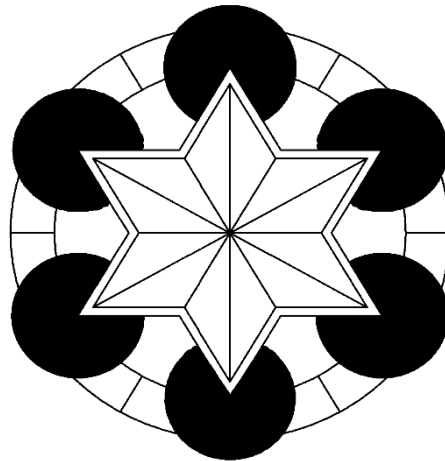




**13<sup>th</sup> International Scientific Conference**

# **HUMAN POTENTIAL DEVELOPMENT**



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## A goal of the Conference

The conference builds on its twelve-year tradition and continues not only in tradition but also an established quality. The goal of the 13<sup>th</sup> International Scientific Conference is of international scientific conference is knowledge exchange in the area of intentional human potential development and confrontation of the newest theoretical assumptions and actual conditions of the practice, focused on the need to change approaches to the forming, motivation and development of value-creating power of the organization – employees and managers.

## Orientation of the Conference

- ❖ ***general issues of the human potential utilization and development*** (strategic management, international human resource management, human potential, social responsibility of business, ethics in the human potential development, higher education management, organizational culture, life-long learning and career, employer branding, work performance management, balance of the work and non-working life, flexible organization and flexible employment, personnel marketing, HR audit, HR controlling, modern forms of communication, the current ergonomics and environmental situation in organizations, safety at work);
  - ❖ ***new challenges in the development of human potential and human resources management*** (confrontation of human potential and human capital, creating added value through people, the possibility of human potential measurement and appraisal, investment in human potential or capital, leadership, competence management, motivation of human potential, social media and information-communication technology in the human potential development, human potential and human resources in an era of recovering from global recession and social crisis);
  - ❖ ***innovative models and practical approaches in area of human potential/human resource management and creativeness development*** (transfer of innovative models of human potential/resource management, culture of creativeness in the organization, wide approaches to talent management and creativeness development, age management, knowledge management, diversity management, value management, strategic workforce planning in regions, competencies of managers and employees in public administration, innovation in human potential development strategies, social innovations in human potential development and regional development).
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- ❖ ***Web Conference presentation:*** <http://frcatel.fri.uniza.sk/hrme/ConfHPM/index.html>
  - ❖ ***Overarching scientific project:*** VEGA 1/0890/14 Stochastic Modeling of Decision-making Processes in Motivating Human Potential.

## Conference quality assurance:

*All papers were reviewed by two unbiased reviewers and Conference Editorial Committee.*

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## STOCHASTIC INFLUENCES IN DECISION TAKING ON MOTIVATING HUMAN POTENTIAL

RUDOLF BLAŠKO, ALEŠ KOZUBÍK

### Abstract

Motivation and motivating the human potential are endless processes that these ones are still being evolved and affected by a lot of various factors. In the questionnaire survey conducted from November 2015 to February 2016, which was attended by 2,626 respondents of Slovak organizations, were examined motivational factors that influence the process of motivating employees. Twelve motivators were searched, as follows: F1 – personal bonuses and rewards; F2 – expressing of praise; F3 – interest on employees' opinions and suggestions; F4 – enabling the career growth; F5 – opportunity for education and training activities; F6 – involving into the decision-making; F7 – providing the necessary information; F8 – building good relations and atmosphere; F9 – providing space for self-reliance; F10 – fairness of superior; F11 – awareness on appraisal/evaluation criteria; F12 – application of threats and sanctions. In the paper, the attentions is devoted to the evaluation of mutual dependences and stochastic (probability) influences among these motivational factors. Part 3 (Results) presents in more details the stochastic effects, i.e. the probability which the effectiveness of motivators F1, F8, F10 and F12 changes/does not change in accordance with increasing age with. Testing took place among respondents divided into five age groups V1 (18–25 years), V2 (26–35 years), V3 (36–45 years), V4 (46–55 years), and V5 (56–68 years). The effects between each pair of these age groups were investigated. The results confirm that in the group of the younger respondents, the surveyed efficiency of motivators is changed often. On the other hand, in the group of middle-aged respondents (ages V4 and V5), the efficiency of the examined motivators is very probably stabilized.

**Key words:** decision taking, motivation, survey, employees, statistics, stochastics, probability.

**Classification JEL:** M12 – Personnel Management.

### 1. Introduction

Motivation can be defined as a need or desire that energizes and directs behavior (*Myers, 2013*). The study of motivation has been influenced by various psychological theories. Each of these theories states different sources of motivational needs, and each have certain drawbacks. Motivation explains why people select a particular activity, how long they are willing to persist in it, and what effort they invest in it (*Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011*). However, workplace motivation is a complex issue. Motivation is a very individual and multifaceted concept. In addition, within the workplace, leaders may have direct influence and control over some motivating factors and none over others.

The motivating factors one can define as the drivers of human behavior related to the intrinsic nature of the work, but not necessarily to the surrounding circumstances or the environment. Motivating factors include achievement, advancement, autonomy, personal growth, recognition, responsibility, and the work itself. Each employee has a different set of factors that motivates him to do his best work. Business owners need to understand what the motivations of workers are in order to effectively manage and grow a business that has the full support of their employees.

The nature of work motivation and how it will change over time are often implicit assumptions in the models. (*Latham, 2006*) has showed that age is a factor that has an effect on work motivation. Empirical research concerned in the motivational theories has mostly been focused on young people and the factor age has played a marginal role in these studies (*Latham & Steele, 1983; Locke & Latham, 2002*). Here are some studies that have identified age as an independent variable (*see e.g. Eskildsen, Kristensen & Westlund, 2004; Lord & Farrington, 2006*).



Of course, continuously with the changes of the age we can observe changes in the needs and values of the people, changes in the effects on goal setting or development of skills. All this leads to the evolution of the efficiency of the motivation factors, which is conditioned by the age. As the strength of the single motivation factors can be considered like as the random variable, their time-dependent analysis enables analyze their *stochastic behavior*.

Stochastic in general means to be a random nature. The random component is usually represented by one or a set of random variables. A stochastic model is then a mathematical representation of a system that enables estimating the probabilistic behavior of potential results. Distributions of potential outcomes are derived from a large number of observations which reflect the random variation in the input(s). The primary *aim of this paper* is to detect the independent motivation factors among the given set of factors increasing the motivation and as well inspect the effect of the aging on their probabilistic behavior.

## 2. Methodology

Authors of this paper cooperate in resolving a scientific project that seeks to identify the various factors and tools influencing the people motivation to improved and better quality work and analyze patterns and also random factors influencing the motivation of employees as well managers. The project leader (Associate Professor Martina Blašková) already fifteen years ago began to develop a methodology to explore the process of motivating people which includes a questionnaire examining their motivation.<sup>1</sup> Based on the above questionnaire, in the winter 2015/2016 projects investigators have conducted the survey in Slovak (manufacturing and non-manufacturing) organizations. The survey covered 2,626 respondents of which 1,084 (41.28%) male and 1,542 (58.72%) female. The average age was 34.62 years for male and 33.57 for female. The youngest respondent was 18 and the oldest was 68 years. Of all respondents, there were 559 (21.29%) managers (285 male and 274 female) with a mean age of 37.35 years, and 2,067 (78.71%) ordinary employees (799 male and 1,268 female) with a mean age of 33.88 years. The structure of respondents by age, experience, and education is in Table 1.

Table 1. Identification of respondents (N = 2,626) in Slovak Republic (own study)

Attribute										
Education	Secondary vocational		Secondary general		Higher education		PhD.			
	Total	%	Total	%	Total	%	Total	%		
	254	9.67	886	33.74	1 466	55.83	20	0.76		
Age in years	< 26		26 – 35		36 – 45		46 – 55		55 <	
	Total	%	Total	%	Total	%	Total	%	Total	%
	779	29.66	714	27.19	623	23.72	394	15.00	116	4.42
Length of experience in years	< 6		6 – 15		16 – 25		25 <			
	Total	%	Total	%	Total	%	Total	%		
	1 103	42.00	699	26.62	450	17.14	374	14.24		

In order to obtain redundant data, two different types of questionnaires were distributed among the employees. One type was for the employees on the standard positions and the second one was addressed to the employees on the managerial and higher managerial level.

<sup>1</sup> Based on the above questionnaire, several surveys were performed in Slovak Republic, Poland and Lithuania (2004, 2007, 2011 and 2014; in any survey of more than 2,500 respondents have participated). The questionnaire did not change in these surveys practically, there were modified only some of the issues (possibilities for answering put questions) on the base of collected facts and in light of current social and economic situation.





Beside some personal information about age, sex, highest educational level, the length of practice etc., the respondents answered also the following question about the single motivation factors. Table 2 shows the survey question concerning the effectiveness of motivational tools that are applied to the respondents by their superiors. Particular motivational factors are labeled by abbreviations F1 through F12 for clarity on later Tables presenting the obtained results.

Table 2. Searched motivational factors (own study)

'Please assign on a scale from 1 – 10 the effectiveness of each motivational tool applied towards you (10 points maximally effective motivator; 1 point ineffective motivator)'	
Number of factor	Motivational factor (motivator)
F1	Personal bonuses and rewards
F2	Expressing of praise
F3	Expressions of interest for your opinions and suggestions
F4	Enabling of the career growth
F5	The opportunity to participate in educational activities
F6	Involving employees in decision-making
F7	Providing the necessary information
F8	Creating good relations and atmosphere
F9	Providing space for your self-reliance
F10	Fairness of superior and top management
F11	Awareness on criteria for evaluating your work performance
F12	Application of threats and sanctions

As the first step of the statistical analysis we had to test the independence of all pairs created from the given factors F1 – F12. That led to computation of 66 statistics for the Pearson's chi-squared test (see e.g. Anděl, 2007). Each observation is allocated to one cell of a two-dimensional array of cells (called a contingency table) according to the values of the two outcomes. The corresponding  $\chi^2$ -statistics are then given by formula

$$\chi^2 = \sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^m \frac{(n_{ij} - N \cdot p_{ij})^2}{N \cdot p_{ij}}$$

where

$n_{ij}$  is the number of observations of the values  $i$  of the first factor and value of  $j$  for the second factor;

$m$  is the number of the possible values of the factors, which is in our case the same  $m = 10$ ;

$N$  is the total sample size (the sum of all cells in the Table);

$p_{ij}$  are the estimates of the probabilities, that the independent factors achieve the values  $i$  and  $j$ .

The estimates  $p_{ij}$  are stated as follows: Let  $n_i = \sum_{j=1}^m n_{ij}$  and  $n_j = \sum_{i=1}^m n_{ij}$  represent the row and column sums of the contingency table. We define  $p_i = \frac{n_i}{N}$  and  $p_j = \frac{n_j}{N}$ . Since we require the independence of the observed random variables, we define  $p_{ij} = p_i \cdot p_j$ . Now, if the zero hypothesis  $H_0$ : 'The random variables are independent'. Is valid, then the variable  $\chi^2$  has the chi-squared distribution with  $(m - 1) \cdot (m - 1)$  degrees of freedom.

Once we have analyzed the dependencies among the motivators, we are ready to accede to the studying the aging impact on the efficiency of the motivation factors. The answers from the questionnaire enable to analyze the aspect of the physical age in years. In order to keep the samples sufficiently large, the respondents have been divided into groups by decades. Only the



boundary interval from 18 to 25 years of the physical age was shorted to 7 years and boundary interval from 56 to 68 years of the physical age was lengthen to 12 years.

The homogeneity tests have been applied to compare the probability distributions of the motivators' efficiency for different age groups. Having the frequencies  $n_{i1}, \dots, n_{im}$ , of the motivation efficiency of the  $i$ -th age group, where  $i = 1, \dots, 5$ , we can test the homogeneity null hypothesis which states that the theoretical probabilities  $p_{i1}, \dots, p_{im}$ , do not depend on the row index  $i$ .

According to Anděl (2007), the testing statistics has the form:

$$\chi^2 = N \sum_{i=1}^r \sum_{j=1}^c \frac{n_{ij}^2}{n_i \cdot n_j} - N$$

where

$n_{ij}$  is the number of observations of the value  $j$  of the selected factor in the  $i$ -th age group;

$r$  is the number of the age groups, in our case  $r = 5$ ;

$c$  is the number of possible values of the factor, in our case  $c=10$ ;

$n_i = \sum_{j=1}^c n_{ij}$  is the row sum of the Table;

$n_j = \sum_{i=1}^r n_{ij}$  is the column sum of the Table;

$N$  is the total sample size (the sum of all cells in the Table).

This statistic has again the chi-square distribution with  $(r - 1) \cdot (c - 1)$  degrees of freedom (in our case we have  $4 \cdot 9 = 36$  degrees of freedom).

Alternatively the difference of two distributions can be tested by Kolmogorov-Smirnov test. It works with the empirical cumulative distributions functions, which are defined by formula:

$$F(x) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i < x} n_i,$$

where

$n_i$  are frequencies of the value  $i$ , of the given factor;

$n$  is the sample size.

In this case, the Kolmogorov-Smirnov statistic has form:

$$D_{m,n} = \sup_x |F_m(x) - F_n(x)|,$$

where

$F_m(x)$  and  $F_n(x)$  are empirical cumulative distribution functions;

$m$  and  $n$  are the the sample sizes.

As the sample was relatively large, the critical values at the confidence level  $\alpha$  for the testing statistic were stated according to (Anděl, 2007) in the form:

$$D_{m,n}^*(\alpha) = \sqrt{\frac{m+n}{2mn} \cdot \frac{\ln 2}{\alpha}}.$$

### 3. Results

As mentioned earlier, using the chi squared test, we examined the interdependencies between the various factors F1 to F12 for all respondents, and for male and/versus female separately. All testing was performed by using our own programs and Open Source R. For the illustration, Table 3 shows given input data to a pair of factors F1 and F2 (data in the  $i$ -th row and  $j$ -th column is the number of respondents who assigned the value  $i$  to factor F1 and value of  $j$  to the factor F2). As we expected, all motivators were highly dependent; confidence level was in all cases of pairs less than 0.00005. Greater than this value was the level of confidence only in males in pairs F2 and F12 (0.0015), F3 and F12 (0.017), F9 and F12 (0.014); and for females in pairs F2 and F12 (0.001), F3 and F12 (0.01), F8 and F12 (0.0195). This means that with a high probability (the lowest value is at a pair F3 and F12 in female: a probability of



$1 - 0.01 = 0.99$ , i.e. 99%) we cannot not reject the hypothesis: ‘Mentioned factors are dependent’ and therefore nor to confirm an alternative hypothesis: ‘Mentioned factors are not dependent’. Furthermore, it suggests that these factors have a great impact on the motivation of respondents and are not independent/separate factors but act together as a complex.

These facts were verified by us with using another test: Welch Two Sample t-test of the mean value. With this test we also tested each pair of motivating factors for all respondents and also for male and female.

*Table 3. Input data for pairs of factors F1 (personal bonuses and rewards) and F2 (expressing of praise); (data in the i-th row and j-th column expresses the number of respondents who assigned the value i to factor F1 and value of j to the factor F2) for chi-squared test (own study)*

F1 \ F2	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1	24	9	6	2	12	3	4	5	2	15
2	2	9	11	0	8	5	1	2	1	4
3	6	4	4	2	10	4	5	4	0	9
4	3	2	7	3	5	7	6	4	3	6
5	6	8	18	17	58	48	25	37	8	48
6	6	1	6	10	21	20	27	22	6	17
7	3	4	3	5	31	28	34	44	21	33
8	5	5	9	14	44	52	69	79	29	62
9	3	4	4	7	24	19	34	74	45	66
10	22	17	35	21	140	49	82	214	169	395

In the following, the respondents were divided into five age groups (their proportions are in Table 4). Subsequently, we applied the two-sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov’ test for determining if the probability distribution of the motivation efficiency in the particular factors is changed in these groups by age. Table 5 presents the basic statistical characteristics of individual motivational factors F1 to F12 according to age groups.

*Table 4. Age of respondents in years (own study)*

	< 26		26 – 35		36 – 45		46 – 55		55 <		Summary	
	Total	%	Total	%	Total	%	Total	%	Total	%	Total	%
<b>All</b>	779	29.66	714	27.19	623	23.72	394	15.00	116	4.42	2 626	100.00
<b>Male</b>	268	24.72	300	27.68	258	23.80	188	17.34	70	6.46	1 084	100.00
<b>Female</b>	511	33.14	414	26.85	365	23.67	206	13.36	46	2.98	1 542	100.00

*Table 5. Basic statistical characteristics (mean, median, upper and lower quartile) of individual motivational factors F1 to F12 according to age group (own study)*

	F1	F2	F3	F4	F5	F6	F7	F8	F9	F10	F11	F12
<b>Mean</b>	8.01	7.24	7.23	7.13	5.84	5.83	6.72	7.77	7.27	8.09	6.72	3.80
<b>Upper quartile</b>	10.00	9.00	9.00	9.00	8.00	8.00	9.00	10.00	9.00	10.00	9.00	6.00
<b>Median</b>	9.00	8.00	8.00	8.00	6.00	6.00	7.00	8.00	8.00	9.00	7.00	3.00
<b>Lower quartile</b>	7.00	5.00	6.00	5.00	4.00	4.00	5.00	6.00	6.00	7.00	5.00	1.00

Because of graphics complexity, we present the results of testing when using two-sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov test only in a case of three factors with the highest values attributed by the respondents: personal bonuses and rewards (F1); creating good relations and atmosphere



(F8); and fairness of superior and top management (F10); as well the factor with the least efficiency (values): application of threat and sanctions (F12). In all cases, we tested the hypothesis: ‘In the age range  $V_i$ , the mean value of that motivation factor of respondents is the same as in the age interval  $V_j$ ’, while the alternative hypothesis was its negation. In Table 6, 7, 8 and 9, just on the left, the basic statistical characteristics are gradually presented for the age intervals V1 (18 to 25 years), V2 (26 to 35 years), V3 (36 to 45 years), V4 (46 to 55 years), and V5 (56 to 68 years). In Tables on the right, there are presented the calculated probability that the examined hypothesis is true.

*Table 6. The probability how is the efficiency of factor F1 (personal bonuses and rewards) changed for the age ranges V1 to V5 Sample characteristics of the factor F1 and confidence levels of rejecting the hypothesis that the mean efficiency remains the same among the age ranges V1 to V5 (own study)*

	all	V1	V2	V3	V4	V5	$V_i \setminus V_j$ [%]	V1	V2	V3	V4	V5
<b>Mean</b>	8.01	7.98	8.06	7.98	8.16	7.48	<b>V1 18–25</b>	–	48.32	5.14	78.06	92.47
<b>Upper q.</b>	10.00	10.00	10.00	10.00	10.00	10.00	<b>V2 26–35</b>	48.32	–	41.54	51.00	96.03
<b>Median</b>	9.00	9.00	9.00	9.00	9.00	8.00	<b>V3 36–45</b>	5.14	41.54	–	73.98	92.59
<b>Lower q.</b>	7.00	7.00	7.00	6.00	7.00	5.00	<b>V4 46–55</b>	78.06	51.00	73.98	–	97.98
							<b>V5 56–68</b>	92.47	96.03	92.59	97.98	–

As we can see from Table 6, the probability, that the efficiency of the motivator F1 (personal bonuses and rewards) is the same, changes with the age of respondents. The probability that it will be the same in the groups V1–V2 is 48.32%, and in group V2–V3 is 41.54%, but in the groups V1–V3 is only 5.14%. Data adjacent to the main diagonal reflect the probability of such changes of the value efficiency of motivational factors in the next stage of life (in this case, it is 48.32% for the V1–V2; 41.54% for the V2–V3; 73.98% for the V3–V4; and 97.98% for the V4–V5). As seen, with the increasing age, the probability increases that the value of the factor efficiency will not be changed.

*Table 7. The probability how is the efficiency of factor F8 (good relations and atmosphere) changing for age ranges V1 to V5 Sample characteristics of the factor F8 and confidence levels of rejecting the hypothesis that the mean efficiency remains the same among the age ranges V1 to V5 (own study)*

	all	V1	V2	V3	V4	V5	$V_i \setminus V_j$ [%]	V1	V2	V3	V4	V5
<b>Mean</b>	7.77	7.69	7.67	7.96	7.75	8.11	<b>V1 18–25</b>	–	18.02	97.85	30.63	95.99
<b>Upper q.</b>	10.00	10.00	10.00	10.00	10.00	10.00	<b>V2 26–35</b>	18.02	–	98.52	42.72	96.86
<b>Median</b>	8.00	8.00	8.00	8.00	8.00	8.00	<b>V3 36–45</b>	97.85	98.52	–	85.35	55.07
<b>Lower q.</b>	6.00	6.00	6.00	7.00	6.00	7.00	<b>V4 46–55</b>	30.63	42.72	85.35	–	90.09
							<b>V5 56–68</b>	95.99	96.86	55.07	90.09	–

*Table 8. The probability how is the efficiency of factor F10 (fairness of superior) changing for age ranges V1 to V5 Sample characteristics of the factor F10 and confidence levels of rejecting the hypothesis that the mean efficiency remains the same among the age ranges V1 to V5 (own study)*

	all	V1	V2	V3	V4	V5	$V_i \setminus V_j$ [%]	V1	V2	V3	V4	V5
<b>Mean</b>	8.09	7.97	8.13	8.19	8.04	8.36	<b>V1 18–25</b>	–	83.24	94.86	36.45	94.56
<b>Upper q.</b>	10.00	10.00	10.00	10.00	10.00	10.00	<b>V2 26–35</b>	83.24	–	46.63	44.10	76.31
<b>Median</b>	9.00	8.00	9.00	9.00	9.00	9.00	<b>V3 36–45</b>	94.86	46.63	–	71.27	58.36
<b>Lower q.</b>	7.00	7.00	7.00	7.00	7.00	8.00	<b>V4 46–55</b>	36.45	44.10	71.27	–	85.56
							<b>V5 56–68</b>	94.56	76.31	58.36	85.56	–



For factor F8 (good relations and atmosphere), the probability that the factor efficiency does not change, is relatively high. It is relatively low only in groups V1–V2. In the case of factor F10 (fairness of superiors), the probability is high too; the lowest is in groups V2–V3.

When searching the factor F12 (threat and sanctions), the probability is a relatively high the value of the efficiency factor does not change. Its value decreases in relation to the age group V5 and the lowest is for the relationship V4–V5.

Table 9. The probability how is the efficiency of factor F12 (threats and sanctions) changing for age ranges V1 to V5 Sample characteristics of the factor F12 and confidence levels of rejecting the hypothesis that the mean efficiency remains the same among the age ranges V1 to V5 (own study)

	all	V1	V2	V3	V4	V5	$V_i \setminus V_j$ [%]	V1	V2	V3	V4	V5
Mean	3.80	4.15	3.98	3.33	3.63	3.48	V1 18–25	–	77.09	100.0	99.67	98.77
Upper q.	6.00	6.00	6.00	5.00	6.00	5.00	V2 26–35	77.09	–	100.0	94.41	93.39
Median	3.00	4.00	3.00	2.00	2.00	2.50	V3 36–45	100.0	100.0	–	89.21	42.95
Lower q.	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	V4 46–55	99.67	94.41	89.21	–	38.66
							V5 56–68	98.77	93.39	42.95	38.66	–

#### 4. Conclusion

All tests, performed in our searching, proved the investigated motivational factors are very important in/for the process of motivating employees and managers, they mutually interact, and influence one another with high probability. These factors should be seen as a whole, and managers should seek to apply all of them to a reasonable extent. Personal bonuses and rewards, i.e. financial charges (F1) are still one of the most efficient factors but very important are also the good relations in the workplace (F8) and fairness of the superior (F10). Bonuses and rewards shows the highest values of the statistical characteristics. The threats and sanctions (F12) are the least efficient motivators; although the chi-squared test and also Welch Two Sample t-Test of mean value have found that all pairs of the above factors are dependent with at least 99% probability. This means the mentioned factors are in some (conscious or subconscious) relationship for the individuals.

The probability is also changing the efficiency value of the investigated motivators F1 (financial rewards), F8 (good relations), F10 (fairness of superiors) and F12 (threats and sanctions) is the same in the age interval V1 (18 to 25 years), V2 (26 to 35 years), V3 (36 to 45 years), V4 (46 to 55 years) and V5 (56 to 68 years). The probability of efficiency non-changing is the highest in the age groups V4 and V5, i.e. in people aged over 45, respectively 55. An exception is the factor F12 (threats and sanctions) where this probability is rather low. It may be associated with the age and experience, with a sense of security, resp. insecurity with regards to the future, the possibility of losing their jobs, or the prospect of impending retirement.

