої думки дотримуються О. Піщуліна [19], Е. Лібанова [9], Л. Сергіїва [20], В. Якубенко [21], які вважають, що практика діяльності держави та її органів у соціальній сфері за роки незалежності не дає підстав говорити навіть про курс на цінності соціальної держави. Відсутні не лише систематичність дій щодо реформування соціальної сфери, а й чітке розуміння того, яких саме цілей вона прагне досягти.

Так, розвиток приватної власності на ринках житла, комунальних послуг, освіти й охорони здоров'я співіснує із погіршенням добробуту населення. Механізм соціальної допомоги та пільг дорогий і малоефективний. Держава переймається виключно фінансовими проблемами, пов'язаними із неможливістю виконання всього обсягу своїх соціальних зобов'язань. Відсутність стратегії у соціальній сфері призводить до прийняття ситуативних рішень, зумовлених політичною кон'юнктурою та спрямованих на тимчасове поліпшення життєвого рівня окремих категорій населення. На сьогодні, на жаль, держава свою увагу зосереджує на прямій матеріальній підтримці малозабезпечених.

На думку П. Гончарова, який пом'якшує категоричність такого висновку, зрілість соціальної держави (для держав, що ідуть цим курсом) треба розглядати на трьох рівнях: ідеї та її розвитку, конституційного принципу, реальної діяльності державних інститутів [22].

З цього випливає, що Україна перебуває на першому-другому рівні, адже розробка концепції соціальної держави не завершилась, нормативна база недосконала, а практична реалізація контраверсійна.

Витоки протиріч української моделі можна пояснити висновками групи дослідників, які, поза розглянутими вище моделями чи політекономічним поділом світу на капіталістичні і соціалістичні країни, вказують на наявність у світі лише двох типів домінуючих економічних моделей - *західної та незахідної* - які постійно співіснують і взаємодіють у часі і просторі [23].

На відміну від першого типу - ринкової моделі, у моделях другого типу переважає спочатку рух благ до центру і далі перерозподіл благ до споживачів фізично або у вигляді прав привласнення. Автори, як і у попередньо розглянутих моделях, відзначають змішаний характер реальних економічних систем з домінуванням однієї з цих двох моделей. Не-західні інститути історично домінують у Росії, країнах Азії і Латинської Америки, західні - у країнах Європи, Північної Америки, Австралії, Нової Зеландії.

Важливим результатом авторів дослідження був доказ про необов'язковість переваг ринкової моделі. Так, ними доведено, що після 2008 року економіка не-західних країн починає перевершувати західну і цей розрив поступово збільшується.

Дослідженнями С. Кірдіної-Чендлер [23] було встановлено, що на територіях з відносно м'якими кліматичними показниками і невисокими ризиками природних катастроф складаються держави з домінуванням західних моделей; на інших територіях історично домінують незахідні інституційні моделі. Виникає питання щодо місця України у розподілі країн за цими двома моделями.

С. Кірдіна-Чендлер наводить наступний розподіл сусідніх до нас країн: західні країни-сусіди (Болгарія, Румунія, Угорщина, Польща) віднесені нею до західної моделі, а Російська Федерація до не-західної. Україна опиняється на роздоріжжі. Тому, з одного боку, в Україні об'єктивно і досить потужно проявлятимуться риси обох моделей зі співвідношення домінуючих і комплементарних рис, а з іншого боку, можливість реального переходу до західної моделі має бути пов'язана у більшій мірі з управлінням - визначенням та імплементацією дієвої стратегії, поступовим усуненням перешкод у вигляді антагоністичних проявів рис протилежної моделі у різних сферах.

Велике значення для цього має згода вирішальних політичних сил щодо соціальних програм та їх механізмів. Водночас потрібно враховувати, що адаптація моделі соціальної держави на постсоціалістичному просторі пов'язана із багатьма труднощами: занадто оптимістична соціальна стратегія інколи здатна блокувати розвиток ринкової економіки, її рушійних сил, а отже, і первісні механізми соціальних процесів, які є фінансовим джерелом реалізації соціальних прав [5].

Розглянемо наше бачення комбінації рис різних моделей у реаліях України (табл. 2).

Таблиця 2: Тяжіння інституційних рис української моделі до типових моделей держав і домінуюча модель

Класи факторів	Фактори	Моделі соціальної держави				Двополярна модель	
		Ліберальна	Корпоративна	Соціал-демократична	Родинна	Західна	Незахідна
Історичні	Соціалістичне минуле	-	~	+	+	-	+
Ідеологічні (для поколінь)	Старше Молодше	- +	~ ~	~ +	~ +	- +	~ +
Географічні (кліматичні)	У стабільній зоні	+	+	-	~	+	-
Політичні	Захист інте-ресів капіталу	+	~	-	~	+	-
Економічна ситуація	Економічний спад	-	~	~	+	-	+
Рівень перероз-поділу ВВП	Помірний	-	+	~	-	-	+
Рівень декомодифікації	Низький	+	~	-	~	+	+
Зайнятість	Високе безробіття	+	~	-	+	~	~
Соціальна допомога	Для широких верств	-	~	+	-	-	+
Майнове розшарування	Значне	+	~	-	~	+	+
Домінування		2	2	-2	3	0	8

Джерело: складено автором

Аналіз показує присутність рис усіх моделей у сьгоднішніх соціально-економічних процесах в Україні. Домінування рис тієї чи іншої моделі (співставлення «+» та «-» при нейтральному показнику «-») показує близькість до родинної моделі а за другою класифікацією - до незахідної моделі. Риси соціал-демократичної моделі проявляються слабо.

Тим не менше, більшість вітчизняних авторів схизняються до думки, що вектор руху нашої держави має орієтуватися на найбільш досконалу соціал-демократичну модель, тим більше, що світові тенденції вказують на цей вектор розвитку капіталізму з певною конвергенцією рис усіх моделей. Ми також вважаємо, що з урахуванням інституціональних особливостей постсоціалізму та наявності антагоністичних до ліберальної моделі рис, така перспективна орієнтація виправдана, хоча, на відміну від північно-європейських країн, рух відбуватиметься, починаючи з вирівнювання умов життя за відносно низькими початковими стандартами добробуту. До цього мають бути додані сприятливі політичні умови.

