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Editorial Office: Rzeszów University of Technology, The Faculty of Management,
10 Powstańców Warszawy Ave., 35-959 Rzeszów, phone: 17 8651383, e-mail: zeszyty@prz.edu.pl
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FROM THE EDITORIAL COMMITTEE

We are giving you the next 29th 3 (2022) issue of the Scientific Journal of the Faculty of Management at the Rzeszow University of Technology entitled “Humanities and Social Sciences”.

The aim of the Publisher is to raise the merits and the international position of the quarterly published by the Faculty of Management, that is why we are still developing the cooperation with foreign team of reviewers, as well as an international Scientific Council. The Editors have also attempted to apply for international databases; currently the quarterly HSS is indexed in **Index Copernicus Journal Master List, The Central European Journal of Social Sciences and Humanities (CEJSH) ERIH PLUS, DOAJ and EBSCO**.

The Journal has been also included in the list of projects qualified for funding under the **“Support for scientific magazines program”**.

The articles published in this publication are devoted to the broader issues of the humanities and social sciences. They are the result both of theoretical and empirical research. The subjects covered vary considerably and reflect the interdisciplinary nature of the Journal. We do hope that the papers published will meet your kind interest and will be an inspiration to further research and fruitful discussions.

On behalf of the Editorial Board of “Humanities and Social Sciences” we would like to thank the Authors for sending the outcomes of their research. We would like to express particular gratitude to the Reviewers for their valuable feedback that greatly contributed to increasing values of the scientific publications.

With compliments
Editorial Committee

Humanities and Social Sciences **2022**
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Mukesh Shankar BHARTI[1]

THE SPIRITUAL BELIEF TO PROTECT FROM COVID-19: THE CASE STUDY OF INDIA

The 2019 coronavirus pandemic (COVID-19) has presented unprecedented health challenges, resulting in complete restrictions on lives across the world. This research assesses spiritual care as an essential component of comprehensive health management, particularly in terms of adaptation, acceptance of illness, suffering, and, ultimately, of death. This article provides information on the need to provide spiritual care as a means of coping and well-being for families, patients, and health workers during the COVID-19 pandemic. The research examined how the Indian people understood the Indian Prime Minister's announcement to adopt a ritual belief in this pandemic. The research questions examine how the pandemic has disrupted religious observances and how people changed their performance of ritual work in fear of the coronavirus. The authors found that, while people were spiritually motivated by the Prime Minister's appeal, the mass vaccination program was the solution to the pandemic, and was the primary factor decreasing new cases.

Keywords: COVID-19, Spirituality and Belief, India, Political and Cultural, Right Wing, Pandemic.

1. INTRODUCTION

Spirituality has been a foundation of all people groups since the beginning of recorded history. It is an integral part of the quality of life, health and well-being of both the general population and those affected by the disease. In recent years, the coronavirus disease (COVID-19) has gone global, affecting nearly every country, society and health system. It disrupts various spheres of our social, political or economic life. It is also an intrusion into our spiritual realm. Spirituality is the foundation of human existence and is gaining more attention in global health recently. Christina Puchalski et al. (2009) define as spirituality is that aspect of humanity that refers to how individuals seek and express meaning and purpose and experience their connection with the moment, with oneself, with others, with nature and with what is important or sacred. Despite the lingering uncertainty, COVID-19 quietly offers us an opportunity to reflect on the spiritual impact it is having on the world and Indian communities (Puchalski et al., 2009). The word spirituality is derived from the main root spirit which comes to the English language from the Latin word spiritus, which means breath, courage, vigour, soul, life. Spiritus was derived from spirare to blow, breathe (Guralnik, 1984). The definition of spirituality often encapsulates concepts of meaning

[1] Mukesh Shankar Bharti, PhD, Independent Researcher Centre for European Studies, School of International Studies, Jawaharlal Nehru University, New Delhi, India; e-mail: msbharti.jnu@gmail.com. OCRID: 0000-0002-3693-7247.

(or purpose), value (or beliefs), transcendence (beyond self), connection (with others), and becoming (life's journey). Western notions of faith in God or a supreme being; connection with self, others and nature are also issues considered when defining spirituality (Tuck, 2004). Another approach to defining spirituality adopts a more postmodern philosophy by considering each human individual's personal perceptions of “spirituality” as a self-definition. A self-definition allows an individual to incorporate personal beliefs and experiences into the formulation of a single description but raises taxonomy issues (Reed, 1992).

The virus makes the need for a positive psychological response more urgent, and the good news is that meditation and yoga are good for fighting stress, which is linked to a strong immune response. the spiritual effect of the epidemic, which is ignored, although the presence of death, whether we like it or not, raises concerns about the state of our souls. Spiritual well-being is external to the daily lives of many people, and with the decline of organised religion, millions of people experience soul sickness, however, people want to define it as heart-weariness, existential fear, a nauseating feeling that nothing matters without finding a way out. The religious practices of hundreds of millions of people are undergoing profound changes in response to the COVID-19 pandemic caused by a new coronavirus. The crisis has prompted many religious leaders to call on their followers not only to take safety precautions but also to embrace their spirituality to help meet the health, social and economic challenges ahead. Indian prime minister himself call the people to do ritual practice about the awareness of Covid-19. The relationship to the transcendent or the sacred has a strong influence on the beliefs, attitudes, emotions and behaviours of a people. Research has shown that families depend on their spirituality for their emotional, mental, and physical well-being. Spirituality practices have been recognized as a powerful coping mechanism for coping with upsetting and traumatic events.

2. METHODOLOGICAL APPROACH

Spirituality is that part of theology that, starting from the truths of divine revelation and the religious experience of individual persons, defines the nature of supernatural life, formulates guidelines for their growth and development, and explains the process by which souls advance from the beginning of spiritual belief. The writings of Walter Hilton and many other mystics are classic examples of spiritual theology. For example, Hilton's primary goal is to encourage her readers at the beginning of their spiritual life, to help them move on to the more advanced steps, and ultimately to experience union with God. The perfection of the spiritual life is that which, as conceived by Hilton and other mystics, was understood as union with God. Simon Chan describes it as a related way of life in theology. Further, the analyses the understanding of spiritual growth, according to spiritual theology using experimental data and biblical (Goodrich, 2021).

The study took place in the context of spiritual belief and the COVID-19 scenario in India. The study design utilised based on primary and secondary resources to elicit texts that analyse the level of rituality that affects the political leader how to protect from COVID-19 during crises. From a variety of sources. It aims to explore and characterise the role of right-wing political leaders’ speech on COVID-19 and use the tool of the Hindu religion to save human life. The use of grounded theory to critically highlight the superstitions and wrong definitions to cure this dangerous infectious disease. The study investigated how people trust bad speech made by right-wing political leaders and COVID cases were increasing in the thousands in a day. The grounded method of dimensional investigation, as interpreted by Kools, McCarthy, Durham and Robrecht (1996) and Cunningham (2005) to available stories. This method was developed to consider data from a point of view where it would be possible to use experience and expertise to identify salient elements that could be considered as dimensions of analysis, establish their relationship to each other and sequence them logically (Mehl-Madrona et al., (2013).

As part of its commitment to doing theology as a tool for political mileage in the poll, a spiritual belief often makes use of partner disciplines, especially from the social sciences. This includes both qualitative and quantitative research methods. These methods, especially the qualitative, will be useful in exploring spirituality and COVID-19 from the Indian perspective responding to mystics like Hilton. For example, by using qualitative research methods, such as newspaper editorials, websites, to present political stance on coronavirus in the prism of spiritual belief mystics to present crisis in India. To prove an argument, the study includes primary data such as press releases from government officials, statements from the social scientist and noted media, journals, think tanks websites. Secondary data include articles, books, pieces of literature, magazines, reports, think tank articles, and newspaper excerpts.

3. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The concept of spirituality has attracted increasing attention over the past decade, as evidenced by the number of conceptual and empirical works carried out in India. Many recommend that continuous theoretical development is essential to understanding spirituality and guiding practice. Spirituality in daily life in India is like a festival celebration and gaining political mileage during the election process. It had affected the run of the policy during the 1st wave of COVID-19 and the prime minister uses the tool of Hindu faith and belief. Spirituality is defined as the majority of human experiences that seek to transcend themselves and find meaning and purpose through connection with others, nature, and/or a higher being, which may or may not involve religious structures or traditions (Buck, 2006). However, Martsolf and Mickley state that one of the greatest difficulties to nurture research and practice in this area has been the lack of conceptual clarity of the term spirituality (Berry, 2005). They analysed that those who conduct research on spirituality from a theoretical point of view should consider the differences in worldview in theories and models. Continued development of the theory was recommended as essential to further understanding spirituality and belief in the practice of everyday life. Berry (2005) noted that there are methodological difficulties with existing studies on the construction of measurement, design, and analysis of spirituality issues. (Reimer-Kirkham et al) raise the question of whether the current trend in the literature and research to separate the concepts of religiosity from spirituality is consistent with the understanding of both peoples and ruling party leaders spiritually motivated speech (Reimer-Kirkham, 2004). They warn that postmodern constructions of spirituality may inadvertently decontextualise the experience of non-Western peoples. Mahlungulu and Uys, analysing the concept of spirituality in a South African context, used a grounded theory methodology with 56 informants. In India, there is also a need to expand the grounded theory to understand the assimilation of belief through religious faith to protect themselves from the COVID-19 pandemic (Mahlungulu, Uys, 2004).

E. Erenchinova et al. write that spiritual values are creative and constructive mechanisms that work to stabilise society, to avoid its destruction, it is their regularity., kindness, Sympathy, compassion and caring are some of those spiritual values that drive humanity in its base form. Consideration wishes to separate other beings from suffering. These values are often overshadowed by our intellectual vision and strive for practical wisdom, but underneath lies a component of love and care for others (Erenchinova, Proudchenko, 2018). Human beings tend to turn to prayer in times of crisis. Inappropriately, religious places, including mosques, churches or temples, are locked. Weekly Friday prayers are banned, masses suspended and rituals reduced. People can become desperate: Oh my God, where do we go now? Getting through these trying times will take a lot of spiritual invention. In this situation, people are encouraged to stay back, pray from home, and use the liturgical and prayer resources provided. According to Addiss, the global health incorporate a spirit of interdependence and recognizes the need for global cooperation to address these issues. Social distancing can raise concerns about the cohesion of our society, our community or our family, but is crucial to stop the spread. The essence of these blocks is also to protect other citizens (especially older ones), who are at the highest risk, as well as people with underlying health problems. COVID-19 has awakened the spirit of unity and interdependence in the health systems of several countries and has promoted and coordinated decisions and actions at the national, state/provincial and local levels. This requires global cooperation: a unified action in the interest of the health of the general population and, as the WHO director himself said from the beginning, solidarity is the key to overcoming COVID-19. Young and old need to take care of each other, healthy people need to care about people with health problems and, of course, countries also need to take care of each other in this new global pandemic. In other arguments, there is a need for intergenerational commonality, transnational solidarity, etc. In a similar vein, the UN Secretary-General has called for a global ceasefire to focus on the material competition of our survives (Salve, 2021).

4. POLITICAL AND SOCIAL ASPECTS

Indian Prime Minister Narendra Modi addresses the nation amid concerns about the spread of coronavirus on television. The world feels the need for yoga more than ever due to the coronavirus pandemic and the ancient Indian practice is helping a large number of patients around the world beat the disease and turn off all lights and lamps at 9 p.m. from 5th April 2020. Although, 1.3 billion Indians are in the same boat and right now it is important to experience this community. In our country, it is believed that the people are God, so in this hour of crisis, it is important to remind this community, Prime Minister Modi continued: Friends, in the darkness that has spread during this crisis, we must move forward relentlessly towards the light. We must lead our people towards light and certainty. To overcome this darkness, we must show light in all directions around the residents wherever we will be there. On 5th April 2020, we must challenge this darkness. Therefore, we, 130 million Indians, should at 9 p.m. on 5th April, turn off all lights and stand at the door or balcony and light a candle, diya, torch or moving lantern for nine minutes (The Hindu, 2020).

President Ram Nath Kovind said on Sunday that practising yoga can help keep the body fit and the mind calm amid the coronavirus pandemic. Presenting his greetings on the International Day of Yoga, he said the ancient science of yoga is India's great gift to the world. Glad to see more and more people adopting it, he tweeted and shared some of his photos in which he is seen practising yoga. Other leaders like Vice President Mr Venkaiah Naidu also emphasized that people should be in good physical and mental health to fight a united fight against the novel coronavirus, as humanity cannot allow the pandemic to take hold. the top. Yoga is a relatively low-risk, high-reward approach to improving overall health and its full potential should be harnessed," he said at an event marking International Yoga Day (The Hindu, 2020). Faith-based organizations and religious leaders have a vital role to play in the fight against the pandemic. Engaging religious leaders can address stigma and discrimination within communities and raise awareness of key measures to prevent the spread of COVID-19 (WHO, 2020).

Despite these inevitable horrors, much of India remains in a sort of parallel reality where COVID-19 is not a threat. The thousands of Hindu devotees continue to turn up every day for a dip in the Ganges as part of the Kumbh Mela pilgrimage in Haridwar, Uttarakhand. Millions of worshipers have taken part in the week-long festival since the first swim day on 11th March 2021, despite clear evidence that thousands of people are testing positive for the virus after attending. Within a few days in mid-April, more than 1,600 cases were confirmed among worshippers. In March, when the second wave was already underway, heads of state from the ruling Bhartiya Janata Party (BJP) published full-page ads in national newspapers telling worshipers it was 'clean' and harmless to attend the Kumbh Mela in Haridwar. Uttarakhand's Chief Minister said on 20th March 2021, No one will be arrested in the name of COVID-19 because we are confident that faith in God will overcome the fear of the virus. It is a political game to gain political mileage in the upcoming state assembly election in February, March 2022. It was only in mid-April that Prime Minister Narendra Modi tweeted that participation in the pilgrimage should remain "symbolic" to fight the pandemic. The spiritual belief is at a high level to attention to get political benefit in the name of religious faith. The Kumbh Mela was the source of the spread of the virus. The situation had deteriorated in Uttar Pradesh and Uttarakhand in March and April 2021. The central government of India and Uttar Pradesh did not take care to control the deities to move in Haridwar Kumbh Mela (Ayyub, 2021).

In the assembly election in West Bengal, where Modi himself campaigned. The BJP leader has advocated drinking cow urine to treat COVID-19. Vijay Chauthaiwale, head of the BJP's foreign affairs department, wrote a column calling on economists and analysts in the 'anti-Modi lobby' and encouraging Indians not to reject traditional medicine including cow urine and turmeric to strengthen the immune system. This kind of bad definition is spreading to save from COVID-19, if we people drink cow urine we could save from crisis. On the occasion of the Ram Navami festival, the Prime Minister tweeted that people should follow the message of Lord Ram, the Hindu deity for protection, and behave appropriately. In this regard, the leader of the ruling party is still manipulating the mass population through sentimental talk about religion, faith during the COVID-19 crisis across the country. India is the union of many states, there are elections held for state assembly elections at the appropriate time. At present, there are assembly elections in more than five Indian states where the leaders want to gain political advantage in the elections that's why the political leader wants to gain sympathy vote through the policies of the political game. For instance, COVID-19 is a big excuse for politicians to use a tool to gain political mileage (Ayyub, 2021).

The prime minister said nothing about what his government was going to do during the crisis, but he asked people to come out onto their balconies, ring the bells and bang their pots and pans to greet the health workers. According to the prime minister's announcement to greet the health worker people follow the guideline as well. Unsurprisingly, Narendra Modi's request was met with great enthusiasm. There were pot-banging marches, community dances and processions. Not much social distancing. In the days that followed, men jumped into barrels of holy cow dung and BJP supporters held cow urine drinking parties. Not to be outdone, many Muslim organizations have declared the Almighty to be the answer to the virus and called on the faithful to gather in mosques in numbers. During COVID-19, people have been demotivated by political and religious leaders across the country to be aware of the coronavirus. In a remote part of the countryside, people are more superstitious and lack protection against COVID-19. They are a believer in the traditional roots of Sanatan Dharma and blind follower of thousands of gods and goddesses. That is why the prime minister appealed regarding COVID-19 according to religious aspects. People believe and impress listening to ritual and religious discourses, and leaders play with people's feelings (Roy, 2020).

Figure 1. People in Mumbai applaud from balconies in a show of appreciation for health workers

Source: (aljazeera.com/gallery/2020/3/22/in-pictures-india-holds-14-hour-coronavirus-lockdown).

Shortly before 5 p.m., the cacophony in the capital, New Delhi, began with people cheering on balconies and rooftops, ringing bells, banging pots and pans, playing musical records and setting off fireworks, sending crows and parakeets running from the treetops and dogs and street cows. in the empty streets. This is India's ritual wave of frontline health worker celebration across the country. It is a kind of celebration called in India the oldest roots of belief. Which benefits the political leader to spread propaganda to save from coronavirus. The rituality is only psychological solving not a proper cure. The people need to understand that ritual belief is not a cure for dangerous coronavirus. The only solution is modern medical treatment and must follow the suggestion of doctors to defeat the coronavirus. The ritual belief doesn't protect from the coronavirus. Moreover, Mumbai residents cheer and knock and bang utensils off their balconies to cheer on rescuers and healthcare workers on the front lines of the fight against coronavirus (Aljazeera, 2020).

Another widespread occurrence has been large religious congregations taking advantage of superstitious beliefs to defend against the scourge of the virus. One of the local ruling party leaders, who has partnered with Hindu nationalist organizations, held a cow urine party on 14th March 2020. The organization offered incense and cow urine to a demonic caricature of the virus to seek divine intervention. Those present at the party were heard proclaiming the alleged healthiness benefits of drinking holy cow urine. This has become the focus of national and international headlines, which highlights the pervasive popular belief in religious myths rather than scientific facts. Simultaneously, by prescribing cow urine, cow dung and Hindu chanting as treatment, Hindu nationalists accomplish both boundaries marking and discipline. Where the description of COVID-19 as the Chinese meets the requirements it as their pandemic, the prescription of the consumption of Hindutva symbols as remedies draws attention to accurate behaviour. Ultimately, the Hindutva's response to the pandemic attempts to strengthen its own constituency while denying the catastrophic danger that COVID-19 poses to Indian society if left unchecked (Kohli, Dhawan, 2020).

According to A. Roy, people want to vote as Hindus in Parliamentary and Assembly elections as well. Due to its close association with Hinduism, political parties use popular perception during elections to inflame religious sentiments. After the elections, the political leader never remembers his voter in five years. There is an election in India after a gap of five years between another period. During the Kumbh Mela (religious fair) in Haridwar, millions of people were sheltered to bathe in the Ganges and spread the virus to a huge level. Prime Minister Modi had tweeted that it could be an idea for the holy bath to become symbolic to fight coronavirus. He had praised the administration and the great availability of people at Haridwar Kumbh Mela. If the Prime Minister (PM) of India can directly support mass gatherings for spiritual work during the COVID-19 period, there could be no other big mistake like this (A. Roy). It is not enough to say that the government has failed. We are facing a crime against humanity (The politics of India's COVID-19 catastrophe, 29.04.2021).

The populist government have key agenda to play with emotions in the name of religion. The COVID-19 protocol had failed during Kumbh Mela in Haridwar and the Hindu pilgrimage more than four million devotees reached on the banks of the Ganges for a ritual deep at Kumbh Mela. In the lite of Indian politics and management of the COVID-19 crisis, it didn't well manage by the central government of India. Because the government and the allied political leader are teaching the mass people, coronavirus is nothing to harm man, we believe in the ancient god and goddess, so we must follow our ancient values and Ayurveda. The Nobel Prize-winning economist Amartya Sen said the government is responsible for providing assistance to people if they are unaware of the causes of famine. Because of the famine, the people are suffering from many problems. India is known as the largest democracy in the world and it has to facilitate the press and citizens to criticise the work of the government and how they solve the problems of peoples in crisis (Los Angeles Times, 2021).

Figure 2. Hindu worshipers take part in 'Huranga', a game played between men and women a day after Holi, the festival of colours, at the Dauji temple neighbouring the northern city of Mathura, India, on March 30, 2021

Source: (https://www.reuters.com/article/us-health-coronavirus-india-surge-idUSKBN2BV129).

During the celebration of Holi in Mathura and other places across the country, there was a huge mass gathering to celebrate the festivals. People don't care and fearlessly had done ritual work to celebrate Holi without being scared of coronavirus. The police administration couldn’t take any action against the mass gathering. This is proven that the deities believe that if we perform ritual work according to ancient Hindu civilization. God will help and protect us from the COVID-19 crisis (Das, Ravikumar, 2021).

5. CONCLUSION

COVID-19 has posed a grave threat to humanity. It is one of the biggest pandemics of the century so far and we don't know how many such pandemics await humanity in the future. The World Health Organization (WHO), which is closely monitoring the situation, has called on countries around the world to share their respective research findings so that a collective and conscientious effort can be made to fight the pandemic. In addition, the WHO has also called for the time to be for facts, science and solidarity and not for fear, rumours or stigma. Nevertheless, we see that world leaders and community leaders are constantly engaged in defamation based on race, community and nation.

Spirituality is important in health care because it promotes stress coping strategies, promotes recovery and resilience, and prevents burnout. The best intelligence and advice in the mental realm are meditation and yoga, relaxation techniques, and daily mindfulness to find not only relaxation but also joy and comfort in your life. But it works opposite in nature because right-wing political party experiments with the ritual tool against the positivity of religion. Hindu deities are strict believers of many gods. They are very sentimental towards Lord Rama, Lord Krishna, Lord Shiva and other gods. It is the weak point of the mass population in India and political parties are getting profit in the election to use this weak approach. Furthermore, how social media like Twitter, Facebook, and blogs have affected the lives of people during this crisis and there is also a scope to investigate all concern issues regarding the social media's role in COVID-19. The research analysis the rituality and political associations to each other and political leaders use the arms of religion to gain vote share in elections. Moreover, this research was limited it didn't take into account the role of hate messages in social media platforms. As far as, this research analysis there is a need to do more research work on this issue. The rituality and follower of any religion, the people of countryside need to understand the reality. If we believe in rumours and superstitions, it means that we are creating a bad situation ourselves to save from heinous disease.

Neither the ritual belief nor the political leader is aiming to gain an advantage in the polls (orate the people in the wrong way) indicating that the intentions to solve the infectious coronavirus in the country are impossible. The only scientific way of life, if people follow the medical guidelines and proper treatment could solve the COVID-19 crisis. India is an older civilisation in the world and people beliefs are linked and attached with a faith deeply at a huge level. That is why politicians are easily attached to people's spiritual emotions. During elections, right-wing political parties are easily getting an edge on other ideological base national and regional parties in elections.

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Iliya CHUKIN[1]
Nataliia GERASYMCHUK[2]
Yanina LISUN[3]

TRENDS OF THE ADVERTISING AND COMMUNICATION MARKET OF UKRAINE AND PROMOTION OF THE ADVERTISING AGENCY BRAND IN THE SOCIAL MEDIA

In this article, authors analyzed the main indicators of the Ukrainian advertising media market functioning between 2017–2022. Particular attention was paid to the segment of the media marketing known as Digital Advertising, as well as to other market sectors, including: PR-market and marketing services, trade marketing, loyalty marketing, consumer marketing, event marketing and sponsorship, and non-standard communications.

The authors analyzed the activities of five advertising agencies for their efficiency ratings as creative agencies between the years 2019–2021. A comparative analysis of advertising agency websites is presented, characterizing the presence of advertising agencies of Ukraine on social media. Based on the results of the study, the authors propose a holistic communication system of measures to increase the activity of subscribers to the online presence platforms of the participating advertising agency.

Keywords: social media, media market, advertising campaign effectiveness.

1. INTRODUCTION

The advertising and communication market is an integral part of the modern business environment. Online presence in the media environment is a priority, especially in uncontrolled multicrises such as COVID-19 and the military aggression against Ukraine in 2022. Despite economic instability and changes in consumer behavior, the issues of marketing communications on social networks remain relevant.

[1] Iliya Chukin, Facebook Ads Manager in Capital Com SV Investments Limited, Capital Com SV Investments Limited, 28 Oktovrou, 237 Lophitis Business Centre II, 6th Floor, Limassol, Cypr 3035; e-mail: chukin2086@gmail.com. ORCID: 0000-0003-2858-9219.
[2] Nataliia Gerasymchuk, Doctor of Economic Sciences, Professor, Poltava State Agrarian University, ul. Skovorody 1/3, Poltava, 36003, Ukraine; e-mail: nataliia.herasymchuk@pdaa.edu.ua (corresponding author). ORCID: 0000-0001-5302-8320.
[3] Yanina Lisun, Candidate of Economic Sciences, Associate Prof. of the Department of Journalism and Advertising State University of Trade and Economics, ul. Kioto, 19, Kyiv, 02000, Ukraine; e-mail: y.lisun@knute.edu.ua. ORCID: 0000-0002-5250-2809.

Today, on the threshold of a digital society, as never before, Ukraine needs the effective strategy that can spread its agenda in the world.

2. MATERIAL AND METHODS

Research presented in this paper is an element of a research project aimed at determining trends of the advertising and communication market of Ukraine and promotion of the brand of the advertising agency in social media, PR-communications and, in particular, positioning, according to the ratings of the leading players of the advertising media market, creating a holistic communication system of measures to increase the activity of subscribers on the online presence platforms of the advertising agency.

The dominant goal of our study is identify general trends in the advertising and communication market of Ukraine and to develop practical recommendations for promoting the brand of an advertising agency on social media (Facebook, Instagram, YouTube).

Material and research methods are theoretical and practical aspects of studying the generalized patterns of functioning of the advertising and communication market of Ukraine and detailed aspects of the practical activities of leading advertising agencies in Ukraine.

The following research methods were used: comparison of key statistical indicators of the advertising and communication market of Ukraine, the activities of advertising agencies on the Internet, analysis of Internet promotion strategy, modeling strategies for effective promotion of advertising agency brand in social media.

The research of social media marketing was discussed in the scientific works of Przepiórka A., Błachnio A., Sullman M., Gorbaniuk O., Siu NY-F., Hill T., Gras M.-E., Kagialis A., Lisun Y., Díaz-Peñaloza M., Manrique-Millones D., Nikiforou M., Evtina G.S., Taylor J.E., Tekes B., Šeibokaite L., Wundersitz L., Calvo F and Font-Mayolas S. (Przepiorka et al., 2021), Guk O.V., Tyshchenko O.M. (2018), Ievgeniia Kyianytsia, Yanina Lisun, Yana

Kyrylenko, Mariia Semenova, Iryna Biskub (Ievgeniia Kyianytsia et al., 2021), Mohammed Hussen Mama Irbo, Abdulnasir Abdulmelike Mohammed (Irbo, Mohammed, 2020). However, only theoretical aspects of the studied problem were covered in the above-mentioned work. Therefore, further research is needed on the trends of the advertising and communication market of Ukraine, as well as applied aspects, tools and ways to promote the brand of an advertising agency on social media.

3. PROBLEM DISCUSSION

The advertising media market of Ukraine is divided into the following segments:

- television advertising (TV advertising),
- advertising in the press,
- radio advertising,
- out-of-home advertising (OOH Media),
- advertising in cinemas,
- internet advertising (Digital (Internet),
- media advertising.

Summary information on the capacity of the market in the millions of hryvnas of advertising media market of Ukraine for 2017–2022 years is shown on the Table 1.

Table 1. Summary information on the advertising media market of Ukraine for 2017–2022 years, millions of Ukrainian hryvnas (UAH)

	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022 (forecast)	Index of change	
							2021/2017	2022/2021
TV commercials, total	7329	9259	11 527	12 175	13 642	15 600	1,86	1,14
Direct advertising	*6355*	*7944*	*10 089*	*10 593*	11 854	*13 633*	1,87	1,15
Sponsorship	*974*	*1315*	*1 438*	*1 582*	1788	*1967*	1,84	1,10
Advertising in the press, total	1355	1597	1850	1466	1599	1773	1,18	1,11
National press	*816*	*963*	*1106*	*866*	960	*1077*	1,18	1,12
incl. Sponsorship	-		*284*	*215*	243	*281*		1,16
Regional press	*224*	*262*	*320*	*243*	268	*303*	1,20	1,13
Specialized press	*315*	*372*	*425*	*357*	371	*394*	1,18	1,06
Radio advertising, total	480	578	717	717	855	1015	1,78	1,19
National	*348*	*418*	*518*	*512*	605	*715*	1,74	1,18
Regional	*47*	*54*	*65*	*65*	80	*95*	1,70	1,19
Sponsorship	*85*	*107*	*134*	*140*	170	*205*	2,00	1,21
OOH Media, total	2692	3330	4240	3 159	4098	4769	1,52	1,16
Outdoor advertising	*2263*	*2829*	*3283*	*2 433*	3092	*3529*	1,37	1,14
Transport advertising	*327*	*382*	*600*	*351*	397	*432*	1,21	1,09
Digital out-of-home advetising	-	-	*205*	*291*	518	*712*		1,37
Indoor advertising	*102*	*119*	*152*	*85*	90	*97*	0,88	1,08
Advertising in cinemas	40	46	58	20	26	35	0,65	1,35
Digital (Internet) Media Advertising	4345	5650	6379	6980	10 833	13 510	2,49	1,25
Total advertising media market	16 241	20 460	24 771	24 517	31 053	36 702	1,91	1,18

Source: own study based on (https://vrk.org.ua/).

In general, for the period 2017–2022, the total volume of the advertising media market increased from 16,241 million to 36,702 million UAH, which corresponds to 91%. In 2022, Maxim Lazebnyk, expert of the All-Ukrainian Advertising Coalition predict an increase in the total advertising media market by 18% (Lazebnyk, 2022). It should be noted that the data on 2022 do not take into account the impact of military aggression in Ukraine for the relevant period, as they were compiled before it began. Undoubtedly uncontrolled multi-crises, such as the COVID-19 pandemic and Russia's military aggression against Ukraine, have a negative impact on the development of the advertising media market in Ukraine.

Indices of change in the volume of advertising media market of Ukraine for 2017–2022 are presented in Table 2.

During the period 2017–2019, all segments of the advertising media market of Ukraine saw an annual average growth of 21–26%. The largest growth was observed in market segments: TV-advertising (24–26%); Radio advertising (20–24%); OOH Media (24–27%). The slowest growth was in the Press advertising segment (16–18%).

The fall in the market was observed in 2019-2020 years, due to the COVID-19 pandemic and, accordingly, restrictions on consumer mobility and falling demand for advertising in the press, outdoor advertising and advertising in cinemas (Table 2).

Table 2. Indices of changes in the volume of advertising media market in Ukraine for 2017–2022 years

	2018/2017	2019/2018	2020/2019	2021/2020	2022/2021
TV-advertising, total	1,26	1,24	1,06	1,12	1,14
Press advertising, total	1,18	1,16	0,79	1,09	1,11
Radio advertising, total	1,20	1,24	1,00	1,19	1,19
OOH Media, total	1,24	1,27	0,75	1,30	1,16
Cinema advertising, total	1,15	1,26	0,34	1,30	1,35
Digital (Internet) Media advertising, total	1,30	1,13	1,09	1,55	1,25
TOTAL	1,26	1,21	0,99	1,27	1,18

Source: own study based on (https://vrk.org.ua/).