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## JAKOŚĆ ŻYCIA DETERMINANTĄ KOMPLEKSOWEJ SATYSFAKCJI PROSUMENTÓW

### Quality of Life as a Determinant of the Comprehensive Satisfaction of Patients

BENEDYKT BOBER

#### Abstract

This paper presents the issue of quality of life from the perspective of the broader medicine. The recent increased interest in research on quality of life is due to dissatisfaction with the current performance assessment criteria processes to provide medical services, as well as their economic aspects as a whole. The question is discussed whether the evaluation of quality of life does provide a sufficient information on what domains of life are considered as the worst. The paper therefore contains a theoretical analysis of searched topic. When evaluating the quality of patient's life, it is needed to respect very important fact: this evaluation would be made in two points of view, i.t. objective as well as subjective. The paper is concluded by recommendation to provide the support and build effective channels of communication and cooperation with dealt subjects of medical services.

**Key words:** jakość życia, zdrowie, satysfakcja zdrowotna, kwestionariusze badawcze.

**Classification JEL:** I3 – Welfare, Well-Being, and Poverty; I11 – Analysis of Health Care Markets.

### 1. Wprowadzenie

Historia zainteresowań nad zagadnieniem jakości życia sięga już starożytności. Teorie Heraklita skłaniały do udoskonalania życia oraz sprawiania aby stało się ono przyjemniejsze, Demokryt uważał zadowolenie jako najwyższe dobro a rozum miał być środkiem do pozyskania szczęścia. Natomiast Sokrates szczęście upatrywał w cnocie, która w jego rozumowaniu oznaczała tężyznę, sprawność oraz wiedzę. Platon zdefiniował pojęcie jakości uznając ją za pewien stopień doskonałości (*Wójcik, Kurjanowicz & Bidacha, 2007, s. 31–38*). Zdaniem Arystotelesa jakość życia to dobre samopoczucie, doskonałość jednostki oraz realizowanie celów. Według Hipokratesa szczęście to umiejętność osiągnięcia równowagi wewnętrznej (*Sokolnicka 2003, s. 126–128*).

Ostatnie lata wykazują rosnące zainteresowanie w praktyce medycznej oceną jakości życia uwarunkowaną stanem zdrowia – health – related quality of life (HRQOL). Wynika to między innymi z przyjęcia modelu medycyny holistycznej, zakładającej całościowe podejście do prosumenta. W takim ujęciu traktowany jest on jako jedność bio-psycho-społeczna, która otrzymuje informacje w istotnych dla niego dziedzinach (element oceny efektywności procesu świadczenia usług medycznych oraz redukcji asymetrii informacyjnej). Badanie jakości życia pozwala również na dostosowanie procesu świadczonych usług do jego potrzeb. Ponieważ celem jest nie tylko przedłużanie życia, ale też poprawa samopoczucia oraz maksymalna poprawa samodzielności w czynnościach życia codziennego.

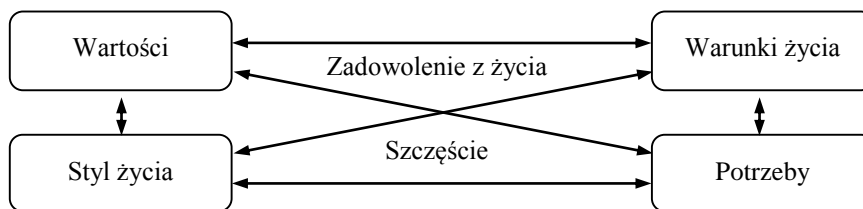
Jakość życia to bardzo złożona kategoria o trudnym do określenia zakresie. B. Poskrobko wskazuje, że jakość życia (powiązana ze szczęściem oraz zadowoleniem z życia) powinna być traktowana jako relacja między wartościami, stylem życia, potrzebami i warunkami życia (*Poskrobko 2007, s. 13*), (rys. 1).

Każdy z wymienionych elementów jakości życia ma swój wymiar obiektywny, ale jej ocena zależy od subiektywnego systemu wartości oraz odczuć, co do stopnia zaspokojenia własnych potrzeb oraz aspiracji prosumenta. Jakość życia może być rozumiana jako kategoria przeciwstawna ilości oraz jako pewna własność doznawana za pomocą zmysłów. To dualne



zdaniem T. Borysa (*Borys 2000*), s. 34) podejście powoduje, że w badaniach nad jakością życia należy uwzględniać następujące wymiary jakości:

- Komparatywny, oceniający, wartościujący (poziom jakości życia);
- Deskryptywny, opisowy (inna jakość życia, różne jakości życia).



Rys. 1. Elementy składowe jakości życia

(ewaluacja własna na podstawie: Poskrobko, B., 2007, *Ku ekonomii zrównoważonego rozwoju*, Białystok: Wyd. Ekonomia i Środowisko, s. 13)

Opisowa interpretacja jakości życia jest punktem wyjścia do formułowania pojęć pochodnych o charakterze oceniającym, tj. obiektywnej oraz subiektywnej jakości życia. Wyznacza również obszary obserwacji poprzez określanie zbioru cech oraz dziedzin (sfer, podzbiorów cech) wyznaczających globalną jakość życia (pełne pole obserwacji) i częściowe jakości życia (dziedzinowe pole obserwacji), a także tworzenia na tej podstawie syntetycznych lub zdezagregowanych (subsintetycznych lub jednowymiarowych) miar jakości życia (*Borys, 2001, s. 81*).

Trudno jest o jednoznaczne zdefiniowanie pojęcia jakości życia, ponieważ dla różnych prosumentów może być ona wyrazem odmiennych wartości. Jest również pojęciem odnoszącym się do licznych dziedzin m.in. do: medycyny, ekologii, socjologii, filozofii, co także jest przeszkodą w stworzeniu jednobrzmiącej definicji wiążącej wszystkie aspekty życia człowieka, wymuszając niejako tworzenie różnorodnych określeń zależnych od przyjętej dziedziny nauki.

W niniejszym opracowaniu przedstawiono problematykę jakości życia z perspektywy szeroko rozumianej medycyny. Obserwowany ostatnio wzrost zainteresowania badaniami nad jakością życia spowodowany jest niezadowoleniem z dotychczasowych kryteriów oceny wyników procesów świadczenia usług medycznych, a także ich ekonomicznych aspektów jako całości. Celem artykułu jest uzyskać odpowiedź na pytanie czy jest ocena jakości życia dostarczająca istotnych informacji, jakie domeny swojego życia w procesie świadczenia usług medycznych (które są w danym momencie dla niego najważniejsze), prosument ocenia najgorzej. Poznanie jego zdania umożliwia ustalenie priorytetów oraz preferencji determinujących procesy decyzyjne wielodyscyplinarnych zespołów. Kompleksowość procesu świadczonych usług medycznych oraz podmiotowość jest podstawą wzrostu jakości życia i satysfakcji zdrowotnej prosumentów.

Metoda: Analiza literatury przedmiotu, w której poszukiwano prawidłowości, ale także i różnic w kompleksowym definiowaniu jakości życia w obszarze medycyny (realizacji satysfakcji zdrowotnej prosumentów w procesach świadczenia usług medycznych). Jak wynika z przeprowadzonej kwerendy, badania jakości życia można przeprowadzać za pomocą różnorodnych technik: kwestionariusze oraz ankiety składają się z serii pytań oceniających objawy choroby, ich wpływ na różne sfery życia codziennego oraz ich wzajemne reakcje.

Dyskusja: W literaturze przedmiotu pojęcie jakości życia posiada wieloznaczność, wielowymiarowość oraz dodatkowo obok aspektu obiektywnego, aspekt subiektywny. Zdaniem B. Wojnarowskiej jakość życia to: „Zdolność do realizacji planów, stopień





zaspokojenia potrzeb materialnych i pozamaterialnych jednostek, rodzin i zbiorowości, pozytywną ogólną ocenę funkcjonowania, różnicę między nadziejami i oczekiwaniami a obecnymi doświadczeniami” (Wojnarowska, 2007, s. 41). Ostatnie lata wykazują rosnące zainteresowanie w praktyce medycznej oceną jakości życia uwarunkowaną stanem zdrowia – *Health related quality of life* (HRQL). W takim kontekście, jakość życia za cytowaną autorką można zdefiniować jako: „Zadowolenie jednostki z tego, jak funkcjonuje w sensie fizycznym, psychicznym i emocjonalnym, w relacjach rodzinnych i społecznych (...) wpływ, jaki ma stan zdrowia na zdolność jednostki do prowadzenia pełnego życia.”

Wnioski: Przeprowadzona kwerenda literatury przedmiotu wskazuje, iż podejmowane są próby opracowania definicji jakości życia w naukach medycznych obejmujące istotne domeny funkcjonowania prosumenta. Wniosek ten oparty jest na następujących przesłankach:

- Brak jest kompleksowej definicji jakości życia wobec obszaru kształtowania satysfakcji prosumentów będącego determinantą procesów decyzyjnych oraz wzrostu jakości świadczonych usług medycznych;
- Podmioty świadczące usługi medyczne rzadko podejmują wyzwanie budowy kompleksowych strategii oceny jakości życia prosumentów będącej spójną konfiguracją celów, procedur oraz programów umożliwiających pozyskiwanie satysfakcjonującego procesu wzajemnej komunikacji (redukcji asymetrii informacyjnej oraz ryzyka decyzyjnego).

W chwili obecnej warto zastanowić się również jak zapewnić im wsparcie i zbudować efektywne kanały komunikacji oraz współpracy z interesariuszami podmiotów świadczących usługi medyczne.

## 2. Próba zdefiniowania jakości życia

Jakość życia jest pojęciem bardzo szerokim, dlatego też pomimo wzrastającego zainteresowania jakością życia nie opracowano jednej, przyjmowanej przez wszystkich interesariuszy definicji. Początki klasyfikacji tego pojęcia można zauważyć już w czasach starożytnych. Hipokrates oraz Arystoteles próbowali dociec co jest fundamentem szczęśliwego oraz satysfakcjonującego życia. Hipokrates wyrażał szczęśliwe życie stanem wewnętrznej równowagi. Dla Arystotelesa natomiast było to dążenie do najwyższego osiągalnego dobra, które gwarantowało szczęście (Chrobak, 2009, s. 124–127). Natomiast według definicji WHO jakość życia: *To stan pełnego dobrobytu fizycznego, psychicznego i społecznego, a nie tylko nieobecność choroby*, gdzie każdy, bez względu na rasę, religię, przekonania polityczne, warunki ekonomiczne czy socjalne, ma prawo do najlepszego możliwego stanu zdrowia<sup>1</sup>.

Pojęcie jakości życia związanej ze stanem zdrowia – HRQOL wprowadził na początku lat 90-tych D. L. Patrick, D. H. Fenny oraz G. H. Guayaff. Przedmiotem ich rozważań była relacja stanu klinicznego chorego z wdrożonym procesem leczeniem oraz systemem opieki (jakość życia w poszczególnych chorobach i w zdrowiu), (Guyatt, Feeny & Patrick, 1993, s. 622–628). Prekursor badań nad jakością życia A. Campbell był podobnego zdania, ponadto uważał również, że jakość życia jest zależna od stopnia zaspokojenia w takich dziedzinach życia jak: rodzina, praca, zdrowie, znajomi, warunki mieszkaniowe oraz czas wolny jak i standard życia czy posiadane wykształcenie (Klimaszewska, Krajewska-Kulak & Kondzior, 2011, s. 47–54). J. C. Flanagan, zwrócił uwagę na fakt, iż sfery życia z góry określone mogą mieć różne znaczenie dla badanej osoby. Dlatego proponuje użycie wskaźnika wagi aby ocena jakości życia stała się obiektywna (Jaracz & Kozubski, 2008, s. 419–422).

Ocena HRQOL ukazuje subiektywne postrzeganie sytuacji życiowej uwarunkowanej stanem zdrowia z punktu widzenia prosumenta. Umożliwia również jego subiektywną ocenę opłacalności oraz wskazanie całkowitych korzyści, jakie uzyskuje na skutek danej procedury

<sup>1</sup> WHO (2006). Constitution of the World Health Organisation, suppl. Basic Documents, ed. 45



medycznej. Takich informacji nie da się uzyskać na podstawie analizy parametrów klinicznych czy wskaźników ogólnych. Poprawa tych parametrów i wskaźników nie zawsze oznacza lepszą samoocenę stanu zdrowia i samopoczucia przez pacjenta, a czasem nawet wyniki są sprzeczne, np. w przypadku wystąpienia działań niepożądanych leku.

Dlatego też R. Kolman określa jakość życia jako stopień zaspokajania potrzeb duchowych jak i materialnych człowieka oraz stopień zaspokajania wymagań codziennego życia jednostek i całego społeczeństwa (Kolman, 2007, s. 8–11). Z kolei T. Tomaszewski jest zdania, iż jakość życia można określić na podstawie kryteriów przyjętych ogólnie oraz jednakowych dla wszystkich np. bogactwo przeżyć, poziom świadomości czy aktywności oraz twórczość i współuczestnictwo w życiu społecznym. Im większe spełnienie tych kryteriów, tym wyższy jest poziom jakości życia (Sęk & Pasikowski, 2001, s. 17–29). Natomiast według koncepcji N. Cantor jakość życia jest zależna od tego czy i jak człowiek realizuje swoje życiowe zadania związane z potrzebami oraz jego możliwościami.

Na zadowolenie (jakość życia) składają się doświadczenia z realizacji zadań oraz porównywania siebie względem innych (Czapiński, 2000, s. 17–23). Znajduje to wyraz między innymi w badaniach L. Nordenfelta, gdzie negatywne oraz pozytywne przeżycia są odzwierciedleniem jakości życia. Prosument znajduje się pod stałym oddziaływaniem środowiska (fizycznego, kulturowego, psychospołecznego), co ogranicza jego możliwości, ponieważ jakość życia nie jest przez niego całkowicie determinowana. Zbiera on również doświadczenia tj. bodźce zmysłowe i emocjonalne wiążące się ze sferą przeżyciową. Autor uważa również, że to co on czuje jest bardziej istotne od stopnia zaspokajania potrzeb (Nordenfelt, 1993, s. 78–82).

Pojęcie jakości życia odnosi się również do obiektywnego jego wymiaru. Natomiast poczucie jakości życia jest związane z subiektywnym ustosunkowaniem się do rzeczywistości (Dziurawicz-Kozłowska, 2002, s. 77–99; Rasińska, 2010, s. 34). Jakość życia początkowo oznaczała dobre życie, poczucie zadowolenia, stopień pomyślności życiowej według potrzeb i możliwości chorego. Zdaniem S. Levina, jest to obszar życia ludzkiego, który jest dla niego ważny, jest indywidualnie postrzegany przez jednostkę, z jej pozycji życiowej (Olkiewicz, 2015a, s. 63–72) oraz systemu wartości, w odniesieniu do zadań, oczekiwań i wyznaczonych standardów uwarunkowanych środowiskowo (Levine, 1995, s. 7–13).

Reasumując, przeprowadzona analiza definicji jakości życia obejmuje niemalże wszystkie zjawiska psychologiczne, medyczne, pedagogiczne oraz socjologiczne, które związane są z oceną funkcjonowania człowieka (Trzebiatowski, 2011, s. 25–31). Dlatego też jakość życia jest zagadnieniem wieloznacznym a kompleksowa definicja uzależniona jest od perspektywy podmiotu analizującego określony problem (Rasińska & Nowakowska, 2013, s. 203–213).

### **3. Charakterystyka wybranych kwestionariuszy oceniających jakość życia**

Przeprowadzona kwerenda literatury przedmiotu (Haacke, Althaus & Spottke, 2006, s. 193–198; Jonsson, Lindgren & Hallstrom, 2005, s. 803–808; Nichols-Larsen, Clark & Zeringur, 2005, s. 1480–1484) wykazała, że jakość życia zależy od wielu czynników między innymi od wsparcia społecznego, zwłaszcza rodzinnego, sytuacji ekonomicznej, cech osobowości. Ocena ta składa się z elementów obiektywnych oraz subiektywnych. Łączy ona wiele istotnych dziedzin życia prosumenta, zależna jest od jego wcześniejszych doświadczeń oraz od indywidualnej umiejętności radzenia sobie w sytuacjach trudnych. Ponadto, ocena jakości życia pozwala nie tylko na oszacowanie wpływu choroby na jakość życia, ale także może mieć istotne znaczenie w wyborze optymalnych metod w procesach leczenia (Wołowicka, 2001, s. 3–41).

Na gruncie nauk medycznych używa się określenia jakości życia uwarunkowanej stanem zdrowia health – related quality of life (HRQL), które wprowadził H. Schipper (1990, s. 171–



185), zdefiniowanej jako funkcjonalny efekt choroby oraz procesu leczenia odbierany przez prosumenta.

Ocena obejmuje podstawowe obszary jego funkcjonowania (*Olkiewicz, 2015, s. 125–133*): stan fizyczny i sprawność ruchową, stan psychiczny, doznania somatyczne, sytuację społeczną oraz warunki ekonomiczne. Przeprowadzone badania przez A. H. Petermana oraz A. Celle, poszerzyły tę ocenę o zestaw czynników obejmujących również:

- Dobrostan fizyczny, w tym odczucia dolegliwości;
- Dobrostan funkcjonalny, wyrażający się zdolnością do uczestniczenia w codziennej aktywności związanej z pracą i odpoczynkiem;
- Dobrostan emocjonalny obejmujący pozytywne i negatywne stany uczuciowe;
- Zdolność do podtrzymywania relacji i kontaktów rodzinnych;
- Funkcjonowanie w rolach społecznych oraz satysfakcja z ich pełnienia;
- Satysfakcję z leczenia;
- Strefę intymności, obraz własnego ciała (*Peterman & Cella, 2000, s. 401–495*).

We współczesnej medycynie, badając jakość życia należy uwzględnić aspekt obiektywny oraz subiektywny. Z tego względu, że czysto techniczne, obiektywne badania przedmiotowe skupiają się głównie na ocenie wpływu terapii – kontrolę objawów oraz częstość występowania powikłań (*Wielgosz & Mroczkowski, 2011, s. 57*). Natomiast subiektywna jakość życia oceniana jest na podstawie pytań skierowanych do prosumenta zawartych w kwestionariuszach (*Dudzińska, Tarach & Nowakowski, 2011, s. 57–58*), oceniających jakość życia – *Quality of Life (QoL)*:

- *Kwestionariusze ogólne* – służą do badania HRQoL w szerokim zakresie, są stosowane u ludzi zdrowych i chorych z różnymi problemami zdrowotnymi. Ich zaletą jest to, że wyniki można porównywać w różnych grupach badanych. Narzędzia te służą do oceny negatywnego wpływu choroby na życie pacjenta, jego reakcji na leczenie oraz oceny korzyści stosowania różnych form terapii. Nie dają natomiast odpowiedzi na temat globalnej jakości życia pacjentów (*Papuć, 2011, s. 141–145*);
- *Kwestionariusze specyficzne* – mają węższe zastosowanie, dotyczą określonej grupy chorych, ale są bardziej czułe na zmiany stanu zdrowia. Dzielą się na specyficzne dla określonej choroby, przeznaczone do oceny HRQoL chorych z określonym schorzeniem, albo do oceny wpływu określonej grupy leków na jakość życia oraz na kwestionariusze specyficzne dla grupy chorób, które mogą być zastosowane w odniesieniu do badania grupy pacjentów chorujących na tę samą chorobę;
- *Kwestionariusze mieszane* – zawierają pewne elementy kwestionariusza ogólnego, ale są przeznaczone dla określonego schorzenia. Zaliczyć tu można kwestionariusze *ad hoc*, przygotowywane specjalnie do danego badania klinicznego i tylko w nim używane (*Jankowska-Polańska & Polański, 2014, s. 69–4*).

W zależności od zakresu pozyskanych informacji, wyróżnia się kwestionariusze ogólne mierzące jakość życia, w szerokim zakresie, opisując je pojęciem HRQOL.

Służą one do uzyskania profilu zdrowia (opis stanu zdrowia poprzez ocenę poszczególnych domen kwestionariusza) lub użyteczności stanu zdrowia (w zakresie od 0 do 1, która wskazuje, jak prosument ceni sobie dany stan zdrowia). Istotnym zadaniem badającego jest wybór pomiaru najbardziej efektywnego, przy zachowaniu precyzyjnych zamierzeń badawczych, krytycznej ocenie psychometrycznych właściwości narzędzia oraz poznania możliwości wykonania pomiaru. Natomiast kwestionariusze specyficzne, mogą odnosić się do:

- *Choroby*, np. choroby nowotworowe – kwestionariusz QOL-C30, Indeks Jakości Życia Spitzera – reumatoidalne zapalenie stawów, kwestionariusz AIMS 2 – Arthristis Impact Measurement Scale, choroby psychiczne – kwestionariusz QLI-MH – Quality of Life Index Mental Heath;



- *Danej funkcji* (np. zaburzenia funkcji lokomocyjnych – kwestionariusz Ferrenca i Pawers'a);
- *Konkretnego problemu* (chory diagnozowany – kwestionariusz Parfrey'a, Laupacisa),
- populacji.

Zaletą kwestionariuszy specyficznych jest możliwość dokładniejszej oceny objawów choroby. Ponadto lepiej odzwierciedlają zmiany HRQL niż kwestionariusze ogólne.

Wybór kwestionariusza jest więc bardzo istotnym elementem badania, ponieważ niewłaściwie dobrany kwestionariusz może nie wykazać zmian jakości życia, mimo że takie zmiany wystąpią. W zależności od celu badania, można wykorzystać kwestionariusz ogólny, specyficzny (zalecane jest stosowanie kwestionariusza specyficznego w połączeniu z ogólnym) lub tzw. baterię testów, czyli zestaw kilku kwestionariuszy. Jeśli nie jest dostępny gotowy kwestionariusz, można go stworzyć na potrzeby konkretnego badania (tzw. kwestionariusz „ad hoc”).

Ponieważ w kwestionariuszach różnym domenom przypisuje się różny wpływ na wynik końcowy, nie można więc porównywać wyników uzyskanych za pomocą różnych kwestionariuszy. Jeśli są dostępne, należy wykorzystywać kwestionariusze wystandaryzowane, tzn. takie, dla których istnieje ściśle określony schemat postępowania: kto ma przeprowadzać badanie (samodzielnie przez pacjenta, czytany przez ankietera, który zaznacza odpowiedzi, telefonicznie itp.), jakie są instrukcje dla ankietera i pacjenta, jak wygląda formularz, jak należy oceniać wyniki i jaka jest ich interpretacja. W kwestionariuszach mamy do czynienia z 3 rodzajami pytań:

- Pytania zamknięte – możliwe odpowiedzi to tylko tak/nie;
- Punktowe skale nominalne/analogowe – *nominal analogue scale* (NAS), gdzie odpowiedzi uszeregowane są najczęściej od najmniejszego do największego stopnia nasilenia;
- Wizualne skale analogowe – *visual analogue scale* (VAS) w postaci odcinka o określonej długości i ściśle zdefiniowanych punktach początkowym i końcowym (najczęściej zgon i stan pełnego zdrowia).

Kwestionariusze ogólne są więc bardziej uniwersalne, a wyniki można porównywać między różnymi populacjami, czego nie da się zrobić w przypadku kwestionariuszy specyficznych.

#### **4. Jednostki pomiaru użyteczności stanu zdrowia**

Najczęściej używaną miarą użyteczności jest – *quality-adjusted life year* (QALY), czyli rok życia skorygowany o jakość. Umożliwia ona ilościowe wyrażenie różnic między dwoma procedurami, których wynik wpływa na jakość życia, a nie tylko na długość życia; umożliwia też wykrycie różnic, jeśli oceniane programy wpływają jedynie na jakość życia, a nie na długość. QALY jest więc miarą różnic ilościowych i jakościowych między ocenianymi programami, może oznaczać: 1 rok życia spędzony przez 1 osobę w pełnym stanie zdrowia (którego użyteczność jest równa 1), i 2 lata spędzone przez 5 osób, których użyteczność stanu zdrowia wynosi 0,1. Oprócz QALY w ocenie użyteczności stosuje się:

- HYE – równoważnik roku życia przeżytego w pełnym zdrowiu (*healthy-years equivalent*);
- YHL (USA) – lata przeżyte w zdrowiu (*years of healthy life*);
- HALE (Kanada) – oczekiwana długość życia z uwzględnieniem stanu zdrowia (*Health-adjusted life expectancy*);
- HAPY (Kanada) – lata życia z uwzględnieniem stanu zdrowia (*health-adjusted person years*).