Перейдемо до прояву і взаємодії рис різних моделей у житловій сфері і житловій політиці.

Зв'язок між типами соціальної держави і житловою політикою на прикладі різних країн та окремих аспектів проблеми намагалися з'ясувати у публікаціях останніх років лише зарубіжні дослідники: Д. Кемені, К. Леннар ц, Т. Фагей і М. Нор рсі Д. Хоекстра, П. Мальпас та інші.

Різні автори, у першу чергу Д. Кемені, який започаткував дискусію з цієї проблематики, відмічають, що підхід Г. Еспінг-Андерсена базувався на дослідженнях виникнення трьох основних режимів (без середземноморського) та ролі політичних сил у цьому

процесі. Емпіричних актуальних даних йому якраз бракувало, як і розширення географії досліджуваних країн. Крім того, групування держав за типом відбувалося з урахуванням політики щодо зайнятості, медичного обслуговування, пенсійного забезпечення та освіти. Житлові питання не розглядалися [24]. Саме остання обставина потребувала окремих досліджень.

Як загальний результат таких досліджень зарубіжні автори відмітили світові тенденції до зменшення ролі держави у житловому забезпеченні їх громадян, що характеризується постійним збільшенням сегменту приватного житла. А оскільки таке житло знаходилось поза прямим впливом держави, предмет їхнього аналізу обмежувався здебільшого дослідженням механізмів формування сегменту орендного соціального житла, причому не стільки для його регулювання, скільки для міжнародних порівнянь.

З'ясовуючи зв'язок механізмів формування сегменту орендного житла з класифікацією моделей соціальної держави, Дж. Кемені [25] дійшов висновку про наявність лише двох моделей держави: з дуалістичною і унітарною системою оренди житла. У ліберальній моделі формування фонду соціального орендного житла та його надання здійснюється державою, а інша частина сегменту орендного житла функціонує на ринкових засадах (дуалістична система). У корпоративних та соціал-демократичних державах соціальний житловий фонд формується ринком (унітарна система), може перебувати у приватній власності, а користувачі отримують державну підтримку у його використанні. Тобто, ринковість моделі лежить у площині вирівнювання державою умов будівництва та володіння на усьому просторі орендного житла. Риси двох моделей соціальної держави Д. Кемені залежно від формування орендного житла подані нами у табл. 3.

Окремо зазначаються відповідні риси з українських реалій.

З таблиці видно практично повне співпадіння українських реалій з ліберальною (не-корпоративною

моделлю). Але, як ми вказували, у країні існують історичні, ідеологічні, економічні та соціальні фактори, несумісні з ліберальною моделлю, зокрема у питаннях власності.

Таблиця 3: Моделі соціальної держави і організація ринку орендного (соціального) житла

Характеристики	Типи (моделі) держави залежно від ринку орендного житла		Україна
	Дуалістична	Унітарна	Дуалістична
Моделі держави	Ліберальна (не-корпоративна)	Корпоративна і соціал-демократична	Не визначено
Ідеологія	Індивідуалістична	Колективістська	Не визначено
Орендний сегмент	Малий	Великий	Малий
Конкуренція між державною і приватною орендою	Відсутня	Присутня	Відсутня
Орендні ставки	Відрізняються	Близькі	Відрізняються
Доступ до соціальної оренди житла	Обмежений	Розширений	Обмежений
Субсидування і регулювання	Значне	Обмежене	Значне

Класифікація моделей Д. Кемені була піддана критиці за відрив аналізу житлової політики від інших сфер соціальної політики (як свого часу Г. Еспінг-Андерсена за неврахування житлового питання). Додамо, що подальші дослідження західних авторів не враховували специфіки постсоціалістичних країн [27; 28].

Цікаві матеріали щодо формування житлового сектору у Центральній і східній Європі містяться у роботі М. Стефенса, М. Люкса і П.Сунегі [29].

Розглядаючи приватизацію житла, ці та інші автори відзначають негативну роль ліберально-орієнтованих Світового банку та міжнародних фінансових консультантів у прискоренні процесу приватизації, ігнорування ними інституційної невідповідності держави і суспільства, що зробило тривалий процес переходу разовою трансформацією під виглядом ніби-то збільшення статків громадян. Цьому сприяли інтереси чиновницької верхівки, яка займала кращі квартири. Крім того, як відзначається, виникла власність без ринкових інститутів її використання [29, с. 10-17]. Це значною мірою заплутало ситуацію з відповідністю між соціальною, економічною і житловою політикою постсоціалістичних країн і особливо України.

Приватна власність на житло згодом переросла додатково у спільну сумісну власність на багатоквартирні будинки і земельні ділянки без дієвих механізмів її реалізації, увійшла у протиріччя з платоспроможністю мешканців щодо комунальних послуг, не кажучи про утримання і капітальні ремонти будинків. Зовсім невирішеним питанням за цих обставин став механізм відтворення житлового фонду країни. Значна частина функцій житлового забезпечення перейшла до родини. Разом з тим, в Україні реалізація житлової політики за родинною моделлю не

підкріплювалась достатністю статків для житлового самозабезпечення і на рівні родин (рівень вищий від домогосподарства). Логічним висновком з цього видається увага до механізму більшого усупільнення житлового забезпечення.

IV. Висновки і Пропозиції.

Проголошений у Конституції України принцип соціальної держави не знайшов підтвердження у практиці соціально-економічної розбудови країни. Об'єктивні і суб'єктивні причини нерелізованості ліберальної моделі розвитку в умовах постсоціалістичної інерції та економічного спаду, а також труднощі вибору моделі взагалі поставили перед державним управлінням проблему здійснення реальних практичних кроків щодо підтримки життєвого рівня значного числа незабезпечених осіб і домогосподарств. Значною мірою це викликане складнощами у житлово-комунальній сфері.