During the period 2019–2020 years, there was a decline in the total volume of the advertising media market from 24,771 to 24,517 million UAH. Among the reasons for the decline, experts of the All-Ukrainian Advertising Coalition named quarantine in connection with COVID-19, as well as some technical aspects (coding of the satellite signal, which reduced access for advertisers) (Lazebnyk, 2022). It should be noted that the indicators of the Digital (Internet) Media advertising market for the period 2019–2020 years did not decline, as online communication and SMM became key communication channels in the face of the COVID-19 pandemic.

Thus, the Press advertising segment decreased by 21%; OOH Media segment – decreased by 25%; Cinema advertising segment – decreased by 66%. Despite the COVID-19 crisis, some of the most popular segments of the advertising media market in Ukraine have shown slight growth. In particular, the TV-advertising segment increased by 6%; Digital (Internet) Media advertising segment – increased by 9%; The Radio advertising segment remained unchanged, which can be perceived as a positive phenomenon in the crisis of the pandemic of 2019–2020 years. In general, the volume of the advertising media market of Ukraine for the period 2019–2020 years decreased by 1%.

Gradually, in the conditions of adaptation of society, business and media to the new reality of functioning in the conditions of COVID-19, the situation on the advertising media market of Ukraine improved. The most significant positive changes in 2021 year occurred in the market segments that suffered the largest losses in 2020. In particular, the OOH Media segment and the Cinema advertising segment increased in 2021 by 30% compared to 2020 and in absolute terms in monetary equivalent reached the level of 2019 (Table 2).

In 2021 year, the segment of Digital (Internet) Media advertising grew at the fastest pace, compared to 2020, which amounted to + 55%. In general, in 2021 the increase in the advertising media market of Ukraine was 1.27% compared to 2020.

The structure of the advertising media market of Ukraine for 2017–2022 years is presented in Fig. 1.

In particular, in 2021 the largest share of the advertising media market is occupied by the TV-advertising segment – 43.93%; the Digital (Internet) Media advertising segment occupies 34.89%; OOH Media – 13.20% (Fig. 1).

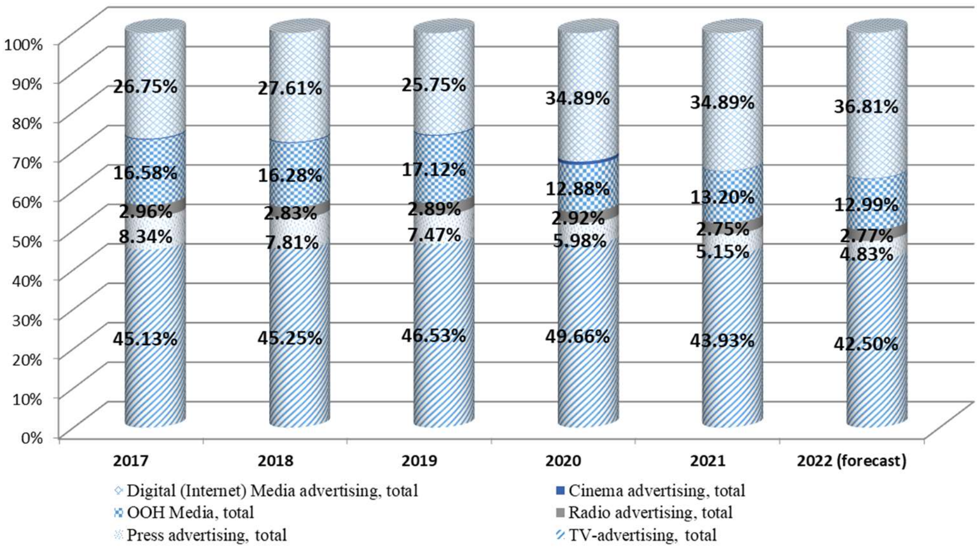

Figure 1. The structure of the advertising media market of Ukraine for 2017–2022 years

Source: own study based on (https://vrk.org.ua/).

Analysis of the Digital Advertising Market in Ukraine, according to the Interactive Advertising Bureau (IAB) classification in 2017–2022 year is presented in table 3.

Table 3. Information on the Digital advertising market in Ukraine (according to the Interactive Advertising Bureau classification) in 2017–2022 years, millions of Ukrainian hryvnas

	2017	**2018**	**2019**	**2020**	**2021**	**2022 (forecast)**
Banner advertising, ads on social networks, rich media	825	920	3 240	3180	4780	5640
Sponsorship	181	230	200	–	–	–
Digital video, incl. Youtube	713	1300	2939	3800	6053	7869
Total online media	**1719**	**2450**	**6379**	**6980**	**10 833**	**13 510**
Share of Internet media in the total Internet market,%	*39,56*	*43,36*	*39,73*	*34,47*	*36,27*	*33,82*
Search (paid issue in search engines), including part of the GDN	1800	2700	9000	12 300	17835	24 969
Influencer marketing	–	–	–	336,8	505,2	707,28
Another digital	826	500	676	630	693	762,3
Total internet market	**4345**	**5650**	**16055**	**20247**	**29 867**	**39 948**

Source: (own study based on https://vrk.org.ua/).

Information on the Digital Advertising market indicates an increase in the market volume from 4,345 million UAH in 2017 year to 39,948 million UAH in 2022 (Table 3). The market segment «Banner advertising, ads on social networks, rich media» for the period 2017–2021 increased 5.79 times, i.e. from 825 million UAH up to 4,780 million UAH.

Market segment "Digital video, incl. Youtube" for the period 2017–2021 increased 8.48 times, ie from 713 million UAH up to 6053 million UAH.

Overall, the share of Internet media in the total Internet market in 2021 was 36.27% (Table 3).

Since 2020, the All-Ukrainian Advertising Coalition has focused on such a segment of the Digital Advertising market as Influencer Marketing (Table 3). In 2020–2021 years, the Influencer Marketing market segment increased from 336.8 million UAH up to 505.2 million UAH, which is 50% (Table 4). In 2022 year, this type of marketing communications is forecast to grow by 40% compared to 2021.

Also, the experts of the Social media marketing (SMM) Committee at the Interactive Advertising Bureau plan to add an estimate of the volume in the category of social media marketing to the next forecast, and the Performance Committee – to test the methodology for assessing the market of SEO-services (Lazebnyk, 2022).

Table 4. Indices of changes in the Digital Advertising market in Ukraine (according to the Interactive Advertising Bureau classification) in 2017-2022 years

	2018/2017	**2019/2018**	**2020/2019**	**2021/2020**	**2022/2021**
Banner advertising, ads on social networks, rich media	1,12	3,52	0,98	1,50	1,18
Sponsorship	1,27	0,87	–	–	–
Digital video, incl. Youtube	1,82	2,26	1,29	1,59	1,30
Total online media	**1,43**	**2,60**	**1,09**	**1,55**	**1,25**
Paid listing in search engines, including part of the GDN	1,50	3,33	1,37	1,45	1,40
Influencer marketing	–	–	–	1,50	1,40
Another digital	0,61	1,35	0,93	1,10	1,10
Total internet market	**1,30**	**2,84**	**1,26**	**1,48**	**1,34**

Source: (own study based on https://vrk.org.ua/).

The market segment «Paid listing in search engines»), including part of the GDN for the period 2017-2021 increased 9.9 times, ie from 1800 million up to 17,835 million UAH.

Let's analyze the structure of the Digital Advertising market in Ukraine (according to the IAB classification) in 2017–2022 (Fig. 2). The largest share of the Digital Advertising market in Ukraine is occupied by paid listing in search engines, according to the IAB classification «Search (paid issue in search engines), including part of GDN» – 59.71% as of 2021 year.

As of 2021, the market segment «Digital Video, incl. Youtube» is 20.27%; Banner advertising, ads on social networks, rich media is 16%. If we analyze the dynamics of changes in the structure of the Digital Advertising market in Ukraine, we can say that for the period 2017–2021, the share of search advertising increased from 41.43% to 59.71%; Market segment share «Digital video, incl. Youtube» increased from 16.41% to 20.27%;

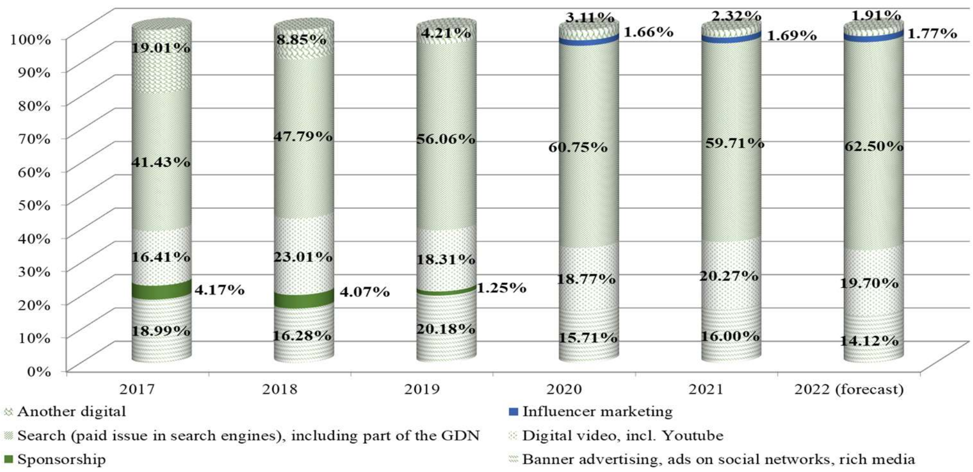

Figure 2. Structure of the Digital Advertising Market in Ukraine (according to IAB classification) in 2017–2022, UAH million

Source: own study based on (https://vrk.org.ua/).

The share of the market segment «Banner advertising, ads on social networks, rich media» decreased slightly from 18.99% to 16.00%, and experts predict a further reduction in 2022 to 14.12%.

The Internet market will continue to show strong growth in 2022 year by at least 34% (Table 4). The actual growth of the Digital Advertising market in 2020–2021 years is expected at 48% (Table 4), which is explained by the continued dominance of global players, and low entry threshold, development of Programmatic, and, in part, postCovid adaptive recovery of the industry traditional offline media. Experts predict growth in 2022 year primarily through video and search advertising, where the main drivers of growth today are and will be global players next year (Google, Facebook and very likely TikTok) (Lazebnyk, 2022).

The dynamic change of the situation with media channels causes changes and improvements in the methods of estimating the volume of the advertising market in the digital segment. The improvement of digital (internet) market valuation methodologies is in fact non-stop, which will lead to a new clarification of market volumes (Lisun, 2021).

Marketing services play an important role in the advertising media market of Ukraine (Table 5).

The segment of the market of marketing services «Trade marketing» for the period 2017–2021 increased 1.39 times, ie from 1,700 million up to 2,377 million of UAH. The Loyalty marketing market segment for the period 2017–2021 years increased 1.31 times, ie from 850 million up to UAH 1,119 millions of UAH, while the consumer marketing market segment for the period 2017-2021 years increased 1.53 times, ie from 950 million. up to 1,460 million UAH. The market segment of Event Marketing and Sponsorship for the 2017–2021 period increased 1.09 times, ie from 920 million up to 1,003 million UAH.

Table 5. Information on the market of marketing services in 2017–2022 years, millions of UAH

	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022 (forecast)
Trade marketing (merchandising, trade promo, programs of personal motivation)	1700	1955	2542	2161	2377	2614
Loyalty marketing (Mailing, DB management, Contact-Center)	850	978	1122	1066	1119	1175
Consumer marketing	950	1140	1587	1270	1460	1679
Event Marketing and Sponsorship	920	1104	1783	802	1003	1204
Non-standart communications (life placement, ambient media)	128	141	–	–	–	–
The volume of the market of marketing services in total	**4548**	**5317**	**7034**	**5299**	**5959**	**6672**

Source: own study based on (https://vrk.org.ua/).

Information on the market of marketing services indicates an increase in market volume for the 2017–2021 period in 1.31 times, ie from 4548 million in 2017 to 5959 million UAH in 2021. The largest annual growth of the market of marketing services is an increase on 32%, which was observed in 2018–2019 years. Then the crisis of 2019–2020 years, caused by COVID-19, led to a fall in the market by 25%. In 2022 year, the market of marketing services is projected to grow to UAH 6,672 million, ie by 1.12% compared to 2021 (Table 6).

Table 6. Indices of changes in the market of marketing services in 2017–2022 years

	2018/2017	2019/2018	2020/2019	2021/2020	2022/2021
Trade marketing (Merchandising, Trade promo, Personnel motivation and control programs)	1,15	1,30	0,85	1,10	1,10
Loyalty marketing (Mailing, DB management, Contact-Center)	1,15	1,15	0,95	1,05	1,05
Consumer marketing	1,20	1,39	0,80	1,15	1,15
Event Marketing and Sponsorship	1,20	1,62	0,45	1,25	1,20
Non-standart communications (life placement, ambient media)	1,10	–	–	–	–
The volume of the market of marketing services in total	1,17	1,32	0,75	1,12	1,12

Source: own study based on (https://vrk.org.ua/).

Analysis of the market of marketing services in Ukraine in 2017–2022 years is represented on a Fig. 3.

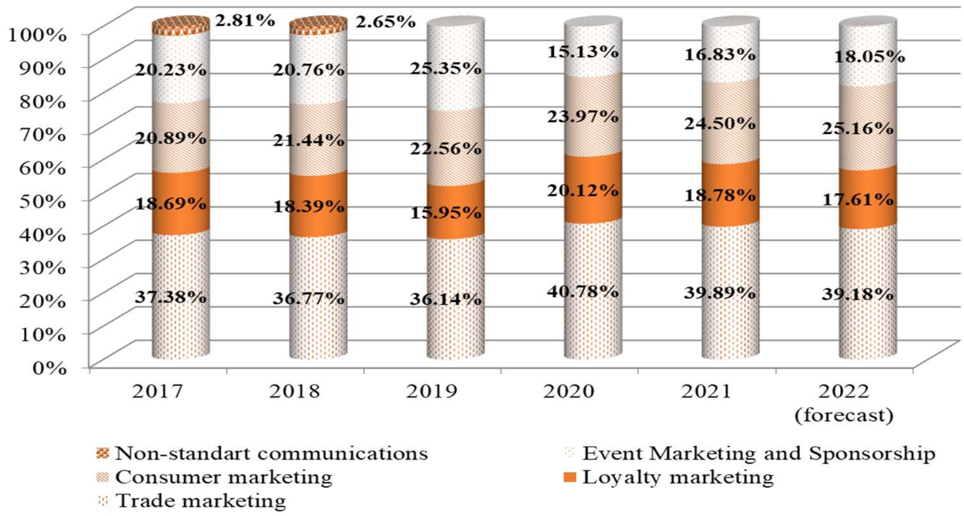

Figure 3. The structure of the market of marketing services in Ukraine (according to the IAB classification) in 2017–2022, UAH million

Source: own study based on (https://vrk.org.ua/).

The largest share of the market of marketing services is occupied by «Trade marketing» – 39.89% as of 2021.

As of 2021, the market segment «Consumer marketing» is 24,50%; Loyalty marketing is 18,78%; Event Marketing and Sponsorship is 16.83%. If we analyze the dynamics of changes in the structure of the market of marketing services for 2017–2022 for each segment, we can say that there have been no significant changes.

The assessment of the development of the market of marketing services by the International Association of Marketing Initiatives (IAMI) shows the largest increase in Event marketing and sponsorship by 25%. The companies held hybrid and online events, and big events and festivals took place during the summer season. Trade and consumer projects increased by 10% and 15% respectively. Such programs continue to help capture the attention of consumers in social networks and outlets (Lisun, 2020).

NON-Media directions of the advertising and communication market of Ukraine, namely, the market of PR services shows stable growth (Table 7).

Table 7. Information on the PR market in 2017–2020, UAH million

	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022 (forecast)	Index of Change		
							2021/2017	2021/2020	2022/2021
PR-market	325	358	950	953	934	1027	2,87	0,98	1,009

Source: (own study based on https://vrk.org.ua/).

According to the Ukrainian Association for Public Relations (UAPR), changes in the PR market in the business sector have been both positive and negative. But in general, 2019 = 2020 = 2021, and sharp rises and falls indicate, rather, a certain redistribution of forces in the market.

In the public sector of Public Relations in 2020 year there was a redistribution of funding with a focus on health care supporting. In 2021 year, experts noted the completion of several major donor programs on decentralization; the number of implemented projects also decreased. In 2022 year, there is activity in the field of health care and PR activity in connection with the military aggression in Ukraine.

The commercial sector also notes the growing demand of Western companies and brands to enter the Ukrainian market and Ukrainian companies interested in publicity opportunities in Western markets, expect growth in IT and gaming business, as well as growing demand for social change projects (Lisun, Kyianytsia, 2021).

The non-profit sector says that major international technical assistance projects that have completed their work have been replaced by new ones working in the same areas: decentralization, parliamentary reform, digitalization of services and processes (Diadyk, Khurdei, Pysarenko, Tagiltseva, 2016).

PR-communications and, in particular, positioning, according to different ratings, promote the advertising agency's brand. The modern development of the advertising and communication industry involves ranking participants in the advertising and communication market of Ukraine, which helps market participants in choosing creative and media partners, promote the latest and most effective advertising technologies, and promote new talented names in the advertising industry (Lisun, 2021).

All-Ukrainian Advertising Coalition determines the following types of ratings:

1. Ratings of communication agencies of Ukraine

Communication agencies in the interests of this rating include all agencies of the advertising and communication market of Ukraine, which specialize in developing creative strategies, ideas, brands, implementation of various advertising, design, marketing and service, digital, PR, etc. campaigns and solutions.

2. Ratings of media agencies of Ukraine

Participants in these rankings are full service media agencies involved in media strategy development, planning, buying, etc.

3. Rating of video production studios

Specialized rating for Ukrainian production studios based on the annual results of the Ukrainian Creative Awards.

4. Rankings of advertisers best marketing teams

Ratings of the best marketing teams in Ukraine, determined by various industry categories

5. Lion Advertising Award

The award determines the most effective and creative advertiser (Lazebnyk, 2022).

4. RESULTS

According to the analysis of the rating of efficiency of creative agencies in 2019–2021 years, we will analyze the activities of such advertising agencies as: «Banda Agency», «Saatchi & Saatchi Ukraine», «Havas Kyiv», «Fedoriv», «BBDO Ukraine».

Table 8. International rating of creativity of communication agencies of Ukraine, 2019–2021 years

2019/2020		**2020/2021**	
Agency	**Ranks**	**Agency**	**Ranks**
Banda Agency	1	BBDO Ukraine	1
ISD Group	2	[isdgroup]	2
Saatchi & Saatchi Ukraine	3	Madcats Agency	3
TS/D Agency	4	Banda Agency	4–5
spiilka design büro	5	Postmen	4–5
iden.team	6	Esse PProduction House	6–10
Havas Ukraine	7	gram branding	6–10
Fedoriv	8–10	Looma	6–10
Madcats Agency	8–10	Netrix	6–10
Tubik Studio	8–10	TWIGA Group Ukraine	6–10
Bambuk Design Studio	11	–	
BBDO Ukraine	12–13	–	

Source: own study based on (https://vrk.org.ua/).

Thus, we come to the conclusion that the advertising media market of Ukraine is developing despite the multi-crisis phenomena, such as the COVID-19 pandemic and military aggression in 2022.

Players of the advertising and communication market of Ukraine occupy the leading rating positions (Table 8), so we will analyze the promotion of the brand of the advertising agency on social media.

The objects of evaluation on online presence platforms are:

- website – structure, volume and quality of traffic, semantic core, SEO-optimization, graphics and ease of use;
- blogs – key topics, frequency of publications, number of readers and their behavior;
- pages in social networks – indicators of subscriber activity (ER%), frequency of publications and their thematic orientation, features of the image of competitors' brands in social networks.

Objects of evaluation of advertising activity on the Internet are:

- the nature of the use of systems for creating and conducting advertising campaigns on the Internet – frequency, frequency, intensity, features of targeting (including the selection of keywords);
- the amount of traffic involved;
- format, structure and motives of advertising materials.

The objects of evaluation of the image (own and competitors) that is created on the Internet are: the frequency of publications that mention competitors and the key image created by such publications.

Digital tools to assess the marketing activities of players in the advertising and communication market on online presence platforms are:

- web analytics services such as Google Analytics, SimilarWeb, PR-CY;
- services of analytics of pages in social networks such as Popsters, RivalIQ;

- services of analysis of the semantic component of websites, backlinks (links to the website (acceptor), which are on other websites (donors)) and the authority of the domain name and such as MOZ, Website Grader, Ahrefs;
- Built-in online advertising management systems include ad auction analysis features such as Auction Insights in Google Ads.

Comparative analysis of the website of advertising agencies of Ukraine, such as: «Banda Agency», «Saatchi & Saatchi Ukraine», «Havas Kyiv», «Fedoriv», «BBDO Ukraine» are presented in table 9.

Table 9. Comparative analysis of the website of advertising agencies of Ukraine (February-March 2020)

№	**Items of analysis**	**Advertising Agency**				
		«Banda Agency»	**«Saatchi & Saatchi»**	**«Fedoriv»**	**«Havas Kyiv»**	**«BBDO Ukraine»**
1	**Traffic**					
1.1	Views	38 700	6390	25 500	6120	13 600
1.2	Visitors	9660	1600	6380	1540	3390
1.3	Failure rate, %	46	–	–	–	–
2	**Sources of traffic**					
2.1	Direct conversions, %	37	37	48	–	31
2.2	Search engines, %	57	51	35	–	69
2.3	Sitelinks, %	1	–	3	–	
2.4	Social networks, %	5	12	11		
3	Website link	–	506	1743	734	506
4	Domain Rank (Domain Link)	–	15	30	580	15
5	Trust the website (Trust Rank)	–	21	25	–	21

Source: own study based on (https://popsters.com/app/dashboard).

The structure and information content of the website of the advertising agency should be considered as one of the stages in the process of forming a transparent relationship before the beginning of potential cooperation with the client and professionals seeking employment (Table 9).

Thus, based on the analysis of statistical data on the websites of leading advertising agencies of Ukraine: «Banda Agency», «Saatchi & Saatchi», «Fedoriv», Havas Kyiv, «BBDO Ukraine», we can conclude that the websites of the agencies are easy to use and properly perform their function of informing the public about their activities.

The indicators are given in table 2 show that the volume of traffic is quite large for this industry. However, sites are poorly optimized for display on mobile devices, which slows down its loading (Google Page Speed Insights test).

In addition to the website, advertising agencies are represented on the pages of social networks Facebook, Instagram, Twitter, LinkedIn and channels on streaming services YouTube, Vimeo, Behance (Table 10).

Let's analyze the characteristics of the presence of advertising agencies in Ukraine on Facebook (Table 10).

Table 10. Characteristics of the presence of advertising agencies in Ukraine on social media – Facebook, YouTube, Instagram, Behance (March 2020)

		Advertising Agency				
		«Banda Agency»	«Saatchi & Saatchi»	«Fedoriv»	«Havas Kyiv»	«BBDO Ukraine»
1	Facebook					
1.1	Number of subscribers	33149	6723	21539	2405	11434
1.2	Number of publications	994	206	676	303	650
1.3	Number of spreads	12471	1525	5665	663	3670
1.4	Number of preferences	155787	10478	44337	14051	39604
1.5	Share of active subscribers per day, ER%	0,157	0,066	0,07	0,426	0,166
1.6	LR%	0,47	0,75	0,31	1,9	0,53
1.7	TR%	–	–	–	0,046	0,02
2	YouTube					
2.1	Number of subscribers	963	74	5400	1060	193
2.2	Number of publications	1381204	25	385	191	89
2.3	Number of spreads	–	51714	1301475	–	59830
2.4	Number of preferences	23087	418	5840	561	231
2.5	Share of active subscribers per day, ER%	152,977	0,815	0,054	0,022	0,087
2.6	LR%	799,1	22,5	0,28	0,27	1,3
2.7	TR%	–	–	–	0,016	0,047
3	Instagram					
3.1	Number of subscribers	30135	408	26527	833	2235
3.2	Number of publications	1168	57	208	170	75
3.3	Number of spreads	–	–	–	–	–
3.4	Number of preferences	264065	2480	64211	7565	6328
3.5	Share of active subscribers per day, ER%	0,658	0,607	0,263	0,83	36,37
3.6	LR%	0,75	0,6	1,16	5,32	8,5
3.7	TR%	–	–	–	0,18	0,089
4	Behance					
4.1	Number of subscribers	758	34	–	–	4647
4.2	Number of publications	305	1	–	–	33
4.3	Number of spreads	–	902	–	–	127423
4.4	Number of preferences	370	38	–	–	14886
4.5	Share of active subscribers per day, ER%	–	–	–	–	–
4.6	LR%	–	0,04	–	–	–
4.7	TR%	–	–	–	–	–

Source: own study based on (https://popsters.com/app/dashboard).

As could be seen from the total coverage (as of March 2020), advertising agencies occupy the following positions: the leader is the agency «Banda Agency» – 66,952 users; «Fedoriv» – 53,466 users; BBDO Ukraine – 18538 users; Saatchi & Saatchi – 7239 users; the least number of subscribers in «Havas Kyiv» – 4298 users (Table 10). Banda Agency has a communication advantage due to the maintenance of pages on the social networks LinkedIn and Twitter.

The current number of subscribers has a positive effect on further audience growth, on all online presence platforms. This is due to the high recognition of the brands «Banda Agency», «Saatchi & Saatchi Ukraine», «Havas Kyiv», «Fedoriv», «BBDO Ukraine» and a high level of authority, as evidenced in part by the high number of subscribers.

A large number of subscribers is, of course, a communication advantage, but it is necessary to compare the activity of subscribers on the pages of social networks of advertising agencies. This will help determine the quality of the accumulated subscriber base, which will directly indicate a real communication advantage. The activity of subscribers is manifested in the performance of any action on the page: liking, commenting and distributing publications, viewing photos and videos (Table 10).

Based on these indicators, we see the need to increase the activity of subscribers. To achieve this, recommendations will be developed to increase the activity of subscribers on the platforms of online presence of advertising agencies.

Let's analyze the nature of publications of advertising agencies «Banda Agency», «Saatchi & Saatchi Ukraine», «Havas Kyiv», «Fedoriv», «BBDO Ukraine» social media Facebook, YouTube, Instagram (Table 11).

Subscriber activity can be increased by developing and implementing a content plan with the integration of interactive elements for each platform, which will ensure systematic publications and comprehensive impact on the consumer.

Vimeo and Twitter are mostly used for their intended purpose – hosting the agency's portfolio and publishing official statements of the company's management. Therefore, these platforms are mostly not used to actively promote the brand of the advertising agency, but are only ancillary platforms in the implementation of online communications. However, we should not forget about the systematic maintenance of communication activity on these platforms.

Recommendations for increasing the activity of subscribers on the platforms of the online presence of the advertising agency on the example of the advertising agency «Banda Agency» are presented in Table 12.

The above recommendations will form a holistic communication system in which the flow of information will be uniform on each of the channels. In this system, the information will reach the audience on all platforms of its presence and in a way that allows the audience to comfortably perceive the information on each individual platform.

All recommendations are related to activating the audience by encouraging feedback. This is the best way to transform the latent part of the audience and encourage individual dialogue with the «Banda Agency» brand. Feedback, in turn, will be initiated through the creation and publication of content that will benefit the target audience and meet its aesthetic and cognitive needs.

Table 11. Characteristics of publications of Ukrainian advertising agencies on Facebook (March 2020)

Agency Name	Type of Media Content
Facebook	
«Banda Agency	Stories about completed projects for clients; Announcements of events that the agency plans to organize; Stories about their employees; Description of everyday events in the work of the agency. Elements of humor can be traced in some publications, but for the most part they are official and representative. This helps to establish a stronger connection with readers.
«Saatchi &Saatchi»	Vacancy announcements; Congratulations on holidays and anniversaries from the life of the company; Advertising industry news; Detailed description of cases. Content is representative: it describes the agency and how it interacts with the environment.
«Fedoriv»	Agencies cases; corporate events: parties, anniversaries of the agency, awards, etc.; advertising market news; official appeals of the agency to the public.
«Havas Kyiv»	Memorable events in the life of the agency; Casey Advertising Agency; Congratulations on the holidays; Advertising market news; Events and cases of other Havas representative offices
«BBDO Ukraine»	Announcements of events; publications on everyday work processes; vacancy announcements; demonstration of work performed by the agency.
YouTube	
«Banda Agency	The channel presents commercials, developed by the agency.
«Saatchi &Saatchi»	The channel contains some of the work and detailed analysis of the agency's cases. The last activity on the part of the channel administrator was a year ago.
«Fedoriv»	The channel acts as a portfolio of work performed as in other agencies.
«Havas Kyiv»	Advertising works of the agency; Detailed analysis of cases.
«BBDO Ukraine»	The channel features agency cases, examples of works and annual shows.
Instagram	
«Banda Agency	Stories about their employees; Photo and video reports on events in the life of the agency. The content is mostly entertaining and focused on the formation of the following image of the agency: a friendly team of professionals who enjoy their work and are ready to perform complex and non-standard projects.
«Saatchi &Saatchi»	Publications are mostly entertaining: Daily events of individual employees at work; Events in the life of the agency; The process of developing individual projects and the results of this process.
«Fedoriv»	Announcements of upcoming events; photo reports of events that took place; work performed by the agency.
«Havas Kyiv»	Events in the life of the agency; Casey; Photo reports without description; Entertainment posts about the daily life of the agency.
«BBDO Ukraine»	Publications on everyday work processes; vacancy announcements; demonstrations of work performed by the agency; photo reports; spontaneous entertaining publications.
Behance	
«Banda Agency	–
«Saatchi &Saatchi»	The work of an advertising agency.
«Fedoriv»	–
«Havas Kyiv»	–
«BBDO Ukraine»	The page serves as a portfolio with detailed cases.

Source: (own study based on the web-cites of the above listed agencies).

Table 12. Recommendations for increasing the activity of subscribers on the platforms online presence of the advertising agency «Banda Agency»

Social network	**Ways to increase interactivity**	**Approximate exit time**
Facebook	1. Entering a rubric under the hashtag #аскуbanda. The publications of this section will be the answers to the questions of the page's subscribers. 2–3 related questions will be selected for each publication. Then a comprehensive answer to each of them will be provided from a practical point of view. To collect questions, you need to create a post that will encourage users to ask questions and pin it at the top of the page. 2. Entering a rubric under the hashtag #bandaучить. In the publications of this section, the agency will share with its subscribers various creative techniques and tools that increase the efficiency of the specialist. At the end of each such post, users should be encouraged to use the tips and send the results to the Banda Agency. Then, you need to select some of the best works, publish them on Facebook and Instagram and thank their authors for their participation. Every few months, you can hold a contest in which the winners will have the opportunity to spend one working day at the Banda Agency.	The posts of the #аскуbanda section should be published on Monday at 18:00; Posts of the #banda-учить section should be published on Thursday at 18:00;
Instagram	1. Stories about the working days of the agency; 2. Posts with short tips to help increase productivity and facilitate the process of generating ideas.	1. Daily; 2. 2–3 times a week
YouTube	1. On the current channel, start a deposit, which will analyze modern advertising work, review the news of the advertising market of Ukraine and the world, significant events in the life of the agency. 2. Short video tutorials on design and generation of creative ideas (sometimes you can duplicate lessons from Facebook).	Materials under numbers 1 and 2 times a week: 1 – Wednesday at 17:00; 2 – Friday at 6 p.m.

Source: created by the authors.