Kompleksowa ocena jakości życia powinna być oparta na jednoczesnym stosowaniu kwestionariusza ogólnego oraz specyficznego. Dokonując oceny jakości życia prosumenta należy zwrócić uwagę, aby pomiar ten odbył się w dwóch wymiarach: obiektywnym oraz subiektywnym (*Jankowska-Polańska & Polański, 2014, s. 69–74; Bak, Wojtuń, Gil & Dyrła, 2013, s. 552–554; Bąk-Drabik & Ziora, 2010, s. 4; Chrobak, 2009, s. 126*).

Do elementów, opisujących obiektywny poziom jakości życia zalicza się jego poziom materialny, zabezpieczenie finansowe, warunki socjalno-bytowe, warunki leczenia i prowadzenia terapii, aktywność społeczna, relaks i rekreacja. Ocena obiektywna obejmuje w związku z tym poziom funkcjonalny pacjenta, i dokonywana jest na podstawie różnicy pomiędzy zewnętrznie przyjętą normą, a istniejącym rzeczywistym stanem prosumenta (*Trzebiatowski, 2011, s. 25–31*). Subiektywny poziom jakości życia opiera się z kolei na poziomie zaspokojenia tzw. kryteriów wewnętrznych, czyli: poczucie bezpieczeństwa i wewnętrznego spokoju, realizacji życiowych marzeń i celów, stopnia samooceny, akceptacji społecznej, zaspokajania własnych ambicji

## 5. Dyskusja

Nieuchwytność pojęcia „jakość życia” i tym samym trudność jego sprecyzowania jest podkreślana przez wielu autorów (*Romney, Jenkins & Bynner 1992, s. 165–167; Bowling, 1995, s. 1447–1462*). W niniejszych rozważaniach przyjęto, że jakość życia powinna być rozumiana nie tylko przez dobre samopoczucie, ale także jako zdolność do dalszego funkcjonowania w różnych obszarach życia. Do obiektywnej oceny stanu zdrowia służą określone wskaźniki biomedyczne. Natomiast na postrzeganie subiektywnego poziomu jakości życia przez prosumenta ma wpływ między innymi, indywidualna ocena objawów choroby, radzenie sobie z następstwami fizycznymi, psychicznymi oraz społecznymi. Ponadto należy uwzględnić jego osobowość, warunki środowiskowe: płeć, wiek, wykształcenie, status ekonomiczny oraz społeczny i wpływy kulturowe (*Cramer & Spilker, 1998, s. 44–49*). Zgodzić się zatem można z poglądem R. Kolmana (*Kolman 2000, s. 2*), że jakość życia to efekt połączenia zaspokojenia potrzeb duchowych oraz materialnych człowieka, wymagań pożądanego bytu oraz spokojnej działalności w dobrych warunkach społecznych. Zatem jakość życia jest zależna od styku kilku obszarów życia człowieka, w tym, co należy podkreślić w szczególności, od psychiki człowieka. Jest ona zmienna w czasie, a jej ocena może być uwarunkowana różnymi przyczynami.

Jakość życia w odniesieniu do życia ludzkiego opiera się na indywidualnych odczuciach oraz potrzebach prosumenta. Przyjmuje się, że jakość życia należy rozpatrywać wielopoziomowo na poziomie czynników wpływających na zdrowie tj. fizjologicznych, psychologicznych i społecznych (*Wójcik, Kurjanowicz & Bidacha, 2007, s. 31–38*). Współczesna medycyna (proces świadczenia usług medycznych) dąży do przywrócenia zaburzonych funkcji organizmu obejmując go kompleksową, holistyczną opieką. Dlatego też ocena jakości życia pozwala na oszacowanie wpływu choroby na jakość życia co ma istotne znaczenie w dobraniu odpowiednich metod leczenia (*Kochman, 2007, s. 242–248*). Prekursorem badań nad jakością życia w medycynie była R. M. Rosser, która w swych badaniach, wykazała również, że istnieje ścisła zależność pomiędzy sposobem prowadzonego leczenia, a jakością życia pacjentów. Uzyskane wyniki przez A. Kubicz potwierdziły ścisłe powiązania pomiędzy wybraną metodą terapii, a zadowoleniem z życia prosumentów (*Wołowicka, 2001, s. 19*). Ponadto jakość życia można oceniać również jako efekt programu zdrowotnego, który teoretycznie może wpływać na jakość życia. Szczególne znaczenie ma ocena HRQOL w chorobach przewlekłych, które przebiegają dla prosumenta praktycznie bezobjawowo (np. nadciśnienie tętnicze), w chorobach, których leczenie związane jest z dużą ilością lub częstotliwością występowania działań niepożądanych (np. leczenie przeciwnowotworowe) czy w przypadkach, gdy trudno jest znaleźć inne parametry, za pomocą



których można ocenić daną procedurę (*Zygadło, 2005, s. 65*). Dlatego też dzięki wprowadzeniu pojęcia jakości życia do nauk medycznych, prosument staje się współuczestnikiem w procesie leczenia (*Chrobak, 2010, s. 1–2*). Jest to bardzo ważne z tego względu na to, że poszczególne miary użyteczności mają różne interpretacje, są szacowane w inny sposób, dlatego też należy zwracać uwagę przy wykorzystywaniu wyników wcześniej wykonanych badań (*Drummond, O'Brien, Stoddart & Torrance, 2003, s. 29–33*), w jakich jednostkach podane są wyniki oceny użyteczności.

Jakość życia jako kategoria ekonomiczna pojawiła się dopiero w drugiej połowie XXw. Ponadto kategoria ta, z powodu interdyscyplinarnego charakteru, pozwala na określenie wielowymiarowości samorealizacji człowieka w ramach zrównoważonego rozwoju. Nie jest łatwo odpowiedzieć na pytanie, jak mierzyć statystyczną jakość życia<sup>2</sup>. Kwerenda literatury przedmiotu wykazała również, że postrzeganie oraz opisywanie kryteriów oceny jakości życia może przybierać wiele form (*Kryk, 2012, s. 145–155; Borys, 2008, s. 24–40*). Z tego też względu kategoria jakości życia oraz problemy związane z jej statystycznym pomiarem stały się przedmiotem Raportu Stiglitz<sup>3</sup> obejmującego dwa wymiary: szeroko rozumiane warunki obiektywne oraz – często dotychczas pomijany w badaniach „statystyki oficjalnej” – dobrobyt subiektywny (subjective well-being). W ramach warunków obiektywnych powinny być brane pod uwagę m.in. takie domeny jak: materialne warunki życia, zdrowie, edukacja, aktywność ekonomiczna, czas wolny i relacje społeczne, osobiste bezpieczeństwo, jakość państwa i jego zdolność do zapewnienia podstawowych praw oraz sposób realizacji tych praw, a także jakość infrastruktury i środowiska naturalnego w miejscu zamieszkania. Pomiar dobrobytu subiektywnego powinien obejmować postrzeganą jakość życia, tzn. satysfakcję jaką czerpią ludzie z różnych jego aspektów oraz z życia jako całości, ale także elementy dotyczące samopoczucia psychicznego i odczuwanych stanów emocjonalnych.

Rozważając obiektywny i subiektywny wymiar jakości życia, można wskazać i podkreślić przesłanki, wyznaczające szczególnie ważną rolę aspektowi subiektywnemu. Po pierwsze, celem rozwoju społeczno-ekonomicznego jest satysfakcja czerpana przez ludzi z dokonującego się procesu przemian. Najbardziej adekwatnymi miernikami stopnia zadowolenia są oceny dokonywane bezpośrednio przez samych zainteresowanych. Po drugie, często bardzo trudne lub wręcz niemożliwe, jest dokonanie tzw. obiektywnego pomiaru wielu elementów składających się na jakość życia. Dotyczy to m.in. oceny stopnia zaspokojenia potrzeb wyższego rzędu, związanych np. z relacjami międzyludzkimi czy stylem życia. Po trzecie, wiedza o społecznym postrzeganiu warunków życia, stanach emocjonalnych i o satysfakcji społecznej może mieć duże znaczenie praktyczne w planowaniu konkretnych działań w zakresie polityki społeczno-ekonomicznej. Często bowiem to odczuwany – relatywizowany w stosunku do innych osób lub odnoszący się do przeszłości – a nie obiektywny poziom życia, decyduje o postawach i zachowaniach jednostek w sferze życia osobistego i publicznego.

Poczucie zbyt dużego dysonansu między odczuwanym poziomem zaspokojenia potrzeb a aspiracjami, generować może różnego rodzaju działania adaptacyjne<sup>4</sup>. W niniejszych

<sup>2</sup> Report by the Commission on the Measurement of Economic Performance and Social Progress (2009), <http://www.stiglitz-sen-fitoussi.fr/en/index.htm>; Measurement of the Quality of Life: TF3 Contribution to the summary report of the Sponsorship Group;

[http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/portal/page/portal/quality\\_life/publications](http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/portal/page/portal/quality_life/publications); Rozporządzenie PE i Rady 223/2009 z dnia 11 marca 2009 roku w sprawie statystyki europejskiej; Decyzja Komisji z dnia 21 kwietnia 1997 roku w sprawie roli Eurostatu w sporządzaniu statystyk Wspólnoty.

<sup>3</sup> Komisja pracująca pod kierunkiem kilku noblistów (Joseph Stiglitz, Amartya Sen, Daniel Kahneman, Kenneth Arrow & James Heckman) – raport z dnia 14 września 2009 r.

<sup>4</sup> Subjective well-being and social Policy (2010), Edited by Simon Chapple, European Commission Directorate-General for Employment, Social Affairs and Inclusion, <http://ec.europa.eu>; Szukielojć-Bieńkuńska A. & Walczak T. (2011). Statystyczny pomiar postępu społeczno-gospodarczego w zmieniającym się świecie, *Wiadomości Statystyczne* Vol. 7/8, Warszawa.



rozważaniach przyjęto zasadę oceny jakości życia przede wszystkim poprzez jej wymiar subiektywny. Rozważania skupiają się głównie na subiektywnej (postrzeganej przez daną osobę) jakości życia, rozumianej jako poziom satysfakcji, jaka czerpana jest z życia, zarówno widzianego jako całość, jak i w odniesieniu do poszczególnych jego aspektów. Dzięki bogatemu zakresowi tematycznemu przeprowadzonej kwerendy literaturowej, możliwe okazało się także przeanalizowanie udziału w kształtowaniu wymienionych zjawisk różnych czynników o charakterze materialnym i niematerialnym, w tym czynników dotyczących sfery obiektywnej jakości życia. Z tego też względu, ocena HRQOL przez samego pacjenta może być zupełnie inna niż lekarza czy nawet członka rodziny (*Felce & Perry, 1995, s. 51–74*).

Tradycyjna ocena efektów programów związanych ze zdrowiem opiera się na obiektywnych wskaźnikach, takich jak zmniejszenie śmiertelności czy poprawa parametrów klinicznych, które z punktu widzenia pacjenta nie zawsze są zauważalne. Bardziej istotne są subiektywne odczucia dotyczące jego stanu zdrowia, np. zmniejszenie poziomu bólu czy zmniejszenie poczucia wykluczenia ze społeczeństwa z powodu choroby.

Może się też zdarzyć, że na skutek stosowania określonych procedur (*Olkiewicz & Bober, 2015, s. 41–53*), mających udowodniony pozytywny wpływ na parametry kliniczne (np. leków), prosumenci gorzej ocenia swoje samopoczucie, zdolność funkcjonowania czy swoją sytuację ekonomiczną, co wpływa na podejmowane przez niego decyzje. Dlatego w medycynie coraz częściej, obok obiektywnych parametrów klinicznych, ocenia się wpływ terapii i choroby na jakość życia pacjenta, co pozwala uwzględnić w ocenie również jego punkt widzenia (*Jaeschke, 1999, s. 155–162*).

Jakość życia oparta na subiektywnych ocenach odnosi się do postrzegania zarówno obiektywnych realiów, jak i oceny własnych wewnętrznych odczuć. Zatem pełna subiektywna ocena jakości życia przez jednostki odbywa się na podstawie oceny warunków życia (tzw. infrastruktury), poziomu życia oceniającego stopień zaspokojenia potrzeb oraz subiektywnych ocen zadowolenia, satysfakcji z życia i poczucia szczęścia. Holistyczne podejście do prosumenta zawarte jest w rozważaniach A. Kłaka i in. (*Kłak, Mińko & Siwczyńska, 2012, s. 632–635*).

## 6. Podsumowanie

Reasumując, ocena jakości życia oznacza całościowe spojrzenie na problemy prosumenta, umacnia zdrowie w szerokim jego aspekcie. Ponadto dostarcza niezbędnych informacji o funkcjonowaniu w ważnych dla niego dziedzinach. Może być istotnym kryterium oceny efektywności procesu leczenia, daje wgląd w złożone problemy medyczne w zakresie zdrowia fizycznego jak i psychicznego oraz środowiska w którym on funkcjonuje. Ułatwia również zaplanowanie oraz zorganizowanie efektywnej doraźnej i długofalowej opieki zgodnie z przyjętymi zasadami etyki.

Poczucie koherencji (*spójność, trzymanie się razem, mieć oparcie*), jest jak to jak wyraziła H. Sęk: „Ogólne nastawienie, wyrażające trwałe i dynamiczne przekonanie o przewidywalności i racjonalności świata i własnego położenia życiowego” (*Sęk, 2003, s. 62*). Poczucie koherencji ma wpływ na stan zdrowia oraz dobre samopoczucie prosumentów na wiele sposobów. Podobnie poziom im wyższy poziom poczucia koherencji, tym większe są szanse na odzyskanie utraconych deficytów zdrowia, jego podtrzymanie lub rozwój pożądanego potencjału zdrowia. Przekonanie, że życie ma sens wpływa na niego pozytywnie, ułatwia przekształcenie stresu w wewnętrzną siłę. Dostarcza również podstaw do redukcji niekorzystnych dla zdrowia sytuacji. Ponadto determinuje wzrost odczuwalnego poziomu jakości życia oraz dopuszczalny poziom ryzyka w procesach świadczenia usług medycznych.

Wyniki oceny jakości życia mogą być analizowane dla konkretnego prosumenta lub grupy prosumentów. W przypadku oceny sytuacji zdrowotnej, badanie jakości życia u pojedynczego prosumenta umożliwia identyfikację aspektów życia szczególnie upośledzonych z powodu jego



stanu zdrowia oraz ocenę podejścia jego do własnego stanu zdrowia. Ocena jakości życia w określonej populacji może być wskaźnikiem stanu zdrowia tej populacji, może też służyć do oceny skuteczności oraz korzyści określonych programów zdrowotnych. Ponadto być determinantą procesu decyzyjnego w wyborze optymalnej alternatywy (procesów świadczenia usług medycznych) jak również w optymalizacji gospodarowania posiadanymi środkami finansowymi.

Dokonując oceny jakości życia prosumenta warto jest zwrócić uwagę, aby pomiar ten od był się w dwóch wymiarach: obiektywnym oraz subiektywnym. Do elementów, opisujących obiektywny poziom jakości życia zalicza się poziom materialny, zabezpieczenie finansowe, warunki socjalno-bytowe, warunki leczenia i prowadzenia terapii, aktywność społeczna, relaks i rekreacja. Ocena obiektywna obejmująca w związku z tym jego poziom funkcjonalny, i dokonywana jest na podstawie różnicy pomiędzy zewnętrznie przyjętą normą, a istniejącym rzeczywistym stanem prosumenta.

Subiektywny poziom jakości życia opiera się z kolei na poziomie zaspokojenia tzw. kryteriów wewnętrznych, czyli: poczucie bezpieczeństwa i wewnętrznego spokoju, realizacji życiowych marzeń i celów, stopnia samooceny, akceptacji społecznej, zaspokajania własnych ambicji. Realizowanie poszczególnych elementów, składających się na subiektywny wskaźnik jakości życia na odpowiednim poziomie, oraz stan emocjonalny, który towarzyszy pacjentowi podczas ich zaspokajania, pozwala na osiąganie optymalnego komfortu życia. Ponadto celem niniejszego opracowania było również pokazanie szerokiego spektrum zjawisk mogących wpłynąć na satysfakcjonujący poziom jakość życia. Pomimo tego autor ma świadomość, że wiele aspektów zostało pominiętych. Zabieg ten należy uznać za celowy, ponieważ podstawowym motywem opracowania było pokazanie różnorodności postaw oraz odmiennych punktów postrzegania poziomu jakości życia.

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# CONTRIBUTION TO THE THEORIES OF WORKING MOTIVATION/JOB ENGAGEMENT: HUMAN MIND MANIPULATION AS MANAGERIAL MOTIVATIONAL TOOL

MARIO BOGDANOVIĆ

## Abstract

The first aim of this paper is to indicate effective possibilities of achieving motivation by means of a number of manipulative strategies/techniques. The second aim of this paper is to discuss the ethical justification of application of manipulation strategies/techniques and the necessity of application of ethically friendly techniques. The third aim of this paper is to offer solutions for achieving ethically correct motivation techniques. The main method used in this paper is a method of personal and collective experience in collecting data on manipulations, analysis, synthesis, insight and reasoning. Paper results showed: a) In reality, there are numerous forms of manipulations of human mind that are used/can be used to achieve work motivation – are classified and explained in this paper; b) The resistance of some employee's to work hard (play the managerial motivational game) could be reduced by eliminating sense of injustice and manipulation and thus strengthen their motivation/engagement; c) By introducing of some non-manipulation techniques and thus creating ethical organizational climate and culture (e.g. the organizational transparency, increase of meaningfulness and justification in work manipulation, conscious resistance to manipulation, promotion of spiritual values of truth and proper behaviour – creation of the so-called atmosphere of psychological contract), decrease of resistance to managerial manipulative techniques is possible.

**Key words:** HRM, leadership, motivation management, motivation manipulation, new motivation theories, ethical management.

**Classification JEL:** M12 – Personnel Management; O15 – Human Resources, Human Development.

## 1. Introduction

To motivate other people primarily means to make such impression that they believe are working for their own good. Lack of employee engagement<sup>1</sup> is today key management and organizational problem. E.g. according Galup statistics who included sample of 300.000 companies 75% to 80% of employees were either 'disengaged' or 'actively disengaged' (*Galup study, 2008*). Also, Harris Interactive study of nearly 8.000 American workers found that only 20% of examinees feel very passionate about their jobs, less than 15% agree that they feel strongly energized by their work and only 31% strongly of moderately believe that their employer inspires the best in them (*Zienkiewich, 2008*). If we consider this data we can conclude that's an enormous waste of human resource potential. Also, from this empirical evidence we can derive some important questions:

1. Why the numerous existing and new motivation theories do not produce optimal job engagement, i.e. give enough work in the organizational practice?
2. Is this the problem of only bad managerial implementation of motivation techniques (knowledge) of existing motivation theories, or also one serious theoretical lack in human and working motivation explanation?
3. Why management cannot better control human working behaviour, and so produce optimal motivation, i.e. job engagement?

It can be assumed as hypothetical answer that there is one serious theoretical lack in known motivation theories explanation although until today we have numerous collections of older motivation theories (*Bauer & Erdogan, 2012; Beck, 2003; Wiley, 1997*) but also some new

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<sup>1</sup> Engaged employee's are those who are performing at top of their abilities and are happy about that (*Bauer & Erdogan, 2012*).



motivation explanation (Campbell, 2016; Ryan & Deci; 2012, 2000; Sejts & Crim, 2006; Sirota, Mishkind & Meltzer, 2005; Lawrence & Nohria 2002; Csikszentmihalyi, 1990). According to that state of the art it can be stated that the behavioural science (psychology) still not have the final formula/solution to achieve optimal control over human work behaviour, so there is also evident theoretical not only implementation/practice lack. Thus the main hypothesis could be (and with which operate this paper) that for maximal or optimal human motivation is crucial to *impress the people that they are working for their own good/interest*. If the people are not convinced that they are working for his own good/interest they will not work at their maximal optimal level, they will not be optimal motivated/engaged (cf. Sirota, Masking & Meltzer, 2005). Of course if the organizational reality shows us that engaged people in the great extent do not work for yourself, i.e. that they are mainly working for the others/manipulators goals (it can be management, organization, politic/social system or their main representatives) we have the fact of manipulation of human mind, i.e. manipulation as important managerial strategy in achieving specific behaviour i.e. human motivation, and we can talk about the control of human behaviour by means of manipulation techniques/strategies.

If such manipulated working people are maximal engaged and lucky about that, means that this manipulation (impression management) was successful (by empirical evidence of *Galup study 2008 & Zienkiewich, 2008*, approximately in 20% of employees who were very happy with their maximal job engagement, and by 80% of employee's was not engaged). So we can talk about the efficacy of manipulation of human (employee's) mind techniques/strategies to achieve maximal/optimal work motivation i.e. job engagement. So this theoretical approach could fulfil this gap in theory of working motivation and job engagement. Human mind control of people/employee's behaviour is more or less unpopular in all socio-economic systems as it indicates the exploitation of privileged layer that makes the state and the legal system at the expense (hard work) of underprivileged social groups. The economic history clearly showed that the most important resource that results in exceptional power and wealth is controlling of other human beings, i.e. achieving that other people work with enthusiasm for manipulator (elite) goals, of course without regard (considering) how the results of work are/will be distributed. The economic development through history meant hard (almost 'slavery') work of de-privileged social strata in many countries (Landes, 2003). To impress the hard working people that they work hard for higher purpose and mainly for their own interest is the main principle of hierarchy in social systems, power, wealth creation and distribution state and legal system (Bastaić & Krizman, 1976).

Manipulation as a term generally determines the human subordination to manipulator's goals as manipulative instrument for achieving one's goals. *Ideal manipulation* represents such instrumentalization in which manipulated thinks (has such impression) that he works for himself, for his own goals, and actually in main part works for manipulator and manipulator's goals. In fact, it's about influencing someone's behaviour (impression management), suggest someone to do something (consciously or unconsciously), out of a free zone, voluntary and/or conscious decision and/or outside the zone of full information and knowledge (symmetric information). Therefore, manipulation as term and tool (mean) has ethically negative connotation as it confronts the idea of free will, as one of top-level purposes of human existence, since neither goal in itself (ethically/valuable) is not separable from means of realization, especially if it occurred manipulative or involuntary, which is why the manipulation is increasingly seen as a behaviour that should be avoided because it is ethically controversial. Leading, directing, managerial control, and especially motivating often have characteristics of human mind manipulations, because it is assumed that for the effective achievement of goals (e.g. effective motivation) a certain indoctrination (ideology) is required, that can be effectively applied by human mind manipulations. But of course, from ethical point of view, none



indoctrination (socialization) is questionable and democratic decision-making of free minded, so in this sphere is often not desirable.

Delicate motivation feasibility situation presents not only theoretically ideal situation in which the owners/management and operative employee's act together in the same direction to achieve a common goal, assuming the goal identity on a relation between the owners/management and employee's. Very possible is the situation in which managers have their own goals that are somewhat or completely different from those of their organizations and employee's.<sup>2</sup> In these situations, the easiest way is to reach for manipulation techniques, to come up with the desired work or 'force' the desired behaviour (e.g. enthusiastic work-motivation where employees do not see clearly what real management intention is). A situation in which objectives of employee's are partly or totally different from owners/manager objectives is also very likely, resulting in specific behavioural response that can also be manipulative. In a battle for supremacy/power, manipulations are very often 'silent weapons for a quiet war', as is the international MNC policy 'a continuation of war by other means'. In general, manipulative behaviours (cheating, lying, deception, hypocrisy, 'spin' and management of stupidity) are not sustainable in a long term (permanent and above all people in an organization), and it is less applicable when intelligent, informed (educated) and liberalized are to be managed. Manipulative behaviours that are easily identified should be avoided in situations where intelligent and creative involvement of all employee's in organization (so called knowledge, or intelligent company) is needed, because they are immediately disclosed, that produces distrust and destroys unity (social arrangement becomes difficult) with negative behavioural responses, adverse to organizational efficacy. Therefore, in a situation of sufficient intelligence and information, manipulation becomes exposed or recognized sooner or later, resulting in reduced confidence and reduced willingness in organizational engagement (*cf. Adams, 2000*).

The basic goal of this paper is to list and classify manipulative strategies and techniques that have been observed in social and organizational world, especially viewing the sources of this subject, but also on the basis of personal and collective experiences in Croatia, and thus provide an answer to the question: How to achieve extraordinary work motivation?, enriching so theoretically the knowledge of motivation techniques/strategy who uses manipulations as main tool. In response, the goal is also to offer ethically acceptable answers that are not of manipulative nature.<sup>3</sup> Therefore, an additional objective of this paper is to critically discuss such manipulative techniques and offer an alternative. Manipulation could be considered as a "dark side" of organizational, social and economic life, which besides positive effects (such as a particular socialization/indoctrination that takes place in creation of effective social climate/culture easily turning into its opposite – morally decadent social climate/culture – where the truth is 'morally squeamish'). Therefore additional goal of this paper is to offer solutions for reduction of social and organizational manipulation phenomena to functional (acceptable) level. This paper has as his aim to give theoretical answer on key motivation/engagement problem, not to do empirically testing and verification. Sound theories help us interpret the present to understand what is happening and why. So the main hypotheses of this paper are:

- H<sub>1</sub>: In creating effective work motivation, various manipulation techniques are used.
- H<sub>2</sub>: It is possible to reduce hard work/full engagement resistance (demotivation) in one part of organizational employee's by eliminating a sense of injustice and manipulation.
- H<sub>3</sub>: It is possible to reduce hard work/management manipulation resistance (demotivation) by introducing non-manipulative techniques that empower organizational integrity and moral.