Дослідження моделей житлової політики показало, що приватний сектор житла у всіх країнах знаходиться поза межами впливу держави. Тому у контексті моделей соціальної держави і житлової політики ключовим питанням в Україні стало приведення на стратегічну перспективу у взаємну відповідність і непротиворічливість ролі і функцій держави і домогосподарств щодо житлового забезпечення. Зокрема, делегування державою громадянам прав власності на житло при неможливості для значної частини з них сплачувати повну вартість навіть комунальних послуг створило загрозу недофінансування утримання будинків, передчасної їх зношеності при неможливості придбання нового житла.

З іншого боку, система державних житлових субсидій домогосподарствам, націлена у кінцевому рахунку на постачальників енергоресурсів і надавачів

комунальних послуг, а не на мешканців-споживачів житлових послуг, увійшла у протиріччя з суцільною приватною власністю на житло як нерухомі активи, чого немає і не може бути у жодній моделі соціальної держави.

Ці серйозні проблеми мають вирішуватись не під впливом декларативних намірів, політичної кон'юнктури, а на основі подальших наукових досліджень та обґрунтувань нової житлової політики.

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Poverty and Government Priorities for Action: Lessons from the Theory of Disruptive Innovations in Africa

By Prof. Dr. Patrick Bakengela Shamba

Abstract- It is a fundamental mistake for the government in Africa to focus on modernizing infrastructure to address the issue of poverty among the population. This had been the strategic mistake for the programme of the Government of the Democratic Republic of Congo's "5 chantiers" which did not improve the social situation of the population. The real question is: "how can innovations bring prosperity to a nation? This article provides an answer to this question." Based on an exploration of the existing literature, in particular the new approach on disruptive innovations (Clayton Christensen, 2002, Clayton Christensen, Efossa E, et al 2019), this research aims to provide a new lens on priority choices that a government in Africa can take on the issue of poverty.

Keywords: disruptive innovation, incremental innovation, poverty, strategic choice, prosperity, management, Africa.

GJMBR-G Classification: JEL Code: E44, F41



POVERTY AND GOVERNMENT PRIORITIES FOR ACTION LESSONS FROM THE THEORY OF DISRUPTIVE INNOVATIONS IN AFRICA

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I. INTRODUCTION

The Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC) is nowadays presented as a land with multiple investment potential in the industrial, agricultural, social and other sectors (ANAPI, 2018). This country has more than 80 million arable lands, at least 10% of which are currently being exploited. Its population, estimated in 2016 at 70 million inhabitants, 60% of whom are between 14 and 25 years old, represents an internal market estimated at more than 80 million consumers (ANAPI, 2018). Despite these potentialities, the DRC presents a paradox of being both a potentially rich country and a country with a very poor population. Several reasons are put forward to explain this paradox: the extroversion of the economy for essential goods, the high dependence of the economy on mining products. However, despite this wealth, the country has not yet succeeded in identifying priority lines of action to eradicate poverty and create economic prosperity.

This article is thus devoted to the following question: what are the priority courses of action to be undertaken by the government of the Democratic Republic of Congo to resolve the issue of poverty?

Based on an exploration of the existing literature, in particular the new approach on disruptive innovations (Clayton Christensen, 2002, Clayton Christensen, Efossa E, et al 2019), this research aims to provide a new lens on priority choices that a government can take on the issue of poverty.

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This article focuses on three important points. In a first point, it is a question of understanding the theoretical basis of the theory of the disruptive innovation developed by Christensen, C. M., Ojomo, E., Gay, G. D., & Auerswald, P. E. (2019). In a second point, it presents a case study of the government policy called "5 chantiers" in the Democratic Republic of the Congo implemented from 2006 to 2011. In a third point, it is a question of identifying the theoretical lessons on the priority actions to be implemented from the reading grid of breakthrough innovations.

The objective of this research is essentially theoretical. It consists to guide policy makers to identify the nature of investment to address poverty eradication issues.

a) *The Prosperity Paradox: A Grid on the Theory of disruptive Innovation and Economic Growth*

The idea of the paradox of prosperity developed by Christensen, C., Ojomo, E. and Dillon, K. (2019) started from the desire to understand the reasons why some nations have become prosperous while others have remained poor for more than half a century?

For example, the United States of America's economy presented the following indicators around the 1850s:

- 70% of the population who lived in rural areas,
- 52% of American household incomes were spent on food needs,
- 10% of the population had access to secondary school,
- Life expectancy was 45 years at the time.

How did the United States of America manage to develop?

Christensen et al (2019) answer this question by showing the dominant economic models of economic growth over the past fifty years have failed to provide an effective answer to this question. These models repair the visible signs of poverty rather than focusing on creating sustainable prosperity.

Two theoretical models have been dominant in explaining economic growth.

The first model is from the American economist Robert Solow (1956) (known as the "exogenous growth model") who considers that progress is due to factors outside production, without explaining the cause, and

who concludes that economies are converging towards a state of stationary growth. The increase in economic activity follows the pace of population growth or technological progress, which remain external factors to the model. The predictions of this exogenous growth model have proven to be wrong over time.

The second dominant model is that of the economist Paul Romer, through the endogenous growth model that explains economic growth by endogenous factors such as the development of human capital, know-how and technological progress. Endogenous growth theory focuses on four factors that influence the rate of economic growth:

- Increasing returns through economies of scale.
- The judicious intervention of the State, in particular through investment in infrastructure,
- Research and development or innovation, an activity with increasing returns and a minimal cost of ownership,
- The knowledge or human capital that accumulates.

However, the problem with the latter explanatory model is its inability to demonstrate three main contradictions. First, not all forms of infrastructure investment lead ipso facto to economic growth. Secondly, not all innovation leads ipso facto to economic growth because there are innovations that create jobs, innovations that generate a high flow of liquidity and innovations that destroy existing jobs. Finally, investment in human capital such as training does not ipso facto lead to economic growth. It can promote the accumulation of knowledge without necessarily leading to the creation of wealth. *"Knowing how to make a cake is not the same as knowing how to gather all the ingredients necessary to make a cake"*. The cake consists of knowing how to perform the sequence of operations specified more or less closely in a cake recipe.