This plan of actions could reveal the latent share of the target audience and increase the activity of those who already interact with the content. According to the table, this approach should be followed, but it does not mean that all content should be subject to these recommendations or narrow the range of topics to recommendations only. Recommended actions should be integrated into the agency's overall communication policy. This means that publications with general information should remain in the agency's content plan. Publications based on the recommended above should be included in the content plans of the respective platforms, as part of them, which contributes to the promotion of other parts available in these content plans.

In order to accelerate the increase the number of subscribers of Facebook and Instagram pages, it is recommended to conduct advertising campaigns on these social networks. Advertising campaigns recommended to be conducted using the Facebook Ads service. This system is allowing to create and manage advertising campaigns, conduct detailed targeting by determining the key demographic and behavioral characteristics of members of the target audience, allows to determine the territory of advertising campaigns and time, as well as control the cost of one advertising contact and the overall budget of the campaign. Based on this, it is recommended to conduct an advertising campaign, with a goal in the advertising office of the system, «Preferences of the page» and the target audience, interested in receiving advertising services. The period and budget should be determined by management based on financial and time constraints.

5. CONCLUSIONS

Marketing activity of modern enterprises in the advertising market on the Internet is a condition for survival for the modern advertising market both in Ukraine and abroad, due to the realities of the modern market, the structure of communications which is directly affected by digitalization.

Thus, in order to improve the marketing activities of an advertising agency on the Internet, on the example of «Banda Agency», authors proposed to create a holistic communication system. Channels of this system: pages on social networks, website, channels on streaming services – should broadcast information of an interactive nature, which should be useful, as well as meet the aesthetic and cognitive needs of users of relevant platforms. At the same time, the information should be presented in a user-friendly form on each of the platforms. Thus, the usefulness of information will be manifested in its ability to form a positive mood and be applied in everyday work, in order to increase productivity. This method is the most effective for increasing the number of supporters and followers, because the brand in this way brings value to everyone's life.

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Andrew ENAIFOGHE[1]

THE EMERGENCE OF COVID-19 PRESENTS THE NEED TO ADDRESS THE EXACERBATED STRUCTURAL GENDER INEQUALITIES BEYOND THE PANDEMIC

The emergence of the COVID-19 pandemic provided the world with the platform to address gender inequalities. Yet during pandemic, people were kept on lockdown at home and critical everyday activities were halted as part of efforts to curb its spread. This study found that over 1 billion children and youth were out of school, resulting in learning impairments for kids, particularly those from low-income families. Approximately 94% of the world's employees live in nations that have work closures. With the global economy plummeting by 5% in 2020, and without steps to protect the most vulnerable, the number of people living in severe poverty rose by 96 million in 2021. The pandemic and its economic ramifications have had a regressive influence on gender equality. This study argues for the continuing need to address structural gender inequalities and women's issues.

Keywords: COVID-19 pandemic, Gender, Inequalities, marginalization, women's issues.

1. INTRODUCTION

The emergence of the COVID-19 epidemic was a major shock to various communities and economies, highlighting society's reliance on women both on the front lines and at home. This reveals the systemic disparities in many areas. According to the UN Women (2020a), "responding to the pandemic is not just about rectifying long-standing inequalities, but also about building a resilient world in the interest of everyone with women at the centre of recovery". As the COVID-19 pandemic launched and wreaked havoc on people's lives and livelihoods, throughout the world, its economic ramifications are having a regressive influence on gender equality. The emergence of the global pandemic of COVID-19 in early 2020 arose with more than 25 million verified cases of infection and more than 846,000 deaths as of August 2020 (United Nations, 2021). As a measure to curb the spread of the virus during COVID-19, people were kept on lockdown at home and critical everyday activities were halted as part of the efforts made by the governments.

[1] Andrew Enaifoghe, PhD, BA, MA, Postdoctoral Fellow and Researcher, University of Zululand, Department of Public Administration, 1 Main Road Vulindlela, Empangeni, 3886, South Africa; e-mail: EnaifogheA@unizulu.ac.za/andyransey@gamil.com, ORCID ID: 0000-0003-4890-9179.

Over 1 billion children and youth are out of school (UN Women, 2020b), resulting in learning impairments for kids, particularly those from low-income families. Approximately 94% of the world's employees live in nations that have work closures (UN Women, 2020a). With the global economy anticipated to collapse by 5% in 2020, and without steps to protect the most vulnerable, the number of people living in severe poverty is expected to rise by 96 million in 2021 (Enaifoghe, 2021a). The virus is spreading at an alarming rate over the world, and the worst may be yet to come unless immediate action is made to identify and combat its widespread impact. The issue of gender inequity does not just affect women alone. It is a predisposition, whether explicit or inherent, to obstacles that could hinder both education and employment, and wage disparities hurt communities and cripple the economic landscape.

This study believes that one of the pathways to success provides a unique way to address long-standing difficulties by training young men and women with functional skills and competencies while using a gender-sensitive viewpoint. The study is qualitative in nature which primarily relies on secondary sources for data collection and thematically analysed the data based on content. The study is divided into the five following sections that are derived from the thematic analysis of the available data; women's predicament amid the COVID-19 pandemic; the emergence of COVID-19 pandemic; the immediate health impacts; the effect of the COVID-19 pandemic; need to address structural gender inequalities; conclusion and recommendation.

2. WOMEN'S PREDICAMENT AND THE FIGHT AGAINST THE COVID-19 PANDEMIC

Since the first reported case of a novel corona COVID-19 outbreak in Hubei province, China, in December 2019 (Ikwegbue, Enaifoghe, Maduku, Agwuna, 2021), infection cases have since then escalated in China and distributed to all the continents, placing serious health burden and economic challenges to the global world leading to the World Health Organisation (WHO) declaring it as a global pandemic on the 11th of March 2020 (Mahler, Laknerr, Aguilar, Wu, 2020). Consequently, South Africa on the 23rd of March 2020 implemented a nationwide lockdown that was effective from the 26th of March 2020 till the 16th of April 2020, which was subsequently extended to curb the spread of the virus (Ikwegbue et al., 2021). Due to strict measures that restricted human movements and economic activities, this, however, possess serious economic challenges because most of the local businesses were closed down which greatly reduced the GDP contribution of the local market as a shock.

No doubt the current global pandemic (COVID-19) has been a tremendous shock to all human societies and economies, highlighting society's reliance on women both from the front lines and at home, while also revealing systemic inequities in the health sector to the economy, security to social protection. The COVID-19 epidemic is causing widespread consternation, with varied consequences for men and women. as stated by (OECD, 2020a). Women are fighting COVID-19 on the front lines, and the crisis is having a significant impact on women. Women confront additional burdens (Enaifoghe, 2021a). The epidemic has had and continues to have a significant impact on the health and well-being of many vulnerable populations (Enaifoghe, Idowu, 2021; OECD, 2020b), and women are disproportionately affected. Men who have caught COVID-19 have a 60–80% greater mortality rate than women, as the pandemic spreads over the world (OECD, 2020a).

Women are at the frontline of the fight against the pandemic because they make up over 70% of the healthcare workers, putting them at a higher risk of infection (Ikwegbue et al, 2020). While they are under-represented in the healthcare sector's leadership and decision-making processes. Furthermore, because of the ongoing gender inequities in many aspects, “women's employment, businesses, wages, and overall living standards may be more vulnerable than men's to the anticipated widespread economic fallout from the crisis” (Enaifoghe, 2021b). Globally, more older women live alone on low salaries, putting them at a larger risk of economic instability (UN Women, 2020c). According to the OECD Development Centre's Social Institutions and Gender Index, women do up to 10 times as many household tasks as males throughout the world (SIGI).

The study highlights some of the major issues that women are facing as a result of the ongoing COVID-19 epidemic, and it suggests early initiatives that governments may take to limit negative implications for women and society as a whole. Many of these policies affect both men and women, but special consideration must be given to decreasing rather than increasing existing gender inequities (Enaifoghe, Maramura, Ndlovu, 2021).

3. COVID-19 – RELATED ECONOMIC EFFECTS AND GENDER INEQUALITIES

The existence of gender inequalities can make women vulnerable to COVID-19 – related economic effects**.** Even though the crisis has had a detrimental impact on most people's lives and careers, data demonstrate that women's jobs and livelihoods are particularly vulnerable to the COVID-19 epidemic. The size of the disparity is startling as estimated in this study with several female job loss rates owing to COVID-19 being roughly 1.8 times higher than male job loss rates internationally, at 5.7 percent against 3.1 percent. Based on statistics and trends from unemployment surveys in the United States and India, where gender-disaggregated data are available. However, the statistics on unemployment show that women make up about 54% compared to men of the overall loss of employment to date. Similarly, before COVID-19, women made up 20% of the workforce in India; their share of job losses due to industry mix alone is estimated to be 17%, while unemployment surveys indicate that they account for 23% of overall job losses (Gorlick, 2020).

The nature of labour remains largely gender-specific: in both mature and emerging economies, men and women tend to concentrate on distinct occupations (Hensvik, Barbanchon, Rathelot, 2020). This, in turn, alters the pandemic's gender implications, as this study suggests that female jobs are 12% more likely to be affected by the epidemic. Statistically, an estimated 4.5 percent of work and employment of women is at risk globally due to the pandemic, compared to 3.8 percent of men's employment, based only on the industries in which men and women engage (Enaifoghe, 2021a). The reason for this is that women outnumber males in three of the four most impacted industries, as assessed by worldwide employment reductions. Women hold 54 percent of worldwide positions in lodgings and food service, which are among the worst-affected sectors by the crisis. About 43 percent of jobs in retail and wholesale commerce (Enaifoghe, 2021a), these jobs include about 46 percent of jobs in other services, including the arts, entertainment, and public administration (Enaifoghe, 2019).

Examining labour-market impacts and other characteristics of six countries – France, India, Indonesia, Kenya, Nigeria, and the United States – we discover that this labour market. Enaifoghe and Maramura (2019), indicated that women, for example, are disproportionately represented in industries that are more affected by COVID-19 than males in Nigeria, but the converse is true in France. In the United States, the gender difference is less pronounced. As previously stated, industry mix and labour-market details account for just one-quarter of the gender disparity insensitivity to job losses during the epidemic. What causes motivate the remaining three-quarters? One significant cause is the burden of unpaid care, the need for which has increased significantly throughout the epidemic. Women are on the front lines here; women perform an average of 75% of all unpaid care work around the globe, including childcare, elderly care, cooking, and cleaning. In certain places, such as South Asia and the Middle East and North Africa (MENA), women perform 80 to 90 per cent of unpaid care work.

According to the findings of this study, the proportion of women engaged in unpaid care work has a high and negative correlation with female labour-force participation rates (Ewinyu, Shedi, 2022). The effect also has a moderately negative correlation with women's chances of working in professional and technical jobs (Enaifoghe, 2018), or assuming leadership positions. Similar findings have been discovered in other studies (Enaifoghe, Khoalenyane, 2018). It is not surprising that women have dropped out of the workforce at a higher rate than can be explained by labour-market dynamics alone (Basset, 2020). Earlier research on the influence of long-term automation trends on employment showed that automation affects the nature of work (Enaifoghe et al., 2021).

4. THE PANDEMIC WIDENED GENDER AND SOCIO-ECONOMIC INEQUALITIES

The impacts of the emergence of the COVID-19 pandemic have widened the gender gap and expanded the socio-economic inequalities. The crisis repercussions are seldom gender-neutral, and COVID-19 is no exception. While men are said to have a greater mortality rate, the economic and social consequences disproportionately affect women and girls (Enaifoghe, 2021a; Yu, 2018). Women are losing their jobs at a quicker rate than males because they are more exposed to hard-hit economic sectors. According to a new study commissioned by UN Women and UNDP, by 2021, about 435 million women and girls would be living on less than $1.90 per day, with 47 million falling into poverty as a result of COVID-19 (UNPD, 2020).

It is crucial to remember that the consequences are not just economic. The diversion in funding to pandemic response is impeding women's access to sexual and reproductive health services. Reports of violence against women have surged over the world as prevalent stay-at-home mandates force women to remain with their abusers, often with deadly results (Enaifoghe, Dlelana, Durokifa, Dlamini, 2021). With more people at home, the strain of unpaid care and household work on women and girls has risen, literally pushing some to the breaking point. Women and girls are more vulnerable in areas already afflicted by systemic poverty, racism, and other types of discrimination (Enaifoghe, Idowu, 2021; Enaifoghe, 2021a; Jalnapurkar, Allen, Pigott, 2018).

Further information is required to fully comprehend the implications of COVID-19. As the COVID-19 epidemic exposes gender and other long-standing inequalities, the scarcity of data leaves many concerns unresolved. The breakdown of statistics on cases, fatalities, and economic and social effects by gender, age, and other relevant variables – such as ethnicity and race, migratory status, handicap, and wealth – is critical to comprehending the pandemic's disparities.

5. THE HEALTH IMPACTS OF COVID-19 ON THE PRE-EXISTING GENDER INEQUALITIES

According to the statistics, men account for a small majority of confirmed cases (53%), a pattern found across all age categories except the oldest (85+), while women account for 63% of reported cases (APTA/EBP, 2020). This gap may be explained in part by social norms around masculinity, which make men more inclined to participate in dangerous behaviour and less likely to seek health treatment. Ladies' longer life expectancy and proclivity to marry or cohabit with older males implies that many elderly women live alone. Others reside in long-term care institutions, which may increase their infection risk.

The social isolation and loneliness that come with incarceration are likely to damage physical and mental health in both cases. Many questions, like the global distribution of verified deaths by sex and age, remain unsolved (Australia Department of Health, 2020). Case records in many nations are not complete, and other countries only test and report on severe instances. According to the scant statistics available, men have a greater case fatality ratio than women (Enaifoghe, 2021; Basset, 2020). However, as more disaggregated data becomes available and testing grows, it is critical to reassess the gendered implications of COVID-19, especially by analysing sex-disaggregated fatality statistics.

Other research' developing evidence suggests that disadvantaged and marginalised groups are particularly prone to COVID-19. In the United States, data from New York City suggest that Black and Latinx persons had much higher COVID-19 mortality rates than white and Asian people (Chernick, Copeland and Reschovsky, 2020). Data from England and Wales in the United Kingdom indicate comparable differences in gender, race, and ethnicity (CDC, 2022, Federation of Canadian Municipalities, 2020; UK Government, 2020). These discrepancies in infection and fatality risks mirror pre-pandemic economic and social inequities, such as inequalities in living circumstances, such as poor quality and overcrowded housing, and a higher probability of working in insecure and low-paying occupations. Inequalities in access to health care, as well as a higher proclivity for underlying health issues, exacerbate these disadvantages.

5.1. Prioritizing Sexual and Reproductive Health Services

The increase in COVID-19 cases is putting a burden on even the most modern and well-resourced healthcare systems. Europe and North America have an average of five hospital beds per 1,000 inhabitants, while Sub-Saharan Africa has an average of just 0.8 hospital beds per 1,000 people (CNN Brazil, 2021). With resources dedicated to combating the epidemic, and individuals frightened of obtaining normal medical treatment due to financial constraints, many people are ignoring other health-related problems. According to UN Women's fast gender assessment surveys, at least half of women in need of family planning services in four out of ten European and Central Asian countries have had significant difficulties accessing them since the epidemic began (Deloitte, 2020).

The UN on policy brief on women noted that in Asia and the Pacific, 60% of women say the epidemic has made it more difficult for them to visit a doctor (United Nations, 2020). Although data and research are scarce, preliminary evidence suggests that COVID-19 has both direct and indirect impacts on maternal mortality, with some estimates putting the figure as high as 56,700 more maternal deaths (Federation of Canadian Municipalities, 2020). Despite the burden placed on healthcare systems by the epidemic, governments must guarantee that healthcare services remain safe and that regulations are in place to protect the sexual and reproductive health of women, girls, and their babies. To bring these challenges to the forefront, it is critical to include women's voices and leadership in global health and emergency response decision-making.

6. THE EFFECT OF COVID-19 PANDEMIC IS LEADING TO EXTREME POVERTY

A faltering economy, job losses, and a lack of social protection are likely to force an extra 71 million to 135 million people into extreme poverty, reversing years of a steady drop in poverty rates. 19 New economic estimates by gender and age, commissioned by UN Women and UNDP and developed by the Pardee Centre at the University of Denver, but the amount at over 96 million individuals, 47 million of whom are women and girls (Hantoushzadeh, Shamshirsaz, Aleyasin, Seferovic, 2020). The effect, which takes into account negative revisions in global economic growth, will be substantially bigger if the crisis is not brought under control in time for regular economic operations to resume.

The increased care costs, a delayed recovery, or reduced public and private investment in services – such as education or childcare – may exacerbate the effects for women, forcing them to exit the labour market permanently. The consequences will exacerbate severe poverty in places such as Central and Southern Asia, and by extension, Sub-Saharan Africa (home to 87% of the world's extreme poor) would suffer the greatest rise in extreme poverty. As a result of the pandemic, an extra 54 million and 24 million individuals are living below the international poverty line (Iacobucci, 2020).

The anticipated rise in poverty in South Asia as a result of the pandemic's economic ramifications highlights the vulnerability of women and girls living in homes that have only recently been able to escape poverty. The pre-pandemic female poverty rate in this region was forecast to be 10% in 2021, but it is now likely to rise to 13% (HM Treasury, 2021). Furthermore, before the pandemic, forecasts for the area predicted that by 2030, South Asia will be home to just 15.8 percent of the world's impoverished women and girls. According to updated forecasts, that percentage is now 18.6 percent (World Bank, 2020). The effect of a pandemic is also seen to be broadening the existing gender poverty gaps against women. The pandemic's revival of poverty also threatens to widen gender poverty gaps, particularly among adults aged 25 to 34, a critical product and family formation time for both men and women.

In 2021, it is anticipated that there would be 118 poor women for every 100 poor males worldwide, with this ratio rising to 121 poor women for every 100 poor men by 2030 (UNDP, 2020). Not all regions are projected to follow the same path (World Bank, 2021). While Sub-Saharan Africa and South Asia will be the most affected, women will be affected far more than males in South Asia (UN Women, 2020b). There will be 118 poor women for every 100 poor males in the 25-34 age bracket, and that ratio will rise to 118 poor women for every 100 poor men in that age range "in the region and that ratio will increase to 129 women for every 100 men by 2030" (UNDP, 2020).

6.1. Eradicate extreme poverty through investments and policies

Women outnumber men in poverty, and addressing the gender poverty gap must be a critical component of a larger poverty-eradication plan. According to a policy simulation analysis based on the International Futures Model (Enaifoghe et al., 2021). Governments could lift over 100 million women and girls out of poverty if they implement a comprehensive strategy aimed at improving access to education and family planning, fair and equal wages, and expanding access to health care and social transfer. The use of a gender lens in the creation of economic stimulus packages and social assistance programmes is critical for creating a more successful, egalitarian, inclusive, and resilient society (Enaifoghe, 2018). Aside from the fact that tackling structural inequalities goes beyond lost employment and lower wages, the epidemic has worsened 'time poverty for many women (Enaifoghe et al., 2021).

Before COVID-19, women performed roughly three times as much unpaid care and household labour as males throughout the world (Enaifoghe, 2021b). As schools, nurseries and childcare centres closed, families, particularly women, began making drastic adjustments in how they spent their time. More bodies at home mean more people to feed and care for, frequently without the assistance of others, heightening tensions and straining household resources. Many women have found themselves balancing additional unpaid care labour while dealing with lower income and, in some circumstances, attempting to conduct full-time paid employment in overcrowded families. Single moms experience considerably greater stress since they have no one to share the care load and are more likely to work in low-paying, vulnerable jobs. According to cross-country statistics from UN Women's quick assessment surveys, both men and women report an increase in unpaid care and household labour as a result of the epidemic (UN Women, 2020a).

While males report doing more, women continue to perform the lion's share of this labour – with serious consequences for their "physical and mental health", as well as their ability to work for a living. Research shows in Asia and the Pacific region, about 66% of women experienced mental health impacts because of COVID-19, compared to 58% of males (UN Women, 2020b). Care responsibilities are exacerbated by gaps in fundamental services. Safe drinking water, sanitation, and hygiene are critical for safeguarding human health during a pandemic. Approximately 4 billion people worldwide do not have access to proper sanitation facilities, and 3 billion do not have access to clean water and soap at home. The lack of these fundamental services increases women's unpaid obligations, especially if they must care for ailing family members.

Women are compelled to gather water from crowded communal pumps in slums and slum-like environments with high population density, increasing their exposure to the virus. This is particularly true in rural areas, where women are typically in charge of fetching water and fuel. As the situation worsens in developing nations. Millions of people are abandoning cities (which are viewed as epicentres for COVID-19) and returning to rural regions, adding to women's unpaid care and domestic workload (UN Women, 2020b). The emergency response plans must consider the issues that populations without access to water and sanitation confront in both rural and urban contexts.

7. THE NEED TO ADDRESS STRUCTURAL GENDER INEQUALITIES

In crises, when resources are stretched and institutional capacity is restricted, women and girls bear enormous burdens with far-reaching repercussions, which are exacerbated in circumstances of vulnerability, conflict, and emergency. Hard-won victories for women's rights are also jeopardised. It is no secret that COVID-19 has had and continues to have disastrous effects on every aspect of life in communities across the world, with women and girls bearing a disproportionate share of the burden. Certainly, reports show that across Africa, women and girls have faced the weight of the pandemic, as the virus has worsened pre-existing gender disparities, exposing significant flaws in safety, physical and mental health, education, family obligations, and employment possibilities.

Despite COVID-19 number of deaths in Africa having indeed been unexpectedly low, the virus has severely disturbed the lives of women as decades of progress toward women's rights and gender equality in Africa have begun to unravel. Simultaneously, African women and girls play crucial roles in addressing COVID-19, including those of primary health care professionals, carers at work and home, and community workers and the local community. Women should be at the centre of COVID-19 reconstruction and development because of their susceptibility and leading positions amid the current global pandemic. Due to various existing social conventions, African women and girls have traditionally undertaken the brunt of family care tasks, such as childcare, household chores, and caring for the poor, sick, and frail in their families and community at large.

Indeed, well before the global outbreak, women and girls held enormous obligations for their families and communities, having to bear four times the number of unpaid jobs like caregiving services and domestic labour as males. Statistics show that in Kenya, women spend approximately 11.1 hours a day on any care job, as opposed to 2.9 hours for men. There was indeed a need to relieve women's burdens from unpaid work by modifying gendered power standards in the homecare sector, as well as establishing flexible work arrangements and higher remuneration for women. Improved social service supply would relieve women having care duties and provide them ample time for paid professions and personal life.

Despite massive employment and wage losses because of COVID-related financial constraints, women and girls remain the most disadvantaged. Similarly, about 92 percent of employed African women work in the informal sector, where they lack job stability and benefits. Amid lockdown conditions and in the availability of social welfare, informal employees have been forced to choose between breaking the lockdown and jeopardizing both their safety and legal ramifications or going without pay. However, while the COVID-19 virus caused millions of African children and women to lose their employment, food, and health care, the truth is that this was a pre-existing situation long before the epidemic. Developing an integrated public transformation and providing support to disadvantaged individuals well after the crisis would also go a long path toward safeguarding and protecting individuals and families, especially women. Simultaneously, supporting women in both small and large enterprises will improve the economic and financial well-being of families and their household economies.

7.1. The outbreak of coronavirus has exacerbated the epidemic of issues of gender violence

The outbreak of coronavirus has exacerbated the epidemic of issues of gender violence, there is an increase in rape in Nigeria and South Africa child sexual assaults and forced prostitution in Kenya (Enaifoghe, 2021). This section presents the author’s assumptions and findings and conclusions from other studies, where the author’s viewpoint is emphasized throughout. Even before the emergence of the COVID-19 outbreak, one in every three women in the world had suffered physical and emotional abuse, mostly at the hands of an intimate partner (Enaifoghe and Idowu, 2021). Africa wasn't any different. Now, the outbreak of coronavirus and attendant lockdowns have led to economic stress and instability, the difficulty to flee abuse, social exclusion, overcrowding, and a reduction in support systems.

The data emanating from developing sources reveal an upsurge in calls to victims of domestic violence hotlines in various African countries since the beginning of the pandemic. For example, in Kenya, demands for aid against domestic abuse spiked by 34% within the first three months of the lockdown (Enaifoghe, 2019). South Africa and other parts of the continent have experienced similar developments. African governments must accelerate policy and non-policy initiatives to eradicate gender- and sexual-based violence (Enaifoghe et al., 2021). This is surely not a women's issue; but rather a global problem that requires immediate action, and men must be included in the conversation about ending such violence.

Governments and communities must also reconsider societal and cultural norms and behaviours that sustain violence. Perhaps more importantly, as laws and policies are enacted, it is critical to ensure that the reaction to violence is prompt and comprehensive. Furthermore, as COVID-19 swept the globe, everything altered. Countries, societies, and communities have been changed, political and social structures have been reformed, and new social systems have emerged all at breakneck speed (Enaifoghe, 2021b). The epidemic served as a huge revealer and amplifier of existing inequalities and injustices around the world.

Regrettably, despite the significant international research cooperation, geopolitical engagement in the COVID-19 dilemma has been desperately missing (OECD, 2021). Nevertheless, most African countries, as well as regional institutions (such as the African Union, Africa CDC, African Export-Import Bank, African Development Bank, and UNECA), moved quickly and with unity. Many projected that the very first wave of the COVID-19 pandemic would have a catastrophic effect in Africa as a result of the region's frail health systems and massively disadvantaged demographics with a high frequency of poverty level, anaemia, malaria, HIV/AIDS, and other diseases such as tuberculosis (TB), and, more recently, Ebola.

However, unified governance, swift implementation and adherence to countermeasures (including social distancing, isolation, and quarantine), nationwide lockdowns, and travel bans all culminated in infection cases incidence and fatalities being significantly lower than projected (OECD, 2021; Enaifoghe, 2021a). Rapid COVID interventions were premised on earlier experience in dealing with other epidemics in the past (Ikwegbue et al., 2020). Such as HIV and Ebola, in which communities played a critical role in strengthening frail health systems and ensuring that supplies and treatment reached those in the greatest need.

However, a concerning second phase of the pandemic has emerged in the region, with new variations and an increase in COVID-19 cases and deaths. South Africa now has the greatest number of COVID-19 infections in Africa. Despite having some of the worst HIV and TB rates in the world (Mabilo, 2018). Importantly, the pandemic is not only a health disaster; it also has significant societal and economic consequences. Indeed, the pandemic has the potential to push up to 40 million people into extreme poverty across Sub-Saharan Africa, with African women and girls bearing the brunt of the burden. Violence against women and girls is on the rise.

More than 70% of women are unemployed because they work in the informal sector as market sellers, street vendors, domestic workers, subsistence farmers, or in the service and hospitality industries (Mabilo, 2018). Across many countries, there were school closures, job loss, and supply shortages that force women to maintain their homes and communities together, often at their own expense (Enaifoghe, 2021b). Several African nations are now taking advantage of this situation for a “grand reset”. However, such a shift necessitates sophisticated managing of the complexity, vulnerability, and intensity across numerous fronts, notably emergency services, contingency planning, and long-term strategies for maintaining this change.

Nevertheless, the exacerbating structural gender inequalities around the world amid COVID-19. The current pandemic seems to be creating opportunities for individual governments to boost women’s position and empowerment by allowing their involvement in politics, and public life. As the advent of COVID-19 has revealed and aggravated systemic inequities that disproportionately affect women, innovative ways are equally turning the epidemic into a great opportunity for the government to increase women's participation in their political affairs and public life.

7.2. Policy Implication for Government to deal with the pandemic's uneven impact on women

The question is how can governments effectively deal with the pandemic's uneven impact on women. Many researchers recognised the heightened awareness of the need for women's participation in all aspects of life, from the outbreak of coronavirus response preparations to Government, and emphasised the need to do more than that to promote universal gender equality. According to other findings, “COVID-19 has demonstrated how interrelated health, economic, and social issues are in our society,” stated Jan Tinetti, New Zealand's Minister for Women. New Zealand, for its part, has reduced the gender leadership gap as women's leadership and engagement in public life have increased.

A 2020 modification to the Equal Pay Act would make it easier for women in male-dominated fields to be appropriately compensated for their work. Ethiopia's Minister for Women, Children, and Youth, Filson Abdulahi, stated that the government has responded to a pandemic-caused increase in incidents of child marriage and gender-based violence with efforts aimed at bringing perpetrators to justice and promoting gender equality and providing support services to victims.

A countrywide poll is currently being conducted to determine the present perceptions of women in decision-making and political leadership to establish measures to support women in the upcoming parliamentary elections. He emphasised increasing collaboration between the Ministry of Internal Affairs and the Women's and Gender Equality Division, stating that their efforts acknowledge the need of engaging their voices, skills, and experience in climate change action, disaster risk preparation, and response operations. Moving forward, an equivalent commitment must be made to reform regional and national political culture, social norms, and behaviours. Gender equality should indeed be pushed across both laws and policies.

8. CONCLUDING REMARKS AND RECOMMENDATION

Conclusively, the study shows that the impact of the COVID-19 epidemic remains a major shock to various communities and economies, as it highlights the society's reliance on women both on the front lines and at home, while also revealing systemic disparities in many areas. Given the cases of COVID-19 around the world, have since then escalated in China and distributed to all five continents, this, therefore, places a serious health burden and economic challenges on the global world, leading to the World Health Organisation (WHO) declaring it a global pandemic on the 11th of March 2020. To address women’s issues with gender and structural inequalities amid COVID-19, the study indicated the need for government to limit current and future income insecurity should be treated as a priority.

It is recommended that governments should consider broadening compensation to marginalized people and the unemployed, making on-time payments to affected workers, financially assisting insecure workers and families in staying in their homes, and ensuring that small business owners have adequate financial support to survive the crisis. Governments should give childcare choices to working parents in vital sectors such as health care to enable them to manage both job and caring duties. It should provide direct financial assistance to employees who need to take leave to care for children (or support companies that provide paid leave for this purpose) and alter telework and flexible work standards to allow workers to mix paid and unpaid work.

To assist women, victims of violent crime, who may face far more violent behaviour when confined at home with their abusers, it is recommended that the government agencies also must ensure that service providers collaborate, share information, and consider how to support victims when their means of communication may be closely monitored by the abuser with whom they live. Fundamentally, all of these economic and social policy solutions must be integrated into wider attempts to integrate gender in government responses to the crisis. In the near term, it entails applying a gender lens to emergency policy measures wherever possible.

In the long term, it implies that governments have a well-functioning gender mainstreaming framework in place, depending on quick access to gender-disaggregated evidence in all sectors and capabilities. To address the structural inequalities, policymakers must guarantee that all policy and structural changes intended for recovery are subjected to rigorous gender and intersectional analysis so that the disparities in impacts on men and women can be identified – and prepared for. This study assists governments and other key stakeholders in considering the pandemic's critical gender consequences and adopting policy initiatives.