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<sup>2</sup> This is obvious by examples of managers/politicians who have abused their position to achieve personal gain, on the costs of others.

<sup>3</sup> Some organizational gurus like Peter Senge have different opinion (cited from an intervju with Peter Senge): „When we are trying to create something new on some level there is not important is this right or not“.



All three hypotheses will be tested by experience method using insight-based methodology that uses reflection about empirical evidence, literature review and personal experience that synthesise the facts about manipulations.

## 2. Human mind manipulation as general management strategy

Human mind manipulations are found in many areas of social, political, economic, business, and also the private lives of people and developed animals.<sup>4</sup> In human world, manipulations are focused towards target acquisition of human behaviour and therefore could be considered as control strategy in socio-economic and organizational life. However, when a desired objective and targeted human behaviour cannot be reached or it is slow, difficult and expensive, manipulation remains as a form of subtle cheat that can occur in several forms, such as machiavellianism, ‘spin’, stupidity management (*Alvesson & Spicer, 2012*), impression management (*Bolino & Turnley, 1999*), lie and clear (blunt) fraud, compliance-noncompliance, withholding vital information, emphasis of information in favour of manipulator’s idea, threat, intimidation, retaliation (*Naell & Tuckey, 2014*), ostracism (*Wu at al., 2012*) and similar manipulation manifestations.

Very common manifestation of manipulation are promises that are not intended to be accomplished and are not even realized in real life, but had intention of luring on an action (for example, luring voters to vote a certain political option without any intention to carry out promises; luring entrepreneur to entrepreneurial activity with promises of cheap resources of business combination; luring of potential employees with false promises of working conditions and promotion in order to be hired by the organization; luring of students to study at a particular university with a subtle promise of providing high-quality marketable skills that will allow a good future life; luring on marriage (living together) with a variety of subtle promises of happiness; luring in playing games of chance (luck) with the promise of high score, solicitation to purchase products/services by failing to disclose relevant information on characteristics or conditions of use, luring on obedient paying of all taxes, etc.). The conclusion is that there are numerous manipulations in all spheres of social, organizational and private life, and experience tells us that their frequency is not negligible.

“Hyper intelligent and very manipulative are thus socially very dangerous!” (*Motte, 2013a*), because they usually manipulate good people with best intentions and deceive them to achieve their own hidden agenda.

Manipulations examined in this paper originate from social/organizational life. Manipulations in private life probably have their biological (genetic) cause and this paper will not address them. To achieve extraordinary work motivation/job engagement, that is the subject of this paper, different types of social manipulation are important, addressed as hereafter:

- a) Direct motivational manipulations;
- b) Indirect motivational manipulations (derived from general social manipulations);
- c) Organizational manipulation techniques (present already in organizational life), that are applied/could be applied to work motivation increase (empirical evidence from Croatian organizational life).

### 2.1. Direct motivational manipulations

In the area of general work motivation, the following techniques can be distinguished:

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<sup>4</sup> Mutual primate (monkey) manipulations are also known when they mislead each other or manipulate to achieve personal benefits (food). This paper does not deal neither with manipulations of primates and other animals nor with private life manipulations of people who have their own biological (genetic) origin. As scientific curiosity, only animals with high intellectual abilities are capable of manipulation, therefore ‘Smarter you are, easier you will cheat/manipulate someone’.



- a) To scare the employee's with a fine, loss (security, freedom, real estate, personal or family health) or a clear threat. This is so called 'management by fear'. Also is known as so-called Mafia or "fear" model in which the employee works to avoid violence and violation. This model clearly shows that such work can be treated as an economic coercion or violence, and has advantage that it is easy to manage according this model. Such motivation is well known during the 2<sup>nd</sup> World war time (e.g. in Germany and Russia). Today exist also in some existing form and is very similar with slavery work (*Block, 2015*).
- b) To assure that be engaged and hardworking is 'moral obligation' for a better organization or society, so that motivated employee's create primarily good for itself by regular working, not just for the social elite. Such manipulation is a presumption of non-formal psychological contract that in abstract should contain action and counteraction. In this technique, the following achievement strategies are possible:
  - To oblige people to be motivated on their work using the legal system (to convince people that what is legal is right), e.g. is legal duty of employee to give excellent work to employer. Indoctrination in a way that what is legal is moral/honest – can be achieved by state and legal system indoctrination (socialization). This is e.g. obvious in Japan. Actually in a common ordered world *legitimacy = illusion of integrity* due to various deficits, mostly because of general disagreements, specific and special interests (*Visković, 1981*) and quite common is the fact that what is legal is neither proper nor fair. This indoctrination can be achieved through public school system by explaining how legal and moral it is to do your best for the company, a better society, better people, state and human welfare. There is also, an old manipulative technique 'Divide and conquer'. To be specific, it turns employees against each other. There is a typical resistance of dependent people e.g. on budget, or privileged groups of society who became passionate defenders of the same system, profit organization or budget financed system.
  - In order to be convinced of rightness of be motivated, it is necessary to achieve transparency in organization distribution, for its justification not to be suspicious. It could be fabricated (false) reports so it could disguise, conceal the real truth of spending organizational resources. Specifically, extensive work motivation by itself isn't ethical activity since results of this work could be spent on unethical purposes (e.g. oppression, mistreatment and killing of other people, exclusive enrichment of management/owners, etc.).

These techniques are actually standard arsenal of present conditional work motivation. In addition to these techniques, there are general strategies, techniques that are discussed in broader context of social manipulation, also which can help in increasing work motivation in organizations to specific forms of motivators and introduction of new motivation tools.

## 2.2. Indirect motivational manipulations

Conquest and retention of government authority/power of dominant over subdominant social groups is regularly held by some form of manipulations in order to justify a privileged position, and in order to extract specific target behaviour. Noam A. Chomsky writes about such human manipulations techniques/strategies, and indicates ten techniques and strategies (see more online resources on human manipulation strategies/techniques (*Chomsky, 2011; 2013, 2014; 2015, all cit. 2015-6-08*):

1. *Diverting attention* (method 'engages irrelevant to make important escape the attention'). People's attention should be diverted from important to irrelevant problems. Pre-employing of minds by 'flooding' with irrelevant information makes it possible to achieve so that people have no time to think and acquire basic knowledge of the system and understanding of the world (such as watching TV where news are fabricated, and in a flood



- of irrelevant information the possibility of resolving the important from unimportant or less important is reduced). People find it important how much should they receive from their work, but the flood of information reduces the sense of importance making resistance in unjust distribution more difficult. Similar techniques can be conducted through online media so to control the flow of information (Buzz) in the right direction. The best way to establish information flow control is: a) to start a rumour; b) to clean negative buzz (finding and destroying everything that someone does not want to see in the vastness of internet information); c) to initiate pile of information channels in order to block out opponents; d) to switch the focus from an event until the situation is resolved (*Motte, 2013b*).
2. *Creating problem* (method of ‘problem-reaction-solution’). Problem should be created, so some people react to it. For example, it is possible to cause and transfer fear, threat and violence to make public easily accept restrictions of freedom, income, or social security system components, as well as introduction more working hours for the same pay. A good concrete example (of manipulation) is to create perception of economic crisis and lack of money in human mind (regardless of the real state), so that such mental image becomes accepted as a ‘necessary evil’ for which mitigation (for example) is quite reasonable to increase working hours without drop the motivation, in the same time reduce social rights, raise taxes/ introduce a new tax form, or some other form of restriction.
  3. *Gradual change* (method of ‘small steps’). For people to agree to an unacceptable measure, it should be introduced very gradually, by method of small steps, for months or years. Long term implementation without resistance allows unawareness about unwanted change while changes in a short time would most probably create resistance. This is commonly used for introduction of more working hours, working unsafety, longer working for going in pension what in fact could have demotivating effect.
  4. *Disposal* (method of announcing long before implementation so that people get used to the idea of an undesired change). People need to be prepared, because it is easier to accept future than current sacrifice, also people believe that ‘tomorrow will be better’, and their sacrifice won’t be necessary. This increases the likelihood of adjusting to the idea of change and eventually accepting with indifference (and without undesired resistance). This is commonly used for the introduction of new motivational programs and reorganizations.
  5. *Use of children voice* (method of ‘abroad by applying infantile tones’). This results in suppression of critical thinking and feeling as stronger suggestible effect on people.
  6. *Abuse of emotion* (method of ‘intimidation’). Critical awareness should be replaced by emotional impulses (fear/coercion, anger, concern, desire, accepting ideas) and so induce desired behaviour. For example, emotionally engage all the society that it is needed “slavery work” in some MNCs industries for general goodness.
  7. *Keeping in ignorance* (method of hiding technology and methods that are used for human control and enslavement). Manipulation mechanism understanding should be prevented for example, reducing the quality of education at lower layers or general population that needs to be manipulated. Knowledge of how to completely avoid or work less, generally have rich elite. The elite find it undesirable that all citizens have that knowledge because it would substantially reduce revenue, and their privileges.
  8. *Glorification of stupidity and mediocrity* (method of spreading stupidity, vulgarity and ignorance). The public should be encouraged in accepting mediocrity. It is necessary to convince people that it is good (‘in’ and fashionable) to be stupid, vulgar and ignorant. At the same time, resistance towards culture, art and science should be induced. The goal is to reduce the possibility that someone thinks differently and that it is possible to avoid ‘slavery’ work or significantly reduced.
  9. *Creating a sense of guilt* (method of lowering people’s self-esteem by creating feeling of guilt). Every individual needs to be convinced of being responsible of its own and sole





misfortune, failure due to its faulty intelligence, disability and lack of effort. If individuals are assured, they will not act because they will blame themselves for the failure that leads to a depressive state. In that way, they will give up the search for causes of their position and rebel against the system and rebel against unfair distribution, because if there is no action, there is no revolution, so they will work as they told them.

10. *Abuse of knowledge* (method of hiding control knowledge of biology, neurobiology and practical psychology of an average person). The system and the ruling elite have advanced human knowledge about body and mind. That way, the system has more control and a greater power over individual than individual has over himself. There is a greater gap in the knowledge of public and ruling elite. The fact is that rich, powerful people (managers and other elite) has knowledge how to manipulate others for their own goals.

General known social manipulation techniques that elite as manipulators apply in socio-economic life are applied around the world, not just in the most developed countries, and are becoming prominent in organizational life and have big impact on working motivation.<sup>5</sup>

### **2.3. Organizational types of human mind manipulation in function of achieving work motivation/job engagement**

Everyday organizational life, management manipulations are the most widespread manifestations of organisational manipulation. Their goals are:

- a) To facilitate people management (business leadership) because most people tend to resist being managed and to facilitate the process of motivation;
- b) To facilitate the control of people, because confidence is often not enough;
- c) To achieve some personal managerial objectives;
- d) To overcome the crisis when there is not much time, and the situation requires an urgent response (for example to create an artificial sense of unity in order to overcome the external threat).

The author is not familiar with the existence of any classification or list of forms of manipulation present in organizational life, especially not on the level of the management-employees relationship. Moreover, there is no classification and a list of manipulative techniques derived from those forms that facilitate motivation. The aim of such manipulation is psychological debilitation of a person in order to make him more easily manageable, and in the context of this paper to make him more disposed to be motivated/engaged. The following list of organizational manipulation with their explanations was generated by the author and is based on communication with employees from different Croatian organizations:

1. You're not good enough; you will always have something missing! – you have to work, to learn, in order to reach an acceptable level, but in reality you will never reach that level. You always lack something. There is a marked resemblance to Noam Chomsky's ninth manipulation (Creating a sense of guilt). Humiliated, depressed person will show less resistance to maximal working load.
2. Material reward for me, and mental award for you! (professional development, happiness and psychological satisfaction resulting from good work). Motivation research has shown that a material reward works better for manual labour than for jobs with the dominant creative and intellectual component. However, this is true of operating personnel. The management and the authorities are uncritically rewarded mainly by material compensation, although research has explicitly shown that the amount of management compensation is not related to their productivity. This manipulation goes so far as to treat separately the motivation of ordinary workers from that of managerial motivation (which

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<sup>5</sup> Personal experience with Harvard students/professors and their culture impression i.e. their believe why is motivated working all the day long on University perceived as kind of freedom and their own free will.



- is reduced mainly to material management compensation) in management and human resource management textbooks (*Noe at all., 2006, Buble, 2006, Bahtijarević-Šiber, 1999*). This creates an atmosphere that employees should be happy hard work because they are doing the right thing, and have some benefits from doing so (mainly psychological).<sup>6</sup>
3. This is the so-called Manipulation by waiting with the slogan ‘Wait, wait, take it easy!’ Wait, be patient for another year, and then you’ll be promoted, you’ll get a better salary, everything will be solved when times get better, when there’s money, when the XY situation is resolved. You just keep working hard and do not worry about it. We’re with you. It is clear that employees who are “put on hold” will never accomplish the desirable situation and will thus be manipulated into obedience. Obedience in one area is then generalized to the area of hard working.
  4. Manipulation by compatibility of objectives that can be accomplished by slogan: ‘If you work for me (the manipulator) you’ll be fine, because what’s good for me is also good for you (the manipulated)’. Be happy to work for me because I’m good and honest. Otherwise, you’re nothing. Asking to work for someone else is the reason and asking to be dismissed. This manipulation is generalized to the notion that working hard is good and morally correct.
  5. Do believe that everything you do at work and elsewhere would not be possible without my/our managerial support and kindness. Do realize that I (management/government) control whether your work will succeed or fail. You cannot do anything on your own so listen and follow your management, i.e. me. This manipulation is generalized to conditioning: Without hard working to your masters your survival is not possible. Therefore, it is fully justified to working hard without resistance.
  6. Pressure on group opinion and team spirit that is internalized in the slogan: ‘If everyone is in favour you cannot be against, because majority cannot be mistaken, and you as individual cannot be cleverer than the whole management. Therefore, agree with us and convince yourself that this is your opinion too.’ This is actually a demonstration of the well-known Ash experiment where, as a result of social pressure, most people agree with the manager (boss) even though everyone knows that he is wrong. ‘Those of you who think, should think of what and how’ is an informal slogan of this manipulation that contains a hidden threat. This manipulation internalizes the belief: ‘If all colleagues and people work hard, you cannot be an exception!’
  7. Threat, revenge, retaliation. E. g.: ‘Do realize that if you do something I don’t like (regardless of whether it’s good for the organization) it will be punished by a reprisal and a setup (trap) that will cause you a lot of problems. So watch what you’re doing and how you are doing it because if you take a miss of me you cannot survive, neither here nor in any other organization. We are all part of the same network!’ This internalizes the belief that laziness leads to a penalty, so it is better to work hard and thus avoid it.
  8. *Quod licet Iovi non licet bovi!*<sup>7</sup> Explanation: Other employees are also going through a difficult period, and they are skilled and hard-working. So what are you asking for? What is true for other lower operating employees is true for you too. You’re not the authority, management, the owner, ranking high in the hierarchy and the status to ask for such informal status rights. Be aware of your position and situation and ‘keep low profile’. The fact that some people do not work hard, manage to avoid it or pay somehow for that

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<sup>6</sup> The CEO's in USA are the most payed in the world. The ratio between CEOs and his worker compensation amount is often >400:1. E.g. in 1998. Michael Eisner from Disney become more than \$600.000.000 salary (*Noe at al., 2006., p. 409*).

<sup>7</sup> This Latin saying indicates the presence of a double standard and means that one is permitted to one person or group is not permitted to everyone. It can be translated as: ‘Gods may do what cattle may not’.



- privilege, has its justification in the fact that they hold higher positions in the hierarchy and are not subject to the same obligations as their subordinates.
9. 'If you think you've been caused offence, or your rights have been violated, you can take it to the court or give in your notice and look for another job. If you do not like our business and managerial ethics and organizational climate/culture you don't need to work for our organization and management. We dictate the rules and set the climate and culture of the organization to which you have to adapt, regardless of whether it is right or not.' The implications: The hard work should be given as it was said, and if you do not like it you are free to move out of organization and chose another place to live.
  10. 'It's a pie in the sky.' Explanation: Promises serve as motivational bait – and they are not there to be met! If you believe in them, then you're stupid and naive. And you're certainly not ready for promotion to a managerial position. The fact that it was promised that if you work hard you will be promoted and then nothing happens, is not a reason for you not to work hard but it is time for you to embrace the fact as a subordinate.
  11. We appreciate loyalty, obedience, compliance with hidden desires, needs, and vanities of management. Read between the lines. Do not be stupid and make sure you understand the ambiguous messages sent by management (the so-called signals). Understand that you are a subject who, regardless of whether the hard work is justified or unjustified, moral or immoral you have to do them and that is a sign of loyalty to the organization in which you live.
  12. Take on managerial responsibility and give the management credit for achievements, as this is how it should be. Sometime you might be rewarded for that. Do not think, however, that because you solve problems it should necessarily be your merit and that the awards will follow spontaneously. If you're looking for something we do not like you will be denounced and rejected if necessary and maybe even in spite of it. Be engaged and the management (elite) will be given credit for any possible improvements in the organization and not the employee's because that is normal. If necessary, it is possible that you will be sacrificed for a higher purpose, regardless of the current obedience and regular hard work.
  13. Give up your ethical principles, integrity, truth, and honesty for higher organizational team interest. At home everybody is entitled to think what he want, but not in our organization! Everyone should accept the opinion of management. The management opinion should be everyone's opinion, including the attitude towards hard working.
  14. Your manager psyche is of key importance; your status and your destiny depend on it. Get good understanding of the informal status of all managers, their private life, desires, needs, and try to please them in every possible way, including not asking the 'unnecessary questions' that they might find boring. Ambiguous e-mails, non-verbal messages and signals should be read and understood in the context of the informal facts. If something needs to be done, and is not legal or moral, do it the way your manager wants it. It is not your wishes and needs that are important but those of your manager. The needs and wishes of management are important, and not yours, so you need to adjust to it (be obsequious), i.e. work hard!
  15. Being a toady and sycophant, a sleek spokesman, is not only desirable but an absolutely necessary feature for getting promoted in our organization. Do not imagine that it is enough to be productive and creative, to have good professional relationship with management, based on work, order, discipline, proper treatment/honesty. Be always ready to deliver extra services, regardless of their moral dimension. Do everything your manager likes, do everything the elites require from you (be obsequious), i.e. work hard.
  16. The organizational life is a difficult and arduous struggle (as a life in the jungle), you can succeed/survive only if you stick with your manager – so be always at his disposal and you will benefit. You can only survive if you hard work.



17. Be obedient and loyal, approve of and agree with the wishes and opinions of your management and properly socialized colleagues. Do not accidentally show open-mindedness and self-initiative, especially not by opposing what is required by those positioned higher in the hierarchy. Watch what you're doing, or you will face reprisal. Thus internalized obedience is generalized to hard working.
18. The internalization of the idea that 'Cheaters and murderers rule the world.' You can benefit from your intelligence, knowledge, and personality only if you're a bigger scoundrel. The ability of cheating and manipulation of others is crucial for climbing the hierarchy ladder. Internalization of the belief reduces the willingness to work hard for higher executive positions, but fearing higher hierarchical positions the hard working is manifested up to a certain level of hierarchy.
19. What the management says and communicates to you is true and, as we have agreed, the concept of unlawfulness does not exist in our organization. The truth is what suits us and not how things really are. If something suits us to be true – it will be true, and if does not suit us – it will not be true. What's right and what's true is what the superior says to be right or true. Working hard is to be done as has been established by the management.
20. We do not talk about things that do not suit us. We only speak nicely about our management and organization. The one who expresses his opinion and attitude, who questions the opinion and attitude of management, or, God forbid, dares to whistle, is dead for us. It's an unskilled idler, a bad colleague and person unworthy of life. In science and higher education that is: a bad teacher, unskilled professional, bad scientists, bad colleague and person. Even if you do not agree with working hard you do not talk about it. You should not urge others not to work hard because this is immoral and illegal.
21. Arrogance. 'I am your God and you shall have no other Gods before me! You depend on me thoroughly, so you are obliged to give me everything – your complete self mentally, but also morally and physically. You are obliged to give everything (your life too, if necessary, e.g. in war time) to your masters (the organization, the state and legal system). Therefore, hardworking should not be a problem'.

The above managerial organizational manipulations can also be present as manipulation of citizens/employee's for the purpose of hard working, the aim of which is psychologically debilitating man in order to break his resistance to injustice. Mental managerial manipulations in organizational life represent the "dark side" because few can find a justification (the ethical dilemma of whether it is justified to use manipulation in order to prevent a greater evil, and when and to what extent it is justified to apply it is a debatable issue). The leadership that applies the above described manipulations generates interpersonal alienation (people start seeing enemies in other people), distrust and quasi-collectiveness. A person who experiences injustice and manipulation finds it easier to agree on hard working as just one of many life's injustices.

### **3. How to increase hard working behaviour in accordance with the general knowledge of human psychology?**

In tackling the issue of how to model the desired behaviour, psychology offers several answers (strategies):

- a) *Punishing unwanted behaviour* (in this regard it is well known what kind of aversive stimulus is needed to dissuade someone from a certain behaviour). Research on the subject of what should be a stimulus in order to minimize the likelihood of recurrence of unwanted behaviour has found that the stimulus should be as strong and as repulsive as possible. Gradual punishment has not proved to be so efficient (*Čudina-Obradović, 1991*).
- b) *Rewarding the desired behaviour* increases the likelihood of recurrence of such behaviour. It is possible to achieve that the very act of hard working becomes a self-rewarding experience. This, however, is not possible without a certain ideology, manipulation,



because a rational and non-manipulated intelligent human mind finds it difficult to accept that hard working for someone without the aliquot counterpart obligations is a reward and not a punishment. A person can psychologically accept that he has been awarded and not punished, but it is a matter of mental manipulation. Another way is for a person to feel positive emotions when he has done excellent work (e.g. a sense of pride, satisfaction), to be convinced that he is doing a good thing and that he is, therefore, a good person, what can be a self-rewarding experience.

- c) *Manipulation of happiness in a way that manipulated think they work for their own good* and that they are rewarded, but actually mainly work for someone else's good (working hard that primarily serves the controlling management/ organizational elite/manipulators, and not their needs and well-being). How to justify hard work and their reward? There are two possibilities:
- To make hard work perceived as bearable, socially necessary and acceptable by mental manipulation, (of course the work itself shouldn't really be unbearably hard and the working forms rationally justified), while simultaneously evaders of such 'reasonable work' to be frightened by a fine;
  - To make work evasion morally unacceptable to people and therefore make mentally impossible even to think about it, or that breaking the law regarding the work become (psychologically) unthinkable, not out of fear but on moral imperative (internalized values). The internalization of ethical values (e.g. the truth, proper behaviour, love, peace and non-violence) is possible from preschool to adulthood (*cf. Bogdanović, 2013*). According to this model, people would rather working hard (work compliance) because of the moral imperative, i.e. moral consciousness and conscience that prevents hard work evasion.

#### **4. Increase of motivation by non-manipulative strategies: creating ethical climate and culture**

Non manipulative motivation strategies are rarely implemented. Exception may be progressive system of performance awarding, where wage increase faster than the performance (*Buble, 2006., p. 449*). In fact material motivation strategies (*Bahtijarević-Šiber, 1999, Chapter 13*) are less manipulative (e.g. regressive system of performance awarding) in their nature than the nonmaterial/ psychological ones (good feeling about hard work done), because they have presumptions that working people should be dominantly motivated by good feeling (e.g. for organization/management is the material reward/money, for workers is nonmaterial reward/good feeling). So some university books about organizational motivation write different chapters i.e. models for motivating manager and non-manager employees (*cf. Bahtijarević-Šiber, 1999, Chapter 13- Strategies of material awarding, pp. 613–666 & Chapter 14- Strategies of nonmaterial awarding, pp. 667–713*). So, someone can have the impression that manipulated/employee should be motivated on one way (mostly non-material strategies) and manipulators/managers (dominantly by material strategies) on another way.