In his book "The innovator's dilemma: when new technologies cause great firms to fail", Christensen (1997) notes that many large companies go bankrupt not because they have poorly executed their strategy but because they try to do things right. In some cases, today's successes and capabilities are barriers to successfully approaching tomorrow's market and technologies. Innovation is becoming a relevant element to be considered when thinking about the solution on the issue of poverty. The research question of Christensen, C., Ojomo, E. and Dillon, K. (2019) is the issue of knowing: how innovation can lift nations out of poverty?

They assume that entrepreneurship and innovation are at the heart of economic development and prosperity. Indeed, the current foreign aid development paradigm of capital and institution-building programs, mainly funded by the government and imposed from the outside, is ineffective. They must be

replaced by an approach that categorizes the types of innovations that can create jobs and bring prosperity to an economy. Sustainable prosperity does not come from efforts to reduce poverty but from investment in innovations that will create new markets, especially for current non-consumers.

First, let us start by clarifying the notion of innovation and its categories.

The word "innovation" is commonly overused and underestimated. According to Christensen, C., Ojomo, E. and Dillon, K. (2019), innovation is a change in the process by which an organization transforms labor, capital, materials or information into higher value products and services. Innovation is not necessarily a cutting-edge technology, neither too advanced nor entirely new. It is therefore different from invention and creativity.

When we talk about innovation (Bakengela, 2018), there are several preconceived ideas that need to be clarified. Some people think that innovation is invention. Others think that innovation is creativity or a technological process. Still others believe that innovation is simply a scientific discovery. Invention is about creating something new. It may be new knowledge or even a new object. For example, in 1960, the American physicist Theodore Maiman obtained for the first time a laser emission using a ruby crystal. A year later, Ali Javan developed a gas laser (helium and neon) and in 1966, Peter Sorokin built the first liquid laser. However, at that time the invention of the laser did not have much significance for many people until some practical applications of the laser began to be found. For example, thanks to lasers, scanners have been set up to identify product codes in stores or perform surgical operations targeted at specific organs of the body. Creativity is about finding or generating new ideas. These ideas can remain at the stage of simple concepts. In this case, they are not innovations. Innovation is the process of transforming new ideas into useful marketable products. Innovation is not always technological. The implementation of a new procedure to improve the way of working in a company is an innovation. Lewis Duncan (Bakengela, 2018) defines innovation as the ability to transform ideas into invoices. Thus innovation is both the invention added and the commercialization. According to Gilles Bressy and Christian Konkuyt, (Bakengela, 2018) innovation is the economic application of an invention or a new idea.

However, the problem with the latter explanatory model is its inability to demonstrate three main contradictions. First, not all forms of infrastructure investment lead ipso facto to economic growth. Secondly, not all innovation leads ipso facto to economic growth because there are innovations that create jobs, innovations that generate a high flow of liquidity and innovations that destroy existing jobs. Finally, investment in human capital such as training

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In his book "The innovator's dilemma: when new technologies cause great firms to fail", Christensen (1997) notes that many large companies go bankrupt not because they have poorly executed their strategy but because they try to do things right. In some cases, today's successes and capabilities are barriers to successfully approaching tomorrow's market and technologies. Innovation is becoming a relevant element to be considered in addressing the issue of poverty.

The research issue of Christensen, C., Ojomo, E. and Dillon, K. (2019) is the question of how innovation can lift nations out of poverty.

They assume that entrepreneurship and innovation are at the heart of economic development and prosperity. Indeed, the current foreign aid development paradigm of capital and institution-building programs, mainly funded by the government and imposed from the outside, is ineffective. They must be replaced by an approach that categorizes the types of innovations that can create jobs and bring prosperity to an economy. Sustainable prosperity does not come from efforts to reduce poverty but from investment in innovations that will create new markets, especially for current non-consumers.

To better understand their contributions, Christensen, C., Ojomo, E. and Dillon, K. (2019), the notion of innovation must be clarified and categorized.

The word "innovation" is commonly overused and underestimated. According to Christensen, C., Ojomo, E. and Dillon, K. (2019), innovation is a change in the process by which an organization transforms labour, capital, materials or information into higher value products and services. "In essence, innovation is not necessarily a cutting-edge technology, neither too advanced nor entirely new. It is therefore different from invention and creativity.

Christensen, C., Ojomo, E. and Dillon, K. (2019) distinguish three types of innovation:

- Disruptive or market-creating innovations;
- Incremental or improvement innovations;
- Efficiency innovations.

Disruptive or market-creating innovations focus on non-consumers in a market and provide them with a product or service that meets their needs. Creative market innovations are transforming complicated and expensive products into products that are much more accessible to a growing number of consumers. In some cases, such innovation may create entirely new product

categories. For example, microfinance has been a disruptive innovation in that it has enabled many of the people excluded from the traditional financial system to access finance. According to Christensen, C., Ojomo, E. and Dillon, K. (2019), these innovations create significant social change and create jobs. They are the driving force behind economic growth.

Incremental innovations are improvements to existing solutions on the market. They generally target customers who are looking for better performance of a product or service. Incremental innovations are omnipresent and represent an essential element of the world's economies. They often allow companies and their host countries to remain competitive, but their impact on an economy differs from that of disruptive innovations (market creators). For example, companies rarely need to create new sales, distribution, marketing and manufacturing methods when developing incremental innovations in a mature market, because they use established channels to sell to existing customers in a familiar segment of the target population.

Efficiency innovations allow companies to "do more with fewer resources". More specifically, to the extent that companies make maximum use of existing and newly acquired resources, their underlying business model and the customers they target remain the same. Therefore, as market sectors become increasingly crowded and competitive, efficiency innovations are essential to keep companies viable. Efficiency innovations are generally process innovations that focus on how a product is manufactured and not necessarily on the recipient of the product. They can make a company more profitable and, above all, free up cash flow (Christensen, C., Ojomo, E. and Dillon, K., 2019). For example, outsourcing is one of the most common examples of efficiency innovation. When a company decides to relocate part of its activities to a region where costs are lower, it innovates in terms of efficiency. Another example is where an organization uses technology to reduce operating costs in order to generate more profits. Resource extraction and low-wage manufacturing industries are excellent examples of operations based on efficiency innovations (Christensen, C., Ojomo, E. and Dillon, K. 2019). These innovations generate a significant cash flow; however, they reduce existing jobs.