To address women's issues with gender and structural inequalities, the study indicated the need for government to limit current and future income insecurity should be treated as a priority. It is recommended that governments should consider broadening compensation to marginalized people and the unemployed, making on-time payments to affected workers, financially assisting insecure workers and families in staying in their homes, and ensuring that small business owners have adequate financial support to survive the crisis

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Mariola GRZEBYK[1]
Małgorzata STEC[2]
Pavlina HEJDUKOVA[3]

FINANCIAL SITUATION AND SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT OF TERRITORIAL UNITS – A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF POLISH VOIVODESHIPS

This paper compares and statistically evaluates two complex phenomena emerging from the example of Polish voivodeships in the years 2017-2019: the resulting financial situation and the level of sustainable development. The authors applied a model-free research method of linear ordering for objects, taking into account the dynamics of this approach. Through this method, the authors determined the financial situation and sustainable development of Polish voivodeships by using the values of synthetic measures. The results of the study confirm previous findings about differentiation of Polish voivodeships as regards to both their financial situations and their levels of sustainable development. Conclusions from this study may be the basis for comparison between the territorial units examined, helping future policy makers choose rationally. The methodological approach has great practical value, and might be used in comparative research: e.g., by territorial units in different countries to determine their own financial situations and levels of sustainable development.

Keywords: financial situation; sustainable development; voivodeships in Poland; a multidimensional comparative analysis; synthetic measure; ranking; classification.

1. INTRODUCTION

Financial situation and sustainable development of territorial units are complex phenomena that mutually affect each other. Financial resources of territorial units are the basis of their functioning and development. They also enable the implementation of statutory tasks related to meeting the needs of residents in different areas of life. Sustainable development improves the quality of life of the inhabitants, but the implementation of this

[1] Mariola Grzebyk: DSc, PhD, Associate Prof., University of Rzeszów, Institute of Economics and Finance, Ćwiklińskiej 2 Str., 35-601 Rzeszów; e-mail: mgrzebyk@ur.edu.pl (corresponding author). ORCID: 0000-0003-1107-0250.
[2] Małgorzata Stec: DSc, PhD, Associate Prof., University of Rzeszów, Institute of Economics and Finance, Ćwiklińskiej 2 Str., 35-601 Rzeszów; e-mail: mstec@ur.edu.pl. ORCID: 0000-0003-0185-4510.
[3] Pavlina Hejdukova: PhD, University of West Bohemia, Faculty of Economics, Univerzitni 22 Str., 30614 Plzen; e-mail: pahejdu@kfu.zcu.cz. ORCID: 0000-0003-3387-1198.

development concept requires certain financial outlays. Shaping the right proportions between the three types of capital: economic, human and natural is important from the point of view of current and future generations. It therefore seems important to carry out comparative studies of the two complex phenomena.

Joining the discussion on the measurement of financial condition and progress in the implementation of the assumptions of sustainable development in the Polish voivodeships, we hope that our research results will contribute to further analyses in this field and serve as preliminary studies of the issues addressed.

The aim of the paper was to compare and statistically assess the financial situation and the level of sustainable development in 2017–2019, on the example of Polish voivodeships.

The implementation of the aim of the paper required proposing a set of variables defining the studied complex phenomena and carrying out their verification, then determining the value of the synthetic measure of the financial situation and the level of sustainable development of Polish voivodeships using a selected method of linear ordering of objects and analysis of the obtained results. The indicators obtained are quantitative information, which helps to explain how specific concerns (phenomena) change over time (Ciegis et.al., 2009).

In order to implement research assumptions, we tried to answer the following questions:

- which Polish voivodeships had the best and the worst financial situation?
- which Polish voivodeships achieved the highest and the lowest level of sustainable development?
- were similar rankings of voivodeships obtained in 2017-2019 for both complex phenomena (financial situation and level of sustainable development)?
- whether in voivodeships of Poland, in the examined years, there was an improvement in the financial situation and whether the examined voivodeships recorded some progress in implementing the concept of sustainable development?
- whether Polish voivodeships achieved a similar level of development considering both complex phenomena together?

2. FINANCIAL SITUATION AND SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT OF LOCAL GOVERNMENT UNITS – LITERATURE REVIEW

Local government units (in Poland these are communes, poviats and voivodeships) operate and develop in an increasingly complex environment, which constitutes a place of economic activity concentration and is a creator of local and regional development. They are characterised by autonomy in decision-making, and their activities are directed at all types of resources, i.e. financial, human, material and information. In the operation of local government units, the management of financial resources acquires special importance, which affects the economic situation of the local government and the decisions taken by the local government authorities (Dworakowska, 2013). Rational management of these public funds, should meet the needs of the local community to the maximum and at the same time have an optimal impact on sustainable development. This situation, however, requires not only current, effective management of available financial resources, but also the cheapest acquisition of external financing (Wang et.al., 2007).

One of the basic principles of local government functioning is independent financial management on the basis of budget, which is the key institution of the financial system.

The analysis of financial management of local government units provides information on their past and present financial situation and the efficiency of their operations, as well as helps to identify their development opportunities. Data on potential threats that may result in the deterioration of the local government's financial situation is important information for managers (Zawora, 2018). The financial situation of voivodeships is determined, on the one hand, by their ability to generate income and, on the other hand, by the size of spending needs in terms of the tasks they carry out. At the same time, it determines the possibilities of indebtedness of local governments and obtaining co-financing with non-returnable funds from the European Union. Funds at the disposal of local government units in Poland determine both the degree and quality of obligatory statutory tasks and activities contributing to their development. The assessment of the financial situation of voivodeships is a complex but necessary process, especially in terms of financial management and decision-making (Raszkowski, Bartniczak, 2018).

Wójtowicz (2014) emphasises that the financial situation is a '..state in which local government authorities are able to provide a range of adequate quality public services appropriate to the needs of the territorial community, as well as to stimulate future socio-economic development'. At the same time, she emphasises that the analysed category has a much broader dimension than just the issues of ensuring the current liquidity or long-term solvency of local government units.

It should be added that the financial situation of territorial units is conditioned by both internal factors, related to dysfunctions in the financial management of self-government authorities (for example: excessive budget expenditures not adjusted to the local income potential; inefficient investment and debt policy; inefficient absorption policy of territorial units relating to EU aid funds; lack of appropriate risk management policy in the context of ensuring financial stability of these units, etc.) and external factors (for example: excessive budget expenditures not adjusted to the local income potential; inefficient investment and debt policy; inefficient absorption policy of territorial units relating to EU aid funds; lack of appropriate risk management policy in the context of ensuring financial stability of these units, etc.), as well as external (for example: instability of economic conditions as a result of the economic downturn; unstable legal environment and related frequent legislative changes destabilising the financial systems of local government units; excessively limited scope of financial independence of these units by the state, translating into limited 'leeway' of local government authorities in the aspect of the financial management carried out, especially in the situation of unexpected and unfavourable disturbances; imposition of additional public tasks on local government units by central authorities, disregarding the financial compensation required by the binding legal regulations, etc.) (Poniatowicz, 2016).

The condition of public finance, including financial standing, is an extremely important issue, determining and influencing various areas of local government operation.

The concept of sustainable development was introduced primarily to mitigate the negative effects of economic progress, which resulted in adverse environmental changes leading to pollution and even degradation.

Sustainable development is a contested concept with a wide range of meanings. It is embraced by big business, governments, social reformers and environmental activists, all of which put their own interpretation on what sustainable development means (Atstaja et.al., 2017; Giddings et.al, 2002; Kiselakova et.al., 2020). The discussion on the interpretation of sustainable development is very broad and results in numerous definitions of this development. Currently, there are dozens of definitions and interpretations of this concept.

The consequence of this is that sustainable development is a fluid, ambiguous category and burdened with a dose of subjectivity. The concepts of sustainable development largely depend on the fact who their author is. The popularity of the term means that it is sometimes difficult to assess whether we are dealing with a real economic and ecological category, or only with a marketing trick (Fura, 2015; Grzebyk, Stec, 2015).

Sustainable development according to Ihlen and Roper (2014) can be defined as sustainable development, i.e. socio-economic development of modern societies, consisting in satisfying their needs in such a way as not to reduce the possibility of satisfying the needs of future generations by shaping the right proportions between three types of capital: economic, human and natural.

Poskrobko (2007) understands sustainable growth as such a way of conducting economic activity, shaping and using the potential of the environment and such an organisation of social life, which ensure dynamic development of qualitatively new production processes, management systems, sustainability of the use of natural resources and improvement (in the first period), and then maintenance of high quality of life of people – individuals, families and societies.

Whereas Rogall (2009) notes that sustainable development aims to ensure high ecological, economic and socio-cultural standards for all people living today and future generations, while not exceeding the limits of the environment's capacity. It should be pursued in a continuous manner and in different dimensions simultaneously – on a national scale and within territorial units.

The implementation of sustainable development concept at the regional level should, on the one hand, enhance the exploitation of emerging opportunities and, on the other, facilitate overcoming problems (Giorgetta, 2002). The most universal and synthetic approach of sustainable development describes it as one that should be economically strength, ecologically sound and socially acceptable (Alaimo, 2018; Barbier, 2016; Bond et.al., 2001; Grzebyk, Stec, 2015).

Thus, sustainable development leads to positive qualitative and quantitative changes in a given area with simultaneous respect for environmental values and the principle of social equality. It is the result of the search for development that firstly minimises the negative effects of scientific and technical revolution, and secondly prevents conflicts in space management manifested mainly by environmental degradation (Grzebyk, Stec, 2015; Fura, 2020; Stec, 2018).

Great importance in the implementation of the principles of sustainable development in individual regions falls on the finances of local government units, in particular the spending policy conducted by public authorities. Regional public managers should characterized by strong leadership, present the skill of inspiring others in carrying out the set goals and taking advantage of both intellectual and organization potential at their disposal (Czudec, Zając, 2020; Gelder, 2005; Gibney, 2012; Sotarauta et.al., 2012).

Strong emphasis on environmental and social issues at the local government level very often leads to budget imbalances and, consequently, to indebtedness of territorial units (Działo, 2012). The issue of assessing the legitimacy of maintaining budget imbalances and their impact on the development of countries or individual regions is a very difficult task and has been a source of controversy among economists for many years (Buchanan, 1997).

Most researchers agree, according to Gupta (2002), that in the long-term perspective the primary objective of the financial policy pursued by local governments should be to maintain a balanced budget. However, if increased budgetary expenditure is to be justified by improvement of living conditions of the population or environmental protection, budgetary imbalance should not be assessed negatively. In the area of local government finance, it is even pointed out that the justification for incurring debts in excess of income is the implementation of projects promoting sustainable development.

The Act on public finance in Poland enacted in 2009 introduced many changes for local government units concerning local finance management and debt level. It provides, for example, the necessity of balancing the budget in the area of current expenditure, in accordance with Article 242 of the Act it cannot be higher than the planned current income increased by budget surplus from previous years and free funds as surplus of cash on the current account of the budget of the local government unit resulting from the settlement of issued securities, loans and borrowings from previous years. Operating surplus makes it possible to assess the extent to which the local government unit finances current expenditures from current income and whether it has the capacity to incur liabilities and service them. With an operating deficit, the local government unit is not able to finance its current expenditure with current income (Ustawa…, 2009). This indicates the need to finance the current activities of the local government from new liabilities or the sale of assets.

The research contained in the source literature shows that sustainable development has gained popularity in recent literature (Alaimo, Maggino 2020; Maggino, Alaimo 2021), but there is no comprehensive study that shows the possibilities of implementing sustainable development principles depending on the financial situation of local government units. There is a need to focus on economic, environmental and social sustainability, which also take into account factors that directly or indirectly influence the maintenance of all three aspects mentioned earlier.

Sustainable development is a process that cannot be measured directly. It is only feasible to describe it with certain quantitative variables using adequate measurement methods and tools. Different quantitative methods are used in research to assess sustainable development (Cohon, 2003). However, there is no standard model used to evaluate the sustainable development of territorial units. Many publications consider the problem of multidimensional analysis of complex phenomena, i.e., sustainable development (Łuczak, Just, 2021).

3. RESEARCH METHOD

3.1. Statistical Database

In the article, the research was conducted on the example of 16 Polish voivodeships. The indicators for evaluating the financial situation of voivodeships were officially adopted by the Ministry of Finance for evaluating territorial units of Poland. They were downloaded from the website (https://www.gov.pl/web/finanse/wskazniki-do-oceny-sytuacji-finansowej-jednostek-samorzadu-terytorialnego-w-latach-2017-2019). Statistical data on sustainable development of Polish voivodeships came from the Local Data Bank of Statistics Poland in Warsaw [https://bdl.stat.gov.pl/BDL/start].

Voivodeship is a territorial unit corresponding to the EU space division at NUTS 2 level. In Poland, since 1999, there is a three-tier administrative division for 16 voivodeships, 380 poviats and 2478 communes. The five-tier division of territorial units for statistical purposes (NUTS) has also been in force since Poland's accession to the European Union. NUTS divides Poland into units of five levels, three of which are defined at the regional level

(NUTS 1 – regions, NUTS 2 – voivodeships – 16 units – statistical division corresponds to the administrative division; NUTS 3 – subregions (groups of poviats), and two at the local level (NUTS 4 – poviats, NUTS 5 – gminas/communes). This system was developed by Eurostat to build Community regional statistics.

In terms of the theory of regional economy voivodeships are administrative regions, i.e. territorial units with clearly defined boundaries, introduced by the central authorities and designed as functional regions to provide one or many administrative services, different from the local government and federal division of the country within which they are located and also equipped with administration with clearly defined conditions of mutual dependence, occupying a particular niche, i.e. a place in the overall territorial organization system (Bullmann, 2015; Raszkowski, Bartniczak, 2018).

The financial situation of the examined territorial units is a complex phenomenon, which is difficult to describe using one universal indicator. Therefore, in order to assess Polish voivodeships in terms of their financial situation, 13 variables divided into three groups were initially proposed: budget indicators, indicators *per capita*, and indicators for liabilities by debt titles: The S symbol stands for stimulants (those features with high values that are desirable from a certain point of view (e.g. financial situation or the level of sustainable development), while low values are undesirable), while the D symbol stands for destimulants (those features with low values that are desirable from a certain point of view of the studied phenomenon, while high values are undesirable). These concepts were introduced to the literature by Hellwig (1968).

I. Budgetary indicators

$X1_{FS}$ – share of current income in total income (%) (S),
$X2_{FS}$ – share of own income in total income (%) (S),
$X3_{FS}$ – share of operating surplus in total income (%) (S),
$X4_{FS}$ – share of property expenditure in total expenditure (%) (S),
$X5_{FS}$ – burden of current expenditure on salaries and related items (%) (D),
$X6_{FS}$ – share of operating surplus and income from sale of assets in total income (%) (S),
$X7_{FS}$ – self-financing ratio (%) (S).

II. *Per capita* indicators

$X8_{FS}$ – current transfers *per capita* in PLN (S),
$X9_{FS}$ – operating surplus *per capita* in PLN (S),
$X10_{FS}$ – total liabilities *per capita* in PLN (D).

III. Ratios for liabilities by debt titles

$X11_{FS}$ – share of total liabilities in total income (%) (D),
$X12_{FS}$ – debt service burden on total income (%) (D),
$X13_{FS}$ – debt service burden on own income (%) (D).

It should be noted that the variables proposed for the assessment of the financial situation of voivodeships represent its most important aspects and may be the basis for comparing individual local government units, the possibility of incurring liabilities or making developmental decisions. In the above set of indicators most of the features are stimulants. Destimulants refer to all commitment indicators and the variable $X5_{FS}$ and $X10_{FS}$.

The second complex phenomenon analysed is the sustainable development of Polish voivodeships. Poland represents one of the precursors of research on sustainable development indicators. The interest in practical applications of multivariate comparative analysis in the assessment of country and development of other territorial units was already observed in the 70s and 80s. It was manifested not only in the attempts to estimate the discussed development, but also in the abundant theoretical output (Borys, 2005).

The conditions and needs of the implementation of the rules of sustainable development have changed over the last years since the arrangements (Sneddon et al., 2006). Nonetheless, the core concept remains the same (Byrne, Glower, 2002). In the international literature one can find various attempts to operationalize the level of sustainable development. Difficulties in measuring sustainable development arise from the diversity of definitions and determinants of this development. Lack of agreement among researchers regarding the importance of individual planes creating sustainable development results in many ways of measuring this phenomenon (Taylor, 2014).

The selection of indicators that allow measuring the implementation of the concept of sustainable development is the subject of constant discussion. They are to answer the question to what extent development in the studied case corresponds to this idea. However, the use of sustainable development indicators usually aims to illustrate the degree of implementation of the principles and individual goals adopted in the sustainable development strategy (Borys, 2011).

Indicators should be characterized by the following features: simplicity, wide coverage, possibility of qualitative assessment that allows for setting trends. Integrated sustainability assessment itself is the most important and difficult sphere of potential indicator use because such an assessment should include wide spectrumof different problems and issues (Stec, Grzebyk, 2018; Dahl, 2007).

In the paper, 30 variables were initially used to assess the level of sustainable development of Polish voivodeships. The selection of variables for the study referred to each of the spheres responsible for sustainable development, i.e. social, economic and environmental sphere. The variables were selected after an extensive review of sustainability research (Stec, 2021):

I. The social dimension (SD) is determined by the following variables:

$X1_{SD}$ – population growth per 1,000 people (S),
$X2_{SD}$ – migration balance for permanent residence (inter-voivodeship migrations) per 1,000 people (S),
$X3_{SD}$ – deaths due to cancer and cardiovascular diseases per 10,000 inhabitants (D),
$X4_{SD}$ – suicide rate per 10,000 inhabitants (D),
$X5_{SD}$ – physicians (total working staff) per 10,000 population (S),
$X6_{SD}$ – extreme poverty risk rate in % (D),
$X7_{SD}$ – students per 10,000 inhabitants (S),
$X8_{SD}$ – total crimes recorded by the Police per 1,000 inhabitants (D),
$X9_{SD}$ – average monthly consumption of vegetables per 1 person in kg (S),
$X10_{SD}$ – consumption of water from waterworks in m^3 per 1 inhabitant (D).

II. The economic dimension (ED) is represented by the variables:

$X11_{SD}$ – national economy entities entered in the REGON (Business) register per 10,000 inhabitants (S),
$X12_{SD}$ – investment expenditures *per capita* in PLN (S),
$X13_{SD}$ – employees in R&D per 1,000 economically active persons (S),
$X14_{SD}$ – average share of innovative enterprises in the total number of enterprise (%) (S),

$X15_{SD}$ – patents granted by the Patent Office of the Republic of Poland per 100,000 inhabitants (S),
$X16_{SD}$ – unemployment rate in % (D),
$X17_{SD}$ – victims of accidents at work per 1,000 employed persons (D),
$X18_{SD}$ – average monthly disposable income *per capita* (S),
$X19_{SD}$ – expressways and motorways in km per 100 km^2 of area (S),
$X20_{SD}$ – passenger cars per 1,000 inhabitants (D).

III. The environmental dimension (ED) is defined by the following variables:
$X21_{SD}$ – forest cover in % (S),
$X22_{SD}$ – share of legally protected areas in the total area (%) (S),
$X23_{SD}$ – certified organic farms – share of agricultural area in total agricultural area (%) (S),
$X24_{SD}$ – share of renewable energy in total electricity production (%) (S),
$X25_{SD}$ – emission of gaseous pollutants from particularly onerous facilities in t/y per 100 km^2 of area (D),
$X26_{SD}$ – emission of particulate pollutants from particularly onerous facilities in t/y per 100 km^2 of area (D),
$X27_{SD}$ – wastewater treated during the year in dam^3, discharged per 1 inhabitant (S)
$X28_{SD}$ – share of waste generated during the year, recycled in total waste (%) (S),
$X29_{SD}$ – share of devastated and degraded land requiring rehabilitation in the total area (D),
$X30_{SD}$ – expenditure on fixed assets for environmental protection and water management in thousand PLN/1 inhabitant (S).

The variables proposed to assess the level of sustainable development in its three dimensions define its most important aspects. In the social dimension, they assess demographic change, the health situation and level of wealth of the population, the level of education, public safety and sustainable consumption patterns. In the economic dimension, they determine economic development, the labour market, R&D and innovation activities of enterprises, technical infrastructure and the economic situation of households. Meanwhile, in the environmental dimension, they include variables that make it possible to assess the state and quality of the environment (Pawlewicz, K., Pawlewicz, A., 2020).

In the next stage of the research, sets of variables determining the financial situation and sustainable development of Polish voivodeships were subjected to statistical verification by assessing the level of variation and correlation between variables in 2019 in the cross-section of its individual dimensions.

The classical coefficient of variation defined by v_j the following formula (Nowak, 1990) was adopted as a measure of the level of variation:

$$v_j = \frac{s_j}{\overline{x}_j} \qquad (j = 1,2, ...,m) \tag{1}$$

where: s_j – standard deviation of the X_j feature,
$\overline{x}_j$ – arithmetic mean of the X_j feature,
calculated from the formulas:

$$s_j = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}\left(x_{ij} - \overline{x}_j\right)^2} \qquad (j = 1,2, ...,m) \tag{2}$$

$$\overline{x}_j = \frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{ij} \qquad (j = 1,2, ...,m) \tag{3}$$

From the set of potential diagnostic variables, variables that met the following condition were eliminated:

$$|v_j| \leq v^* \tag{4}$$

where: v^* – the critical value of the coefficient of variation (usually taken at the level of 0.10).

An important criterion for the selection of diagnostic variables is a proper correlation of individual variables. The inverse correlation matrix method developed by A. Malina and A. Zeliaś is helpful in this respect.

The steps in this method include (Malina, Zeliaś, 1997; Malina, Zeliaś, 1998) determination of the R matrix of linear correlation coefficients of the form:

$$\boldsymbol{R} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & r_{12} & \cdots & r_{1m} \\ r_{21} & 1 & \cdots & r_{2m} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ r_{m1} & r_{m2} & \cdots & 1 \end{bmatrix} \tag{5}$$

where: r_{jk} – Pearson's linear correlation coefficient between the variables X_j and X_k.

- determination of the inverse matrix to the $\boldsymbol{R}$ matrix,

$$\boldsymbol{R}^{-1} = [r^{(ij)}] \tag{6}$$

where: $r^{(ij)}$ $(i, j = 1,2, ...,m)$ are the elements of the inverse matrix $\boldsymbol{R}^{-1}$.

When a variable is excessively correlated with the other variables, then the diagonal elements of the inverse matrix $\boldsymbol{R}^{-1}$ are much larger than unity, which is a symptom of poor numerical conditioning of the $\boldsymbol{R}$ matrix.

- eliminating from the set of variables those for which the condition is met:

$$|r^{(jj)}| > r^* \tag{7}$$

where: $r^{(jj)}$ – diagonal element of the matrix $\boldsymbol{R}^{-1}$,

r^* – critical value of diagonal elements of the matrix $\boldsymbol{R}^{-1}$, most often set at the level of 10.

The described procedure of statistical verification of variables was applied separately for both examined complex phenomena, i.e. financial situation and sustainable development of Polish voivodeships.

Therefore 13 variables describing the financial situation of Polish voivodeships, divided into 3 groups, were assessed. After the research it turned out that the level of variable variation was from 0.1342 for variable $X1_{FS}$ (Share of current income in total income) to

0.7591 for variable $X13_{FS}$ (Debt service burden on own income). None of the studied variables was therefore eliminated due to the level of variability.

On the other hand, when examining the level of correlation between variables describing the financial situation of Polish voivodeships using the inverse correlation matrix method, the following variables were eliminated: $X1_{FS}$ – Share of current income in total income (%) and $X6_{FS}$ – share of operating surplus and income from sale of assets in total income (%), Finally, the set of diagnostic variables in the financial situation of Polish voivodeships included 11 variables.

Statistical verification of variables determining sustainable development of Polish voivodeships was performed in a similar way.

Too low level of variation was observed for variables $X3_{SD}$ – deaths due to cancer and cardiovascular diseases per 10,000 inhabitants (coefficient of variation 0.034), $X9_{SD}$ – average monthly consumption of vegetables per 1 person in kg (0.091), $X18_{SD}$ – average monthly disposable income per person (0.086) and $X20_{SD}$ – passenger cars per 1,000 inhabitants (0.072). When examining the level of correlation between variables using the inverse correlation matrix method, the following variables were eliminated: $X2_{SD}$ – migration balance for permanent residence (inter-voivodeship migrations) per 1,000 population and $X13_{SD}$ – employees in R&D per 1,000 economically active persons. However, among the variables representing the environmental dimension of sustainable development, none of them was excluded due to too high correlation. Thus, the set of diagnostic variables for sustainable development of Polish voivodeships included 24 variables.

It should be noted that in order to maintain comparability of results, the same sets of diagnostic variables were also adopted for 2017 and 2018.

3.2. Statistical Methods

In the assessment of the examined complex phenomena, i.e. the financial situation and the level of sustainable development of Polish voivodeships, the model-free method of linear ordering of objects with normalisation by means of zero unitarisation was used. The research period was 2017–2019.

The method assumptions and its subsequent stages included (Kukuła, 2000)

1. Presenting of diagnostic variable values X_j (j = 1, 2, ...,m) describing the studied objects (Polish voivodeships) O_i (i = 1, 2, ..., n) in each of the studied periods (2017, 2018, 2019) in the form of a two-dimensional matrix:

$$\boldsymbol{X} = \begin{bmatrix} x_{11} & x_{12} & \cdots & x_{1m} \\ x_{21} & x_{22} & \cdots & x_{2m} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ x_{n1} & x_{n2} & \cdots & x_{nm} \end{bmatrix} \tag{8}$$

2. Normalisation of the variables to maintain comparability of statistical data, according to the following formulas:

for stimulants:
$$z_{ij} = \frac{x_{ij} - \min_i\{x_{ij}\}}{R_j} \tag{9}$$

for destimulants:
$$z_{ij} = \frac{\max_i\{x_{ij}\} - x_{ij}}{R_j} \tag{10}$$

where: z_{ij} – the normalised value of a j-th variable for the i-th object, x_{ij} – the value of a j-th variable for the i-th object, R_j – range for the jth variable. Normalisation was carried out for “object-periods”, i.e. $\min_i\{x_{ij}\}$, $\max_i\{x_{ij}\}$, and R_j values were identified for all four studied years.

3. Calculating the synthetic measure values for the for individual dimensions of the studied complex phenomena as an arithmetical mean of normalised variable values, using the formula (4):

$$MS_i = \frac{1}{m}\sum_{j=1}^{m} z_{ij} \tag{11}$$

where: MS_i – synthetic measure for three groups of variables (I–III), z_{ij} – the normalised value of the j-th variable for the i-th object. Thus, the value of the general synthetic measure of the financial situation of Polish voivodeships and the level of balanced development is the arithmetic mean of the synthetic measures calculated for three dimensions of variables (I-III):

$$MS_i^G = \frac{1}{3}(MS_i^I + MS_i^{II} + MS_i^{III}) \tag{12}$$

where: MS_i^G – the general synthetic measure of a complex phenomenon (financial situation of Polish voivodeships, level of sustainable development),
MS_i^I – the synthetic measure of dimension *I*,
MS_i^{II} – the synthetic measure of dimension *II*,
MS_i^{III}– the synthetic measure of dimension *III.*

The synthetic measure takes values from the [0,1] range. The higher the general synthetic measure value, the higher the level of the examined complex phenomenon.

4. Classifying Polish voivodeships into 4 groups, according to the following formulas:

$$\begin{array}{lll} \text{Group 1:} & {MS_i}^G \geq \overline{MS_i}^G + {S_i}^G & \text{high level} \\ \text{Group 2:} & \overline{MS_i}^G + {S_i}^G > {MS_i}^G \geq \overline{MS_i}^G & \text{medium-high level} \\ \text{Group 3:} & \overline{MS_i}^G > {MS_i}^G \geq \overline{MS_i}^G - {S_i}^G & \text{medium-low level} \\ \text{Group 4:} & {S_i}^G < \overline{MS_i}^G - {S_i}^G & \text{low level} \end{array} \tag{13}$$

where: $\overline{MS_i}^G$ – the mean value of the general synthetic measure, ${S_i}^G$– standard deviation of the general synthetic measure.

4. RESEARCH RESULTS

4.1. Descriptive statistics

A preliminary assessment of the financial situation and sustainable development was carried out by determining and interpreting basic statistical measures [maximum, minimum and average value, coefficient of variation (CV) and coefficient of asymmetry (CA) for the diagnostic variables defining them in 2019 (Table 1–2).

Table 1. Descriptive statistics of diagnostic variables determining the financial situation of Polish voivodeships in 2019

Indicator	**Maximum value**		**Minimum value**		**Mean**	**Coefficient of variation (%)**	**Coefficient of asymmetry**
$X2_{FS}$	Mazowieckie	84.5	Podlaskie	19.3	44.7	42.8	0.53
$X3_{FS}$	Mazowieckie	27.2	Podlaskie	10.3	17.8	25.1	0.21
$X4_{FS}$	Podlaskie	63.7	Śląskie	26.8	38.9	24.9	1.07
$X5_{FS}$	Lubuskie	33.3	Mazowieckie	18.9	28.4	13.8	-0.93
$X7_{FS}$	Śląskie	142.4	Lubuskie	82.0	106.4	14.3	0.55
$X8_{FS}$	Warmińsko-Mazurskie	269.1	Mazowieckie	58.8	173.3	42.8	-0.29
$X9_{FS}$	Mazowieckie	166.8	Lubuskie	52.6	88.3	29.4	1.64
$X10_{FS}$	Lubelskie	334.5	Podkarpackie	99.8	163.3	40.8	1.27
$X11_{FS}$	Łódzkie	63.5	Opolskie	17.9	33.4	42.8	0.93
$X12_{FS}$	Lubelskie	12.6	Podlaskie	1.5	5.5	49.0	0.84
$X13_{FS}$	Lubelskie	51.0	Wielkopolskie	4.2	14.4	75.9	2.59

Source: own calculations.

The financial situation of the Polish voivodeships was described by 13 diagnostic variables.

In 2019, the maximum value of the variable $X2_{FS}$ – share of own income in total income. which is a symptom of financial independence of voivodeships was in 84.5%. The undisputed leader in this respect was the Mazowieckie Voivodeship. The worst situation was in the Podlaskie Voivodeship. with the indicator at the level of 19.3%. The average value of the $X2_{FS}$ variable for Polish voivodeships amounted to 44.7%. and the level of voivodeship differentiation in terms of this variable can be considered moderate.

The indicator informing about investment opportunities or the scope of increasing current expenditure is the variable $X3_{FS}$ – the share of operating surplus in total income. In 2019. its value ranged from 10.3% (Podlaskie Voivodeship) to 27.2% (Mazowieckie Voivodeship). The average value of the variable for all Polish voivodeships was 17.8%. The variation of voivodeships in terms of this indicator is not high (the coefficient of variation amounted to 25.1%).

Another analysed indicator is variable $X4_{FS}$ – share of property expenditure in total expenditure. It should be added that property expenditures include mainly investments and investment purchases. and their high share in total expenditures is a pro-development factor for local government units. In 2019. the highest value of variable $X4_{FS}$ (63.7%) was achieved by the Podlaskie Voivodeship. while the lowest value was achieved by the Śląskie

Voivodeship (26.8%). The average for all voivodeships was 38.9%. The examined voivodeships are poorly diversified in terms of the value of this variable (the coefficient of variation amounted to 24.9%). but for most of them. the value of the indicator was below the average.

The lowest burden of current expenditure on salaries and salary derivatives (variable $X5_{FS}$) was in the Mazowieckie Voivodeship (18.9%). which can be considered a positive phenomenon. The highest percentage was observed in the Lubuskie Voivodeship (33.3%). The average value for all voivodeships was 28.4%, while the value above the average was reached by 9 voivodeships.