Manipulation and hypocrisy (hypocrisy/conversion) are rarely treated as ethical problems that need to be solved, but it is often tacitly supported by historical examples to date (*Pupavac, 2006*).<sup>8</sup> Detected manipulations of deception and lie of managers/politicians often do not get sanctioned, even when they are all manifested. In addition to ethically handled manipulations,

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<sup>8</sup> According the prevalent opinion, experience of the organizational life in Republic of Croatia shows that manipulation is often considered socially acceptable behaviour and testifies primarily about intelligence of manipulators. Therefore, corruption in the name of intelligence is ignored, and according to that prejudice intelligent and rulers manipulate (in accordance with paraphrased thoughts of Miroslav Krleža, that intelligent crooks and murderers rule the world, 'cheating' is a normal human behaviour), while dumb subjects are manipulated, because it is a 'natural' state of affairs.



intolerable are manipulations when manipulated are unaware, because the stimulus is at subconscious level (e.g. promotion through subliminal messages). Ethical programs for creating ethical social climate should also include anti-manipulative values, so that manipulative/fraudulent behaviour is condemned and punished. Thus, the implementation of high ethical standards could take into account not only individual (elite), but also interests of all citizens. One way is to introduce a socially moral philosophy which is anti-machiavellian, or anti-manipulative and which should be expanded as ethical climate/culture. Actually, the best social practises should be considered those that are appropriate from an ethical point of view, that is those who avoid unequal and unfair (manipulative) treatment, and are in the same relation (harmonized) with generally accepted values, for example empirical values of positive psychology accepted in all cultures and all times (*from Rijavec & Miljković 2006 to Peterson & Seligman, 2003*).<sup>9</sup>

For combat against manipulation of any kind, essential is creating ethical social climate and culture in which manipulation is totally unacceptable. For creation of social climate and culture there are two important moments: a) recognition and rejection of manipulations; b) promotion of values of truth and proper behaviour.

#### **4.1. Empowering people in identifying and rejecting manipulations – ethics as an instrument of responsible job doing and engagement**

Even the awareness of manipulations changes the general ethical philosophy which is significant and important predictor of ethical behaviour (*Chudziska-Czupala, 2013*). That is why this paper describes various forms of manipulation. For raising the level of ethical behaviour in organizations, it is important that employee's become aware of manipulations and the fact that such behaviour is not conducive to social cohesion (elite and commoners). The manipulated, deceived employees who are aware of that are not satisfied employees.<sup>10</sup> Two strategies could be mentioned in the context of strengthening the manipulation awareness and their rejection, which could and should be used in organizational social life (*Zimbardo, 2007, chapter 16*), within opposition of extremely unethical (evil) behaviour of the manipulator:

1. *Be careful in interpreting the messages/information you receive.* Do not be deluded (deceived) by messages that emphasize what the sender/potential manipulator wants to sell (e.g. more motivation for more work for manipulator interest). Ask yourself what the message sender exactly wants and what is most likely to be achieved with that information.
2. *Refuse to be manipulated so as to join the activity that is completely morally strange for a promise of potential illusory usefulness.* Do not sacrifice personal, civil, business ethics and freedom for security, which is an illusion. Refuse to give up your freedom, even smaller rights, integrity or smaller part of your freedom for promise of security, because the sacrifice of rights/freedom is real and urgent, and the security is just an illusion. Promises of security at the cost of sacrificing ethics, law, privacy and freedom are a step in unethical manipulative side. The working motivation should be moral, not by manipulation driven.

#### **4.2. Truth and just behaviours as creators of motivated behaviour**

Important implications for social ethics and working motivation can be found in the so-called spirituality management. Spirituality management based on humanistic values states two basic ways to combat manipulations: a) truth; b) justified (moral) behaviour.

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<sup>9</sup> Virtues of positive psychology (good person) are: 1) wisdom and knowledge; 2) boldness; 3) humanity; 4) justice; 5) temperance; 6) transcendence (*Rijavec & Miljković, 2006*).

<sup>10</sup> In fact it is clear that no one consciously likes to be deceived or manipulated, that hardly anyone wants to maintain relations of exchange with manipulators, because of the objective fear to be disappointed and harmed from such a relationship.



#### **4.2.1. By means of the truth against motivation manipulation**

Truth is the foundation of morality. Ability and motivation to accept and communicate the truth (harmony between the reality and reflection about them) is crucial human value. According Jack Hawley (*Hawley according Lučić, 2013, pp. 49–50*), truth is the most important thing, because when any system is in the truth, every problems resolves automatically (alone with himself) on natural way, also human motivation. Because of that, truth is fundamental for survival of any system, so it can be considered more important than capital, work, strategy, or anything else. Untruth or suppressed truth is deeply incorporated in contemporary life, because untruth or hiding the truth is often the means for achieving someone goal. Also untruth or missing the truth are the means of manipulations by which is wanted to achieve domination under other people- what is misuse of the truth. Truth manipulation has the goal to achieve the people are manipulated and so manipulator can easy achieve his own goal. In spite of that fact for management evolution it is necessary the awareness in the truth and internalization of truth as key value category – on the civilization level. In the internalization of the truth value it is needed the involvement of institutional system. The key managerial question is how to block that untruth or eliding the truth become the key principle of managerial acting (i.e. motivation) and behaviour, because it often brings to the managerial benefit, but on non-functional level damages the organization/society. The truth should be educated by known behavioural principles and create the situation that untruth/lie is not beneficial ('In lie are the short legs!'), but also is punished if it brings to the damages for others. Only by truth is possible the real battle against all kind of manipulations, and optimal achieving human motivation.

#### **4.2.2. By means of correct (moral) behaviour against motivation manipulations**

Integrity, justice in achieving the goals, not making damage the other, is also important in prevention and fight against every motivation manipulation. Behaviours such raven the resources from the other, discredit of other to achieve some personal gains or advantage, also are 'fertile soil' for manipulations. Correct behaviour is deep morality in human thoughts, feelings and behaviour. This means that people (even elites) should behave maximal human and to the benefit of each human being, regardless of his material, social, educational and/or other status. It is pathology of management if it thinks that it makes a great good only by the fact that it does no damages and evil. Doing things right can be clearly seen in relationships with others. Correct behaviour is behaviour which do not delay, do not complicate and do not harm to others.

Misusing of 'correct doing' principle often depicts unethical situation, violence, miserable interpersonal relationships, low quality and productivity, animosity and alienation (other people are perceived as enemies) what is extremely favourable milieu for 'bad' climate and culture, and culture of untruth and manipulation. Correct doing is value that is opposite to manipulation behaviour.

By means of internalized appropriate values of *truth* and *correct behaviour* in organizational life (management is carrier of such value system) it is created specific ethical organizational climate/culture, so-called atmosphere of true psychological contract (exchange between the employee's and organization) which decrease the resistance to managerial manipulative techniques, i.e. such techniques are not needed, even if are used can be counterproductive (trust damaging).

### **5. Critical review and paper limits**

This paper shows various manipulative ways in achieving work motivation. Although this paper primarily engages in manipulations in context of motivation, one much wider practical and essential question remains: Is there a possible world without manipulation in a world where manipulation is commonly accepted strategy with a whole set of techniques at all levels?



Also, the big question of today's society and organization is: Why to be moral when it is not functional? and Why to use less functional ethical non-manipulative techniques then? However, lie, deception and manipulation besides means of resistance, are also means of good/successful life. Benefit is easiest to achieve by wickedness (fraud, manipulation of others), and living on account of others. The problem is not in nowadays society and man of science, but in morality (abuse of knowledge and science).

Manipulators abuse knowledge and science for their selfish and immoral purposes, and if needed, show it as a concern for common good, higher interests, or necessity imposed by the situation. That way hypocrisy became primary manipulators' characteristic. Therefore, there are people and institutions who deceive everyone around them (machiavellism), easily sacrificing others for their own goals. Many elite (managers/politicians) representatives are superb actors who pretend to be good people but actually enjoy the power and play with other people by manipulating.

To achieve something by manipulating became common, but rare managers ask: "Is it right"? If it is not right, why is it necessary? Even more rare are questions about relationship between the necessary and proper behaviour (for example, if it is not right, is it necessary for employee's to work hard on the benefit of the elite, for their own purpose of enrichment?).

Given that most people live in a lie greater part of their life (TV media made it possible in greater part, that provides biggest opportunities for fraud and manipulation because ideologies are easiest to sell in that way), part of the truth became unacceptable (*cf. MATRIX film*), so the truth changes and substitutes lie (manipulation) because it seems acceptable for life, which greatly facilitates all other forms of manipulation. Limitations of non-manipulative strategies are also mentioned in this paper, because such strategies include climate and culture change of organization/society which is time consuming and difficult process.

One of the largest deceptions and manipulations is spreading of belief that individuals/employees/citizens cannot change anything in this world, in order to numb, not to question, not to investigate so nothing in the area of manipulation can be done, because the manipulation as such is permanent and unchangeable category.

## 6. Conclusion

Human mind manipulation is a present strategy in achieving work motivation/job engagement. This is evident from the fact of numerous existing techniques of manipulation that are divided in this paper into:

- a) Direct social manipulation techniques for achieving work motivation (2 basic techniques);
- b) Indirect general social manipulation strategies for achieving work motivation (10 strategies);
- c) Organizational manipulation techniques for achieving work motivation (21 techniques of organizational life collected in Croatia).

All hypotheses are confirmed, so following can be answered:

- a) While creating working motivation, various manipulation techniques are used, described in more detail in this paper.
- b) It is possible to reduce work (the form and its amount) resistance in one part of employees by eliminating a sense of injustice and manipulation and thereby strengthen their work motivation.
- c) By introduction of some non-manipulative techniques that create ethical organizational climate and culture work resistance can be reduced, for example transparency of spending budget resources, increase of meaningfulness and justification of distribution, conscious resistance to manipulations, promotion of spiritual values of truth and proper behaviour.

The paper discusses ethically unjustified manipulative techniques and recommends techniques that are closer to ethical approach. In such ethical approach, essential strategy





questions of manipulation/ethics techniques remained inconclusive: Is there a possible world without manipulation in a world where manipulation is commonly accepted strategy with a whole set of techniques at all levels? Why to be moral when it is not functional? and Why to use less functional ethical non-manipulative techniques then?

Although no decisive and ultimate answer to these fundamental questions is given, the author believes that the organizational welfare should strive for social and ethical climate and culture that will put out manipulation as unethical category outside an acceptable framework of social life, and therefore work motivation should come from ethical awareness and need, not by human mind manipulation. Ethical considerations find it important to answer the question: Is it acceptable to achieve work motivation by manipulation of employees, or is it acceptable have hard working employees based on a moral compliance?, or Is technical solution for achieving the goal of working motivation only important while ethical way is irrelevant?

Finally, the conclusion is that today's elites and systems/organizations use manipulative techniques to achieve desired work motivation, and it is genuinely because it is more effective technique of non-manipulative techniques/strategies. Arguably and unanswered remains the question whether manipulation it is necessary, if it is not right?

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## FAKTORY OVLIVŇUJÍCÍ KULTURU ORGANIZACE

### Factors Influencing the Culture of the Organization

MAREK ČANDÍK, PETR JEDINÁK

#### Abstract

This paper focuses on the selected factors that influence culture of an organization which may have a profound negative effect on the organization's performance and employee satisfaction. There were presented outcomes of the research focusing on the manager's behaviour in an organization towards their employees and also on questions concerning employee's satisfaction with working conditions. Research was conducted in the year 2015 and the respondents were students of distance study programmes at the Police Academy of the Czech Republic in Prague. The total data set was obtained from 502 respondents. The results were processed using adequate methods of descriptive statistics and there were analysed statistical differences according to sex and education of the respondents.

**Key words:** organizational culture, working conditions, research, survey, statistical evaluation research.

**Classification JEL:** M 12 – Personnel Management.

### 1. Úvod

Firemní kultura (organizační kultura) patří mezi důležité faktory, které silně ovlivňují výkonnost organizace. Představuje soustavu hodnot, norem, přesvědčení, postojů a domněnek, které formují způsoby chování a jednání lidí a způsoby vykonávané práce (Armstrong, 2007, s. 199).

Zkoumání firemní kultury mělo největší rozmach na přelomu 70. a 80. let minulého století. Vedl je k tomu úspěch japonských firem na americkém trhu, který postupně začal americké firmy utlačovat na trhu. Manažeři se pokoušeli aplikovat prvky japonské firemní kultury na americké podniky, ale bez úspěchu. V návaznosti na to se začaly objevovat výzkumy souvislostí mezi národní a firemní kulturou. Od té doby bylo provedených několik výzkumů v oblasti firemní kultury. Tyto výzkumy mj. potvrdily to, že firemní kultura má výrazný vliv na prosperitu a výkonnost firmy. Pokud má podnik silnou kulturu, je větší pravděpodobnost, že bude úspěšný.

Firemní kulturou se myslí jedinečná konfigurace norem, hodnot, přesvědčení a způsobů chování, které charakterizují styl, na němž se skupiny a jedinci shodují za účelem splnění nějakých úkolů. Představuje tmel společnosti a plodí pocit 'to jsme my', čímž působí proti procesům diferenciaci, které jsou nevyhnutelnou součástí života organizace. Kultura organizace nabízí sdílený systém významů, který je základem komunikace a vzájemného pochopení. Jestliže tyto funkce nejsou plněny uspokojujícím způsobem, může kultura oslabovat efektivnost organizace. Firemní kultura je významným faktorem konkurenceschopnosti, ale hlavně dobrá firemní kultura zvyšuje kvalitu soužití a spolupráce zaměstnanců, pozitivně ovlivňuje jejich motivaci a spokojenost, zvyšuje identifikaci zaměstnanců s firmou a snižuje jejich nejistoty.

Podstata organizační kultury je tvořena *vůdci* organizace. Zejména vůdci, kteří ji ovlivňovali v minulosti. Dále kulturu formují *kritické události*, to jsou významné situace, kterým bylo třeba se přizpůsobit a poučit se z nich. Třetím významným faktorem je *potřeba lidí udržovat efektivní pracovní vztahy*. A nakonec je to *vnější prostředí*, ve kterém se organizace nachází. Prvky firemní kultury identifikují nejzákladnější a nejjednodušší jednotky systémů firemních kultur. Jejich identifikace bývá důležitou součástí většiny výzkumů a analýz zabývajících se firemní kulturou. K základním prvkům firemní kultury patří:



- Symboly – to jsou například různé zkratky, slang, způsob oblékání, symboly postavení, které jsou známé jen členům organizace;
- Hrdinové – mohou být skuteční nebo také imaginární lidé, kteří slouží jako model ideálního chování nebo jako nositelé tradice;
- Rituály – sem patří různé společensky nezbytné činnosti a projevy (schůze, neformální setkání, psaní zpráv, informační a kontrolní systémy);
- Hodnoty – představují nejhlubší úroveň kultury, jde o obecné vědomí toho, co je dobré a co špatné.

Typologie organizačních kultur identifikují typické obsahy kultur z různých úhlů pohledů a ve vztahu k aspektům organizace a vnějšího prostředí. Jednou z typologií organizační kultury je typologie R. Harrisona a Ch. Handyho (*Harrison, 1972*), na kterého později navázal Charles Handy. Harrisonova typologie rozděluje podnikovou kulturu na 4 základní typy:

- *Kulturu moci* (v centru organizace je jedinec nebo skupina jedinců. Platí zde málo pravidel, podnik je závislý na důvěře a rozhodování klíčových jednotlivců, než na byrokracii. Členové organizace jsou hodnoceni na základě výsledků, nástroje pro dosažení nejsou důležité. Označuje se za silnou a poměrně pružnou kulturu, avšak její úspěšnost závisí na osobách v centru organizace. Spokojenost přináší lidem zaměřeným na moc a riziko, jinými bývá vnímána jako tvrdá a bez jistot, i když úspěšná);
- *Kulturu rolí* (založena na logice a racionalitě. Role je chování pracovníků, které je od nich na konkrétních pozicích vyžadováno. Roli vykonávají podle pravidel a postupů, plánů, přesně vymezeném popisu práce a zodpovědnosti. Tato kultura je úspěšná ve stabilním prostředí, kde je odbornost a specializace důležitější před inovacemi. Nevýhodou je menší pružnost a pomalé reakce a rozpoznávání změn);
- *Kulturu úkolů* (orientována na úkoly a projekty, které mají být naplněny a realizovány. Pravomoci jsou spojené spíše s odborností než s konkrétní pozicí. Vedoucí pracovníci v této kultuře vybírají lidi a soustředí je do různých projektů. Kultura úkolů je vhodná pro pružné tržní a silně konkurenční prostředí, kde je důležitá rychlost reakce, senzitivita a kreativita);
- *Kulturu osob* (zaměřená na jednotlivce, mezi kterými nejsou hierarchické vztahy, ale panují zde vztahy partnerské. Lze je znázornit jako shluk jednotlivců, kde nikdo nemá dominantní postavení. Členové kultury jsou samostatní a pravomoci jsou sdíleny).

Podniková kultura má řadu funkcí, které mohou sloužit ke zlepšení výkonnosti organizace. K těm hlavním patří redukce konfliktů uvnitř organizace, usnadnění koordinace a kontroly – zajištění kontinuity, redukce nejistoty zaměstnanců, zvyšování jejich pracovní spokojenosti a emocionální pohody. Je také důležitým zdrojem motivace k práci. Proto silná a obsahově relevantní firemní kultura je významnou konkurenční výhodou. K důležitým faktorům organizační kultury, které mají vliv na efektivnost dané organizace, patří:

- Angažovanost – míra iniciativnosti a participace členů organizace;
- Konzistence – některé názory, hodnoty a normy chování jsou v organizaci široce sdíleny a internalizovány;
- Adaptabilita – schopnost organizace přizpůsobovat se vnějšímu prostředí;
- Mise – stanovení jasného smyslu existence organizace a směru, kterým se ubírá.

Vztah organizační kultury jako komplexního kulturního systému organizace a systém rozvoje lidského potenciálu přirozeně zakládá úvahy o primárnosti či sekundárnosti jednoho či druhého z těchto systémů. Vzájemnost a výrazná dynamičnost vazeb mezi jednotlivými prvky/podsystemy kulturního nebo systému rozvoje lidského potenciálu překračuje svoje běžné hranice a pozitivním i negativním způsobem zasahuje do druhého z těchto systémů. (*Blašková, 2011, s. 31*). Z pohledu vnímání kultury organizace je důležitým činitelem klíma (atmosféra) v organizaci, tzn. tak jak jí vnímají samotní zaměstnanci v konkrétním čase a na konkrétním pracovišti organizace (*Jedinák, 2012, s. 13*). Lze tedy konstatovat, že velmi silným prvkem



ovlivňující kulturu v organizaci je styl vedení a způsob jednání manažera. Manažer organizace musí také svým spolupracovníkům zajistit potřebné podmínky pro potřeby plnění alespoň pracovních (služebních) úkolů, vyplývající s popisem zastávaného pracovního (služebního) místa. Na některé z těchto uvedených faktorů byl směřován provedený výzkum.

## 2. Výzkum

Cílem provedeného výzkumu bylo zmapovat vnímání podnikové kultury zaměstnanců státních organizací a vymezit ty faktory, které jí značným způsobem ovlivňují. Ke sběru dat bylo využito metody dotazování, a to z důvodu zisku potřebných informací, které další metody jako pozorování a experiment v tomto výzkumu přinést nemohou.

### Metodika výzkumu

*Objekt výzkumu:* Podniková kultura. *Předmět výzkumu:* Vnímání podnikové kultury zaměstnanců státních organizací. *Respondenti:* Zaměstnanci státních organizací studující na Policejní akademii České republiky v Praze v kombinované formě studia<sup>1</sup> a zaměstnanci státních organizací – frekventanti kurzů celoživotního vzdělávání na Policejní akademii ČR v Praze (zaměstnanci úřadů státní správy). *Metoda výzkumu:* Dotazníkové šetření, s následným matematicko-statistickým vyhodnocením. *Návratnost dotazníků:* vzhledem k použité formě dotazování nelze kvantifikovat.

### Dotazník

Na základě kvalitativní analýzy odborné literatury byl navržený nestandardizovaný (originální) dotazník. Dotazník byl vytvořen v elektronické formě, který byl sestaven a zveřejněn prostřednictvím univerzitní počítačové sítě. Dotazník tvořilo celkem 10 otázek, které měly uzavřený charakter.

Dotazníkový formulář byl komponovaný do tří částí. První část obsahovala identifikační znaky respondentů (pohlaví, pracovní zařazení, počet let praxe, zařazení ve vedoucí funkci). Druhá část dotazníkového formuláře byla tvořena tabulkou znázorňující způsob vyplňování dotazníku (čtyř bodová Likertova škála; od respondenta se požaduje, aby vyjádřil stupeň souhlasu či nesouhlasu s různými výroky, které se týkají určitého postoje. Odpovědi jsou definovaným způsobem shrnuty a výsledek je úměrný znalostem jedince k reflektovanému tématu. Třetí část dotazníkového formuláře představovala zjišťovací část dotazníkového šetření. Zjišťovací část se skládala z otázek (tvrzení) výzkumného šetření zaměřených na oprávněnou znalost informací o bezpečnosti (respondent vyjádřil míru souhlasu, resp. nesouhlasu s daným tvrzením).

### Předvýzkum (pilotáž)

Před samotným výzkumem byla provedena malá pilotní sonda, jejímž účelem bylo ověřit srozumitelnost dotazníku a ověřit výroky pro část měřící postoje respondentů. V rámci předvýzkumu byly získány odpovědi od 43 mužů a 27 žen. Sběr dat probíhal v období od 20. 12. 2014 do 5. 1. 2015, elektronickou formou. Vypracovaný dotazník byl korigovaný z hlediska validity (přeformulování některých nejasných otázek, vynechání otázek, ve kterých všichni respondenti deklarovali pouze souhlasný, resp. nesouhlasný postoj, atd.).

Každému participantovi byl spočítán jeho celkový skóre a každá položka testu byla následně s tímto celkovým skórem korelována. Položky, které vykázaly nízkou korelaci, byly testových otázek vyřazeny. Zbylé otázky byly následně administrovány respondentům v rámci výzkumného šetření.

<sup>1</sup> Nebylo snahou získat reprezentativní vzorek, neboť to nebylo v možnostech výzkumného šetření. Úkolem bylo pouze sesbírat co nejvyšší počet odpovědí, aby výsledky výzkumu měly alespoň určitou výpovědní hodnotu.



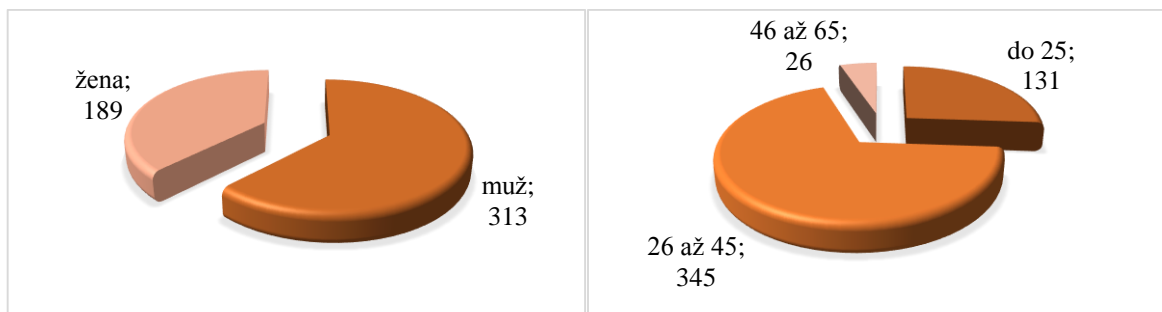
## Sběr, zpracování a kontrola dat

Samotný sběr dat probíhal v období od 7. 1. 2016 do 15. 3. 2016. Během tohoto období bylo obdrženo 544 dotazníků. Následným počítačovým zpracováním bylo vyřazených 42 dotazníků (7,72 % z celkového počtu obdržených dotazníků) z důvodu neúplného vyplnění. Pro statistické zpracování jsme proto použili celkem 502 dotazníků.

Veškeré dotazníky byly následně překódovány do programu MS Excel 2010 tak, aby byla možná jejich statistická analýza. Vznikla matice dat, která byla importována do softwarového prostředí Statistica v.10 a následně byla v tomto prostředí analyzována. Ke zpracování dat byly využity adekvátní matematicko-statistické procedury, jež jsou obsahem tohoto softwarového prostředí.

## Dosažené výsledky

Zastoupení respondentů z **hlediska pohlaví** znázorňuje níže uvedený obr. 1. Z celkového vzorku 502 respondentů převládají početně muži, kterých bylo 313 (62,35 %) nad ženami, kterých bylo 189 (37,65 %). Strukturu respondentů z hlediska věku vyobrazuje obr. 2.