This analysis by Christensen, C., Ojomo, E. and Dillon, K. (2019) shows that not all investments in innovation have the same impact on the economy. Breakthrough innovations create new markets and new jobs, while incremental innovations improve customer satisfaction by improving existing products. They do not create sustainable jobs. Efficiency innovations reduce production costs and are destructive of existing jobs.

The main question, according to Christensen et al (2019), is whether to start by investing in the development of incremental innovations, including

adequate infrastructure: building roads, schools, hospitals or fostering disruptive innovations within a country that will foster institutional growth? Christensen, C., Ojomo, E. and Dillon, K. (2019) note that in all cities around the world, there is a complex set of institutions designed to manage traffic management systems (traffic lights, level crossings), urban planning (pedestrian crossings, bridges), a legal system to enforce traffic: laws, and so on. However, these institutions clearly did not create urban traffic; traffic came first and human communities had to find ways to manage it. But what created the traffic? For Christensen, this is a breakthrough innovation (market creator).

The analysis by Christensen, C. et al (2019) shows that disruptive innovations create economic prosperity and are therefore an appropriate solution for poverty eradication.

b) *Case study of the programme called "5 chantiers" by the former government in the Democratic Republic of Congo*

After his election in 2006, the former President of the Democratic Republic of Congo set up a programme for the reconstruction of the country called "5 chantiers" from 2006 to 2011. The objective of this programme was to improve the living conditions of the entire Congolese population and eradicate poverty.

KANKWENDE K. J-P (2009) in his book entitled "5 chantiers and the Reconstruction of the DR Congo" takes up an excerpt from the then President of the Republic's speech: "I announced Five priority projects: infrastructure, job creation, housing, water and electricity, as well as health and education" And also: "I remain convinced that the completion of these Five projects will give a lasting new impetus to the Democratic Republic of Congo, which we wish to be strong and prosperous, open to development. This is what justifies the priority of these main lines of action of the government".

At first sight, the intentions behind this programme of the "5 chantiers" are noble: to improve the living conditions of the population and eradicate poverty. The choices to invest more than 2400 km of roads, 2000 km of railways, 32 hospitals, 145 dispensaries, 2 modern universities, etc. for a total cost was 9 billion dollars for which the DRC had to provide nearly 10 million tons of copper and 600 thousand tons of cobalt to China, was it relevant to eradicate poverty? The theory of disruptive innovation thus provides us with an adequate analytical grid for analysing the relevance or otherwise of the priority choices made in these programmes.

The first lesson is that the program of the "5 chantiers" was mainly based on incremental innovations. The latter make it possible to improve existing infrastructures but do not create new markets.

The illustration of the limited effects of incremental innovations is the implementation of the "Hôpital du cinquantenaire"¹ a hospital with the highest technical platform in the country and sub-region, including magnetic resonance imaging and one of the largest scanners in the country. The capital cost of this hospital was US\$100 million. At the time of its opening, the price of the medical consultation ranged from 20 (twenty US dollars) to 25 (twenty-five US dollars). This price, which is already very selective financially, has not allowed a large majority of the Congolese population to access this health care.

However, World Bank statistics in 2012 show that 77% of the Congolese population lived below the poverty line (\$1.90 per day).

The solution of building the "50th anniversary hospital" seems irrelevant in terms of impact on the poor population.

In 2017, in his government programme to identify priorities for action in the field of living conditions for the population, the Prime Minister, one year after the end of the "5 chantiers" stated:

"The daily difficulties and suffering of our people are well known and unacceptable. It is therefore not necessary to describe them further in this programme. It is sufficient to note that in the social field, the Government's ambition is to reduce mass unemployment, especially among young people, to improve human capital, the quality of social benefits and to extend social protection coverage to all."

A second example to illustrate the failure of programs based on incremental innovations according to Christensen et al (2019) is the investment of US\$150 million to build a state-of-the-art industrial agro-food park in BUKANGA LONZO. This park has been defined as being at the cutting edge of technology.

The idea of building this agro-industrial park was based on factual data that demonstrate the existence of a real demand in the Democratic Republic of Congo to cover the food needs of its entire population. Indeed, the DRC relies on substantial imports of maize, wheat, rice, sugar, meat... for nearly \$1.5 billion annually. The growth of agricultural production (1.4% per year between 2007 and 2012 according to IFPRI) is lower than the population growth (2.4% per year), which puts the DRC in a precarious situation. Nearly 70% of households are food insecure.

The establishment of this agri-food park was planned as part of the National Agricultural Investment Plan (PAI) launched in September 2012 by the Congolese government (\$5.7 billion), which provided for the development of planned agricultural development zones for the period 2013-2020. The main objective of the plan was to encourage both national and international investors to mobilize to revive highly

¹ 50th anniversary hospital"

productive and precision agriculture based on new technologies. To this end, some twenty areas ranging from 1,000 to 150,000 hectares have been identified in the various provinces to become agro-industrial parks (PAI)

Bukanga Lunzo Park was the first park to be established under the National Investment Plan (NIP). Located in Bukanga Lonzo in Bandundu province because of the very high value-added production potential: high yield arable land, water availability and irrigation facilities, proximity to the city of Kinshasa, which constitutes a market and commercial outlet for more than 10 million people" (Maisin, 2016).

Inaugurated in 2014, Bukanga Lonzo Park covers 80,000 hectares to ensure the implementation of

a three-phase production programme. The first phase is devoted to the production of legumes (maize, soya, beans), the second phase provides for the production of vegetables and livestock products (broiler chicken, fish, eggs, meat) while the third phase is reserved for the processing stage (groundnut and soya oil, canned tomatoes) (Maisin, 2016).

However, three years after its launch, the agro-industrial park is on the verge of bankruptcy. What is the linkage between the investment of US\$150 million to build the agro-industrial park and the poverty eradication ?