An important indicator in assessing the financial condition of Polish voivodeships is variable $X7_{FS}$ - self-financing index. It evaluates the extent to which a local government unit finances investments with its own funds. In 2019. the value of variable $X7_{FS}$ ranged from 82.0% in the Lubuskie Voivodeship to 142.4% in the Śląskie Voivodeship. The average level of this variable for the Polish voivodeships was 106.4%. The coefficient of variation oscillated at the level of 14.3%. which indicates a weak differentiation of voivodeships in terms of the value of the analysed variable.

In the second group of indicators used to assess the financial condition of voivodeships there were 3 variables $X8_{FS} – X10_{FS}$.

The variable $X8_{FS}$ – being the value of current transfers (general subsidy and current grants) *per capita* in PLN – determines the financial strength of an entity and its ability to meet the needs of a given community. Among Polish voivodeships. the highest value of this variable was achieved by the Warmińsko-Mazurskie voivodeship (269.1 PLN/1 inhabitant). while the lowest value was achieved by the Mazowieckie voivodeship (58.8 PLN/1 inhabitant). The value of 173.3 PLN/1 inhabitant was the average for all voivodeships. Moreover. Polish voivodeships were characterised by moderate diversity in terms of the $X8_{FS}$ variable.

Another indicator – variable $X9_{FS}$ – operating surplus per 1 inhabitant in PLN determines the positive value of the current result (i.e. the difference between current income and current expenditure of the unit) calculated per 1 inhabitant. It indicates the potential capacity of the local government unit to repay its liabilities and to finance its investment expenditure. In 2019. the highest value of this indicator (166.8 PLN/1 inhabitant) was reached by the Mazowieckie voivodeship. The Lubuskie Voivodeship has achieved a value which is almost three times lower (52.6 PLN/1 inhabitant). The average level of the examined variable for Polish voivodeships was 88.3 PLN per 1 inhabitant. The asymmetry coefficient for voivodeships reached 1.64. which means that in most voivodeships the value of the $X9_{FS}$ variable was below the average.

A high ratio of liabilities *per capita* ($X10_{FS}$) may limit the financing of the implementation of the tasks of the unit. but it is quite often associated with financing the implementation of investments through external sources of funding. In the future. this may generate higher revenues and indicate a high investment commitment of the entity. but may also result in additional costs. In 2019. the highest indicator of liabilities *per capita* was in the Lubelskie Voivodeship (334.5 PLN/ 1 inhabitant). while the lowest was in the Podkarpackie Voivodeship (99.8 PLN/ 1 inhabitant).

The last group of indicators to evaluate the financial situation of voivodeships included 3 variables $X11_{FS}$ – $X13_{FS}$.They determine the degree of burden of debt service on total income and own income.

In 2019, the value of variable $X11_{FS}$ – the share of total liabilities in total income ranged from 17.9% (the Opolskie Voivodeship) to 63.5% (the Łódzkie Voivodeship) The average for all the voivodeships was 33.4%. while the variation coefficient at the level of 42.8% indicates a moderate differentiation of voivodeships in terms of the value of the analysed variable.

The best situation in terms of the burden of debt service on total income ($X12_{FS}$) was in the Podlaskie Voivodeship. Only 1.5% of its income was burdened with debt service. The worst situation was in the Lubelskie voivodeship. with the indicator at the level of 12.6%. The average for all voivodeships was 5.5%. In terms of the value of this variable. Polish voivodeships were moderately diversified (CV = 49.0%) and moreover half of them obtained a lower ratio of total income burdened with debt service than its average level.

The last indicator used in the assessment of the financial situation of Polish voivodeships informs about the burden of debt service on their own income ($X13_{FS}$). High values of this indicator may lead to the risk of insolvency of a given local government unit. In the case of the examined voivodeships. the value of the $X13_{FS}$ variable ranged from 4.2% (the Wielkopolskie voivodeship) to 51.0% (the Lubelskie voivodeship). The average value was 14.4%. However, the obtained value of the coefficient of variation (75.9%) indicates a fairly strong differentiation of voivodeships in terms of the value of this indicator. Also a strong right asymmetry was observed (CA = 2.59). so most of the voivodeships had a value of the examined variable below the average.

The basic statistical characteristics of the variables determining the sustainable development of Polish voivodeships in 2019 are presented in Table 2.

The social dimension of sustainable development is defined by 7 diagnostic variables.

In 2019, the highest population growth per 1.000 people (variable $X1_{SD}$) was recorded in the Pomorskie Voivodeship (1.5). while the lowest in the Łódzkie Voivodeship (-3.7). The average index for Poland was negative and amounted to -1.2. It should be noted that Polish voivodeships are highly differentiated in terms of variable $X1_{SD}$) (CV = 128.8%).

Another variable concerned the number of suicides per 10.000 inhabitants ($X4_{SD}$). In 2019. the highest number of suicides was observed in the Świętokrzyskie Voivodeship (1.6 per 10.000 inhabitants). The voivodeships with the lowest number were the Opolskie and the Śląskie voivodeships (0.7 each). The average for all voivodeships was 1.2 per 10.000 inhabitants In terms of the value of this variable. the Polish voivodeships were poorly diversified (CV = 22.4%).

The level of health care is represented by the variable $X5_{SD}$ – doctors per 10.000 residents.

The leader in this respect was the Mazowieckie Voivodeship. where there were about 80 physicians per 10.000 population The last place in the ranking of voivodeships in terms of the number of physicians per 10.000 population was occupied by the Wielkopolskie Voivodeship with the indicator at the level of 36.7. For all the voivodeships. the average value of the $X5_{SD}$ variable was 54.9 physicians per 10.000 population. The studied voivodeships were also poorly differentiated in terms of the value of the variable (CV = 20.7%).

In 2019. the percentage of population at risk of extreme poverty ranged from 1.3% in the Opolskie Voivodeship to 7.5% in the Małopolskie Voivodeship. The average value of the $X6_{SD}$ indicator for the Polish voivodeships was 4.3%. the variation between voivodeships can be considered moderate (CV = 47.5%).

Table 2. Descriptive statistics of diagnostic variables defining sustainable development of Polish voivodeships in 2019

Indicator	Maximum value		Minimum value		Mean	Coefficient of variation (%)	Coefficient of asymmetry
2019							
$X1_{SD}$	Pomorskie	1.5	Łódzkie	-3.7	-1.2	128.8	0.35
$X4_{SD}$	Świętokrzyskie	1.6	Opolskie. Śląskie	0.7	1.2	22.4	-0.52
$X5_{SD}$	Mazowieckie	80.1	Wielkopolskie	36.7	54.9	20.7	0.53
$X6_{SD}$	Małopolskie	7.5	Opolskie	1.3	4.3	47.5	0.20
$X7_{SD}$	Mazowieckie	452.0	Lubuskie	125.0	278.3	33.3	0.38
$X8_{SD}$	Zachodniopomorskie	30.4	Podkarpackie	12.2	20.2	22.8	0.52
$X10_{SD}$	Wielkopolskie	40.3	Podkarpackie	23.9	32.9	13.3	-0.11
$X11_{SD}$	Mazowieckie	1576.0	Podkarpackie	851.0	1113.6	18.1	0.65
$X12_{SD}$	Mazowieckie	13477.0	Świętokrzyskie	4999.0	7579.8	27.8	1.75
$X14_{SD}$	Małopolskie	19.3	Lubuskie	10.2	14.3	19.2	0.23
$X15_{SD}$	Zachodniopomorskie	10.9	Lubuskie	2.7	6.9	35.3	0.02
$X16_{SD}$	Warmińsko- -Mazurskie	9.1	Wielkopolskie	2.8	5.9	30.7	0.10
$X17_{SD}$	Dolnośląskie	7.6	Mazowieckie	4.5	6.4	14.0	-1.00
$X19_{SD}$	Śląskie	2.8	Podlaskie	0.5	1.4	47.1	0.96
$X21_{SD}$	Lubuskie	49.3	Łódzkie	21.5	30.3	22.6	1.25
$X22_{SD}$	Świętokrzyskie	64.9	Dolnośląskie	18.6	33.4	37.8	1.09
$X23_{SD}$	Warmińsko- mazurskie	8.6	Opolskie	0.5	2.8	95.2	1.48
$X24_{SD}$	Warmińsko- -Mazurskie	85.7	Opolskie	4.0	29.2	86.0	1.03
$X25_{SD}$	Śląskie	262972.8	Warmińsko- -Mazurskie	7128.8	73105.2	99.7	1.55
$X26_{SD}$	Śląskie	45.1	Warmińsko- -Mazurskie	2.6	10.1	95.8	3.18
$X27_{SD}$	Mazowieckie	0.04	Lubelskie	0.02	0.03	13.31	-0.25
$X28_{SD}$	Małopolskie	0.56	Lubelskie	0.02	0.20	79.06	0.92
$X29_{SD}$	Śląskie	0.40	Mazowieckie	0.10	0.21	46.10	0.61
$X30_{SD}$	Mazowieckie	0.44	Warmińsko- Mazurskie	0.18	0.30	20.77	0.17

Source: own calculations.

The Mazowieckie Voivodeship had the highest number of students per 10.000 inhabitants (452.0). whereas the Lubuskie Voivodeship had the lowest (125.0). On average. there were about 278 students per 10.000 inhabitants in the country. and the differentiation of voivodeships in terms of $X7_{SD}$ can be considered weak.

The level of security in Poland can be indicated by the variable $X8_{SD}$ – total crimes recorded by the police per 1.000 people. The voivodeship with the lowest number of crimes in 2019 turned out to be the Podkarpackie voivodeship with an indicator at the level of 12.2. while the Zachodniopomorskie voivodeship was one of the most threatened with crime.

where the number of crimes recorded by the Police per 1.000 inhabitants amounted to 30.4 On average in Poland. about 20.2 crimes per 1.000 of population were stated. the differentiation of voivodeships can be considered weak (CV = 22.8%).

Water consumption from waterworks in m^3 per 1 inhabitant (variable $X10_{SD}$) ranged from 23.9 m^3 in the Podkarpackie Voivodeship to 40.3 m^3 in the Wielkopolskie Voivodeship. with the Polish average at the level of 32.9 m^3 per 1 inhabitant. The coefficient of variation amounting to 13.3% indicates low differentiation of voivodeships in relation to this variable.

The economic dimension of sustainable development is represented by 7 diagnostic variables. The variable $X11_{SD}$ defines the number of national economy entities entered in the REGON (Business) register per 10.000 people. In 2019. the leader in this respect was the Mazowieckie Voivodeship with an indicator of 1.576 entities. The least number of business entities was registered in the Podkarpackie Voivodeship (851) The Polish voivodeships are poorly diversified in terms of the value of variable $X11_{SD}$ and in 9 of them fewer business entities were registered than the national average (about 1.114 entities).

Another variable of the economic dimension of sustainable development determines the value of investment expenditures *per capita* in PLN (variable $X12_{SD}$) In 2019. the best voivodeship in this regard was the Mazowieckie Voivodeship. where the value of variable $X12_{SD}$ was 13.477 PLN *per capita*. In contrast. the worst voivodeship. i.e. the Świętokrzyskie voivodeship. was at a level more than 2.5 times lower than the best. The Polish voivodeships were poorly diversified in terms of the value of investment outlays per 1 inhabitant in PLN. but the high value of the asymmetry coefficient (CA = 1.75) indicates that in most of them it was below the average.

The leader in terms of the average share of innovative enterprises in the total number of enterprises in 2019 was the Małopolskie Voivodeship with an indicator of 19.3%. The lowest share of such enterprises was recorded in the Lubuskie Voivodeship (10.2). The average value of the $X14_{SD}$ variable was around 14.3%. The voivodeships were also poorly diversified in terms of the examined variable.

The number of patents granted by the Patent Office of the Republic of Poland per 100.000 inhabitants (variable $X15_{SD}$) in Polish voivodeships was not high. ranging from 2.7 in the Lubuskie Voivodeship to 10.9 in the Zachodniopomorskie Voivodeship. The average value of the variable was 6.9 patents granted by the Patent Office of the Republic of Poland per 100.000 inhabitants.

An important indicator of the labour market was the variable $X16_{SD}$ - unemployment rate in %. In 2019. the voivodeship with the lowest unemployment rate was the Wielkopolskie voivodeship (2.8%). while the Warmińsko-Mazurskie voivodeship had the most difficult situation (9.1%). The average value of the variable for Polish voivodeships was 5.9% and the coefficient of variation at the level of 30.7% indicates their weak differentiation.

Another variable was $X17_{SD}$ – victims of accidents at work per 1.000 employed persons. Its value ranged from 4.5 in the Mazowieckie voivodeship to 7.6 in the Dolnośląskie voivodeship. This variable in the voivodeships was characterised by weak differentiation and moderate left asymmetry.

The level of technical infrastructure in Poland's voivodeships was determined by variable $X19_{SD}$ – expressways and motorways in km per 100 km^2 of area The highest number of such roads was observed in the Śląskie voivodeship. and the lowest in the Podlaskie voivodeship. The level of differentiation of Poland's voivodeships in terms of the value of variable $X19_{SD}$ can be considered moderate.

The environmental dimension of sustainable development was determined by 10 diagnostic variables. The first of these was variable $X21_{SD}$ – forest cover in %. In 2019. this indicator ranged from 21.5% in the Łódzkie Voivodeship to 49.3% in the Lubuskie Voivodeship. On average approximately 30.3% of the country's total area was covered by forests. Differentiation of voivodeships in terms of $X21_{SD}$ variable was weak. in most of the voivodeships the value of the examined indicator was lower than the average.

The highest share of legally protected areas in the total area (variable $X22_{SD}$) was in the Świętokrzyskie Voivodeship (64.9%). the lowest in the Dolnośląskie Voivodeship (18.6%). In most voivodeships the value of the examined indicator was below the average (33.4%).

In 2019. organic farms did not account for a large share of agricultural land in Poland. It ranged from 0.5% in the Opolskie Voivodeship to 8.6% in the Warmińsko-Mazurskie Voivodeship. Differentiation of voivodeships in terms of $X23_{SD}$ variable was strong. in most of the voivodeships the value of the examined indicator was lower than the average (2.8%).

Another variable of the environmental dimension of sustainable development concerned the share of renewable energy in total electricity production (variable $X24_{SD}$). The voivodeship with the highest share was the Warmińsko-Mazurskie voivodeship (85.7%). while the lowest share was observed in the Opolskie voivodeship (4.0%). The average value of variable $X24_{SD}$ for Poland was 29.2%. and the differentiation of voivodeships in terms of the share of renewable energy in total electricity production can be considered strong (CV = 86%).

Variables $X25_{SD}$ and $X26_{SD}$ were related to the volume of pollution from particularly onerous facilities in t/y per 100 km^2 (gaseous and particulate pollutants. respectively). In 2019, the most polluted voivodeship was the Śląskie voivodeship. while the Warmińsko--Mazurskie voivodeship was the least polluted. In terms of the values of both variables. the Polish voivodeships were strongly differentiated. It is good that in most of the voivodeships. however. the values of the studied indicators were lower than the average value.

The highest amount of wastewater treated per year in dam^3 *per capita* was discharged in the Mazowieckie Voivodeship. and the lowest in the Lubelskie Voivodeship. The national average was about 0.03 dam^3 per 1 inhabitant. and the variation of voivodeships in terms of the $X27_{SD}$ variable can be considered weak.

On the other hand. when assessing the share of waste generated during the year recycled in total waste (variable $X28_{SD}$). it can be seen that in 2019 the leader in this respect was the Małopolskie Voivodeship. while in last place was the Lubelskie Voivodeship.

The differentiation of voivodeships in terms of the variable $X28_{SD}$ was strong (CV = 79.06%). in most voivodeships the value of the examined indicator was lower than the average.

In 2019, in terms of the share of devastated and degraded land requiring rehabilitation in the total area (variable $X29_{SD}$). the Śląskie Voivodeship dominated. the Mazowieckie Voivodeship had the least such land. The average for Poland was 0.21%. while the diversity of voivodeships in terms of the value of variable $X29_{SD}$ can be considered moderate.

The improvement of the situation in the field of environment is supported by the expenditures incurred for this activity. Their value ranged from 0.18 thousand PLN per 1 inhabitant in the Warmińsko-Mazurskie Voivodeship to 0.44 thousand PLN per 1 inhabitant in the Mazowieckie Voivodeship. The average for all voivodeships was 0.30 thousand PLN per 1 inhabitant and the differentiation of voivodeships in terms of the $X30_{SD}$ variable was weak.

It should be noted that the conducted general statistical evaluation of values of particular indicators assessing the financial situation and the level of sustainable development of voivodeships gave an overview of the examined complex phenomena in various cross-sections. However. it did not allow to assess the phenomena comprehensively. taking into account all diagnostic variables for both studied complex phenomena. Therefore. in the further part of the paper. the study of the financial situation and the level of sustainable development of voivodeships was carried out using the selected method of multidimensional comparative analysis for data from 2017–2019.

4.2. Rankings

After applying the selected method of linear ordering of objects. the values of the overall synthetic measure were obtained for both studied complex phenomena. i.e. the financial situation (Table 3) and the level of sustainable development (Table 4) of Polish voivodeships in 2017–2019.

Table 3. Values of the overall synthetic measure for Polish voivodeships in terms of financial situation in 2017–2019

Voivodeship	2017	Position	2018	Position	2019	Position	Change of position 2017–2019
Dolnośląskie	0.4211	11	0.4476	13	0.4774	12	-1
Kujawsko-Pomorskie	0.4348	9	0.4756	12	0.5813	8	1
Lubelskie	0.2889	16	0.2173	16	0.3048	16	0
Lubuskie	0.4192	12	0.4234	14	0.4394	13	-1
Łódzkie	0.4423	8	0.4784	10	0.4117	14	-6
Małopolskie	0.3844	14	0.4780	11	0.5812	9	5
Mazowieckie	0.5484	3	0.6559	2	0.6700	2	1
Opolskie	0.5301	5	0.5536	7	0.6216	5	0
Podkarpackie	0.5508	2	0.6689	1	0.6750	1	1
Podlaskie	0.6330	1	0.5880	3	0.5916	7	-6
Pomorskie	0.5343	4	0.5702	5	0.6480	4	0
Śląskie	0.3959	13	0.5139	9	0.5712	10	3
Świętokrzyskie	0.5033	7	0.5722	4	0.6649	3	4
Warmińsko-Mazurskie	0.3557	15	0.3813	15	0.4079	15	0
Wielkopolskie	0.4330	10	0.5603	6	0.6009	6	4
Zachodniopomorskie	0.5209	6	0.5403	8	0.5482	11	-5

Source: own calculations

Analysing the information in Table 3, it can be noted that in 2017–2019 the values of the overall synthetic measure of the financial situation increase for most Polish voivodeships. This proves correct management of financial resources in the studied territorial units.

In 2019, the best in terms of financial situation among the voivodeships of Poland turned out to be the Podkarpackie voivodeship (synthetic measure value 0.6750). followed by: the Mazowieckie voivodeship (0.6699) and the Świętokrzyskie voivodeship (0.6649). Seven voivodeships (i.e. the Pomorskie, Opolskie, Wielkopolskie, Podlaskie, Kujawsko-

-Pomorskie, Małopolskie and Śląskie Voivodeships) were qualified to group II – with a medium-high level of the analysed compound phenomenon. On the other hand. the Zachodniopomorskie and Dolnośląskie Voivodeships had a medium low level. The Lubuskie, Łódzkie, Warmińsko-Mazurskie and Lubelskie Voivodeships had the worst financial situation (Figure 1).

Figure 1. Classification of Polish voivodeships into groups with a similar level of financial situation in 2019. Source: own calculations.

In 2019, compared to 2017, 7 voivodeships have improved their positions in relation to the whole country (including the Małopolskie voivodeship by 5 places, the Świętokrzyskie and the Wielkopolskie voivodeships by 4 places). The Lubelskie, Opolskie, Pomorskie and Warmińsko-Mazurskie Voivodeships maintained their positions in the regional structure of the country. The greatest fall in positions in comparison to the country as regards financial standing was recorded in the Łódzkie and Podlaskie Voivodeships (by 6 places) and the Zachodniopomorskie Voivodeship (by 5 places).

While assessing the level of sustainable development of Polish voivodeships determined by the value of the overall synthetic measure. a systematic increase of this measure in the period 2017–2019 can be observed for 11 voivodeships. For the remaining 5 voivodeships (the Lubelskie, Opolskie, Podlaskie, Pomorskie and Zachodniopomorskie Voivodeships) there was a slight decrease in the value of the synthetic measure in 2019 compared to the previous year (Table 4).

In 2019, the leaders in terms of the level of sustainable development were the Mazowieckie, Małopolskie and Pomorskie Voivodeships. An average high level was shown by 4 voivodeships: the Podkarpackie, Dolnośląskie, Zachodniopomorskie and Śląskie Voivodeships. Eight Polish voivodeships formed a group with a medium low level of sustainable development (the Wielkopolskie, Lubuskie, Podlaskie, Opolskie, Łódzkie, Warmińsko-Mazurskie. Lubelskie and Kujawsko-Pomorskie Voivodeships). Only 1 voivodeship (the Świętokrzyskie Voivodeship) had a low level of sustainable development (Figure 2).

Figure 2. Classification of Polish voivodeships into groups with a similar level of sustainable development's in 2019. Source: own calculations.

Table 4. Values of the overall synthetic measure for Polish voivodeships in terms of the level of sustainable development in 2017–2019

Voivodeship	2017	Position	2018	Position	2019	Position	Change of position 2017-2019
Dolnośląskie	0.4462	7	0.4985	6	0.5064	5	2
Kujawsko-Pomorskie	0.4032	11	0.4144	13	0.4210	15	-4
Lubelskie	0.3704	14	0.4297	12	0.4227	14	0
Lubuskie	0.4526	6	0.4566	9	0.4702	9	-3
Łódzkie	0.4059	10	0.4103	14	0.4270	12	-2
Małopolskie	0.5632	2	0.5993	2	0.6057	2	0
Mazowieckie	0.5967	1	0.6281	1	0.6401	1	0
Opolskie	0.3994	12	0.4459	11	0.4373	11	1
Podkarpackie	0.4624	5	0.4987	5	0.5179	4	1
Podlaskie	0.3968	13	0.4540	10	0.4450	10	3
Pomorskie	0.5528	3	0.5958	3	0.5606	3	0
Śląskie	0.4383	8	0.4677	7	0.4868	7	1
Świętokrzyskie	0.3262	16	0.3505	16	0.3660	16	0
Warmińsko-Mazurskie	0.3602	15	0.3926	15	0.4269	13	2
Wielkopolskie	0.4338	9	0.4654	8	0.4741	8	1
Zachodniopomorskie	0.5087	4	0.5212	4	0.4985	6	-2

Source: own calculations.

On the other hand, analysing the positions of Polish voivodeships in terms of the level of sustainable development in 2019 in comparison with 2017. it can be noted that the changes are not significant (promotion by 1–3 positions for 7 voivodeships and decrease by 2–4 positions for 4 voivodeships).

It also seems worthwhile to analyse together the results of the obtained classification of Polish voivodeships in terms of both financial situation and level of sustainable development. Table 5 provides a summary for 2019.

Table 5. Classification of Polish voivodeships in terms of both complex phenomena in 2019

Development groups	Financial situation	Sustainable development
I high level	Podkarpackie, Mazowieckie, Świętokrzyskie	Mazowieckie, Małopolskie, Pomorskie
II medium-high level	Pomorskie, Opolskie, Wielkopolskie, Podlaskie, Kujawsko-Pomorskie, Małopolskie, Śląskie	Podkarpackie, Dolnośląskie, Zachodniopomorskie, Śląskie
III medium-low level	Zachodniopomorskie, Dolnośląskie	Wielkopolskie, Lubuskie, Podlaskie, Opolskie, Łódzkie, Warmińsko-Mazurskie, Lubelskie, Kujawsko-Pomorskie
IV low level	Lubuskie, Łódzkie, Warmińsko-Mazurskie, Lubelskie	Świętokrzyskie

Source: own calculations.

Assessing the compositions of the individual development groups obtained for 2019, it can be seen that the leader in terms of both composite phenomena, i.e, financial situation and sustainable development, was the Mazowieckie Voivodeship, classified in group I with a high level of development. The Podkarpackie Voivodeship (group I in terms of financial situation and group II in terms of sustainable development) and the Małopolskie and Pomorskie Voivodeships (group II in terms of financial situation and group I in terms of sustainable development) were in an equally good situation, In general, some shifts of voivodeships within separate development groups can be observed (mostly to a higher or lower group), but they were not too distant, The greatest changes can be observed in the case of the Świętokrzyskie Voivodeship, which is a leader in terms of financial situation (group I) and at the same time reaches a low level of sustainable development (group IV). In this case, the effective financial management of the voivodeship does not always go hand in hand with the implementation of the concept of sustainable development.

5. CONCLUSIONS

Sustainable development is a priority for the activities of each level of local government, Striving for short-term and long-term goals of this development is conditioned by the financial situation of the local government, including securing financial resources for this development, Territorial units should ensure that the sources of financing of their development are characterised by stability and maximum efficiency, In the research on sustainable development, there is no detailed reference linking the implementation of the assumptions of this development with the financial situation of these units.

To sum up the study of two complex phenomena, i.e, the financial situation and the level of sustainable development of voivodeships in Poland, it may be noted that:

1. Poland is a diverse region, both in terms of financial situation and level of sustainable development.
2. In 2019, the best Polish voivodeships in terms of financial situation were the Podkarpackie, Mazowieckie and Świętokrzyskie Voivodeships. An equally good financial situation is observed in the Pomorskie, Opolskie, Wielkopolskie, Podlaskie, Kujawsko-Pomorskie, Małopolskie and Śląskie Voivodeships. Two voivodeships had problems with financial activity: the Zachodniopomorskie and Dolnośląskie Voivodeships. The most difficult financial situation was observed in the Lubuskie, Łódzkie, Warmińsko-Mazurskie and Lubelskie Voivodeships. In the assessment of the financial situation of Polish voivodeships, it is good that in 2017–2019 the values of the overall synthetic measure of the financial situation are increasing for the majority of Polish voivodeships. This proves correct management of financial resources in the studied territorial units.
3. While assessing the level of sustainable development of Polish voivodeships it was found that in 2019 the leaders in the implementation of this concept of development were the following voivodeships: the Mazowieckie, Małopolskie and Pomorskie Voivodeships. Four voivodeships: the Podkarpackie, Dolnośląskie, Zachodniopomorskie and Śląskie Voivodeships had a medium-high level of sustainable development.

An average low level of sustainable development was found in 8 Polish voivodeships (the Wielkopolskie, Lubuskie, Podlaskie, Opolskie, Łódzkie, Warmińsko-Mazurskie, Lubelskie and Kujawsko-Pomorskie Voivodeships) and only 1 voivodeship (the Świętokrzyskie Voivodeship) had a low level of sustainable development.

However, in the whole examined period, i.e, 2017–2019, an increase in the value of the overall synthetic measure was observed for the majority of Polish voivodeships, which indicates some progress of voivodeships in implementing the concept of sustainable development.

Evaluating the two complex phenomena together, i.e, financial situation and sustainable development, it can be concluded that several of the studied Polish voivodeships achieved a similar level of their development. For the majority, some slight shifts between development groups were observed. Only in the case of the Świętokrzyskie Voivodeship they turned out to be significant.

In conclusion, it may be noted that the assessment of the financial situation and the level of sustainable development on the example of Polish voivodeships may constitute a basis for further research in the future, specialisation and implementation of a specific policy both by self-governmental authorities in Poland, but also in other EU countries. It should be added that introducing changes in the concept of sustainable development requires time and considerable financial outlays, and its effects will be more noticeable in the long run.

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Arkadiusz M. JASIŃSKI[1]
Agnieszka BĄKOWSKA[2]

ATTITUDES TOWARDS GLOBALIZATION, LIFE SATISFACTION, AND FEAR OF COVID-19 INFECTION. COMPARISON OF EMERGING AND OLDER ADULTS

Attitudes toward globalization are shaped by people's direct experience with it. The COVID-19 pandemic can arguably be understood as a negative manifestation of globalization. The purpose of this study was to examine whether fear of COVID-19 infection and life satisfaction could be predictors of attitudes toward globalization. The study was cross-sectional in nature and utilized intergroup comparison analysis and hierarchical regression analysis. Emerging adults (n = 157) and seniors (n = 119) were compared. Higher levels of accepting attitudes toward globalization were observed among the emerging adults, while a fear of contracting COVID-19 was found to be higher among seniors. In both study groups, a fearful attitude towards globalization was positively associated with fear of COVID-19 infection, and life satisfaction was negatively associated with infection. In addition, respondents viewed the COVID-19 pandemic itself as a negative manifestation of globalization.

Keywords: globalization, life satisfaction, COVID-19, emerging adulthood, seniors.

1. INTRODUCTION

The pandemic clearly highlighted the universalizing role of globalization. Less than a week after the World Health Organization (WHO) declared COVID-19 to be a pandemic in January 2020, most countries implemented an epidemic state within their territory. The pandemic has since become the most prominent macro-social context shaping the quality of life of people around the world. In Poland, since the first case of COVID-19 was diagnosed (March 4, 2020) more than 110,000 people have died from the disease (Ministry of Health of Poland, 2022). The proportion of deaths within the total number of infected is 2%, but detailed data show that the higher the age, the higher the mortality rate (Flisiak, 2021). The average age of a person dying from COVID-19 in Poland is 72.9 years old (Chief Sanitary Inspectorate of Poland, 2021). International organizations and governments have

[1] Arkadiusz M. Jasiński, PhD, Department of General and Work Psychology, Institute of Psychology, University of Opole, plac Staszica 1, 45-052 Opole, Poland; e-mail: arkadiusz.jasinski@uni.opole.pl (corresponding author). ORCID: 0000-0002-5200-1174.
[2] Agnieszka Bąkowska, MA, Department of Social Sciences and Social Work, Institute of Pedagogical Sciences, University of Opole, ul. Oleska 48, 46-020 Opole, Poland; e-mail: agnieszka.bakowska7@gmail.com. ORCID: 0000-0002-4856-6498.

taken steps to limit the spread of COVID-19. Perhaps the most visible manifestation of control was the reduction of physical social contact. Among other things, the operation of cultural and educational institutions has been restricted due to the pandemic, and hotels, resorts and food outlets such as restaurants and cafes have been temporarily closed. Studies indicate that social distance is an effective tool in reducing coronavirus transmission (Bielecki et al., 2021), but the question must be raised about the psychological consequences of the restrictions that have been put in place.

The global context of the pandemic and the associated widespread reductions in direct social contact can be interpreted as visible negative effects of globalization. Arguments for this claim are provided by previous data documenting that countries with higher levels of socioeconomic globalization have higher coronavirus mortality rates (Farzanegan et al., 2021). According to the Folk Theory of Social Change (FTSC) (Kashima et al., 2011), attitudes towards globalization are shaped by direct experiences with the manifestations of globalization. Within the presented research, we looked for correlates of two attitudes towards globalization: accepting and fearful (Senejko, Łoś, 2016). An accepting attitude towards globalization manifests itself in openness and confidence towards globalization, exploration and active use of its aspects. A fearful attitude is characterized by sensitivity to the possible dangers of globalization and a lack of confidence in the changes experienced in the modern world. Previous research has confirmed that the pandemic decreased the level of acceptance towards globalization and increased the strength of the negative correlation between fearful attitude towards globalization and life satisfaction (Jasiński, Bąkowska, 2020). However, the problem of determinants of attitudes towards globalization needs further study. To date, studies have provided a basis for a more thorough comparison of the psychological effects of the pandemic in young adults and seniors (Glowacz, Schmits, 2020). The purpose of this research was to explore the correlation between life satisfaction and fear of COVID-19 infection and attitudes towards globalization among emerging adults and seniors.