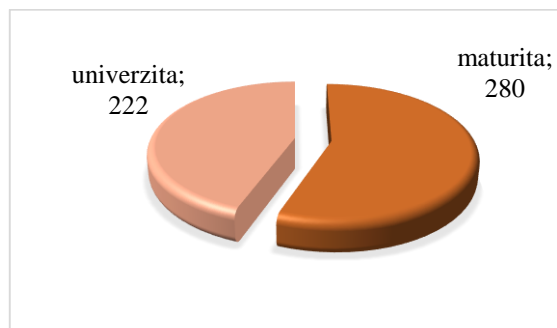


Obr. 1. Struktura respondentů z hlediska pohlaví (vlastní výzkum)

Obr. 2. Struktura respondentů z hlediska věku (vlastní výzkum)

Nejčetnější skupinou respondentů z hlediska věku tvořila skupina středního věku (26 – 45 let), tj. 345 respondentů (68,73 %), starších respondentů (nad 45 let) bylo 131 (26,10 %), nejméně zastoupenou skupinou z hlediska věku tvořili respondenti mladší než 25let, kterých bylo 26 (5,17 %).

Z hlediska vzdělání tvořili středoškoláci početnější skupinu (280 respondentů, tj. 55,78 %), početně menší bylo zastoupení respondentů s vysokoškolským vzděláním, kterých bylo 222, což představuje 44,22 % respondentů (obr. 3).

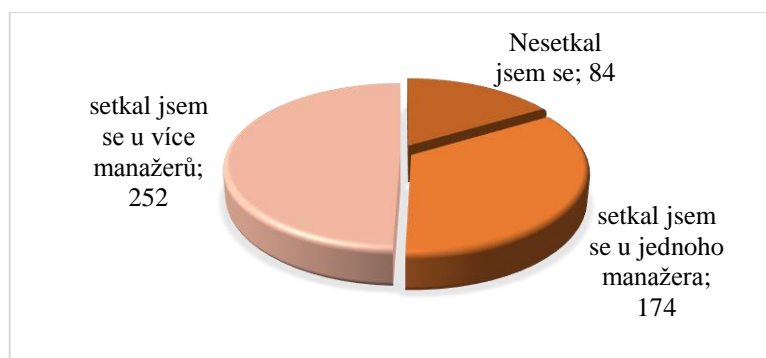


Obr. 3. Struktura respondentů z hlediska vzdělání (vlastní výzkum)



### Některé zajímavé výstupy z provedené analýzy.

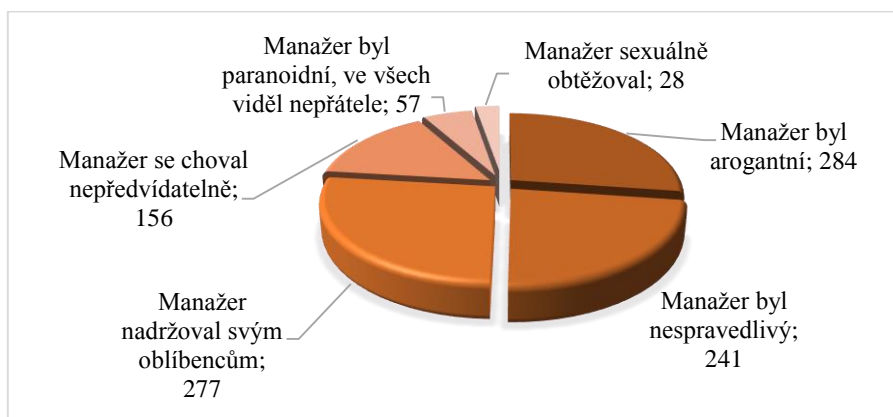
Respondenti se měli vyjádřit k osobní zkušenosti s nevhodným chováním manažera vůči podřízené osobě. Výstupy z provedené analýzy interpretuje obr. 4.



Obr. 4. Struktura odpovědí respondentů o nevhodném chování manažerů (vlastní výzkum)

Jak vyobrazuje obr. 4, s nevhodným chováním manažerů se setkalo 426 respondentů, tj. 84,86 % (!!!). Zkušenost s nevhodným chováním u jednoho manažera uvádí 34,66 % (174 respondentů), nevhodné chování u více manažerů zažilo 50,20 % (252 respondentů).

Způsoby nevhodného chování manažerů interpretuje obr. 5.



Obr. 5. Deklarované způsoby nevhodného chování manažerů (vlastní výzkum)

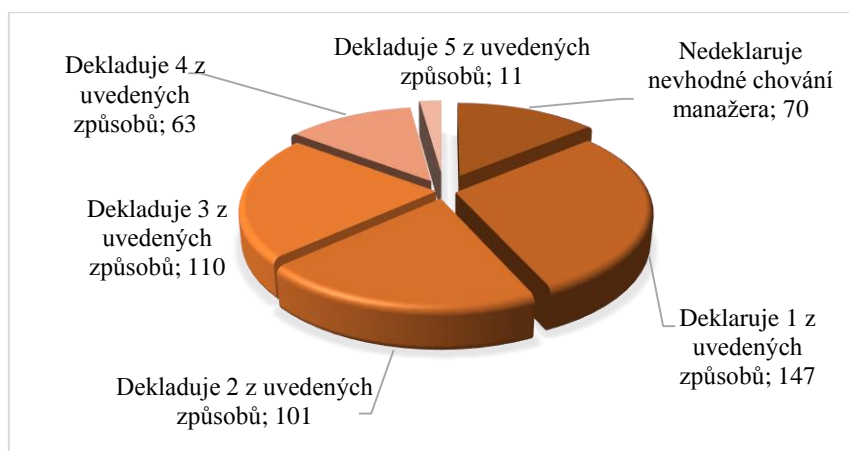
U způsobu (forem) nevhodného chování mohli respondenti zaškrtnout v dotazníku několik možností, které považují subjektivně za významné<sup>2</sup>. Nejčtenější formou nevhodného chování manažerů byla respondenty uvedena arogance – kterou uvedlo 284 respondentů (56,57 %). Druhou nejvíce udávanou formou nevhodného chování byl nevhodně diferencovaný přístup k zaměstnancům („nadržování“ svým oblíbenčům), kterou uvedlo 277 respondentů (55,18 %). Nespravedlivost v rozhodování považovalo 241 respondentů (48,00 %) za nevhodné chování manažerů. Nepředvídatelnost chování a rozhodování považuje 156 respondentů (31,08 %) za nevhodné chování, paranoidní chování manažerů deklarovalo 57 respondentů (11,35 %). Ne nevýznamným způsobem nevhodného chování manažerů je sexuální obtěžování, které

<sup>2</sup> Proto v relativních četnostech uvádíme počet respondentů, kteří položku uvedli v poměru k celkovému počtu respondentů. Vzhledem k tomu, že respondenti mohli uvést i více položek nevhodného chování, součet relativních četnosti převyšuje 100 %.





deklarovalo 28 (!!!) respondentů (5,58 %). Vzhledem k tomu, že v dotazníkovém šetření měli možnost respondenti uvést několik forem nevhodného chování manažerů, uvádíme i četnost deklarovaných forem nevhodného chování na obr. 6.



Obr. 6. Četnost deklarovaných forem nevhodného chování manažerů (vlastní výzkum)

Absenci nevhodného chování manažerů deklarovalo 70 respondentů (14 %) – zbylých 86 % (!!!) respondentů potvrdilo přítomnost alespoň jedné z forem nevhodného chování u manažerů. 147 respondentů (29 %) deklarovalo jednu z uvedených forem nevhodného chování, 101 respondentů (20 %) potvrdilo přítomnost nevhodného chování ve dvou formách. Tři z uvedených nevhodných způsobů chování uvedlo 110 respondentů (22 %).

Následně byla vyhodnocena kvalita pracovních podmínek na pracovišti. Kvalita pracovních podmínek byla dána souhrnem odpovědí respondentů na 12 dotazů se čtyř bodovou Likertovou škálou; a od respondentů se požadovalo vyjádření stupně souhlasu, resp. nesouhlasu s výroky zaměřenými na kvalitu pracovních podmínek. K testování byly stanovené výzkumné otázky:

**VO<sub>1</sub>:** Liší se hodnocení kvalita pracovních podmínek na pracovišti v závislosti na pohlaví?

**VO<sub>2</sub>:** Liší se hodnocení kvalita pracovních podmínek na pracovišti v závislosti na vzdělání?

a jim odpovídající pracovní hypotézy:

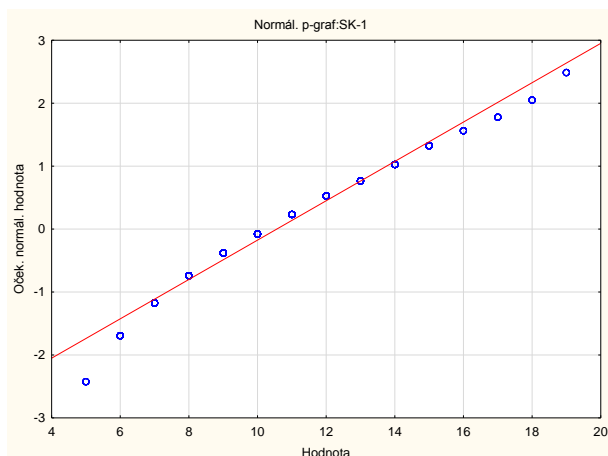
**H<sub>01</sub>:** Vnímání kvality pracovních podmínek na pracovišti se v závislosti na pohlaví respondentů neliší.

**HA<sub>1</sub>:** Vnímání kvality pracovních podmínek na pracovišti je v závislosti na pohlaví na pohlaví odlišné.

**H<sub>02</sub>:** Vnímání kvality pracovních podmínek na pracovišti se v závislosti na vzdělání respondentů neliší.

**HA<sub>2</sub>:** Vnímání kvality pracovních podmínek na pracovišti je v závislosti na vzdělání odlišné.

V sesbíraném výzkumném vzorku byly ověřené předpoklady použití statistických metod, zejména normalita a homoskedasticita. V případě vícerozměrných náhodných výběrů hraje hlavní roli předpoklad, že data pocházejí z vícerozměrného normálního rozdělení. Testování vícerozměrné normality je poměrně komplikovaná úloha (Meloun, Militký, Hill, 2012, s. 49). Z důvodů vizualizace byly výsledky testů předpokladů znázorněny diagnostickými grafy pomocí tzv. N-P (Normal Probability Plot) plotů (obr. 7), včetně výpočetních výsledků testu normality Kolmogorovovým-Smirnovovým K-S testem a Shapiro-Wilkovým W-testem (tab. 1) a testů shody rozptylů (homoskedasticity) F-testem (tab. 2).



Obr. 7. Diagnostický graf N-P plot zkoumaného datového souboru (vlastní výzkum)

Tab. 1. Výsledky testování normality (vlastní výzkum)

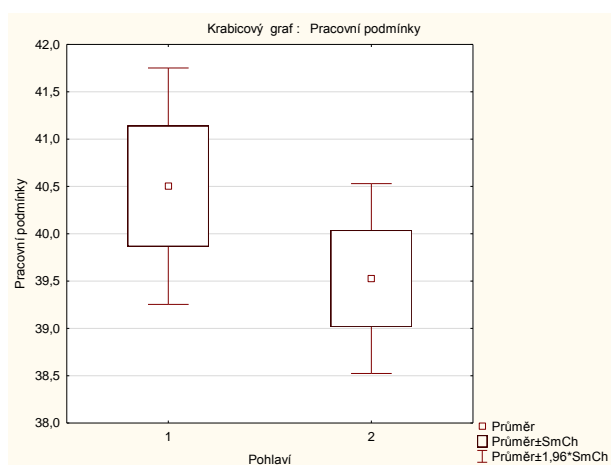
Testování normality			
Kolmogorovovův-Smirnovův K-S test	d = 0,1034	p < 0,1	normalita <b>zamítnuta</b>
Shapiro-Wilksův W-test	w = 0,9640	p = 0,0000	normalita <b>zamítnuta</b>

Tab.2. Výsledky testování homoskedasticity (vlastní výzkum)

Testování homoskedasticita			
F = 1,0620	p = 0,5520	pohlaví	homoskedasticita <b>přijata</b>
F = 1,1750	p = 0,2625	vzdělání	homoskedasticita <b>přijata</b>

Vzhledem k obdržným výsledkům testování lze konstatovat, že nejsou splněny podmínky pro použití parametrických matematicko-statistických metod, proto bylo při analýze dat využito neparametrických testů. Pro testování významnosti dvou nezávislých průměrů byl použit Mannův –Whitneyův U test.

K výzkumné otázce VO<sub>1</sub> (rozdíl ve vnímání kvality pracovních podmínek v závislosti na pohlaví) jsme vyobrazili krabicový diagram na obr. 8.



Obr. 8. Rozdíly v hodnocení kvality pracovních podmínek na pracovišti mezi ženy (1 – nalevo) a muži (2 – napravo), 502 respondentů (vlastní výzkum)



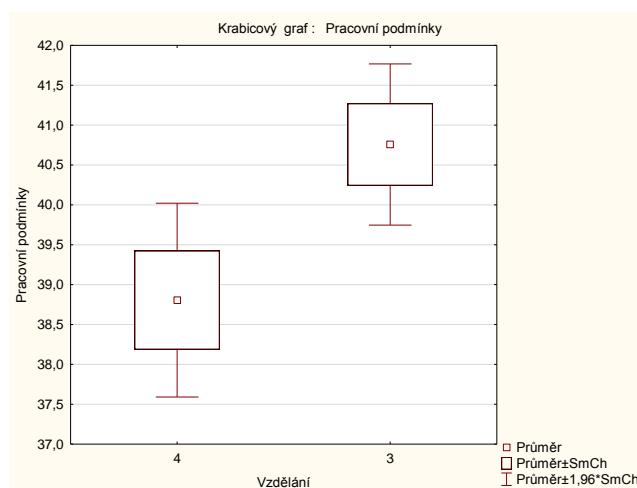
Jak je patrné z grafu (obr. 8) muži hodnotí pracovní podmínky lépe, než ženy. Pro ověření statistické významnosti tohoto rozdílu jsme použili Mannův-Whitneyův U test (tab. 3).

Tab. 3. Výsledky testování rozdílů v závislosti na pohlaví (vlastní výzkum)

Statistické rozdíly – pohlaví				
	U	Z	p	
Pracovní podmínky	28091	0,975	0,345	<b>Hypotéza H<sub>01</sub> přijata</b>

Z obdržných výsledků konstatujeme, že na 5ti procentní hladině významnosti přijímáme pracovní hypotézu H<sub>01</sub>, tj. **neexistuje statisticky významný rozdíl v hodnocení kvality pracovních podmínek v závislosti na pohlaví.**

K ověření výzkumné otázky VO<sub>2</sub> (rozdíl ve vnímání kvality pracovních podmínek v závislosti na vzdělání) jsme vyobrazili krabicový diagram na obr. 9.



Obr. 9. Rozdíly v hodnocení kvality pracovních podmínek na pracovišti mezi respondenty s vysokoškolským (4 – nalevo) a středoškolským (3 – napravo) vzděláním, 502 respondentů (vlastní výzkum)

Z obr. 9 je patrné, že respondenti s vysokoškolským vzděláním vnímají pracovní podmínky na pracovišti jako horší ve srovnání s respondenty se středoškolským vzděláním. Pro ověření statistické významnosti tohoto rozdílu jsme použili Mannův-Whitneyův U test (tab. 4).

Tab. 4 Výsledky testování rozdílů v závislosti na vzdělání (vlastní výzkum)

Statistické rozdíly – vzdělání				
	U	Z	p	
Pracovní podmínky	27877	-1,984	0,047	<b>Hypotéza H<sub>02</sub> zamítnuta</b>

Z obdržných výsledků konstatujeme, že na 5ti procentní hladině významnosti zamítáme pracovní hypotézu H<sub>02</sub> a přijímáme alternativní hypotézu H<sub>A2</sub> tj. **existuje statisticky významný rozdíl v hodnocení kvality pracovních podmínek v závislosti na vzdělání – respondenti se středoškolským vzděláním vnímají vytvořené pracovní podmínky na pracovišti více pozitivně, než respondenti s vysokoškolským vzděláním.**



## 5. Závěr

Řízení lidských zdrojů je v současnosti jednou z nejdynamičtější se rozvíjejících oblastí řízení organizace. Významným faktorem, který má vliv na výkonnost organizace, je podniková (firemní, organizační) kultura a pracovní podmínky zaměstnanců. V příspěvku jsme poukázali na některé nedostatky v řízení státních organizací z hlediska jejich vnímání samotnými zaměstnanci. Jak uvádí prof. Koubek: „Význam pracovních vztahů pro personální práci v organizaci je mimořádný. Pracovní vztahy, jejich kvalita vytvářejí rámec významně ovlivňující dosahování cílů organizace i pracovních a životních cílů jednotlivých pracovníků. Korektní, harmonické, uspokojivé pracovní a mezilidské vztahy vytvářejí produktivní klima, které má velmi pozitivní vliv na individuální, kolektivní i celkový výkon organizace“ (Koubek, 2007, s. 305).

Prioritní postavení v rámci utváření kultury v organizaci mají manažeři. Manažeři by si vždy měli být vědomi skutečnosti, že jejich pracovní úspěchy a výkonnost jsou hodnoceny podle výsledků, jichž dosahují jimi vedené pracovní kolektivy. Každý manažer by měl být tolerantní vůči individuálním odlišnostem každého člena kolektivu, umí vhodně přidělovat pravomoci a zodpovědnost, uplatňuje vhodný systém odměňování pro členy kolektivu, který vede. Podporuje rozvoj kreativity podřízených pracovníků a usiluje o zvyšování jejich odborné kvalifikace a pracovní kariéry (Mládková & Jedinák, 2009, s. 32).

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## **SIMULATION OF REPEATED PRISONER'S DILEMMA FOR THE GROUPS OF INTEREST IN THE COMPANY**

JURAJ DUBOVEC, JANA MAKYŠOVÁ

### **Abstract**

This paper describes the simulation of repeated prisoner's dilemma for the creation and functioning of groups of interest (coalitions) in the company. The model was created for actors who can enter to the groups of interest and create coalitions. The simulation was made for 400 actors with different parameter of neighbourhood, learning strategy and different taxation (costs) for each decision. Results are showing interesting characteristics of informal coalitions in the company. Examining different types of strategies of informal networks can help to better understand the dynamic process of forming of these networks and profit from these activities appropriate for improvement of company results using convenient motivation approaches.

**Key words:** coalition, social network, model, simulation, theory of games, prisoner's dilemma.

**Classification JEL:** M12 – Personnel Management.

### **1. Introduction**

The description of behaviour in social network is mostly inspired by works examining social networks which are created while is repeated the prisoner's dilemma in evolutionary environment, to be specific in (*Smucker, Stanley & Ashlock, 1994*) and (*Ashloch et al., 1996*). The basic starting point is statement that the node's behaviour in social network do vary a lot depending on many different factors. In original work (*Cook, 1983*) is used the term population besides the term network but the core of the term stays the same. It is a group of nodes joined together because of repeated prisoner's dilemma (*Kadushin, 2004*).

Human beings have an inborn desire to create 'jingsangs' and groups, which offer them background, security and the feel of privacy. Interest groups are created by similar types of nodes with common relations. All works dealing with the problem of closeness confirmed the fact that geographically close nodes have a greater probability to create a relation. Similarly, there is a greater chance to create a relation in case when the node lies on the geographical connecting line of other nodes (*Festinger, Schachter & Back, 1950*).

Milgram & Travers (*Milgram & Travers, 1969*) posed the term 'distance' in their controversial work about the "small world". In principal it is about the largeness of nodes' surroundings, whereby the premise of the mentioned work is that whole population is situated around the 6<sup>th</sup> degree of any node. This premise was lauded at least as much as it was criticized. The work of Judith Kleinfeld (*Kleinfeld, 2002*) anticipates low distance between nodes in particular networks, but a big distance (if even the junction exists) between particular networks. The problem is described more in detail in (*Dubovec, 2015*).

### **2. Model of the game**

Interesting is the situation when this game is played by more players (actors) who can conclude so-called coalitions. Players – members of one coalition do always cooperate and they betray players from another coalition (the cooperation is possible too). Each player can enter and leave any coalition. But s/he has a right to be a member only in one coalition. Each coalition has its leader represented by a player around which the creation of coalition started. This one is authorised to collect a tax which makes its profit. It is also forbidden to a leader to leave the coalition. Also, this leader can make part of another coalition only when all members of his/hers coalition become members of another coalition or become independent.



### 3. Game simulation

The simulation software for the model of this game was created by Jozef Danko, the student of the Faculty of management science and informatics of the University of Žilina. The game is simulated on the surface 20x20 cells, where each cell is assigned to one player, so 400 players in total.

In the beginning of the simulation there is no one coalition. In this moment is set up a “parameter of neighbourhood”. This indicates with which players from neighbourhood the player plays. This parameter in our simulation had values from 1 to 3 (Figures 1, 2 and 3).

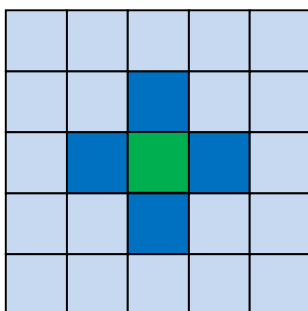


Figure 1. The display of who the player is playing with when ‘parameter of neighbourhood’ is equal to 1. The middle cell (green) represents the player, dark blue cells are neighbours with which this player cooperates

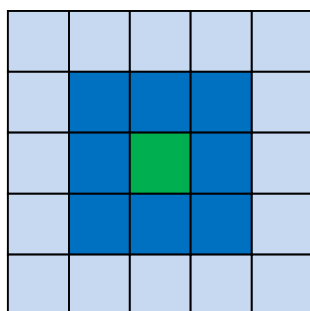


Figure 2. The situation when parameter of neighbourhood is equal to 2

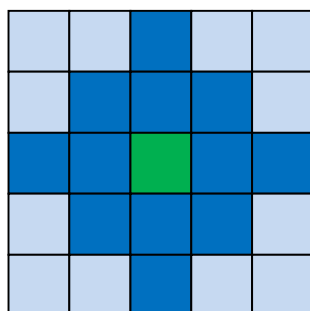


Figure 3. The situation when parameter of neighbourhood is equal to 3

Depending on the value of ‘neighbourhood parameter’ the amount of finance decrement changes, too. The player consider each neighbour as equal and so she or he (s/he) does not give priority to anyone neither discriminates in accordance to distance. Players are divided into two groups respectfully to the strategy they adopt. One strategy is a ‘random strategy’. The player



decides before each game either s/he will cooperate or betray. The addiction of the player to betray is a random number generated before the first game with a uniform distribution on the interval (0, 1). There are so players ready for the cooperation as well as those who do almost always betray.

Another type of strategy is a ‘learning strategy’. In the first game, the player with this strategy behave in the same way as the player with ‘random strategy’. For the next games s/he tries to learn from the mistakes of others. So s/he will check all his/hers neighbours and will play in the same way as the neighbour who had greatest benefit in the previous game. In case that the player who is not the member of any coalition (so is independent) has a lower benefit than any of his/her neighbours or would have his/her financial result negative after the end of the game, s/he will enter to a coalition. S/he choose one by watching his/her neighbours who are not leaders of any coalition and enter to the one where belongs the neighbour player with the highest revenue. If neither this player is a coalition leader than it is right know when s/he becomes the leader. In case s/he does not have any neighbours who are not leaders, s/he checks also those neighbours who are leaders. All players in one coalition cooperate among themselves and at the same time they betray everybody out of their coalition.

The leader of the coalition imposes a tax on every member requesting a certain percentage from their revenue. The percentage amount is 100 times greater than the random number from uniform distribution on the interval (0, 1) which is generated before the first game. During each round of the game all players, members but not leaders of the coalition, will evaluate their satisfaction with the coalition. They will check all their neighbours who are not leaders and if they find one or more who’s benefit is greater than theirs, their satisfaction with their leader will decrease. In opposite case their satisfaction will increase. After the decrease of the satisfaction under a critical level, the player thinks how s/he would act. S/he will check all his/her neighbours once again and will enter the coalition where belongs the neighbour with the greater revenue among those who are not members of any coalition. If s/he has no a neighbour who is not a leader, s/he will check also leaders. However it is possible that the player will not change his/her coalition even if s/he is not satisfied with his/her own.

The simulation itself consists of *separate games* which number can change during the simulation. Each separate game consist of these steps:

- The choice of the game strategy (either s/he will cooperate or betray);
- The chosen game will be evaluated (the player will find out his/her revenue);
- Imposed tax will be collected;
- The player checks it satisfaction and can change the coalition;
- The revenue will be put down to an account.

On the Figure 4 we can see the printscreen taken during the simulation. In the top left corner we can set the percentage of players using the ‘learning strategy’ and in the next cell we can set the ‘neighbourhood parameter’. This values have to be set before the simulation starts. The simulation starts when the button ‘Create simulation’ is pressed. This initializes the game area with all its players. Then the game continues by pressing buttons ‘Next step’ or ‘n Steps’. The game area is placed above these buttons where each cell represents a player, each colour represents different coalitions and crossed cells are leaders. By clicking on a particular cell, we can get information about this particular player. Concerning the game in previous round, this one is only described by a number: 1 means cooperation, 2 means betray and 10 means the game in coalition.