Table 1: Investment costs and prices

	Hôpital du Cinquantenaire	Bokanga Lonzo Park
Initial investment	USD 100 million	USD 150 million
Unit price compared to market price	High	High
Types of innovation	Incremental	Incremental
Competitive advantage strategy	Sophistication	Sophistication

Source: Our analysis

c) *Lessons learned from the case study and selection of priority actions for government*

It emerges from past experiences in the government programme of "5 chantiers" from 2006 to 2011, including its extension through the programme called "la révolution de la modernité", two major errors in relation to the choice of priority actions to eradicate poverty.

The first mistake is to think that incremental innovations create prosperity at the level of a nation. During the programme of the "5 chantiers" of the Republic from 2006 to 2011, including the programme of " la révolution de la modernité" from 2011 to 2016, priority investment actions were focused on the modernization of infrastructures in order to make them sophisticated and modern. Unfortunately, this choice did not allow non-users of the old infrastructure to access the new improvements. The investment in the "Hôpital du cinquantenaire" did not provide the most disadvantaged segment of the population with access to the best health care. On the contrary, the higher consultation prices have further favoured the wealthier by accessing higher levels of care.

Thus, despite significant amounts of money spent, very little social impact has been felt for poverty eradication.

The theory of Christensen, C., Ojomo, E. and Dillon, K. (2019) demonstrates a limited effect of investments focused on incremental innovations on a nation's growth and prosperity.

Did development begin with incremental innovations (construction of highways, hospitals, etc.) or with disruptive innovations (the management revolution with the scientific organization of work that allowed Ford to create a car at a lower cost and accessible to a large number of the population)?

Christensen (1997) shows that disruptive innovations initially make it possible to provide simple and sometimes lower quality solutions to a wide audience of consumers, including non-consumers of old solutions. These disruptive innovations create the new market in the sense that they are aimed at non-consumers of current products and consequently they create economic growth.

The second mistake is to adopt a "push" approach in which the welfare state must solve all the problems of the population. The \$100 million investment for the development of the "Hôpital du cinquantenaire" in Kinshasa is a "push" approach. This centralized solution forces the population of Kalemie to take a plane to Kinshasa to get medical care. Unfortunately, the transport costs, including those related to access to health care, for this centralized solution therefore make this solution irrelevant.

The implementation of disruptive innovation would consist in investing in a solution through a "pull" approach that would allow people in the informal sector to have access to basic health care, including through innovative means such as pooling efforts without the

State having to spend \$100 million on a solution accessible to a small part of the population.

For example, people working in the informal sector can form a cooperative and contribute to a mutual health insurance scheme and be able to access a minimum package of care free of charge in identified health centers. The formalization of informal sector actors should make it possible to support people excluded from the current consumption of health services and to pool efforts to solve common problems together. The State will thus be able to better monitor the activities of the informal sector by letting the actors of this sector take initiatives to create wealth, jobs and prosperity for the nation.

The government's priority is not to put in place investments in modern infrastructure, but these should be the consequence of disruptive innovations that create new markets and facilitate access for original non-consumers. Nor is it a question of transforming the State into a foster mother who must solve all the population's problems. On the contrary, the strategic options to be adopted will consist in involving the Congolese in solving their problems through entrepreneurial initiatives. Innovation thus becomes a driving factor in the economy that promotes the growth of society.

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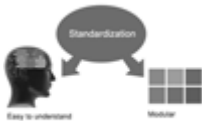


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13. Use good grammar: Always use good grammar and words that will have a positive impact on the evaluator; use of good vocabulary does not mean using tough words which the evaluator has to find in a dictionary. Do not fragment sentences. Eliminate one-word sentences. Do not ever use a big word when a smaller one would suffice. Verbs have to be in agreement with their subjects. In a research paper, do not start sentences with conjunctions or finish them with prepositions. When writing formally, it is advisable to never split an infinitive because someone will (wrongly) complain. Avoid clichés like a disease. Always shun irritating alliteration. Use language which is simple and straightforward. Put together a neat summary.

14. Arrangement of information: Each section of the main body should start with an opening sentence, and there should be a changeover at the end of the section. Give only valid and powerful arguments for your topic. You may also maintain your arguments with records.

15. Never start at the last minute: Always allow enough time for research work. Leaving everything to the last minute will degrade your paper and spoil your work.

16. Multitasking in research is not good: Doing several things at the same time is a bad habit in the case of research activity. Research is an area where everything has a particular time slot. Divide your research work into parts, and do a particular part in a particular time slot.

17. Never copy others' work: Never copy others' work and give it your name because if the evaluator has seen it anywhere, you will be in trouble. Take proper rest and food: No matter how many hours you spend on your research activity, if you are not taking care of your health, then all your efforts will have been in vain. For quality research, take proper rest and food.

18. Go to seminars: Attend seminars if the topic is relevant to your research area. Utilize all your resources.

19. Refresh your mind after intervals: Try to give your mind a rest by listening to soft music or sleeping in intervals. This will also improve your memory. Acquire colleagues: Always try to acquire colleagues. No matter how sharp you are, if you acquire colleagues, they can give you ideas which will be helpful to your research.

20. Think technically: Always think technically. If anything happens, search for its reasons, benefits, and demerits. Think and then print: When you go to print your paper, check that tables are not split, headings are not detached from their descriptions, and page sequence is maintained.



21. Adding unnecessary information: Do not add unnecessary information like "I have used MS Excel to draw graphs." Irrelevant and inappropriate material is superfluous. Foreign terminology and phrases are not apropos. One should never take a broad view. Analogy is like feathers on a snake. Use words properly, regardless of how others use them. Remove quotations. Puns are for kids, not grunt readers. Never oversimplify: When adding material to your research paper, never go for oversimplification; this will definitely irritate the evaluator. Be specific. Never use rhythmic redundancies. Contractions shouldn't be used in a research paper. Comparisons are as terrible as clichés. Give up ampersands, abbreviations, and so on. Remove commas that are not necessary. Parenthetical words should be between brackets or commas. Understatement is always the best way to put forward earth-shaking thoughts. Give a detailed literary review.