1.1. Emerging adults: between adolescence and full adulthood

According to the model of experiencing globalization (MEG) (Derbis et al., 2018), by spreading certain cultural values and the way social life is organized, globalization indirectly promotes or threatens an individual's psychological development. In many studies, the psychosocial development of young adults is often considered in the context of globalization (Sawyer et al., 2021). This developmental stage, falling between the ages of 18 and 25, occurs only in societies whose economic development is high enough to endure the demand for immediate full-time work by young people (Arnett, 2002). Time spent in extended education results in the postponement of taking on social roles typical of adults: work, marriage, and parenthood, and emerging adults are more likely (and able) to experiment with the opportunities offered by globalization. It is likely that, in their view, features of globalization such as freedom of movement, intercultural contacts, individualism, and universal access to information, among others, offer numerous new opportunities for development. Based on this, it can be assumed that emerging adults generally have positive experiences with globalization, which they accept. However, previous studies have indicated pandemic-induced higher levels of economic and psychosocial stressors in this group, resulting in higher levels of stress and emotional strain (Shanahan et al., 2020).

1.2. Seniors in the age of globalization

An analysis of demographic processes taking place in Europe indicates that seniors are a growing social group. Late adulthood, according to classical psychological theories of human development (Erikson, 1980; Levinson, 1990) and the definition adopted by the WHO, begins after the age of 60. Among seniors, pandemic-enforced social isolation is positively associated with feelings of loneliness and depressive symptoms (Krendl, Perry, 2021). Perhaps seniors interpret pandemic restrictions as a manifestation of globalization. The consequences of events taking place in remote parts of the world (such as in Wuhan, China) can impose real limitations on the daily lives of seniors across Europe. Significant psychological differences between young adults and seniors have been evidenced by numerous previous studies (Ziolkowski et al., 2015), but these studies have not addressed predictors of attitudes towards globalization. Thus, we posed the question: how does the pandemic context relate to the level of attitudes towards globalization among emerging adults and seniors? Based on the literature analysis, we formulated the following hypotheses:

H1. The level of accepting attitude towards globalization is higher among emerging adults compared to seniors.

H2. The level of fearful attitude towards globalization is lower among emerging adults compared to seniors.

1.3. Fear of infection, life satisfaction, and attitudes towards globalization

According to current research, significant predictors of fear of COVID-19 infection include health anxiety, regular media use, and fear for the health of loved ones (Mertens et al., 2020). In our study, we examined whether the level of fear of COVID-19 infection differed between the study groups. Given the positive association of age with COVID-19 mortality, it is likely that seniors experience higher fear of contracting the disease. This prompted us to make another hypothesis:

H3. The level of fear of COVID-19 infection is lower in emerging adults compared to seniors.

The macro-social context of a pandemic may influence increased stress levels due to ruminations about COVID-19 (Bakker, van Wingerden, 2021). Rumination involves creating a mental representation of a negative event, and this leads to short-term or prolonged stress reactions (Brosschot et al., 2006). The epidemic emergency situation can be understood as a stressor that worsens mental health, which is manifested by, among others, depressive symptoms (Arslan, Yıldırım, 2021). Studies have found an association between fear of COVID-19 infection and life satisfaction but have not yet attempted to examine the correlation between fear of COVID-19 infection and attitudes towards globalization (Dymecka, Gerymski, Machnik-Czerwik et al., 2021). To add to the state of knowledge on this topic, we hypothesized:

H4a. In both study groups, fear of COVID-19 infection is negatively associated with accepting attitude towards globalization.

H4b. In both study groups, fear of COVID-19 infection is positively associated with fearful attitude towards globalization.

Satisfaction with life is the result of a cognitive appraisal that compares one's situation with accepted standards. Life satisfaction results from the degree of subjective attainment of these standards (Kjell, Diener, 2021). Understood in this way, life satisfaction has a subjective and global dimension, i.e., it concerns life in general. Previous studies have mainly focused on the determinants of life satisfaction in the context of COVID-19 (Sayin Kasar , Karaman, 2021). One of the goals of our study was to see if this life satisfaction could be one of the determinants of attitudes towards globalization. Theoretical justification for such inquiries is provided by the FTSC. In this view, globalization is a plane for the formation of subjective psychological well-being. Globalization may be relevant to life satisfaction because it creates conditions for gaining/losing resources, achieving goals, and satisfying human psychosocial needs. If emerging adults and seniors rate the current global context as negatively related to their life satisfaction, according to the theory of Kashima et al. they should exhibit lower levels of acceptance and higher levels of fear of globalization. Previous research, based on the model of experiencing globalization (Derbis et al., 2018), has shown that the level of subjective life satisfaction is one of the outcomes of experiencing globalization and is linked to the attitudes taken towards it. We hypothesized that life satisfaction would be positively related to accepting attitude and negatively related to fearful attitude towards globalization. To test this, we posed the following hypotheses:

H5a. In both study groups, life satisfaction is positively associated with accepting attitude towards globalization.

H5b. In both study groups, life satisfaction is negatively associated with fearful attitude towards globalization.

2. MATERIAL AND METHODS

2.1. Participants and procedure

The emerging adult group consisted of college students (n = 157, aged M = 21.69, SD = 3.39). The senior group consisted of n = 119, (aged M = 66.55, SD = 6.01). Seniors were recruited among third-age university students. Individuals participating in the study lived in the following Voivodeships: Lower Silesia, Łódź, Opole, Pomerania, Silesia and Greater Poland. Demographic data are provided in Table 1. Data collection took place between May 2020 and May 2021. The study was a cross-sectional questionnaire survey and study participants were recruited directly by researchers at the study site or at third-age university facilities. Each participant was informed of the purpose of the study and gave informed written consent to participate. The research design was reviewed and approved by the Ethics Committee of the Institute of Psychology at University of Opole.

2.2. Data collection and research tools

A sociodemographic questionnaire of our own design and three psychological questionnaires were used in the study. Respondents also answered questions about their perceived overall assessment of their own health (1-bad health, 10-perfect health) and their perceived degree of dependence on others (1-not at all, 10-very much). The COVID-19 fear of infection scale of our own design was used to measure fear of infection. The scale consists of three questions about the fear of COVID-19 infection of self, family member, or friend. The maximum possible score is 30 points. The Satisfaction With Life Scale (SWLS) (Diener et al., 1985) was used to measure life satisfaction. The tool consists of five statements rated on a 7-point scale. The possible maximum score is 35 points. Attitudes towards globalization were measured using the World-Me Questionnaire (Senejko, Łoś, 2016). A sample statement from the accepting scale is: “I can just as well live in my home country as in other parts of the world”, while a sample statement from the fearful scale is: “It makes me angry that problems in my country are caused by decisions made in other parts of the world.” Answers were given on a scale of 1-Totally disagree to 4-Totally agree. The maximum score on both scales is 28 points.

Table 1. Sociodemographic characteristics of the study groups

Variable	Emerging adults n = 157		Older adults n = 119	
Age	M = 21.69	SD = 3.39	M = 66.55	SD = 6.01
Sex (%)	*Female* = 87.9	*Male* = 12.1	*Female* = 79	*Male* = 21
Place of residence (%)				
Village	33.1		11.8	
Town < 50 k	31.2		25.2	
Town < 100 k	7.6		12.6	
City > 100 k	28.0		50.4	
Marital status (%)				
Single	54.1		5.0	
Informal relationship	43.3		3.4	
Marriage	2.5		54.6	
Divorced	0		15.1	
Widowhood	0		21.8	
Average net income (€ per month)				
> 225	46.5		4.2	
> 330	24.8		12.6	
> 440	12.1		46.2	
> 550	7.6		15.1	
> 660	3.8		12.6	
< 660	5.1		26.1	

Source: own study.

2.3. Strategy of analysis

First, variable distribution analysis, descriptive statistics, and Pearson’s r coefficient were performed on each group separately. Intergroup differences were tested using the Student’s t-test. A hierarchical regression analysis was then performed. The explained variables were attitudes towards globalization. In the regression analysis, predictors were included in the model in steps: 1) life satisfaction, 2) fear of COVID-19 infection. The order of inclusion of the variables in the model is theoretically justified – first the general factor, subjective global life satisfaction score, then the contextual factor, fear of the current threat (COVID-19 infection). Only complete questionnaires were analyzed. Calculations were performed using SPSS 21 software.

3. RESULTS

The emerging adult group had a higher mean overall health score (*M* = 7.69, *SD* = 1.76) than the senior group (*M* = 6.9, *SD* = 1.71). Emerging adults reported higher level of dependence on others (*M* = 4.04, *SD* = 5.57) than seniors (*M* = 3.32, *SD* = 3.05). The mean level of fear of infection was significantly higher among seniors (*M* = 21, *SD* = 7.66) than in emerging adults (*M* = 20.24, *SD* = 5.19). The Pearson's *r* coefficients between the study variables for the comparison groups are shown in Table 2.

Table 2. Inter-correlations of the study variables for emerging adults (n = 157) and older adults (n = 119)

Variable	1	2	3	4	5
Emerging adults					
1. Overall assessment of own health					
2. Perceived degree of dependence on others	-.14				
3. Fear of the COVID-19 infection	-.14	.29***			
4. Satisfaction with life	.51***	-.07	-.05		
5. Accepting attitude towards globalization	.17*	-.09	-.20*	.07	
6. Fearful attitude towards globalization	-.12	.21**	.29***	-.17*	-.28***
Older adults					
1. Overall assessment of own health					
2. Perceived degree of dependence on others	-.33***				
3. Fear of the COVID-19 infection	-.17	.13			
4. Satisfaction with life	.29***	-.13	.000		
5. Accepting attitude towards globalization	.20*	-.11	-.09	.17	
6. Fearful attitude towards globalization	-.27**	.23*	.33***	-.20*	-.24**

* $p < .05$, *** $p < .001$

Source: own study.

An analysis of intergroup comparisons revealed significant differences due to sociodemographic variables only in the senior group. It was observed that the highest level of dependence on others was reported by those with the lowest income (*M* = 5.8, *SD* = 4.08), and the lowest level of dependence (*M* = 2.06, *SD* = 1.76) by those with the highest income, Cohen's *d* = 0.47. The highest level of life satisfaction (*M* = 23.5, *SD* = 4.17) was observed in the group of seniors whose income exceeds 550 €/month and the lowest in the group with income below 225 €/month (*M* = 18, *SD* = 5.14), Cohen's *d* = 0.46. The highest level of dependence on others was reported by those who are widowed and not in any relationship (*M* = 4.56, *SD* = 3.49) and the lowest by those who are married (*M* = 2.76, *SD* = 2.62), Cohen's *d* = 0.58. The highest level of subjective life satisfaction was observed among married seniors (*M* = 22.56, *SD* = 4.71), and the lowest among divorced and widowed seniors (*M* = 19.39, *SD* = 5.54), Cohen's *d* = 0.61.

Emerging adults had significantly higher scores on the acceptance of globalization scale (*M* = 19.11, *SD* = 4.59) than seniors (*M* = 14.66, *SD* = 4.42), and the strength of the effect was large (Cohen's *d* = 0.97). The results therefore allow us to accept hypothesis H1. The level of fearful attitude towards globalization in the emerging adult group was significantly higher (*M* = 16.99, *SD* = 3.80) than in the senior group (*M* = 15.87, *SD* = 4.42). Therefore, hypothesis H2 is rejected. Results indicate that COVID-19 infection fear levels are significantly lower in emerging adults (*M* = 20.24, *SD* = 5.19) compared to seniors (*M* = 21, *SD* = 7.66). On this basis, hypothesis H3 is accepted. The results of the analysis of comparisons between emerging adults and seniors are shown in Table 3.

Table 3. Results of t-test for compared groups

	Emerging adults n = 157			Older adults n = 119				
Variable	*M*	*SD*	*Cronbach's alfa*	*M*	*SD*	*Cronbach's alfa*	*t*	*d*
Overall assessment of own health	7.69	1.76	-	6.9	1.71	-	3.71***	4.03
Perceived degree of dependence on others	4.04	2.57	-	3.32	3.05	-	2.11*	.25
Fear of the COVID-19 infection	19.11	6.67	.82	21.00	7.66	.89	-2.14*	2.63
Satisfaction with life	20.24	5.19	.74	21.30	5.22	.84	-1.66	–
Accepting attitude towards globalization	19.11	4.59	.79	14.66	4.55	.77	8.0***	.97
Fearful attitude towards globalization	16.99	3.80	.68	15.87	4.42	.79	2.24*	.35

* $p < .05$, *** $p < .001$

Source: own study.

The hierarchical regression analysis indicated that fear of COVID-19 infection was significantly negatively associated with accepting attitude towards globalization only among emerging adults ($\beta = -0.19$, $p = 0.009$). Hypothesis H4a is accepted in part. In both emerging adults ($\beta = 0.28$, $p < 0.001$) and seniors ($\beta = 0.33$, $p < 0.001$), fear of COVID-19 infection is positively associated with the level of fearful attitude towards globalization. These data support hypothesis H4b. Higher level of life satisfaction is not a significant predictor of accepting attitude towards globalization in both study groups, so hypothesis H5a is rejected. On the other hand, life satisfaction is negatively related to the level of fearful attitude towards globalization in both the emerging (β = -0.15, p < 0.001) and senior groups (β = -0.20, p = 0.019). On this basis, hypothesis H5b is accepted. Detailed results of the regression analysis are shown on Figure 1.

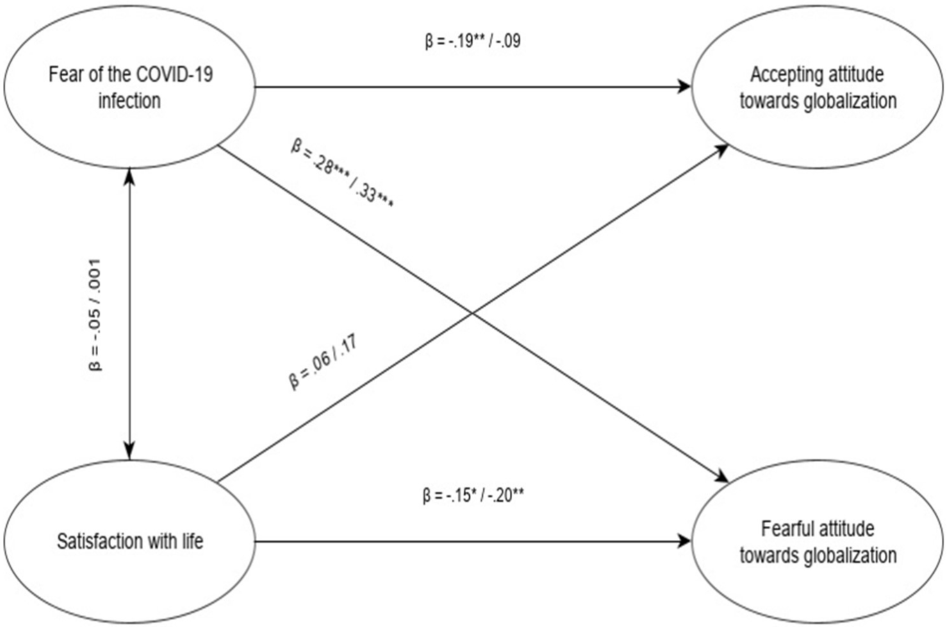

Figure 1. The final model for the study variables

Note. Before slash: emerging adults. After slash: older adults.
β (standardized regression coefficent).
* p < .05, ** p < .01, ***p < .001

Source: own study.

4. DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to examine the correlation between life satisfaction, fear of COVID-19 infection, and attitudes towards globalization during the pandemic in a group of emerging adults and seniors. The project was carried out using FTSC and MEG. The results obtained mostly confirm the theoretical assumptions of the models tested. Previous research on attitudes towards globalization in the Polish population has been conducted in the field of personality psychology and developmental psychology, excluding seniors and almost exclusively on groups of young adults (Senejko, Łoś, 2016). Our research responds to the growing psychological interest in seniors' perceptions of globalization and the COVID-19 pandemic (Skałacka, Pajestka, 2021).

Our results indicate that emerging adults have significantly higher levels of acceptance towards the manifestations of globalization when compared to seniors. The emerging adults participating in this study showed less fear related to globalization than seniors. This confirms Arnett's assumption that globalization is evaluated particularly positively by young people – who see in it new, subjectively unlimited opportunities for development. Emerging adults, when compared to seniors, are less concerned about COVID-19 infection. This result seems to confirm seniors' awareness of the higher pandemic risk in their age group. In contrast, the results show no difference between the level of attitudes towards globalization by place of residence (rural-urban), as suggested by previous theories (Arnett, 2002).

The results partially support the assumptions of the FTSC and MEG in terms of the formation of attitudes towards globalization through direct experiences with manifestations of globalization. Only among the emerging adults is fear of COVID-19 infection negatively associated with accepting attitude towards globalization. This may be because the generally positive attitude of young people towards globalization (which is decidedly higher than in seniors) is significantly weakened by the pandemic effect. Accepting attitudes are manifested by active exploration and engaging in new activities that are facilitated by globalization's effects. Due to the obligatory social isolation, the pandemic situation is definitely not conducive to these types of behaviors typical, especially for emerging adults. So far, no research has been conducted comparing the two groups, but the lower acceptance of globalization among seniors may be due to their distance from the positive aspects of globalization. This may be due to the fact that Polish seniors focus mainly on issues of health care and access to cultural goods, offices and services. The results suggest that the vast majority of Polish seniors are more interested in so-called 'everyday matters' than in global exploration (Jasiński, Bąkowska, 2021)). Our findings refine the picture of psychological differences between emerging adults and seniors. Previous data have suggested that the level of fear of COVID-19 infection is independent of age (Bisht et al., 2021; Teater et al., 2021).

In both study groups, fear of COVID-19 infection is positively associated with fearful attitude towards globalization. This result confirms the assumptions of FTSC and MEG on the determinants of negative attitude towards globalization. Both emerging adults and seniors become more concerned about globalization processes after experiencing pandemic situations. This corresponds with previous research showing that an important predictor of attitudes towards globalization is a sense of security (Cameron et al., 2020), which was lowered by the stressful context of the COVID-19 pandemic (Dymecka, Gerymski, Machnik-Czerwik, 2021).

Results from pre-pandemic studies have shown no correlation between attitudes towards globalization and life satisfaction (Jasiński et al., 2019). The results of research conducted during the first wave of the pandemic in Poland indicate that the context of the pandemic, understood as a manifestation of globalization, clearly strengthens the correlation between fearful attitude towards globalization and life satisfaction (Jasiński, Bąkowska, 2020). The data presented here, collected during the second and third waves of COVID-19, indicate that in both emerging adults and seniors the higher the sense of overall quality of life, the lower the intensity of fearful attitude towards globalization. If emerging adults and seniors rate the current global context as negatively related to their life satisfaction, they present higher levels of fear related to globalization, according to the FTSC. A total of three rounds of research on the Polish population between 2019 and 2021 suggest that the context that intensifies the association between subjective life satisfaction and fearful attitude towards globalization is the COVID-19 pandemic. It is worth noting that these results are consecutive, which in the Polish context indicates that there is no correlation between life satisfaction and accepting attitude towards globalization. These results support theoretical suggestions that experiences related to globalization are more negative than positive (Derbis et al., 2018). On the other hand, perhaps the very context of a pandemic understood as a negative manifestation of globalization interferes with the positive side of global change. Arguably, due to the global, widespread socio-political impact of pandemics (Grinin et al., 2021), negative perceptions of globalization are more accessible. Individuals surveyed during a pandemic are more sensitive to the risks and hence the higher intensity of the fearful attitude and the higher degree of explanation of these attitude in the empirical model. The fearful attitude results from, among other things, a reduced sense of security and uncertainty about how to cope with difficulties. Previous results clearly indicate that current macrosocial conditions are positively associated with higher levels of psychological stress and can be viewed as a threat to health and life (Kim, Jung, 2021).

Despite the presentation of new, timely, and socially relevant data, our article is not free of limitations. The first is that the study was conducted on the Polish population only. The second limitation is the method of data collection. Due to pandemic constraints, material were collected using online questionnaires. Due to sample size, analyses were limited to hierarchical regression analyses. The above comments affect the generalizability of the results. On the other hand, the presented study can form part of important comparative material with other populations.

5. CONCLUSION

The results indicate that emerging adults have higher level of accepting attitude towards globalization when compared to seniors. The fear of contracting COVID-19 is lower among emerging adults than among seniors. Fear of infection is a significant negative predictor of accepting attitude towards globalization only among emerging adults. A fear of COVID-19 infection in both groups is positively associated with the intensity of fearful attitude towards globalization. The correlation between fear of COVID-19 infection and fearful attitude is stronger in the senior group. In both groups, life satisfaction is negatively correlated with fearful attitude towards globalization.

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Harris MADUKU[1]
Julieth GUDO[2]
Victor H. MLAMBO[3]

UNPACKING THE ENIGMA OF DEMOCRACY, INTERGENERATIONAL INEQUALITY AND POVERTY IN SOUTH AFRICA

This paper examines the role of democracy on poverty and intergenerational inequality in South Africa. The authors used secondary data and published literature to unpack the nexus of the problem, and to further broaden understanding of democracy, intergenerational inequality, and poverty in South Africa. The authors establish that unemployment, lack of property ownership and a poor educational system are the main contributors to poverty and intergenerational inequality in South Africa. However, we found that the government's pro-poor policies have not adequately addressed the problems. As recommendations, this paper submits that it is essential to increase the redistribution of assets, especially land, to allow land ownership by the poor, which will open many other economic opportunities, such as access to capital. Also, government policies need to be revisited for quality job creation, closing the unemployment gap in the market.

Keywords: Intergenerational Inequality, Poverty, Democracy, Apartheid.

1. INTRODUCTION

This article attempts to address the existing link between democracy and socio-economic indicators in South Africa focusing on poverty, intergenerational inequality and unemployment. The central objective is to understand how democracy as a political system or a governance system has impacted poverty and intergenerational inequality in the Southern African country. South Africa like any other country in Africa was under colonisation through the apartheid regime that governed the country until it gained independence in 1994. The art of colonisation was almost similar across the world in the sense that it was premised on grabbing economic assets and opportunities from the

[1] Harris Maduku, Postdoctoral fellow, Faculty of Economics and Finance Tshwane University of Technology, Ga-Rankuwa Campus, Pretoria; e-mail: madhukuharris@gmail.com (corresponding author). ORCID: https://orcid.org/0000-0003-2705-0430.
[2] Julieth Gudo, Postdoctoral Research Fellow, Centre for Comparative Law in Africa University of Cape town, South Africa; e-mail: juliethgudo@gmail.com. ORCID: https://orcid.org/0000-0001-8050-3924.
[3] Victor H Mlambo, School of Public Management, Governance and Public Policy University of Johannesburg, Soweto, South Africa; e-mail: halavico@yahoo.com. ORCID: https://orcid.org/0000-0002-7705-8863.

oppressed. That means colonialism was an art of looting, deprivation and dehumanisation (Boucher, 2019).

Although South Africa is one of the last if not the last country in the Southern African Development Community (SADC) to gain independence, it has been hailed as one of the countries in the region for running the best democracy (Wasserman and Garman 2014). President Abraham Lincoln defined democracy as a government of the people, by the people and for the people. This means democracy as a governing system should be able to run affairs as per the will of the people and for the benefit of the people. It should also then be correct to assume that, in a governance system where the people have the power over decisions, the people should be able to be living lives that are devoid suffering, societies that are equal and communities where the people have access to both economic assets and economic opportunities.

Over two decades with a democratic government system, South Africa still falls short on achieving improved quality of life for the majority of its citizens (Pretorius and Steyn, 2019). The country ranks as the most unequal country among all the countries in the world according to the GINI coefficient which is an inequality measure (De Maio, 2007). Also, the poverty rates in South Africa are and have been very high ranging between 50-60 percent of the citizens depending on the methodology that one would have used (Business Tech, 2021). It is concerning that South Africa is ranked high on democracy and rule of law whilst on the flip side presides over a highly unequal society. What will be the purpose of having a governance system premised on respecting the rule of law but does not respect the quality of human life? Also, what are the benefits of running one of the best democracies in the world when 72 percent of the nation's private farmland is owned by one race (White South Africans), who only make 9 percent of the population.? While these questions may seem rhetorical, they bring out the need for this paper on two aspects. Firstly, since the inception of the 1994 political transition, there was a need to address the injustices of apartheid (e.g., commercial Farmland was forcibly taken from black South Africans under apartheid), hence there were greater calls for the redistribution of land. Secondly, for the black population, a democratic South Africa governed by a majority black government meant inclusive socio-economic development. Also that meant equal opportunities for everyone and poverty free societies.

This paper will track down the success and failures of the democracy governance system as far as the socio-economic variables like poverty, intergenerational inequality and unemployment. Theoretically, democracy is expected to generate positive economic benefits through creating an economic environment which encourages economic growth and development (Nyamosor. 2013; Cheeseman. 2018). The problem our paper tries to address is simply why South Africa as a democracy is failing to improve the lives of its people more than two decades into its inception. Also, we are going to make recommendations to policy makers proposing solutions on the way forward so that the good democracy being enjoyed by South Africa can start bearing economic fruits enjoyable to all the citizens.

The rest of the paper is organised as follows; section 2.0 focuses on analysing existing literature as well as analysing the current trends of poverty, inequality and poverty. Section 3.0 deals with methodology issues whilst section 4.0 discusses key findings of the study. Lastly, section 5.0 concludes and presents proposed recommendations.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Poverty and Inequality Trends

Statistics South Africa announced on the 30th of November 2021 that the third quarter unemployment rate had increased from 32.6% in the first quarter to 34.9%. Despite the Covid-19 pandemic that forced lockdowns across the globe, the country's unemployment rate had been on the rise dating back the dawn of democracy in 1994. Since the number of people who are being shed off their employment opportunities have been rising yearly, that also translate to the increasing numbers of number of people exposed to poverty. Interestingly, when the unemployment and poverty data is disaggregated according to race, it brings out an uneven picture among the races. Unemployment amongst black South Africans rose from 24.7% in 1994 to 30.4% in 2018 before it continued to grow to 32.6% in 2020. Looking at the trends below, unemployment levels for other races also increased but at a lesser rate compared to black South Africans.

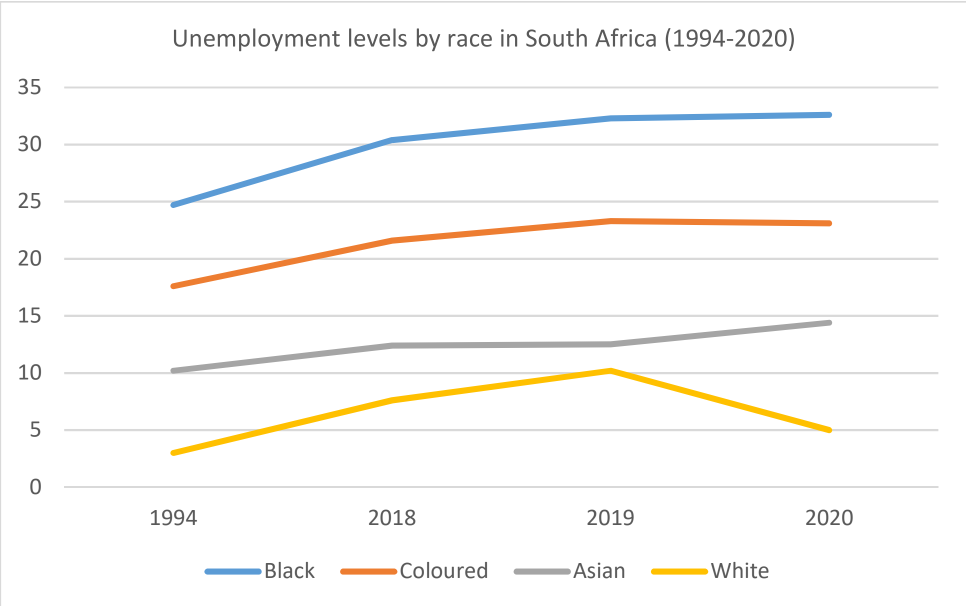

Figure 1. Unemployment by race in South Africa

Source: Author using STATS SA data.

Looking at inequality using the GINI coefficient as a measure, inequality has increased in South Africa since. The Gini coefficient is a statistical measure of economic inequality in a population. The coefficient measures the dispersion of income or distribution of wealth among the members of a population (De Maio, 2007). In 1994 when the country gained its independence, out of a score of 100 which is the perfectly unequally society, South Africa scored 59,3. The favourable position for a country is to have a GINI coefficient that is close to zero meaning perfectly equally. Looking at the data, it's clear that South Africa is moving away from zero, moving towards 100 meaning it is getting more unequal with time.

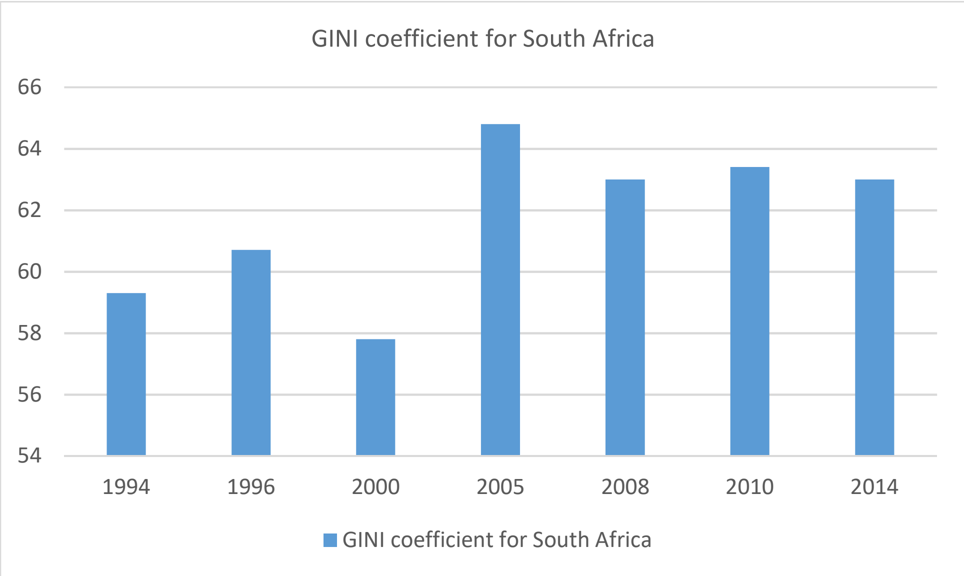

Figure 2. Inequality ratings for South Africa using the GINI coefficient (1994-2014)

Source: World Development Index (World Bank)

Figure 3 below focuses on poverty statistics in South Africa. The poverty headcount ratio at national poverty lines as a percentage of the population displays a picture that poverty has decreased overtime. With the available data which is scanty in nature, poverty decreased from 66.6% in 2005 to 55.5% in 2015 (Statistics South Africa, 2018). In as much as that is progress towards poverty reduction in the country, two decades after independence, more than half of the population in South Africa still live in poverty.