On the right side of the game area (the middle square surface) is a ‘map of strategies’ where green colour represents ‘random strategy’ and red colour ‘learning strategy’. Absolutely on the right (to the right of this map) is a “map of taxes”. The clearer is the colour of the cell lower are taxes in the coalition. An exact amount of tax can be showed by pressing the desired player/cell.



Under these maps are displayed graphs representing how particular strategies are doing, what is the medium tax amount, and how many coalitions exist.

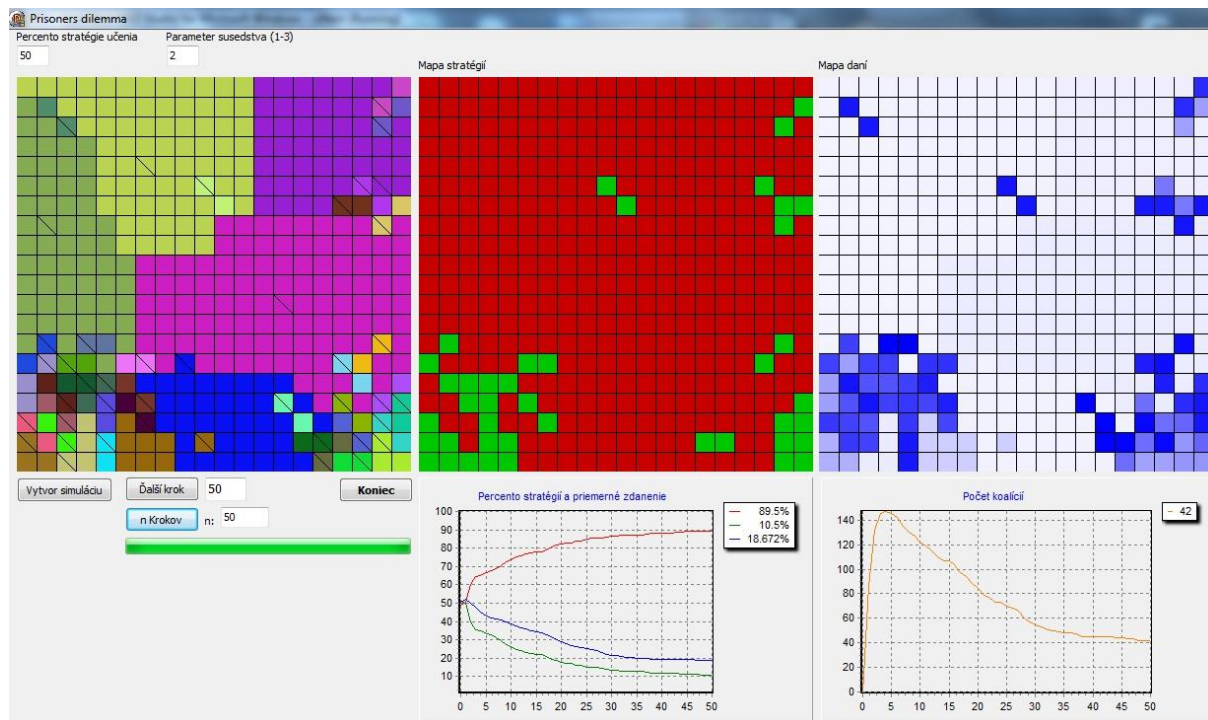


Figure 4. The simulation after 50 games for ‘neighbourhood parameter’ equal to 2.

#### 4. Results of the simulation

Simulations were performed for 3 ‘neighbourhood parameters’. In the game beginning there were always 50% of players with each strategy. For each parameter were made 20 simulations. Each simulation consisted of that number of games which led to a stabilization of the situation on game area (final and persisting state) when any of players had no reason to leave his/her coalition. For the ‘neighbourhood parameter’ equal to 1 that was 30 games. For ‘neighbourhood parameters’ equal to 2 and 3 it was 100 games.

Table 1. Results for the simulation when neighbourhood parameter was equal to 1 (own study)

Experiment N°	Learning strategy	Random strategy	Medium tax	Number of coalitions
1	43.75	56.25	48.150	160
2	50.75	49.25	37.567	142
3	50.25	49.75	42.828	162
4	55.00	45.00	44.854	151
5	50.00	50.00	40.585	148
6	53.00	47.00	40.890	143
7	46.50	53.50	40.951	143
8	48.00	52.00	41.537	154
9	53.00	47.00	44.384	160
10	52.00	48.00	44.717	151
11	53.00	47.00	43.551	147





12	56.50	43.50	46.923	151
13	48.25	51.75	42.485	140
14	49.50	50.50	40.901	152
15	59.00	41.00	44.166	148
16	53.50	46.50	44.435	154
17	54.25	45.75	40.413	146
18	48.75	51.25	43.342	152
19	47.00	53.00	40.480	151
20	54.25	45.75	41.415	153
Average	51.3125	48.6875	42.7287	150.4

Table 2. Results for the simulation when 'neighbourhood parameter' was equal to 2 (own study)

Experiment N°	Learning strategy	Random strategy	Medium tax	Number of coalitions
1	60.00	40.00	13.316	30
2	42.75	57.25	8.637	23
3	45.00	55.00	9.500	19
4	22.25	77.75	19.610	46
5	76.50	23.50	14.089	38
6	60.50	39.50	23.429	64
7	53.50	46.50	7.556	19
8	82.25	17.75	3.050	8
9	63.25	36.75	8.407	19
10	19.25	80.75	21.177	46
11	88.00	12.00	12.578	38
12	62.50	37.50	17.304	49
13	45.75	54.25	22.444	61
14	20.50	79.50	4.559	13
15	80.00	20.00	7.019	20
16	58.50	41.50	13.209	34
17	89.00	11.00	9.623	26
18	22.25	77.75	10.975	28
19	57.50	42.50	4.471	11
20	69.00	31.00	9.549	25
Average	55.9125	44.0875	12.0251	30.85

Table 3. Results for the simulation when 'neighbourhood parameter' was equal to 3 (own study)

Experiment N°	Learning strategy	Random strategy	Medium tax	Number of coalitions
1	35.75	64.25	7.757	4
2	72.50	27.50	0.822	3



3	64.75	35.25	5.116	4
4	21.00	79.00	4.945	5
5	51.75	48.25	2.289	6
6	67.50	32.50	3.944	6
7	39.75	60.25	4.397	7
8	86.00	14.00	4.139	6
9	77.25	22.75	3.434	6
10	100.00	0.00	5.58	7
11	37.75	62.25	2.774	6
12	73.50	26.50	6.791	6
13	59.25	40.75	3.237	3
14	53.00	47.00	4.825	9
15	100.00	0.00	2.879	4
16	66.25	33.75	6.741	5
17	46.00	54.00	0.081	2
18	26.50	73.50	4.093	5
19	47.00	53.00	5.313	5
20	100.00	0.00	5.788	3
Average	61.275	38.725	4.24725	5.1

It is possible to observe in Tables with results (Tables 1, 2 and 3) some interesting facts. One of them points to relation between ‘neighbourhood parameter’ and ‘learning strategy’. More the ‘neighbourhood parameter’ increase, more increase also a final ratio of ‘learning strategy’ in the population. That is because this strategy is stronger than the other one and under the ‘improved information’ caused by greater ‘neighbourhood parameter’ and other players will hear about the successful player easier.

Also, and that is more evident, this ‘improved information’ decrease the total number of coalitions because players have better overview of neighbour coalitions where taxes are lower making possible to their members get better profit and so other players would like to enter that coalition, too. As a confirmation can be presented the fact that not only the number of coalitions is decreasing but also a medium tax decreases. Discovering this similarity (low taxes occurring simultaneously with low number of coalitions and reversely) we decided to test if there is really dependence between these two data.

For that intention was used Pearson correlation testing the independence of values. It gives results on interval  $(-1, 1)$ . The result close to 0 indicates independent values. Result close to absolute value 1 indicates dependent values. In case that the result is a positive number than the growth of one value causes the growth on the other one (continual proportion). In opposite case it is an inverse proportion and growth of one value generate the diminution of the other one. Figures 5, 6 and 7 offer visual presentation of Pearson correlation results.

Numeric result of Pearson correlation is presented in Table 4. There is an apparent dependence for ‘neighbourhood parameter’ equal to 2 (can be seen on Figure 6) which is not true for two others ‘neighbourhood parameters’. However, there can be distinguished some kind of dependence (can be also seen on Figure 5). Authors suppose that it is an outcome of ‘chaos’ on the game area because of the lack of information and so many players stay in the coalition of such leader who soaks them with taxes greater than 90% what drives them to a permanent negative budget, but because they want to become independent they abide with this leader.

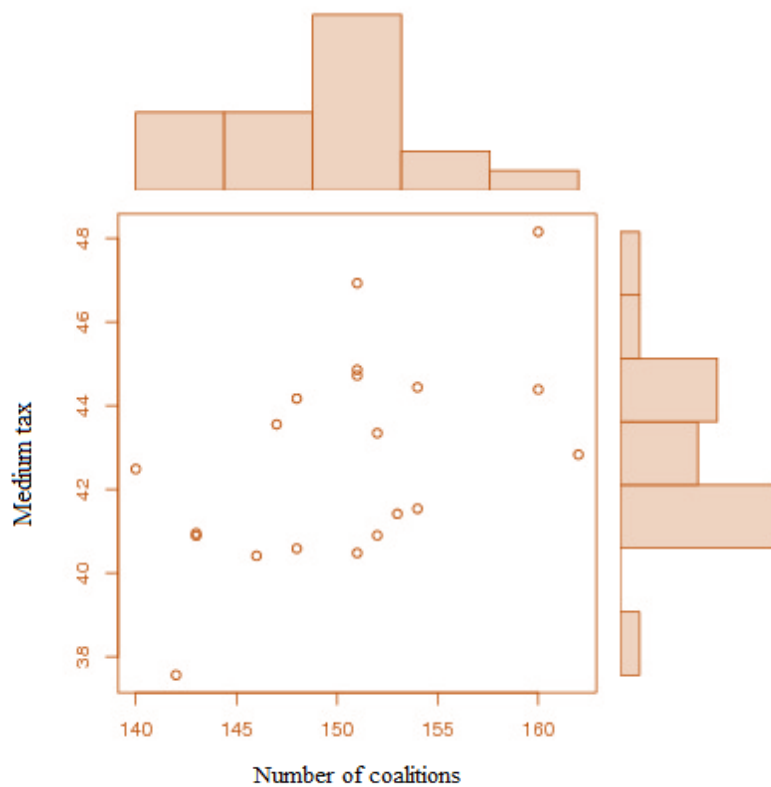


Figure 5. Graphical interpretation of values distribution for 'neighbourhood parameter' equal to 1 (own study)

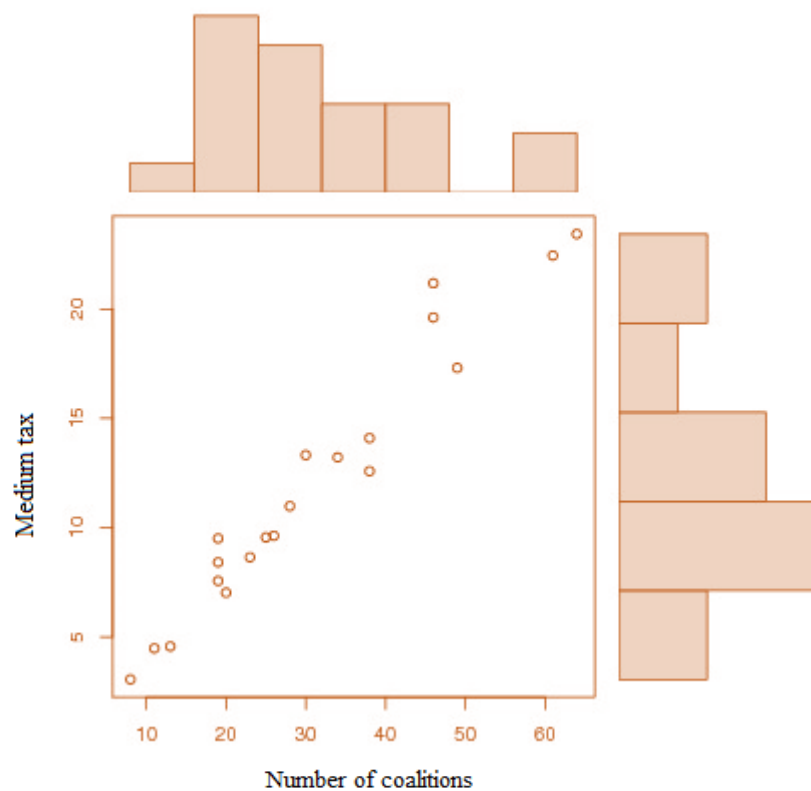


Figure 6. Graphical interpretation of values distribution for 'neighbourhood parameter' equal to 2 (own study)

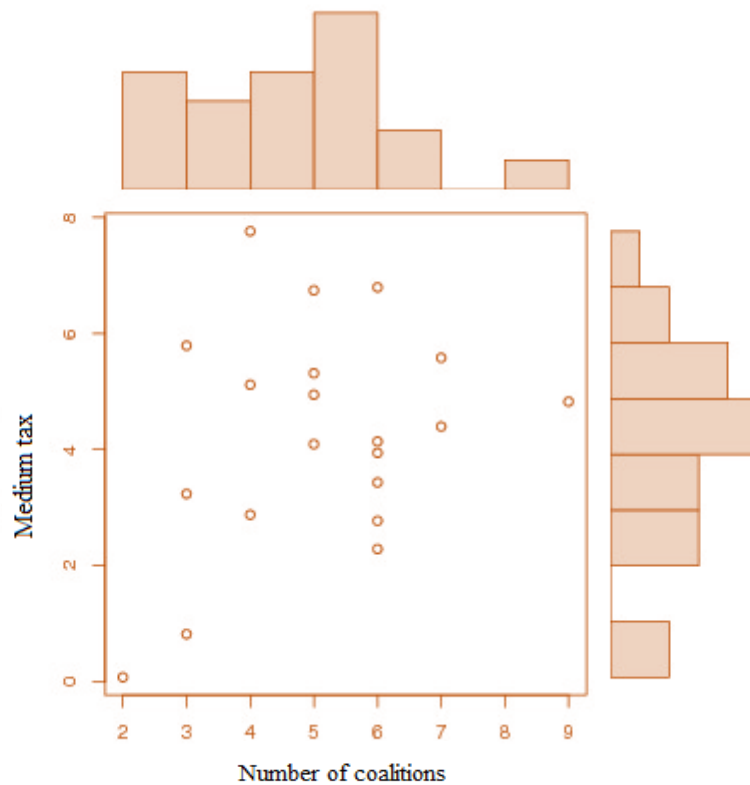


Figure 6. Graphical interpretation of values distribution for 'neighbourhood parameter' equal to 3 (own study)

Table 4. Results of testing using Pearson correlation (own study)

Neighbourhood parameter	Pearson correlation
1	0.52
2	0.97
3	0.29

During the decision taking about an appropriate coalition to enter they already see him/her as a regular player having a high revenue (thanks to taxes payed by the player who is trying to decide) and so s/he will again enter the same coalition. When there are more coalitions in second simulation, taxes are greater especially in areas where many smaller coalitions are close one to the other and so they create something similar to above-mentioned 'chaos'.

The last simulation (Figure 6) has a very low dependence because Pearson correlation is not applicable for the case with low number of coalitions. This is only hypothesis which could be verified using bigger game area where also more coalitions could be created.

## 5. Conclusion

For managers it is important to know which informal employee groupments will create coalitions potentially developing to groups of interest and consequently having influence on company results. It is equally important to direct the energy of these coalition to improvement of company environment.

Examining different types of strategies of informal networks can help to better understand the dynamic process of forming of these networks and profit from these activities appropriate for improvement of company results using convenient motivation approaches.



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## CHANGES IN MOTIVATING EMPLOYEES IN CROATIAN WOOD PROCESSING COMPANY IN TWO DIFFERENT BUSINESS ENVIRONMENTS

JOSIP FALETAR, DENIS JELAČIĆ

### Abstract

In this research motivation and de-motivation factors in wood processing company were analyzed. Research was conducted in year 2010, in the time of full economic crisis, and in year 2014, at the beginning of the economic recovery. Research was conducted by survey using questionnaire containing 6 questions with offered statements. Questions were of closed type and respondents were using four-level scale of importance for each statement. Total of 180 employees were surveyed, and results were statistically processed by using  $\chi^2$ -test and cluster analysis. It was established, that motivation factors which are the most important to employees in a company, are significantly different in the time of economic crisis and in the period of economic recovery. Employees were most concerned about physiological needs in the time of crisis and in the time of economic recovery employees considered social needs more important. Also, employees considered psychological circumstances of work more important in year 2014 than in year 2010. Employees' motivation is of key significance for more efficient and higher quality production and business results, so such research should be conducted more often.

**Key words:** motivation, de-motivation factors, wood processing, furniture manufacturing, restructuring.

**Classification JEL:** M12 – Personnel Management.

### 1. Introduction

To achieve a quality production result, besides technical-technological factors which influence on it, one of the most important factors is employees' motivation for work. Motivated employees come to work with enthusiasm and wish to fulfill their daily obligations in the most satisfying way, because it guaranties that their business results would be on the level required, satisfaction with their results would be higher and their salaries would be bigger. Un-motivated employees very hardly fulfill their obligations, so their production and business results are on the much lower level than required by company or by market (*Jelačić et al., 2010*).

In the period of economic down-turn there are lot of de-motivating factors that occur, and those which already existed regarding unsatisfying business results are getting even stronger. Employees are facing the uncertainty, along with other fears such as fear of losing jobs, lower salaries and others. On one side, there is a need to implement production and business system for more efficient work, and on the other side, restructuring and cost reduction process has to be introduced along with searching the possibility for selling products improvement. In that vicious circle it is important to establish which motivating factors will help employees to work with more enthusiasm and bigger wish for success (*Kropivšek et al., 2011*).

Some of the newer researches within companies for wood processing and furniture manufacturing (*Kropivšek, 2003; Kropivšek & Rozman, 2007*) reveal some organization cultures where the main goal is to motivate employees, which can represent the additional problem in given circumstances. It can be stated that almost all motivation factors lay in the hands of management. The main question is does management know how to use them? Motivation means that somebody does something because he/she wants to do it, and all management has to do is to motivate and stimulate him/her that way (*Keenan, 1996; Herzberg, 2008, George and Jones, 1999*). Motivation is a process (awakening) of persons' activities, with an accent to certain details and regulation to achieve a certain goal and overcome some obstacles in a process (*Jelačić et al., 2010*). It can be said that motivation contains all factors



such as enthusiasm, wish, intention, persistence, etc., which motivate and point ones behaviour in certain direction (*Daft et al, 2000*).

Previous research showed that human activities are motivated by one or many very complicated factors, known and unknown. Factors that influence human activities are individual and very often part of the human social life. Therefore, some routine motivating approach may be un-effective, because they are not adapted to individual person. The main goal of these activities is to satisfy the wishes and expectations of an individual person, which are formed based on his/hers material and social needs, needs for respects, independence and personal growth and development.

Motivating theories may be divided in two groups: (1) motivation of contents and (2) motivation of process. First group of theories is researching factors that motivate to certain behaviour, and the other group of theories is studying the reasons for certain behaviour.

Among the contents theories most recognized are Maslow theory of needs and Glasser theory of choice. It is to be assumed that all human behaviour is pointed to satisfying basic needs (*Glasser, 1999; Glasser, 1994; Kropivšek et al., 2011; Jelačić et al., 2008*). Knowing the profile of persons needs may form the basis for making the right approach for efficient and successful leadership (*Kropivšek, 2007; Jelačić et al., 2007*). One of those theories are given by Herzberg who gives two main factors – factors/motivators and hygienic factors (factors which keep the normal level of satisfaction).

Among the process theories there is a theory of a problem, which is based on a statement that people are willing to solve problems. Problem automatically initiate the reaction of an employee. Hackman-Oldhamer's model of enrichment is based on three key psychological circumstances (importance of work, responsibility and knowing of results) which influence the motivation on working place. Fromm gives a theory which says that people work because they either want to have something or because they want to be somebody/something (*Fromm, 1996*).

The presented ideas have led to the currying out of the empirical research in Croatian wood processing and furniture manufacturing companies, which *aim* was to establish which motivating factors are the most important to employees and on which level they are, before the restructuring in the period of full economic down-turn, and after the restructuring and implementation of a new stimulation and motivation system.

## 2. Research methods

Research method for collecting data was a survey conducted by questionnaire for employees which consisted of 6 questions. Within the questionnaire, the condition of key presumptions of different motivational theories were checked. Questions were of closed type and respondents were using four-level scale of importance for each statement. Total number of 180 employees was surveyed in one company for wood processing and furniture manufacturing. Survey was conducted twice, in the year 2010 – the year of full recession and economic down-turn, and in the year 2014 – the year of economic recovery, after the new motivation/stimulation system was introduced.

Differences in the frequency of answers given by employees between the year 2010 and year 2014 were tested by  $\chi^2$ -test for each individual question (the hypothesis  $H_0$  was that distributions of answers to the same question given in both years were equal). The test showed that there is a statistically significant difference between distribution of all answers given in the year 2010 and those given in the year 2014 (for all tested values  $p < 0.01$ ). So, the aim was to establish which answers to given questions were closer to each other than others. Therefore the cluster analysis was conducted.

The Clustering method was used to find distances between questions. For computing distances between questions, the percent disagreement measure distance  $(x, y) = (\text{number of } x_i \neq y_i)/i$  was used because of the categorical nature of the answers. For the Clustering algorithm



hierarchical single linkage (nearest neighbor) method was used. In this method the distance between two clusters is determined by the distance of the two closest objects in the different clusters  $d(C_i \cup C_j, C_k) = \min. (d(C_i, C_k), d(C_j, C_k))$ . All statistical analysis and graphical presentations were done using the STATISTICA 10.0 statistical software.

### 3. Research results

The results of the Cluster analysis are given in Figures 1 to 6, showing the tree diagrams for answers to each question for year 2010 and 2014 respectively.

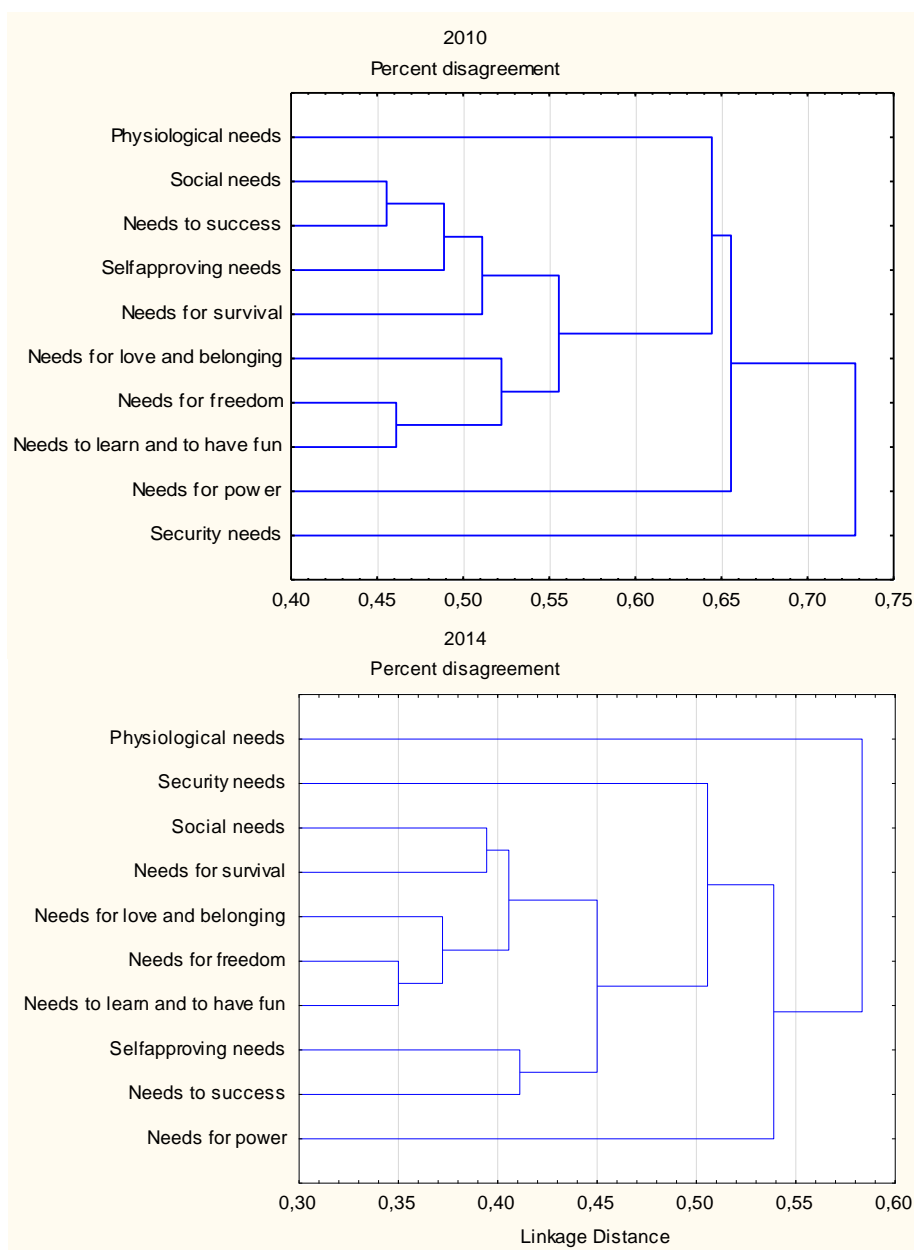


Figure 1. Tree diagram for answers to question 1 illustrating clustering for years 2010 and 2014 (own study)

Figure 1 shows that there is a strong relationship between social needs and need to success in year 2010, while there is a strong connection between needs for freedom and needs to learn





and to have fun in year 2014. Those two strongest connections practically switched places in given years, while other answers have significantly different connections in those years.