22. Report concluded results: Use concluded results. From raw data, filter the results, and then conclude your studies based on measurements and observations taken. An appropriate number of decimal places should be used. Parenthetical remarks are prohibited here. Proofread carefully at the final stage. At the end, give an outline to your arguments. Spot perspectives of further study of the subject. Justify your conclusion at the bottom sufficiently, which will probably include examples.

23. Upon conclusion: Once you have concluded your research, the next most important step is to present your findings. Presentation is extremely important as it is the definite medium through which your research is going to be in print for the rest of the crowd. Care should be taken to categorize your thoughts well and present them in a logical and neat manner. A good quality research paper format is essential because it serves to highlight your research paper and bring to light all necessary aspects of your research.

INFORMAL GUIDELINES OF RESEARCH PAPER WRITING

Key points to remember:

- Submit all work in its final form.
- Write your paper in the form which is presented in the guidelines using the template.
- Please note the criteria peer reviewers will use for grading the final paper.

Final points:

One purpose of organizing a research paper is to let people interpret your efforts selectively. The journal requires the following sections, submitted in the order listed, with each section starting on a new page:

The introduction: This will be compiled from reference matter and reflect the design processes or outline of basis that directed you to make a study. As you carry out the process of study, the method and process section will be constructed like that. The results segment will show related statistics in nearly sequential order and direct reviewers to similar intellectual paths throughout the data that you gathered to carry out your study.

The discussion section:

This will provide understanding of the data and projections as to the implications of the results. The use of good quality references throughout the paper will give the effort trustworthiness by representing an alertness to prior workings.

Writing a research paper is not an easy job, no matter how trouble-free the actual research or concept. Practice, excellent preparation, and controlled record-keeping are the only means to make straightforward progression.

General style:

Specific editorial column necessities for compliance of a manuscript will always take over from directions in these general guidelines.

To make a paper clear: Adhere to recommended page limits.

Mistakes to avoid:

- Insertion of a title at the foot of a page with subsequent text on the next page.
- Separating a table, chart, or figure—confine each to a single page.
- Submitting a manuscript with pages out of sequence.
- In every section of your document, use standard writing style, including articles ("a" and "the").
- Keep paying attention to the topic of the paper.



- Use paragraphs to split each significant point (excluding the abstract).
- Align the primary line of each section.
- Present your points in sound order.
- Use present tense to report well-accepted matters.
- Use past tense to describe specific results.
- Do not use familiar wording; don't address the reviewer directly. Don't use slang or superlatives.
- Avoid use of extra pictures—include only those figures essential to presenting results.

Title page:

Choose a revealing title. It should be short and include the name(s) and address(es) of all authors. It should not have acronyms or abbreviations or exceed two printed lines.

Abstract: This summary should be two hundred words or less. It should clearly and briefly explain the key findings reported in the manuscript and must have precise statistics. It should not have acronyms or abbreviations. It should be logical in itself. Do not cite references at this point.

An abstract is a brief, distinct paragraph summary of finished work or work in development. In a minute or less, a reviewer can be taught the foundation behind the study, common approaches to the problem, relevant results, and significant conclusions or new questions.

Write your summary when your paper is completed because how can you write the summary of anything which is not yet written? Wealth of terminology is very essential in abstract. Use comprehensive sentences, and do not sacrifice readability for brevity; you can maintain it succinctly by phrasing sentences so that they provide more than a lone rationale. The author can at this moment go straight to shortening the outcome. Sum up the study with the subsequent elements in any summary. Try to limit the initial two items to no more than one line each.

Reason for writing the article—theory, overall issue, purpose.

- Fundamental goal.
- To-the-point depiction of the research.
- Consequences, including definite statistics—if the consequences are quantitative in nature, account for this; results of any numerical analysis should be reported. Significant conclusions or questions that emerge from the research.

Approach:

- Single section and succinct.
- An outline of the job done is always written in past tense.
- Concentrate on shortening results—limit background information to a verdict or two.
- Exact spelling, clarity of sentences and phrases, and appropriate reporting of quantities (proper units, important statistics) are just as significant in an abstract as they are anywhere else.

Introduction:

The introduction should "introduce" the manuscript. The reviewer should be presented with sufficient background information to be capable of comprehending and calculating the purpose of your study without having to refer to other works. The basis for the study should be offered. Give the most important references, but avoid making a comprehensive appraisal of the topic. Describe the problem visibly. If the problem is not acknowledged in a logical, reasonable way, the reviewer will give no attention to your results. Speak in common terms about techniques used to explain the problem, if needed, but do not present any particulars about the protocols here.

The following approach can create a valuable beginning:

- Explain the value (significance) of the study.
- Defend the model—why did you employ this particular system or method? What is its compensation? Remark upon its appropriateness from an abstract point of view as well as pointing out sensible reasons for using it.
- Present a justification. State your particular theory(-ies) or aim(s), and describe the logic that led you to choose them.
- Briefly explain the study's tentative purpose and how it meets the declared objectives.



Approach:

Use past tense except for when referring to recognized facts. After all, the manuscript will be submitted after the entire job is done. Sort out your thoughts; manufacture one key point for every section. If you make the four points listed above, you will need at least four paragraphs. Present surrounding information only when it is necessary to support a situation. The reviewer does not desire to read everything you know about a topic. Shape the theory specifically—do not take a broad view.

As always, give awareness to spelling, simplicity, and correctness of sentences and phrases.

Procedures (methods and materials):

This part is supposed to be the easiest to carve if you have good skills. A soundly written procedures segment allows a capable scientist to replicate your results. Present precise information about your supplies. The suppliers and clarity of reagents can be helpful bits of information. Present methods in sequential order, but linked methodologies can be grouped as a segment. Be concise when relating the protocols. Attempt to give the least amount of information that would permit another capable scientist to replicate your outcome, but be cautious that vital information is integrated. The use of subheadings is suggested and ought to be synchronized with the results section.

When a technique is used that has been well-described in another section, mention the specific item describing the way, but draw the basic principle while stating the situation. The purpose is to show all particular resources and broad procedures so that another person may use some or all of the methods in one more study or referee the scientific value of your work. It is not to be a step-by-step report of the whole thing you did, nor is a methods section a set of orders.