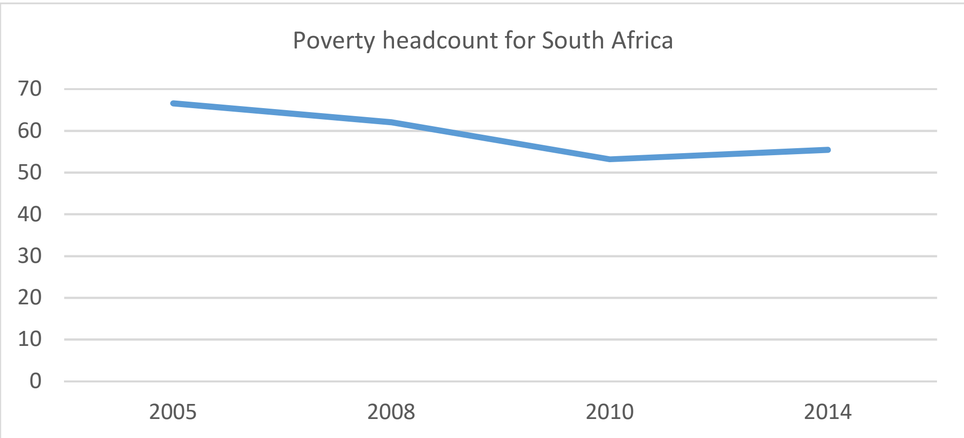

Figure 3. Poverty headcount as a percentage of the population (South Africa)

Source: Statistics South Africa.

2.2. The paradox of democracy, inequality and poverty

When South Africa attained political freedom, there was hope in the country since the country was to have its first democratic government (Von Holdt, 2013). Until today, South Africa is still being hailed after she had engaged in peaceful transition of power and until now the country prides itself for running a clean democratic state. In order for democracy to work, there are many aspects that are supposed to work hand in hand. One of those is the institutions of such a country. These institutions include the judiciary, the legislature, and the executive. The above-mentioned institutions must be allowed to run independently (Cheeseman, 2018). They are deemed an important part of any democratic government because they ensure that the governance system runs according to the law and not particularly by the whims of the rulers. These institutions have remained intact in South Africa; however, they have been confronted with challenges such as the inability to legally turn around the inequality in South Africa through the amendment of the constitution.

To deal with land inequality which is contributing to high levels of poverty mostly to black South Africans, the legislature was mandated to hold public hearings as it is a requirement of a democratic system (World Bank, 2022). The Joint Constitutional Review Committee (JCRC) recommended that Section 25 of the Constitution must be amended and be clear about the expropriation of land and property without compensation. Politicians and policy makers alike have argued that the amendment is intended to help address historic wrongs of land dispossession, ensure fair access to land and empower the majority of South Africans. The mandate to amend the constitution was given to the fifth democratic parliament in South Africa in 2018 and now the country has the sixth democratic parliament, but the country is not yet certain when it comes to the position of government concerning to expropriation of land without compensation.

This delay in the amendment of section 25 (as a result of the ANC's failure to muster a two-thirds majority to pass the amendment, the uncertainty of how the process was to be carried out and the supposed negative implications the process would have on property rights) of the South African constitution continues to side-line the majority citizens who were made vulnerable by the historical injustices of apartheid. It can then be argued that democracy (rule of law) protects inequality as it is difficult to achieve equitable distribution of land without amending the law. Arguably, in an autocratic state, such deliberation about laws and policies that need to be implemented needs little if no consultation. However, in a democratic country like South Africa, the drive to amend section 25 took much consultation, and in the end, the amendment could not be passed. Therefore, one would argue that black South Africans who were dispossessed of their land under apartheid are unlikely to see justice in the context of land redistribution, unless they can purchase the land, something which is economically unattainable for many black South Africans. Sections 25 (1), 25 (2) (b) and 25(3) are regarded as problematic as those provisions keep protecting property rights acquired during colonial and apartheid days.

Those that acquired land during the colonial period are able to create other opportunities using the land especially in real estate and agriculture (Ngam, 2021). Also, those who own land are able to use it as collateral to get loans to start businesses or to obtain other economic opportunities that can make them escape the jaws of poverty unlike those who live in low-cost houses offered by the government or living in informal squatter camps where the land they occupy has no value (Hendricks, 2003).

2.3. Success and failure of democracy to deal with poverty and inequality

When the democratically elected government came to power in 1994, apartheid ended leaving major inequalities across racial groups in South Africa. The economy was left in debt, under sanctions with high inflation and an educational system that discriminated against black people (Marais, 2011). The democratic administration inherited massive inequalities in education, health, and basic infrastructure including safe water, sanitation, and housing (Ozler, 2007). Starting on a fragile foundation riddled with severe socio-economic problems, meant that the new government had to find solutions to remedy these challenges and restore human dignity, respect for human life, descent jobs, provision of houses, universal access to education, and the provision of basic services as provided in the democratic constitution (Bill of Rights, RSA Constitution, 1996). While there is significant progress in many respects since 1994, the government's interventions in tackling poverty and inequality in South Africa have not been satisfying. This has been evident in increased protests throughout the country as a result of inequality, poor service delivery, corruption and lack of political will to find solutions (Bently, 2014). Corruption increases poverty and inequality through various channels such as biased tax systems, poor targeting on social programs and through its impact on asset ownership, educational opportunities and human capital development (Gupta, Davoodi, Alonso-Terme, 2002). In South Africa, persistent corruption and unaddressed apartheid inequalities mean inequality and poverty continue to worsen, and this was observed in the July 2021 unrest that engulfed South Africa. The lack of political will through the development and implementation of policy to address social ills in South Africa has also become another stumbling block in South Africa's quest to ensure inclusive development (Layden, 2021). The 2020 UN Human Development Index and Human Development Report shows that the country has made little to no progress in eradicating its inequalities (UNDP HDR, 2020).

The fact that South Africa is a powerhouse of Africa as a continent and is regarded as a middle-income country obscures the country's enormous inequalities. The reality that 18,9% of the black population are poor (UNDP HDR, 2020). According to the World Bank, South Africa's rating on the Gini index (Gini Scale) in 2021 was recorded as 63 (World Bank in 2021). This shows that South Africa is one of the countries with the greatest economic divide amongst its population and as a result, there is a rising concern for the long-term wellbeing of the country and its people (Bently, 2014). Although, the democratic government understood that political democracy could not survive when the people continue to live in poverty, upon getting to power, African National Congress (ANC) political vision lacked preparedness to run the economy, as a result, tackling poverty and inequality remains a challenge for the South African government because, among other things, achieving economic freedom necessitates the majority reclaiming access to and control over natural resources that were taken away during the colonial and racial apartheid system that existed in South Africa for centuries. (Schleiner, Mohapi, van Koppen, 2004).

According to Schreiner, Mohapi and van Koppen, democracy is built on the foundation of two complementary freedoms: political freedom and economic freedom. In South Africa, political freedom was mostly accomplished in 1994 while economic freedom is yet to be realized, particularly for the majority population (Schreiner, Mohapi, van Koppen, 2004). South Africa remains one of the most inequitable countries in the world as a result of lack of employment, wage scales and asset ownership (Makgetla, 2018). This is despite the different extensive programmes by the democratic government since 1994, aimed at redressing poverty and inequality. These state interventions although heavily funded and relied on by the new government did not sufficiently deliver as promised.

First, the Reconstruction and Development Plan (RDP) was introduced in 1994 by the democratic government. It is a socio-economic policy framework that addressed challenges of poverty, inequality and unemployment and speed economic growth through government intervention in the economy (RDP, A Policy Framework, 1994). RDP set objectives such as creating jobs through a public works program, redistribution through land reform, and large infrastructure projects in housing, services, and social security (Ozler, 2007). Rapid delivery of social goods, education, health care, and housing were to be used as a foundation for stimulating economic activity and job creation through the RDP (Munslow and Fitzgerald, 1997). After RDP failed to produce the expected result as a major directive (Du Preez, 2013), it lost its grip. The RDP program was a vanguard for the ANC, it was meant to usher in a new era of social inclusion through the provision of affordable and decent housing. However, a lack of concrete economic reforms, its rushed implementation, and the lack of effective oversight greatly affected the implementation and continuity of the RDP. What was meant to be South Africa's most important program in a democratic era was confronted with considerable challenges, thus today South Africa is characterized by a high number of informal settlements and housing shortages.

Secondly, in 2009, the New Growth Path (NGP) was introduced to prioritize employment and strengthen economic policy. Setting a target of about 5 million new jobs to be created by 2020, NGP's goal was to eradicate poverty through employment (Department of Economic Development:15). Like the previous policies, the NGP failed to meet its goals mainly because of unrealistic presumption that the state had the capacity to initiate and administer large-scale structural changes in the economy, without taking its economic standing into the process. In essence, since 2008, South Africa economy has not been consistent in term of growth, hence initiating and administering large-scale structural changes was bound to be financially impossible. Thirdly, the National Development Plan (NDP) 2030 was introduced in 2012 by the government and seeks to alleviate poverty and minimise inequality by 2030 (National Planning Commission, National Development Plan, 2030) NDP views the challenges of poverty, inequality, and unemployment from a more multi-dimensional and inclusive perspective (National Planning Commission, National Development Plan) as it links economic growth with employment. The COVID-19 pandemic has caused major obstacles to the South African economy and employment sector, and there is no question that NDP will not achieve its goals by 2030. Economic stability and employment are essential for poverty reduction.

According to Nattrass and Seekings, unemployment is the heart of inequality and poverty in South Africa (Nattrass, Seekings, 2001). Poor households are poor because their members are not in the labour force, and jobs are unavailable due to high unemployment. (Nattrass, Seekings, 2001). Unemployment in South Africa currently sits at 34.4% (Statistics SA, 2021) and has been steadily increasing since 1995 making South Africa's unemployment one of the highest in the world (Ozler, 2007). This figure is still high despite the different policy initiatives, such as the Growth Employment and Reconstruction Plan (GEAR) that were introduced after attaining democracy to increase economic growth and stimulate job creation. Growth Employment and Reconstruction Plan (GEAR) was introduced in 1996. It is a microeconomic policy framework for economic growth which followed the RDP and aimed at boosting the economy and stimulating the creation of employment (Ozler, 2007). Gear sought to restore economic stability in the hopes of attracting foreign investment, however, it failed to produce the promised benefits. Instead of a major worldwide investment, many jobs across industries in South Africa were lost due to the lack of accountability, bureaucracy, lack of strategic direction and the uncertainty in the economic direction the country was embarking on (Schleiner, Mohapi, Koppen, 2004). Government interventions focused not just on economic growth and jobs, but also on enhancing the quality of education in South Africa, as lack of skills is one of the factors contributing to poverty and inequality.

Access to education in South Africa remains unequal with itself providing inequality. The shortage of skills is one of the most significant challenges to the South African economy. (Loane Sharp, 2010). Workers' productivity improve as a result of their skills, which enhances wages, income, and living standards. (Loane Sharp, 2010). Many people in South Africa are poor and jobless because they lack necessary skills to secure employment. Education is critical for social mobility and equity (Makgetla 2018: 15). A person with a tertiary degree has a 25% higher chance of finding work than someone with only a Matric or less (Makgetla, 2018). Expanding quality education forms a critical step towards a more inclusive economy and a more equitable society (Makgetla, 2018). A more egalitarian educational system, broader access to employment through job creation, and welfare changes that allocate more resources to the poor, are all required to reduce inequality (Nattrass, Seekings, 2001). To address the lack of skills in South Africa, the government launched a slew of skill-development initiatives such as the Accelerated and Shared Growth Initiative for South Africa (AsgiSA, 2006). AsgiSA was implemented in 2006 and among many other responses to tackle poverty and inequality, AsgiSA aimed to introduce medium-term educational initiatives to enhance the level of skills in areas where the economy is lacking (AsgiSA, 2006).

South Africa has seen an increase of government corruption from abuse of state positions, maladministration of state resources for personal gain (Bently, 2014). When the resources that should be delivered to people through service delivery are unavailable, the beneficiaries receive nothing, exacerbating their socioeconomic difficulties. Corruption worsens when individuals in charge of holding wrongdoers accountable become corrupt themselves. As a result, wrongdoers are not held accountable for their unethical actions. Despite substantial policy effort and related initiatives, as noted above, the situation in terms of poverty, inequality, and unemployment in South Africa remains unsatisfactory. (Naude, 2014). Regardless, there have been some significant successes that democracy has brought in dealing with poverty and inequality that should be mentioned.

First, the extension of social security grants by the government has helped to alleviate poverty in South Africa. (Naude, 2014). The democratic government of South Africa's decision to prioritize social grants as an anti-poverty approach was a well-justified attempt to begin eradicating the apartheid-era's severe levels of poverty and inequities (Republic of South Africa (RSA) 2008). The country made significant progress towards the spread of extreme poverty, primarily through a vast network of social assistance programs (Naude, 2014), however, in the absence of initiatives to promote the growth and self-reliance of impoverished people, anti-poverty social grants are an important but insufficient intervention.

Secondly, the distribution of RDP houses across the country is considered as addressing the issue of shelter and infrastructure. Furthermore, the 'no-fee' school policy gives students more access to education. Improved access to electricity and improved roads and transport have permitted more access to health and education services, as well as transportation to work and mobility in general. Most crucially, political freedom has increased (Maxine, 2009).

2.4. The role of public safety nets in dealing with poverty and inequality in South Africa

According to statistics South Africa, the 2021 third quarter unemployment level was 42.4% and that figure has been on the rise since the dawn of democracy in 1996. The country has numerous problems including governance and structural displacement of mostly the African people from economic opportunities (Economic Freedom Fighters, 2021). Looking at the poverty rates in the country, white people that live under the poverty line are below 2%, Indians below 5%, Coloureds below 20% and Africans are way above 50%. In then trying to arrest the situation, the South African government has extensively used the social grants for the elderly and disabled, have transformed the student loan system into grants for those with parents earning below the bench mark. Recently, because of COVID-19, the government in trying to ease the pandemic pressure on its citizens have also unveiled the unemployment grant.

These interventions by the government have however, shrank or constrained the fiscal space in productive investment to an extend of convincing the country's leadership that the central government has no direct responsibility of creating jobs. In as much as the private sector plays a huge role in creating jobs and reducing inequality, while economic challenges do exist, the central government is in a financial position and has the resources needed to contribute towards job creation and reduce poverty. In the case of South Africa, the budget allocation that goes towards safety nets has ballooned overtime and that has narrowed the investment options of the central government (The World Bank, 2021). Further, the country has not been growing at least looking at the last five years, which mean a decrease in revenues and even though the financial position of the country is is stable, it makes it difficult for the government to address the many socio-economic issues that continue to hinder inclusive development (Smit, 2022)

The observation of this paper is that since the dawn of democracy in South Africa, the government inherited the poverty and inequality created by the apartheid system. The system before democracy was designed to segregate, displace and exclude the majority. Economic opportunities were not shared in line with the demographic picture of the country and that created institutionalised poverty and inequality. In trying to correct those historical injustices, the South African government in a democracy has used social spending as a tool to correct the scars of the apartheid system but that has made social grants to work as gate keepers of poverty and inequality because that has sustained the inequality in the county. As a result of the government mandate to help the marginalised, public debt has sky rocketed over the past decades (see figure 3 below), putting the economy at a much precarious position. Taxes have continued to be increased so that the government can afford to finance the safety nets.

Looking at the 2022 budget, most of the government's expenditure was allocated towards social spending which includes Department of Basic Education and Department of Social Development at R1.3 trillion until 2025. Further, there was also R3.33 trillion which was handed over towards the social wage over three years to support vulnerable and low-income households. In an effort to improve the lives of the much vulnerable citizens, treasury alluded that most non-interest spending will go towards the social wage, which includes health, education, housing, social protection, employment programmes, and local amenities. As a result of such huge allocation towards the lives of the vulnerable, the budget cut off spending towards infrastructure and other productive sectors of the economy.

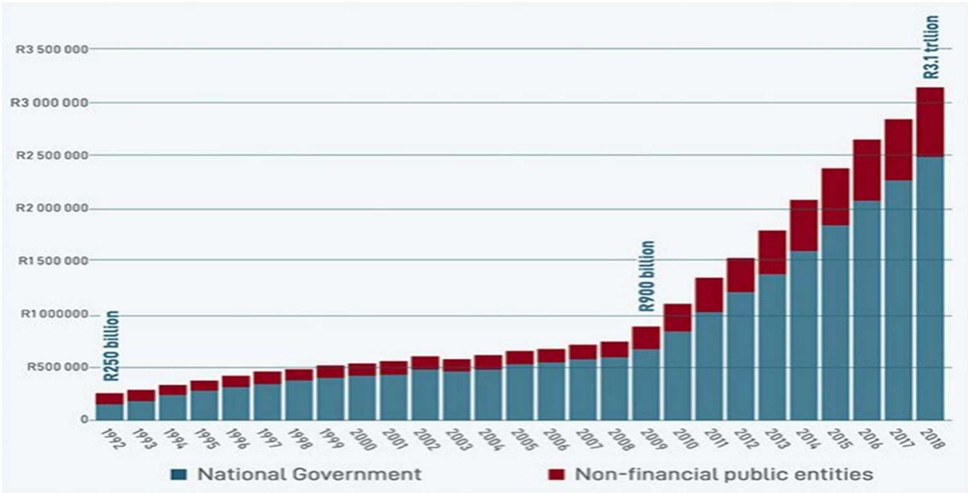

Figure 4. Public debt in South Africa

Source: South African Reserve Bank.

3. METHODOLOGY

The paper used secondary data published by different statistical houses in and out of the African region profiling poverty, democracy and inequality in South Africa. To buttress the secondary data used for graphs and tables included in the paper, the researchers also collected relevant and up to date publications in line with the objective of this paper.

4. DISCUSSION

4.1. The future of poverty and inequality in South Africa under democracy

The demise of apartheid in South Africa was meet with feelings of jubilation across the country. This was driven by the newfound freedoms that previously disadvantaged groups were not entitled to under the apartheid regime. Transitioning from apartheid to democratic rule in South Africa exerted tremendous pressure on the ANC led government. Firstly, there was a need to socio-economically uplift millions of people from poverty and create an inclusive economic system (Clarke and Bassett, 2016). Secondly, there was a need to consolidate a majority rule that was representative of societal demographics. Thirdly, there was a need to do away with apartheid-era policies, attract investments and reduce inequality. However, Francis and Webster (2019), reflect while policies such as Accelerated and Shared Growth Initiative for South Africa (AsgiSA), and Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) and to some extent Broad-based Black Economic Empowerment (BEE) have been to some extent able to promote economic inclusion, poverty and inequality continue to be persistent socio-economic challenges for south Africa. It is estimated that 8.9% of the population, about 11 million South Africans, live on less than R28 ($1.90) a day, which is around R800 ($55) per month (Daniel, 2020). South Africa has been categorised as the most unequal country in the world, it has the highest Gini coefficient in the world, making it the most unequal society and the COVID-19 pandemic has deepened this crisis.

The COVID-19 pandemic has exposed how fractured South Africa's democracy is, and just how unequal the country is. There are a series of misconceptions that emanated post-1994. Firstly, it was assumed that a black led government understood the plight of the poor, and hence would be able to effectively address issues related to poverty and inequality. Bhorat and van der Westhuizen (2008) argue that even though the ANC promised to address these issues, it did not foresee the scale at which these challenges were consolidated within wider society. Secondly, Bek, Binns and Nel (2004) argue that when the ANC came into power, addressing these issues was undertaken from a top-down approach, thus this reduced room for community participation which resulted in policies not aligned to the needs of the people. Finally, even though a black-led government was in power, the financial power was still in the hands of the minority, hence South Africa today is battling issues of land redistribution and raging inequality (Anwar, 2017).

Notwithstanding the above, democracy is seen as a governance system that unites, fosters participation and ensures collective development, however, this is not always the case. For democracy to function and work for the people, there needs to be a plethora of elements. Firstly, there needs to be political adherence to the rule of law and good governance. Democracy needs to be protected from the undue influence that may undermine its functioning and finally, democracy needs to ensure equal representation and support for civil liberties. However, democracy as a system does not guarantee inclusive development, nor does it ensure good governance (Acemoglu et al., 2019). Be as it may, Modise (2017) argues that unlike other forms of governance systems, democracy is likely to foster participation and inclusion, however for it to play a role in socio-economic development, it is largely depends on the policies that are implemented by the governing party, that is, democracy while enabling people to partake in the governance process, ultimately the policies of the governing party determine whether democracy works for the people or not. SA. It has been more than 27 years since South Africa emerged from apartheid, seemingly policies aimed at reducing poverty and inequality have not produced the desired results. Addressing poverty and inequality cannot be seen as a democratic requirement, rather democracy should allow for leaders to work with the community and address issues as a collective. For example, China is not a democratic state yet the country has reduced its poverty from 97 percent in 1978 to 1.7 percent in late 2018. At the centre of this reduction was determination and dedication supported by policies and community outreach buoyed by economic growth (Schmidt, 2020). In Rwanda, Poverty has reduced by 19.8% while extreme poverty has reduced by 23.7% during 2001 and 2015 (Bizoza, Simons, 2019). The World Bank reflected that the proportion of the Ugandan population living below the national poverty line declined from 31.1% in 2006 to 19.7% in 2013 (The World Bank, 2016).

The above examples bear one similarity; these countries are not full democracies yet they have made considerable gains towards reducing poverty. In South Africa, inequality remains one of the biggest obstacles to development and driving this problem has been the inability of the government to redistribute the country’s wealth. Omatjee (2020) reveals that despite significant economic growth, major social transformation and racial inclusiveness since the end of the apartheid regime, wealth inequality in South Africa has not reduced.

Attempts by the now-democratic government to wipe away the legacy of apartheid and colonialism have failed to narrow the imbalance between rich and poor, with 3,500 adults owning more than the poorest 32 million people in the country of 60 million (Sguazzin, 2021). Poverty and inequality have been and continue to affect black Africans adversely worst hit by inequality. further argues that policies aimed at addressing these issues have failed to take into consideration the spatial dimension of poverty and inequality. Just less than half of the South African population lives in rural areas, as does 72 per cent of South Africa’s poor. Everatt (2003) argues that poverty in South Africa has racial, gender and spatial dimensions, a direct result of the policies of the successive colonial, segregationist and apartheid regimes.

Poverty and inequality are the illegitimate twins inherited by democratic South Africa and sadly, it is Black South Africans that are at the mercy of these issues (Tshishonga, 2019). Undoubtedly, there is a need to accelerate the development and implementation of policies that will attract investments, consolidate local economic development and promote a culture of entrepreneurship amongst South Africa’s youth (Steenekamp, Van der Merwe, Athayde, 2011). Local municipalities are key role players in creating a conducive environment for businesses to thrive, create employment and promote community participation. However local municipalities in South Africa are currently in tatters, corruption and administration have greatly affected the functioning and effectiveness of the local government sector. Therefore, one cannot expect a reduction in inequality and poverty if key elements of good governance which are vital for the functioning of a democratic system are not implemented and respected in all spheres of government.

4.2. Enablers of poverty and inequality: What is the role of the Apartheid’s legacy?

South Africa is described as a country suffering from triple socio-economic problems (Poverty, Inequality and Unemployment) (Tshishonga, 2019). Those challenges have persisted from the apartheid era into the democratic South Africa. When the country transited from a minority government into a majority government guided by democratic principles, many foresaw the lives of the majority being aligned to the governance structure.

Many reasons have been brought afore and discussed but the real determinants or enablers of poverty and inequality remains exactly unknown at least in the academic space or we can say the findings are inconclusive. In an effort to deal with the problems, financial inclusion was adopted as part of the country’s Black Economic Empowerment programme. The specific financial inclusion targets were set in the 2004 Financial Sector Charter. Social grants were also expanded to reach more poor households and those unbanked. In as much as those two main broad policies to reduce poverty and inequality were important for South Africa, many poor households remained without access to a formal bank account, which is generally seen as the first step towards broader financial inclusion. Having the majority of the population being financially included does have a poverty reducing impact, that is why the South African government was determined to expand that number.

The persistence of the triple socio-economic problems despite government intervention makes it important to understand the enablers of those problems. To unpack that nexus, it is important to look at government responses that have dealt with the symptoms of the problems but not the foundation or source of the problems. It has been argued in the literature that the socio-economic problems in South Africa, manifested during the colonisation era, passed through the apartheid system and they have been maintained during the democratic system. Layden (2021), argued that, the South African government has done little to restructure the economy to benefit those that were previously disadvantaged. One of the things the lack of restructuring has caused is increases in wealthy inequality which is described as the main enabler of poverty by World Bank in 2019. The failure to redistribute wealth during democracy has led a few white capitalists and a new group of super rich blacks to be in control of over 90% of the entire wealth in South Africa. The bottom 40% of the population only controls 8% of the entire wealth in the country (Statistics South Africa, 2020).

Corruption is also a critical enabler of both inequality and poverty in South Africa (Maduku and Enaifoghe, 2019). As of 2021, the country ranks 70 out of 180 countries considered in the sample by Transparency International. Its rankings have increased scoring 44 points from 43 in 2012. Increased and persistent corruption combined with unresolved apartheid inequalities meant inequality and poverty would continue to worsen (Gumede, 2021). Furthermore, according to Mamdani (2019), the South African government suffers from lack of policy implementation and that has also become a huge enabler of inequality and poverty. He further argues that the constitution in South Africa is one of the best in the World but the government has failed to use it as a tool to dismantle the foot prints of apartheid which has had a long-run effects and proved to be very difficult to reverse. As a result of the failure to dismantle the legacy of apatheird, inequality in South Africa is very loud between races as opposed to within races since the year 1995 (Leibbrandt, 2007; Layden, 2021). The inequality across races is very loud in wealth. The Natives Land Act of 1913 appropriated 87 percent of all arable land for the whites and left a mere 13 percent for the black majority, who were herded into separate ethnic homelands (Modise 2013; Mamdani, 2019).

5. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The objective of this paper was to understand the relationship between democracy as a governance system and intergenerational inequality and poverty. The central question answered by the paper was why democracy in South Africa is failing to bear economic fruits to improve the lives of the majority. It has been established in the paper that unemployment, lack of property ownership and a poor education system are the main contributors to poverty and inequality in South Africa. The democratic government came into power aware of this dilemma and, as a result, introduced several policies to address the problems of poverty and inequality. However, there is no doubt that the government's pro-poor policies did not adequately address these problems. This failure is mainly a result of weak policies that lack vision and direction in comprehensively dealing with poverty and inequality (Triegaardt, 2006). There is a need for well-planned pro-poor policies supported by research evidence.

First, the market's inability to produce employment for those lacking skills is concerning. Public Works programmes addressing unemployment and poverty have proven temporary and ineffective (ODI 2004–2006). Unemployment in South Africa is a severe structural problem. Thus, a policy response that addresses the type of employment that prevails in the labour market must be implemented. Development policies need to consider quality job creation and close the lack of skilled workers gap in the market through ushering high quality education. There is need for stronger policies in education to ensure high quality output especially from government run high schools, colleges and universities. Quality output from those public run institutions will improve competitiveness of black people and other lagging races and help in closing the income gap in the economy.

Secondly, the expansion of social security grants in the past decade is a good thing and has positively contributed to poverty reduction (Chibba, Luiz, 2006). This paper argues that, grants are insufficient and are a temporary solution as it is unclear whether social grants will always be there due to fiscus restrictions. Another challenge is that social grants do not address the source of poverty and intergenerational inequality and are not designed to be a strategic anti-poverty plan. The government needs to think of long term pro-poor policies to reduce the dependency on social grants as this may lead to poor people being confined in a never-ending cycle of poverty or suffer from a dependency syndrome. Further, these social grants have also been contributing to high government debt which is a threat to future macroeconomic stability.

Lastly, it is essential to accelerate the redistribution of assets, especially land, to allow land ownership to the poor, which will open many other doors to economic empowerment, such as financial markets. We found that 9% of the population owns more than 80% of all the land in South Africa and that is sustaining intergenerational inequality. As a result, we recommend that the amendment of Section 25 of the constitution which speaks to land redistribution be expedited and the government has to be decisive in implementing the amendment. It is the belief of this paper that, if land is not redistributed to mirror the demographic representation of the country, those without the land will continue to lack access to financial markets and other opportunities that come with owning land. However, this paper further argues that while the need for policy adjustments as outlined above is important, there is also a need to consolidate accountability and transparency in the public sector

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Izabela OLEKSIEWICZ[1]

SPECIAL CHARACTER OF THE POLISH COUNTERTERRORISM POLICY AS COMPARED TO THE EUROPEAN UNION

The intensity of the threat of terrorism, previously considered only as a potential event, is now increasing. The greatest consequence of the impact of terrorism as an asymmetric threat is its psychological dimension. Its negative impact manifests itself in the reduction of the sense of security in society, rather than in society's actual deterioration. This often leads to a change in voting preferences in subsequent elections in a given country, and in the long run, can also lead to a reallocation of resources in a given state, changing its development prospects. The article categorizes terrorist phenomenon and their asymmetric threat factors, discussing the special nature of each threat. The authors found that terrorism also factors into the security considerations of a state. In the cases examined, a synergy effect occurs, caused by the many transnational entities responding to the emergence of this threat, numbers which continue to grow.

Keywords: terrorism, counterterrorism policy, security, Poland, European Union.

1. INTRODUCTION

Especially, the last Europol reports from 2019–2022 show that the terrorist threat in the European Union cannot be equated solely with the activities of Islamic fundamentalists (Europol, 2019; Europol, 2020, Europol, 2021, Europol, 2022). In European countries, separatist terrorism, extreme left-wing or right-wing terrorism is still a dangerous tendency, although in the face of the Covid-19 pandemic and the war in Ukraine it has declined significantly. The difference in numbers across the last three years can be also attributed to a change in classification of incidents by some Member States from terrorist to extremist attacks. The greatest threat in the case of Islamist terrorism are not people who fought in the ranks of the so-called Islamic state, and then, for various reasons and in various ways, they returned to the European Union, because they can be monitored in general. A similar comment applies to the Islamists living in the EU, who conduct radical activities, including on internet forums or in mosques. The most dangerous are those who identify themselves with Islamic fundamentalism and willingly use terrorism, but do not disclose their beliefs in public (cf. Berrebi, Klor, 2008; Abrahms, 2008; Brennan, 2015; Braun, 2003; Wiliams, 2000).

[1] Izabela Oleksiewicz, DSc, PhD, Associate Prof., Department of Law and Administration, The Rzeszow University of Technology; e-mail: oleiza@prz.edu.pl. ORCID: 0000-0002-1622-7467.

It should be noted that from 2014 to 2018 the number of arrests increased, while the number of attacks dropped significantly already in 2018. The overall number of terrorist attacks continued to decrease in the EU in 2019 and 2020 compared to the previous year, mainly due to a continued downward trend in ethno-nationalist and separatist terrorist attacks. The breakthrough year was 2021, which was caused both by pandemia COVID-19 and the effect of the criminal reform was undertaken by all Member States in 2019 in the area of tightening penalties and criminal measures related to the crime of terrorism (table 1; chart 1 and 2).

Table 1. Numerous of attacks and arrests in EU

Year	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021
Arrests	774	1077	1002	1219	1056	723	449	338
Attacks	226	211	143	205	129	55	57	15

Source: (own study based on TE-SAT 2015-22 European Union Terrorism Situation and Trend Report 2015-22).