Materials:

Materials may be reported in part of a section or else they may be recognized along with your measures.

Methods:

- Report the method and not the particulars of each process that engaged the same methodology.
- Describe the method entirely.
- To be succinct, present methods under headings dedicated to specific dealings or groups of measures.
- Simplify—detail how procedures were completed, not how they were performed on a particular day.
- If well-known procedures were used, account for the procedure by name, possibly with a reference, and that's all.

Approach:

It is embarrassing to use vigorous voice when documenting methods without using first person, which would focus the reviewer's interest on the researcher rather than the job. As a result, when writing up the methods, most authors use third person passive voice.

Use standard style in this and every other part of the paper—avoid familiar lists, and use full sentences.

What to keep away from:

- Resources and methods are not a set of information.
- Skip all descriptive information and surroundings—save it for the argument.
- Leave out information that is immaterial to a third party.

Results:

The principle of a results segment is to present and demonstrate your conclusion. Create this part as entirely objective details of the outcome, and save all understanding for the discussion.

The page length of this segment is set by the sum and types of data to be reported. Use statistics and tables, if suitable, to present consequences most efficiently.

You must clearly differentiate material which would usually be incorporated in a study editorial from any unprocessed data or additional appendix matter that would not be available. In fact, such matters should not be submitted at all except if requested by the instructor.



Content:

- Sum up your conclusions in text and demonstrate them, if suitable, with figures and tables.
- In the manuscript, explain each of your consequences, and point the reader to remarks that are most appropriate.
- Present a background, such as by describing the question that was addressed by creation of an exacting study.
- Explain results of control experiments and give remarks that are not accessible in a prescribed figure or table, if appropriate.
- Examine your data, then prepare the analyzed (transformed) data in the form of a figure (graph), table, or manuscript.

What to stay away from:

- Do not discuss or infer your outcome, report surrounding information, or try to explain anything.
- Do not include raw data or intermediate calculations in a research manuscript.
- Do not present similar data more than once.
- A manuscript should complement any figures or tables, not duplicate information.
- Never confuse figures with tables—there is a difference.

Approach:

As always, use past tense when you submit your results, and put the whole thing in a reasonable order.

Put figures and tables, appropriately numbered, in order at the end of the report.

If you desire, you may place your figures and tables properly within the text of your results section.

Figures and tables:

If you put figures and tables at the end of some details, make certain that they are visibly distinguished from any attached appendix materials, such as raw facts. Whatever the position, each table must be titled, numbered one after the other, and include a heading. All figures and tables must be divided from the text.

Discussion:

The discussion is expected to be the trickiest segment to write. A lot of papers submitted to the journal are discarded based on problems with the discussion. There is no rule for how long an argument should be.

Position your understanding of the outcome visibly to lead the reviewer through your conclusions, and then finish the paper with a summing up of the implications of the study. The purpose here is to offer an understanding of your results and support all of your conclusions, using facts from your research and generally accepted information, if suitable. The implication of results should be fully described.

Infer your data in the conversation in suitable depth. This means that when you clarify an observable fact, you must explain mechanisms that may account for the observation. If your results vary from your prospect, make clear why that may have happened. If your results agree, then explain the theory that the proof supported. It is never suitable to just state that the data approved the prospect, and let it drop at that. Make a decision as to whether each premise is supported or discarded or if you cannot make a conclusion with assurance. Do not just dismiss a study or part of a study as "uncertain."

Research papers are not acknowledged if the work is imperfect. Draw what conclusions you can based upon the results that you have, and take care of the study as a finished work.

- You may propose future guidelines, such as how an experiment might be personalized to accomplish a new idea.
- Give details of all of your remarks as much as possible, focusing on mechanisms.
- Make a decision as to whether the tentative design sufficiently addressed the theory and whether or not it was correctly restricted. Try to present substitute explanations if they are sensible alternatives.
- One piece of research will not counter an overall question, so maintain the large picture in mind. Where do you go next? The best studies unlock new avenues of study. What questions remain?
- Recommendations for detailed papers will offer supplementary suggestions.



Approach:

When you refer to information, differentiate data generated by your own studies from other available information. Present work done by specific persons (including you) in past tense.

Describe generally acknowledged facts and main beliefs in present tense.

THE ADMINISTRATION RULES

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BY GLOBAL JOURNALS

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Topics	Grades		
	A-B	C-D	E-F
<i>Abstract</i>	Clear and concise with appropriate content, Correct format. 200 words or below	Unclear summary and no specific data, Incorrect form Above 200 words	No specific data with ambiguous information Above 250 words
<i>Introduction</i>	Containing all background details with clear goal and appropriate details, flow specification, no grammar and spelling mistake, well organized sentence and paragraph, reference cited	Unclear and confusing data, appropriate format, grammar and spelling errors with unorganized matter	Out of place depth and content, hazy format
<i>Methods and Procedures</i>	Clear and to the point with well arranged paragraph, precision and accuracy of facts and figures, well organized subheads	Difficult to comprehend with embarrassed text, too much explanation but completed	Incorrect and unorganized structure with hazy meaning
<i>Result</i>	Well organized, Clear and specific, Correct units with precision, correct data, well structuring of paragraph, no grammar and spelling mistake	Complete and embarrassed text, difficult to comprehend	Irregular format with wrong facts and figures
<i>Discussion</i>	Well organized, meaningful specification, sound conclusion, logical and concise explanation, highly structured paragraph reference cited	Wordy, unclear conclusion, spurious	Conclusion is not cited, unorganized, difficult to comprehend
<i>References</i>	Complete and correct format, well organized	Beside the point, Incomplete	Wrong format and structuring



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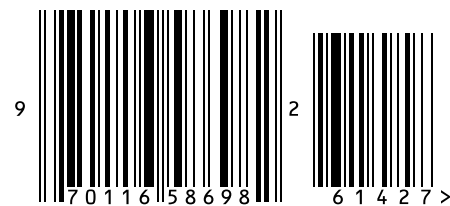
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