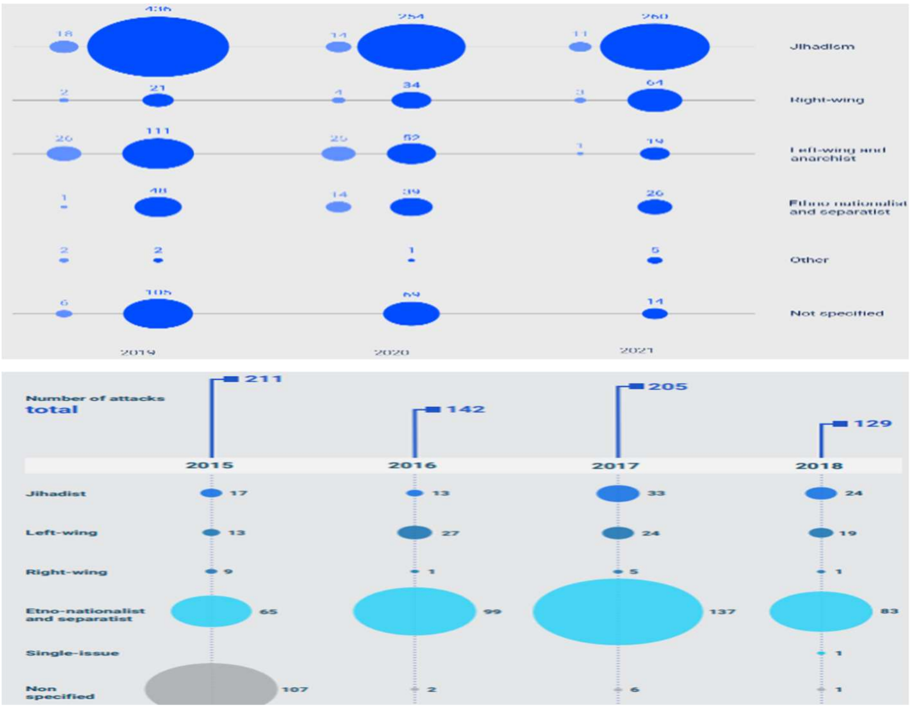


Chart 1 and 2. Total number of terrorist attacks in 2015-2021 divided into ideological motivation

Source: TE-SAT 2019-22 European Union Terrorism Situation and Trend Report 2019-22.

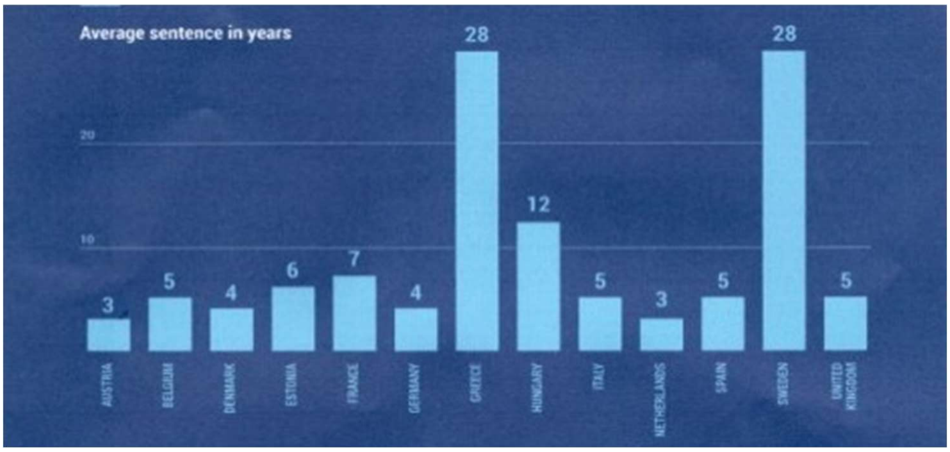


Chart 3. Average height of penalties imposed for a terrorist offense in individual EU Member States in 2017

Source: TE-SAT 2017, European Union Terrorism Situation and Trend Report 2017.

Table 2. Number of persons convicted of terrorism in 2016-2018 in individual EU countries

Member State	2016	2017	2018
Austria	26	18	36
Belgium	136	85	80
Bulgaria	-	-	1
Czechia	-	8	7
Denmark	8	4	6
Estonia	2	2	-
Finland	4	2	1
France	66	120	141
Germany	30	34	57
Greece	3	19	22
Hungary	2	-	3
Italy	11	23	15
Lithuania	1	2	10
The Netherlands	42	46	37
Poland	-	4	-
Portugal	1	1	-
Slovenia	1	-	1
Spain	154	69	120
Sweden	4	3	1
United Kingdom	89	125	115
Total	580	565	653

Source: TE-SAT 2019, European Union Terrorism Situation and Trend Report 2019.

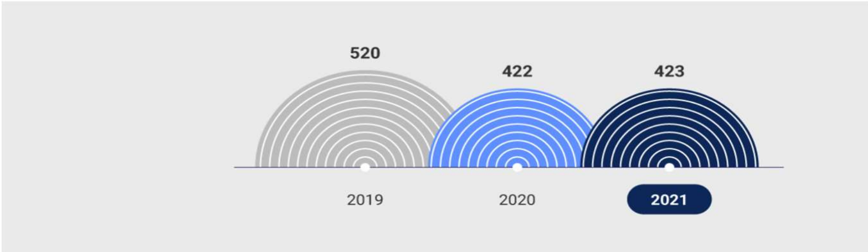
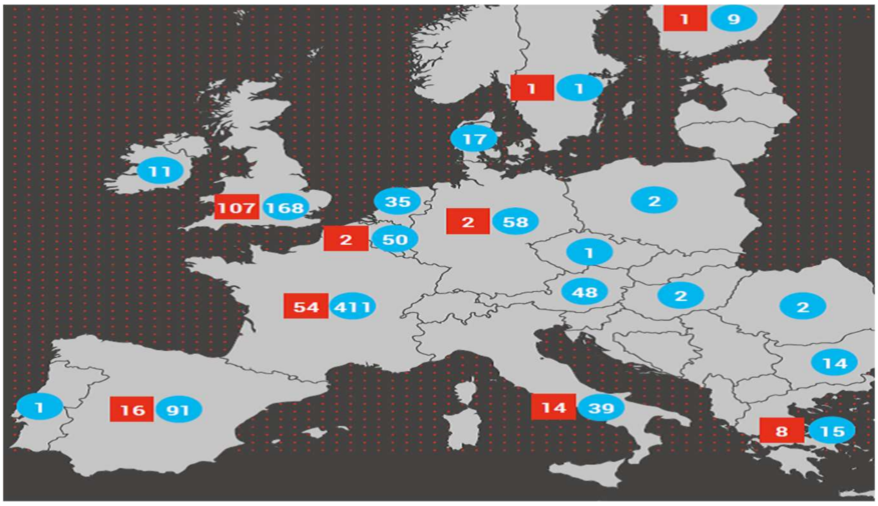


Chart 4. Number of persons convicted of terrorism in 2019-2021 in EU countries

Source: TE-SAT 2022, European Union Terrorism Situation and Trend Report 2022.



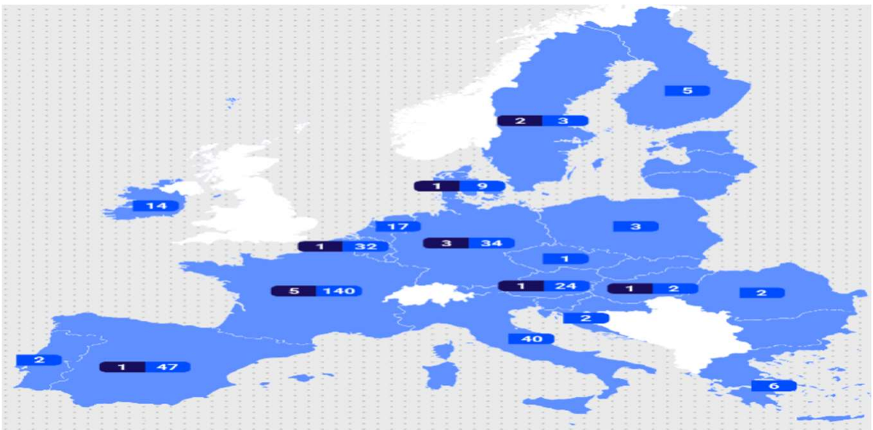


Fig. 1 and 2. An area of terrorist attacks (red) and the number of people arrested for terrorist activities (blue) in EU Member States in 2017 and in 2021

Source: TE-SAT 2018 and 2022, European Union Terrorism Situation and Trend Report 2018, Report 2022.

The desire of modern terrorists to escalate violence and cause a high number of victims and material damage, marked by a kind of conservatism manifested in the choice of types of weapons, tactics or targets is a characteristic feature that determines the shape of other changes (Cronin, 2002). The desire to achieve the greatest possible psychological effect by maximizing the destruction and the number of individual victims results in the use of non-selective methods of attack that involve the use of specific types of measures, e.g. explosives. This gives the possibility of many victims even with uncomplicated measures (McLeish, 2017). This also affects the choice of targets directly attacked, with the consequence that the number of terrorist attacks perpetrated on objects that guarantee at least a potentially large number of victims and damages, e.g. public transport, is constantly increasing (Nanopoulos, 2012; Madej, 2007; Pape, 2003). The pursuit of as many attack victims as possible is also associated with the growing complexity of modern terrorist operations.

When analysing the phenomenon of terrorism at the level of the European Union, both global and local threats should be taken into account. On the other hand, the issue of internal differentiation of the intensity of the terrorist threat is important. When a relatively large number of attacks occur in some European Union countries, the Central and Eastern European countries are definitely less exposed to them (Malešević, 2017; Pietraś, Baluk [ed.], 2021). What is more, it can be easily see that the threat of terrorist attacks in Poland is relatively low. The occurrence of acts of terror is mainly related to crime or revenge by organized crime groups or individuals using weapons, devices and explosives, rather than terrorist organizations (Figure 1 and 2).

These conditions result from satisfying the values, interests, needs and goals of a political, historical-political, socio-economic, socio-cultural and psychological nature. They are closely related to the development of states and nations and their neighbourhood policy (Huntington, 2018; Byman, 2016).

Therefore, it must be stated that terrorists are primarily concerned with attracting attention at all costs and maximizing the direct effects of their attacks. In addition, the specificity of the methods used by terrorist organizations serves to reduce the will to fight terrorism both in society and in the authorities of the attacked state (Gray, 2002; Deflem, 2009).

Globalization processes are the factors that exert the greater impact on security than divisions in the international community (Pietraś [ed.], 2021). The inevitable consequence of the globalization process is the transformation (erosion) of state sovereignty that affects each country, albeit to a varying degree. This is due to the aterritoriality of social processes and the deepening of various interdependencies on a global or international scale in every area of social life (Newman, 2007). This process is gradual, but it is sustainable, as is globalization itself, thus affecting international order and environment. It gives a wider area of activity to non-state entities and the possibility of creating new forms and types of activities, as well as an opportunity to expand the existing structure (Kerchove de, Hohn, 2014).

2. THE INSTITUTIONAL AND LEGAL DIMENSION OF POLAND'S COUNTERTERRORISM POLICY

On 25 December 2014, Resolution No. 252 of the Council of Ministers of 9 December 2014 on the *2015–2019 National Counterterrorism Programme* (Resolution No. 252, M.P.

2014, item 1218) issued in accordance with art. 19 paragraph 2 of the Act of 6 December 2006 on the development policy (Speaker's Announcement, M.P. 2014, item 1649) came into effect[2]. This document results from the *2020 Efficient State Strategy* (Resolution No. 17, M.P. 2013, item 136), one of Poland's nine integrated development strategies (objective 7: Ensuring a high level of security and public order, including detailed forms of intervention such as for instance preventing and combating crime as well as threats to public security and order, including counteracting terrorist threats).

On 12th May 2020, Resolution (https://www.bbn.gov.pl/ftp/dokumenty/Strategia_Bezpieczenstwa_Narodowego_RP_2020) of President accepted a new *Security Strategy of Poland*. At the same in the date of approval of the *Strategy* on 5th November 2014 r. has lost its legal force (Koziej, 2020).

The new one Strategy indicates the need to prepare and implement a comprehensive government counterterrorism programme which would strengthen the mechanisms of cooperation and increase the operational efficiency of the relevant services, bodies and institutions. At the same time, the programme complies with the objectives of the *2020 National Development Strategy* (which has priority over the *2020 Efficient State Strategy)* which emphasizes the advisability of constant improvement of the counterterrorism system of the Republic of Poland operating within the internal security system and adapting it to current challenges, including the *Long-Term 2030 National Development Strategy of Poland*.

The issue of counteracting and responding to terrorist threats is also discussed in other strategic documents, including the Resolution No.125 of Council of Ministers adopted on 22nd October 2019 on the Cybersecurity Strategy of the Republic of Poland for 2019–2024. The document has been in force since 31st October 2019 and replaced the National Framework for Cybersecurity Policy of the Republic of Poland for 2017–2022. The adoption of the strategy results from art. 68 of the Act on the National Cybersecurity System of 5th July 2018 (Oleksiewicz, 2021).

Implementing the aforementioned program was the adoption of the law on counterterrorism measures of 10 June 2016 (Act of 10 June 2016, unified text from Journal of Laws 2019, item 796). The main purpose of the said regulation, specified in art. 1 of the Act was to increase the efficiency of the Polish counterterrorism system, and thus to increase the security of all.

The purpose of the act was to integrate the operations of the Polish counterterrorism system institutions and to clearly describe responsibilities in each area. The application of the systemic approach to the issue of terrorist threats in the act was to allow the application of the potential of all services, bodies and institutions with statutory competence to conduct anti-terrorist operations. The Act covers various legal issues and branches of law difficult

[2] The programme describes the current level of terrorist threat also indicating the mechanisms for conducting its ongoing assessment, as well as elements which affect the efficiency of the Polish counterterrorism system in relation to individual phases of crisis management. The aim of the programme is to determine the necessary measures to be taken by the country to strengthen Poland's counterterrorism system and thus to boost preparations for the occurrence of any terrorist threat. The tool for implementing the programme and its ongoing monitoring is an *Action Plan*, which sets out legislative and organisational projects that are key to achieving greater efficiency of Poland's counterterrorism system. One of the main objectives of this document is also to raise public awareness of the nature of the threat, indicate behaviours in the event of an incident, and describe the forms and means of state involvement in preventing and combating terrorism.

to unify and to harmonise in practice. It contains provisions in the field of police law, criminal law, administrative procedural law, constitutional law, labour law and official pragmatics, civil law, and to a small extent maritime law (Wojciechowski, 2018).

A particularly sensitive problem which occurs virtually all over the world is "competition" between practically all kinds of security and law and order services, a tendency to act "on their own" or a reluctance to share their operational information. This phenomenon is unlikely to be eliminated, but it should be minimised if the legislator has not decided to give specific, limited responsibility to one particular institution. In the case of counterterrorism, however, despite the leading role of the Internal Security Agency (ABW)[3] and the Police[4] this situation has not occurred. Cooperation should not lead to any particular ambiguities.

Although their responsibilities are not clear, the two institutions work very closely together, because terrorism is a serious threat to the public good of every state. The Internal Security Agency is a special service responsible for issues related to the protection of the internal security of the state and its constitutional order. The main responsibility of the Internal Security Agency is to combat various threats to the internal security of the state, such as espionage, terrorism and drug trafficking on an international scale (Opaliński, Rogalski, Szustakiewicz, 2017). Operations to prevent the development of organised crime are the result of operational and exploratory powers, as well as intelligence gathering powers that help detect crime and prosecute its perpetrators. On the other hand, operational-exploratory and analytical and informational operations are mainly used to obtain information to ensure national security and the aforementioned law and order guaranteed by the Constitution of the Republic of Poland. What is important, however, is that the Internal Security Agency does not use any legal instruments to efficiently combat organised crime. This is due to lack of specific statutory regulations that would guarantee such status.

The Department for Combating Terrorism was set up in the Internal Security Agency on 19 September 2005 based on an amendment to the Regulation of the Prime Minister of 26 June 2002 on the institution of the Internal Security Agency. The department's responsibilities are:

- to collect information on terrorism and to monitor terrorism around the world and the resulting threats to Poland,
- to develop concepts for counteracting phenomena related to terrorism and to provide opinions on projects and programmes in this field,
- to prepare information and materials related to terrorism for the Minister – Head of the Interministerial Centre for Combating Organised Crime and International Terrorism (Bożek, Czuryk, Karpiuk, Kostrubiec, 2014)
- to prepare analyses and forecasts on terrorist threats,
- to analyse legal provisions related to terrorism and to prepare proposals for legislative changes on improving methods and forms of combating terrorism,
- to organise trainings and conferences on counteracting terrorism and to prepare educational materials in this field,

[3] It is an institution established by Act of 24 May 2002 (Journal of Laws of 2002 No. 93, item 829).

[4] It was set up by the Act of 6 April 1990 (Journal of Laws 1990, No. 30, item 179, as amended). The Act does not explicitly contain a provision on combating terrorism, but the Police do so pursuant to the provisions in the Penal Code, e.g. 163, 165–168 of the Criminal Code.

- to participate in organising cooperation with authorities of other countries in the field of counteracting terrorism.

As part of the ABW operation, the Internal Security Counterterrorism Centre (CAT) was established as a coordinating and analytical institution to counteract and combat terrorism. Its main responsibilities include:

- support for decision-making processes in the event of an actual threat of terrorist attack;
- coordinating operational and exploratory operations to combat terrorism;
- analytical and IT operations to prepare situational and synthetic reports as well as information for the decision-makers;
- participation in the development and amendment of procedures related to crisis management in the event of a terrorist attack;
- support following terrorist attacks for the operations of services and institutions participating in the anti-terrorist defence of the Republic of Poland;
- cooperation with the EU and NATO structures in this field (Burczaniuk, 2017).

It is also worth noting that on 1 February 2008, the Government Computer Incident Response Team was established (CERT.GOV.PL). It is a team operating within the structures of the Internal Security Agency and forming part of the ICT Security Department. Its main mission is to teach and train state institutions operating in Poland efficient protection against online attacks. However, its responsibilities also include:

- coordinating responses to online attacks;
- issuing and announcing alerts;
- dealing with accepted applications, including the collection of evidence by a specially appointed team of court experts;
- dealing with incidents in systems that are protected by ARAKIS-GOV;
- conducting studies of network security (More: Kitler, Taczkowska-Olszewska, Radoniewicz, 2019).

The provision of art. 3 establishes a kind of division of responsibility for various fields of counterterrorism. Paragraph 1 refers to the responsibility of the Head of the Internal Security Agency, paragraph 2 of the minister for internal affairs (currently the minister of internal affairs and administration). It should be remembered that in accordance with art. 3 paragraphs 1 and 2, The Head of the Internal Security Agency is a central government administration authority and reports directly to the Prime Minister. Admittedly, combating terrorism is not explicitly mentioned as the responsibility of the Police but it follows from article 1, paragraph 2 points 1–3 of an act on the Police[5].

Other institutions which participate in counterterrorism operations are:

- Foreign Intelligence Agency (AW)[6];
- Military Counterintelligence Service and Military Intelligence Service;

[5] It was set up by the Act of 6 April 1990 (Journal of Laws of 1990, No. 30, item 179, as amended). The Act does not explicitly contain a provision on combating terrorism, but the Police do so on the basis of the provisions contained in the Penal Code, e.g. 163, 165-168 of the Criminal Code.

[6] It was established pursuant to the Act of 24 May 2002 establishing ABW and AW (unified text of the Journal of Laws of 2010 No. 29, item 154).

- General Inspector of Financial Information (GIIF)[7];
- Border Guard (SG)[8].

The Foreign Intelligence Agency operates by ensuring the external security of the state through a specific list of responsibilities mentioned in the Act on the Internal Security Agency and the Foreign Intelligence Agency. The Foreign Intelligence Agency was entrusted with very similar responsibilities (Guzik-Makaruk, 2009)[9] based on article 6 paragraph 1 point 5 of an act, of detecting international terrorism, extremism and international organised crime groups.

Other institutions implementing anti-terrorist objectives in Poland are the Military Counterintelligence Service and the Military Intelligence Service[10] according to the Act on the Military Counterintelligence Service and the Military Intelligence Service. The first one is responsible for discovering, preventing and detecting terrorist incidents and offenses detrimental to the security of the defence potential of the state, the Armed Forces of the Republic of Poland and organisational units of the Ministry of National Defence[11] (article 5 (1) (2a-u) of the SKW.SWW). The responsibilities of the second service are to detect and counteract threats of international terrorism (article 6 (1) (2) of the SKW SWW) and to identify, counteract and prevent terrorist events aimed against personnel and property of the Polish Armed Forces outside the state and eliminating the effects of such events (Article 6 (1) (3a) of the SKW SWW).

To some extent, counterterrorism lie within the sphere of operation of the Border Guard[12] according to the Border Guard Act. It is connected to the main responsibilities of the Border Guard of border traffic control, combating illegal migration and monitoring the arrival and stay of foreigners in Poland, as well as prosecution of related crimes (Article 1 (2) (1-2a), (4 (a, c, e), (5–5b-u) of the SG) and with the obligation to cooperate with other authorities and services to detect and counteract terrorist threats (Article 1 (1) (5d-u) of the SG).

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[7] The Inspector acquired the rights pursuant to the Act on counteracting of 16 November 2000 (Journal of Laws of 2003, No. 153, item 1505, as amended). In turn, the GIIF is to prevent the potential crime of financing terrorism as defined in Article 165a of the Penal Code. Pursuant to the provisions of the Act on counteracting money laundering and terrorist financing, the Inspector obtains, collects, processes and analyses information that may be related to financing of terrorism.

[8] It was established pursuant to the Act of 12 October 1990 (Journal of Laws of 2005, No. 234, item 1997, as amended). Their responsibilities include preventing illegal migration of individuals suspected of terrorist activities, intercepting illegal transports containing harmful chemicals, nuclear materials and explosives.

[9] The Central Bureau of Investigation is an organ of the Police Headquarters, where it operates responsible for detecting and combating organised crime. The crimes investigated by the Central Bureau of Investigation are mainly of transborder, drug, criminal and economic nature. It also includes terrorist attacks. For combating organised crime, the most important aspect is the criminal one as well as the one directly connected with drugs.

[10] Set up by the Act of 9 June 2006 (unified text of the Journal of Laws of 201 item 687).

[11] Currently, the legal basis for the operation of the Ministry of National Defence is the ordinance of the Prime Minister No. 82 of 19 December 2014 (M.P.2015.32) on the statute for this ministry and its subordinate units.

[12] It was established pursuant to the Act of 12 October 1990 (Journal of Laws of 2005, No. 234, item 1997, as amended). Their responsibilities include preventing illegal migration of individuals suspected of terrorist activities, intercepting illegal transports containing harmful chemicals, nuclear materials and explosives.

In accordance with art. 1 paragraph 2 point 5d of the Act on the Border Guard, its responsibilities include "cooperation with other authorities and services to detect and counteract terrorist threats".

On such grounds, the Border Guard in fulfilling their responsibilities may acquire information, identify phenomena or disclose events that may be related to terrorist threats and (Chochowski, 2021; Jałoszyński, 2008):

1) recognise, prevent and detect offenses and prosecute their perpetrators, in particular offenses related to crossing the state border or taking goods and items specified in the regulations on weapons, ammunition and explosives across a border;
2) ensure security in international air transportation, by carrying out security checks on passengers, luggage, cargo and aircraft operating on high-risk flights, as well as by conducting mine and pyrotechnic material operations;
3) maintain public order and law and order in the territorial range of border crossings, including the protection of facilities belonging to or used by the Border Guard against terrorist acts;
4) prevent the crossing of borders by persons unwanted in the Republic of Poland and detain persons wanted by law enforcement authorities;
5) ensure security at airports and seaports due to their strategic importance;
6) collect and analyse information on nationals of the so-called increased risk states crossing the state border at border crossing points or attempting to cross it illegally avoiding crossing points,
7) monitor groups of individuals from the so-called high risk countries associated with border crime;
8) cooperate and exchange information and verify information on counteracting terrorist threats with the Internal Security Agency, the Foreign Intelligence Agency, the Military Counterintelligence Service, the Military Intelligence Service, the Police, the Government Protection Bureau, the Ministry of Finance, the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, the Military Police and border protection authorities of neighbouring countries, as well as other services and institutions.

Art. 3 paragraph 1 does not prove the supremacy of the Head of the Internal Security Agency over other security and law and order services combating terrorism apart from certain important prerogatives strictly defined in this Act, i.e. in art. 5 paragraph 3 (collection of counterterrorism information), in art. 8 paragraph 2 (recommendations regarding the elimination of a terrorist threat) and in art. 11 point 1 letter a (access to service databases). When analysing such competences, it should be kept in mind that there is no relationship of subordination between Head of the Internal Security Agency and the Ministry of Interior and Administration, as pursuant to art. 3 paragraph 2u of the ABW.AW, the former reports directly to the Prime Minister. This division means that until the occurrence of a terrorist event, the responsibility, and mainly all the responsibilities of detection, neutralisation and coordination in combating potential terrorist acts are carried out by the Head of the Internal Security Agency. When a terrorist attack occurs, the responsibility of eliminating of its effects, detention of the involved individuals and reconstitution of anti-terrorist resources is assumed by WSWiA.

The General Inspector of Financial Information (GIIF) plays a leading role in the system of combating financial crime and terrorist financing. The Inspector's responsibilities include:

- conducting the transaction suspension procedure;
- bank account blocking; providing and requesting information on transactions;
- forwarding documents to authorised bodies listing suspected criminal offences;
- controlling compliance with anti-money laundering and anti-terrorist financing provisions;
- cooperation with foreign institutions and international organizations[13].

In October 2009, the Interministerial Committee on Financial Security was established at the General Inspector of Financial Information, to providing consultative and advisory roles on the application of specific restrictive measures against individuals, groups and entities, i.e. the freezing of assets in order to combat terrorism and counteract its financing[14].

The institution responsible for collecting information about suspect financial transactions is the Polish Financial Intelligence Unit (PJAF) – the Financial Information Department at the Ministry of Finance. The PJAF verifies suspected "money laundering" and terrorist financing, and then collects evidence and notifies the prosecutor's office, which, in cooperation with law enforcement agencies, takes action to prosecute the suspects. PJAF is supervised by the General Inspector of Financial Information (GIIF). At international forums, PJAF participates in the work of MONEYVAL and the Egmont Group (FIU)[15].

In addition, two other institutions should be mentioned here, which do not participate in operations: National Security Council (RBN) and the National Security Bureau (BBN). The RBN is an advisory body to the President of the Republic of Poland and is responsible for defining the general plan and objectives for security, international relations and the armed forces. In turn, the National Security Bureau is part of the Chancellery of the President and pursuant to art. 11 of the Act on the universal obligation to defend the Republic of Poland[16] provides the president support in fulfilling responsibilities regarding the inviolability of borders and independence of our state.

It is worth mentioning that none of the above-mentioned regulations addresses the problem as a whole. The Act of 10th June 2016 on anti-terrorist activities is limited to the principles of conducting anti-terrorist activities and cooperation between competent authorities in the field of conducting these activities. The provisions of the Act on Crisis Management relate to activities related to the prevention and management of crisis situations. Acts regulating the work of law enforcement agencies, e.g. the Act of 6th April

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13 Article 4 of the Act on the Prevention of Money Laundering and Financing of Terrorism (Journal of Laws 2017.0.1049, unified text).

14 http://www.msz.gov.pl (access: 30.06.2022).

15 Is an international institution engaged in combating terrorist financing, founded in 1995 in Brussels as an informal organisation, bringing together representatives of financial intelligence units – initially from European Union member states and the USA. In 2007, a decision was made to transform this Group, bringing together financial intelligence units from 105 countries, into a formal international organisation. For more information, please go to: http://www.antyterroryzm.gov.pl/CAT/antyterroryzm/wspolpraca-zagraniczna/walka-z-finansowaniem/565, Walka-z-finansowaniem-terroryzmu.html (access: 30.07.2022).

16 Unified text Journal of Laws of 2012, item 461, as amended.

1990 on the Police[17]or the Act of 6th June 1997 – Penal Code cover issues related to the prevention and combating of crimes in cyberspace.

Certain non-sanctioning elements regulating ICT security requirements relating to the sphere of critical infrastructure are included in Annex 1 to the National Critical Infrastructure Protection Program (NPOIK), adopted on the basis of the Act of 26th April 2007 on crisis management)[18]. The Government Center for Security verifies the plans of critical infrastructure operators, including in terms of risk assessment, applied security measures and ICT protection principles adopted in the facilities. However, it should be emphasized that the legal basis of Directive 2016/1148[19], which is Art. 114 TRUE relating to the common market. On the other hand, the issue of the protection of state critical infrastructure is an exclusive competence of the Member States, closely related to the sphere of national security, not covered by the EU treaties.

3. CONCLUSIONS

It should also be noted that the Polish society is relatively ethnically and religiously homogeneous, and the integration of foreigners is not a significant social or political problem. National extremist groups in Poland are relatively inactive and mainly involved in street protests and acts of hooliganism. This is due to the absence of major political support for such movements, low social support and the dispersion of these groups and their members all over the country. However, access to the Internet allows such groups to establish contacts and cooperate with foreign counterparts, which may cause increased risk in the future.

The variability of the methods used by terrorists means that Poland must have appropriate instruments to properly identify and assess threats and effectively counteract any incidents. In the event of a terrorist attack, Poland must be prepared to take immediate and adequate measures and also be able to eliminate its effects. Achieving these aims requires mechanisms of cooperation between all services and bodies and institutions involved in broadly understood counterterrorism operations, as well as local authorities, the private sector and the entire society.

It is abundant, so it is an occurrence that has access to acquire skills in terms of performance progress and the presence of players who encounter these types of tools. Lack of a uniform accounting procedure, recording and comparing the achieved compliance, maintaining the progress of the switches (Compare: Mickiewicz, 2018; Wyligała, 2014).

With many security and public order entities, there is a noticeable lack of full coordination in the implementation of the competences assigned to them, which often overlap. Particularly troublesome in the efficient functioning of this subsystem is the duplication of managerial competences, which should be clearly defined by legal regulations. These shortcomings concern the competences of public authorities, both at the central and local levels. Often the competences of public authorities are vague or too vague.

[17] Journal of Laws 2017 item. 2067 and 2405; Journal of Laws 2018 item. 106, 138, 416, 650 and 730.

[18] Journal of Laws 2017 item. 209 and 1566.

[19] Directive (EU) 2016/1148 of the European Parliament and of the Council of 6 July 2016 concerning measures for a high common level of security of network and information systems across the Union (O.J.L 194, 19.07.2016).

Above all, they should precisely define the responsibilities of individual institutions, the principles and procedures of the tasks they coordinate, and the principles of responsibility.

The powers of the officers of various services, the procedures of their operation and the professional pragmatics should be unified. As a result, a situation should be achieved that allows to effectively dispose of the personnel resources of special services, assuming the exchange of personnel between services and in the process of cooperation. Against this background, it is necessary to consider the proposal to release the secret services from procedural obligations (they should be taken over by the Central Bureau of Investigation) and limit their activity only to proactive investigations, i.e. those aimed at making the crime more probable.

My reservations are primarily raised by the duality of regulations in terms of the adopted property with regard to specific ICT systems and services. Failure to take into account the principles of competence of authorities resulting from the Act on Crisis Management will lead to a situation in which the qualification of the same services will be performed by different entities. If, in both statutory regimes, the competences are recognized by different authorities with regard to the same ICT system, there will be a disruption in the system of ensuring the security of these systems.

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