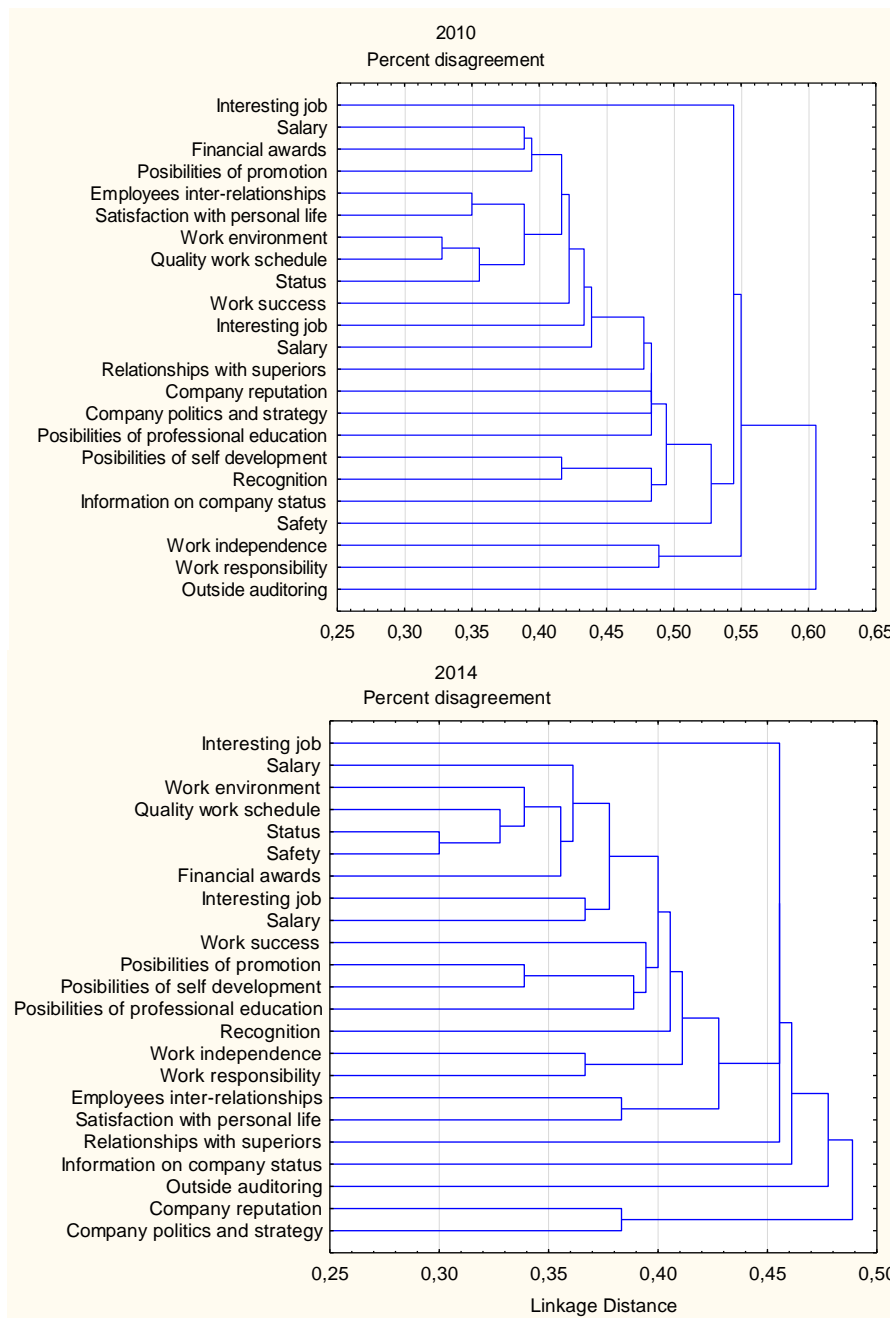


Figure 2. Tree diagram for answers to question 2 illustrating clustering for years 2010 and 2014 (own study)

Figure 2 shows that among motivation factors in year 2010 strongest relationship is between work environment and quality work schedule followed by employees' inter-relationships and satisfaction with personal life. In year 2014 situation changed and the strongest connection is between status and safety followed by quality work schedule. It means that in year 2010, when the economic situation was not satisfying and when people were afraid for their jobs, physiological needs were the most important, while in year 2014, when economic situation became better, employees get more motivated with social needs, especially within company.



Figure 3 shows the way of employees' thinking about problem as motivator, and in year 2010 employees have seen a lot of problems in the company, so they strongly connected problem as motivator and inability to see the problem for un-motivated employees. In year 2014 situation changed and employees put an accent to problem as motivator and special conditions required to solve the problem.

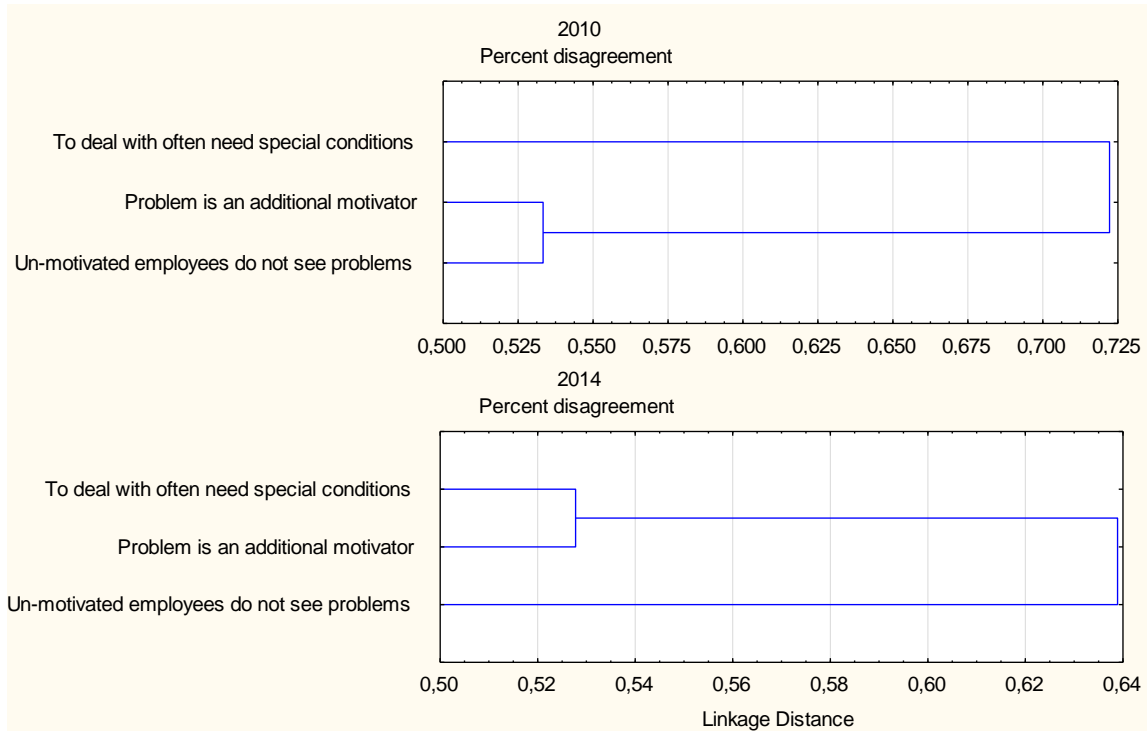


Figure 3. Tree diagram for answers to question 3 illustrating clustering for years 2010 and 2014 (own study)

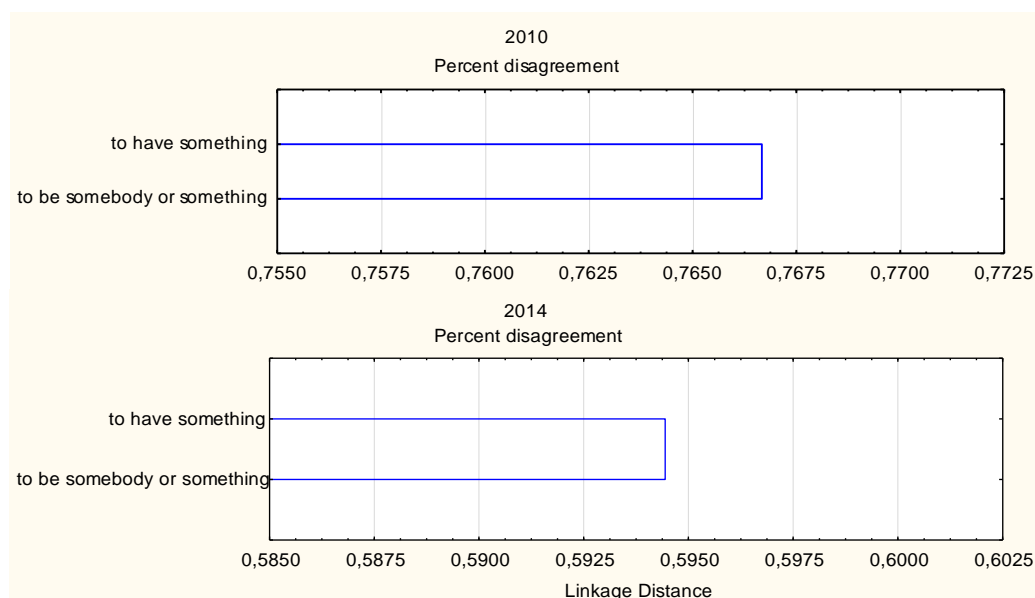


Figure 4. Tree diagram for answers to question 4 illustrating clustering for years 2010 and 2014 (own study)



As shown on the Figure 4, the linkage distance between two answers to question „Why do people work?“ is significantly different between years 2010 and 2014. While employees thought of having something was a motive to work in year 2010, in year 2014 employees consider recognition as a bigger motive to work.

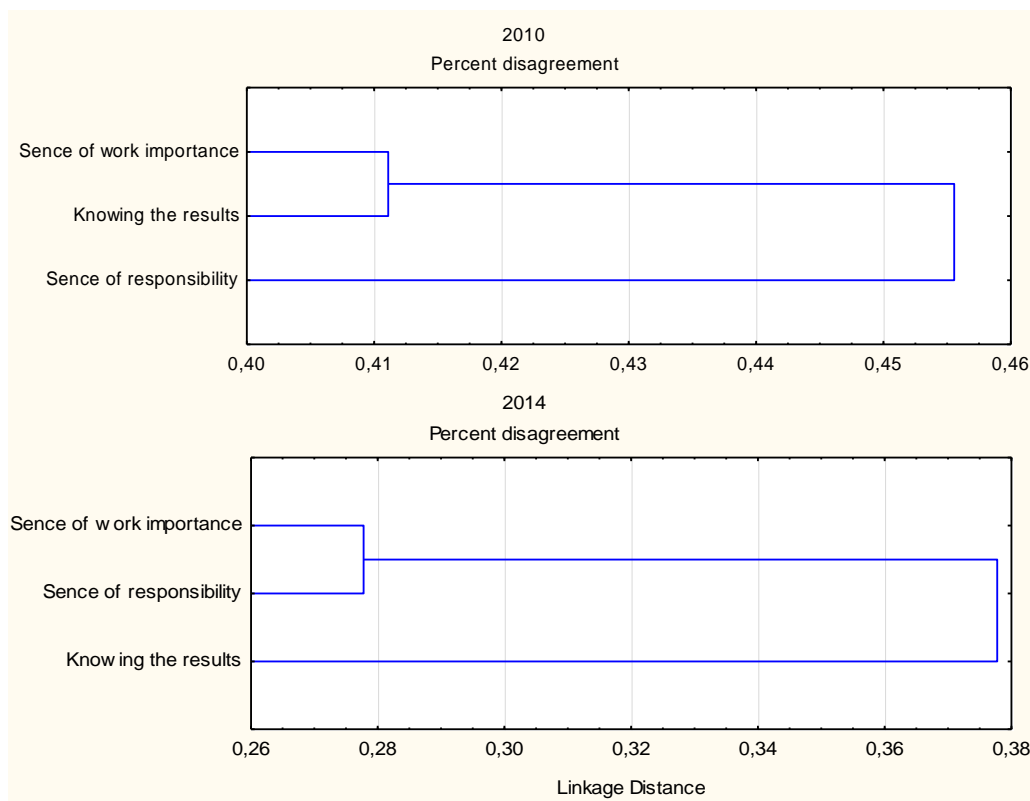


Figure 5. Tree diagram for answers to question 5 illustrating clustering for years 2010 and 2014 (own study)

Results of cluster analysis for question how psychological circumstances influence on work shows that employees were more concerned about the results, especially financial results, and meaning of work in year 2010, while in year 2014 they think more of responsibility at work connected to sense of work importance.

Regarding de-motivating factors and their presence in the company, employees considered different factors as more present in year 2010 than those in year 2014. The strongest correlation is between reprehend of employees and less freedom at work, followed by connection between less work to do and no possibility for further education in year 2010. In year 2014 strongest connection was between use of punishment in managing and creation of tensions among employees.

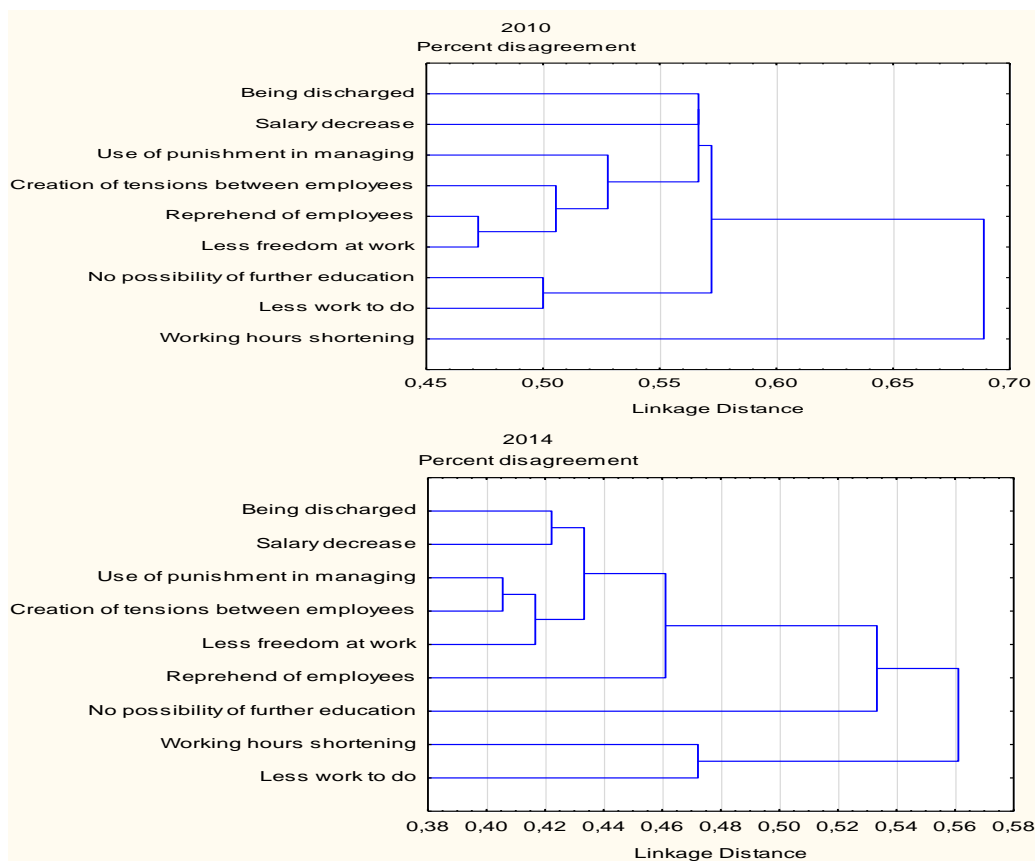


Figure 6. Tree diagram for answers to question 6 illustrating clustering for years 2010 and 2014 (own study)

#### 4. Conclusion

The aim of this research was to establish the differences between motivation of employees in wood processing company in the time of economic down-turn at its peak, and in the time of economic recovery, after new motivation and stimulation system was introduced. It is discovered that the differences between all given questions and answers were statistically significantly different, so the cluster analysis was conducted to establish the linkage distance between answers to all questions separately for both research years, 2010 and 2014.

It was discovered that employees were more afraid for their working places and their salaries in the time of crisis, which is understandable, since the situation with number of unemployed people in Croatia during the crisis was very bad and it was very hard to find another job. So, physiological needs were the most important for employees in year 2010. That situation changed in year 2014, since economic recovery started, wood processing and furniture manufacturing achieved the best results in export ever and employees in the branch felt more secure about their jobs, so they started to think about other needs, such as social needs. In year 2014 employees think more of a work conditions and quality work schedule as motivation factors.

De-motivation factors and their presence in company also changed and there is a significant difference established between results achieved in year 2010 and those from year 2014. The most important difference between years 2010 and 2014 was established among key psychological conditions at work. The grades in year 2014 are much higher than those in year 2010, which is a very good trend.



The next research of this type should be conducted in a year or two period from now, to investigate does the normal economic environment have better or different influence on motivation and de-motivation factors in the company.

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## MANAGEMENT PECULIARITIES OF RURAL TOURISM DEVELOPMENT IN LITHUANIAN AND LATVIAN REGIONS

VLADIMIRAS GRAŽULIS, RAMUTĖ NARKŪNIENĖ, ILUTA ARBIDANE

### Abstract

The authors of the article are discussing about management peculiarities of rural tourism development in Lithuanian and Latvian regions. The aim of the research is to compare the development of rural tourism in Eastern Aukštaitija region in Lithuania and Latgale region in Latvia. The analysis of scientific literature, quantitative research – survey and generalization of questionnaire data were used. 68 owners of rural tourism homesteads in Eastern Aukštaitija region and 36 owners of rural tourism homesteads in Latgale region, Latvia, were surveyed. Rural tourism is researched by scientists from the EU, including authors from Lithuania and Latvia: A. I. Polo, D. Frías, R. Sharpley, B. Brandth, M. Haugen, E. Hawkes, R. Kwortnik, A. Montarzino: Aspinall, Z. Peneze, O. Nikodemus, A. Armaitienė: Grecevičius, A. Urbis, I. Vainienė, E. Vitkienė and others. Various scientists distinguished assumptions of successful rural tourism development. The successful development of rural tourism depends on external and internal factors. External factors include legal, economic, natural, political, social and technological factors. Internal factors – the size of homesteads, the number of services, the experience of owners of the homesteads in rural business, professional knowledge of the staff and the ability to communicate in a foreign language(-s) and others. Research results are presented in conclusions. To compare the development of rural tourism in Eastern Aukštaitija region, Lithuania and in Latgale region, Latvia, it can be concluded that situation in both regions is similar with small exceptions. The main strengths of rural tourism homesteads in Lithuania and Latvia regions are the homestead location (the lake, forest and a great presence in the landscape) and existent infrastructure. The main weaknesses of rural tourism homesteads in both regions are the homestead insufficient preparation to accept persons with disabilities and the imperfection of the existing infrastructure.

**Key words:** tourism, development, rural tourism, rural tourism homestead.

**Classification JEL:** M12 – Personnel Management.

### 1. Introduction

Rural tourism is not a new phenomenon in Europe. Rural areas cover almost 91% of the territory of the EU and hold over 59% of the population. Though economic activity tends to concentrate in urban areas, rural regions generate 17% of the gross value added (GVA) and provide 22% of the employment (*European Commission, 2011*). By the data of EuroGites, rural tourism supports 900,000 direct and indirect jobs in Europe, and generates 150 billion EUR in gross income each year. In recent years the market has become more sophisticated and discriminating and there has been an increasing interest in tourism as a valuable vehicle for much needed diversification of the rural economy (*European Commission, 2000*). Rural tourism is essentially a private sector activity, driven by wealth and job creation, and often by farm diversification, which relies on landscape and related heritage conservation and infrastructure that is often paid for by the public sector. Rural tourism provides a complete tourism experience, offering both accommodation and attractions. Rural tourism creates place attachment, encouraging visitor loyalty and, therefore, repeats visits. Rural tourism has a good record in product development and innovation, and in drawing in new capital and entrepreneurs from cities, other regions and countries.

Many scientists have analysed the tendencies of the development of rural tourism. For example, A. I. Polo and D. Frías: strategies of rural tourism (2010), G. M. V. de la Torre, J. L. T. Herreros and E. M. Fernández: alternatives of rural tourism (2010), R. Sharpley: sustainable development of rural tourism (2015), S. Bell, A. Montarzino P. Aspinall, Z. Peneze and O. Nikodemus: perspectives rural tourism in Latvia (2009), A. Žalys, I. Žalienė, I. Išdonaitė:



the policy of development of rural tourism in Lithuania (2006), V. Žilinskas, M. Maksimenko: the perspectives of sustainable development of rural tourism in Lithuania (2008), A. Damulienė: the financial support of the EU for rural tourism (2009), A. Astromskienė: the evolution of rural tourism (2010), J. Ramanauskienė, A. Gargasas: entrepreneurship of rural tourism (2010), V. Gražulis, B. Žuromskaitė: the development of tourism infrastructure, motivation of tourists (2011).

However, rural tourism is mostly studied in the overall context of service economy and tourism, by mostly highlighting the influence of rural tourism development and less often the factors which determine the development of rural tourism business. The development of rural tourism is widely analysed on the national scale and the development problems of individual regions are not being addressed.

*Object of the research consists* in the development of rural tourism in Eastern Aukštaitija region in Lithuania and Latgale region in Latvia. Aim of the research is to compare the development of rural tourism in Eastern Aukštaitija region in Lithuania and Latgale region in Latvia. *Objectives of the research:*

1. To perform the theoretical analysis of the development of rural tourism;
2. To compare the development of rural tourism in Eastern Aukštaitija region, Lithuania and in Latgale region, Latvia.

The analysis of scientific literature, quantitative research – survey and generalization of questionnaire data were used.

## **2. Scientific discourse by the theme of development of rural tourism**

The term ‘rural tourism’ has been adopted by the European Commission for tourism as the means to describe and explain all the touristic activities in rural areas and villages (*European Commission, 2000*). By the opinion of R. Sharpley and A. Vasso (2007, p. 126), rural tourism could be defined in the abstract, as a state of mind, and technologically, linking with activities, targets and other measurable characteristics. J. I. Pulido and P. J. Carden (2015) notes, that tourism can significantly contribute in solving rural problems such as unemployment, massive rural exodus creates and redistributes income, increases the activity of creating new jobs. The development of rural tourism can act as a precondition for the transformation of rural areas, ensuring the incomes for representatives of rural tourism businesses, establishment of new small business enterprises and work placements (*World Tourism Organization, 2002*). This can help for development of rural tourism infrastructure and the protection of the natural environment, for culture and identity protection of every destination of rural tourism (*Hawkes & Kwortnik, 2006; PTO, 2002*). The development of rural tourism not only promotes economic and social progress, but also makes it possible to ensure a sustainable development of environment (*Simpson, 2008*). The European Parliament has defined guidelines for rural tourism – rural tourism must improve the quality of life, provide economic benefits and create jobs and prevent depopulation of rural areas (11). Rural tourism has long been considered a means of such diversification of the rural economy.

Tourism is the major part of the shift in the economic base of rural societies (*Brandth & Haugen, 2011*) promoting thus rural vitality and sustainability. Sharpley and Vasso (2006) have identified the long tradition of rural tourism in Europe and stressed its capacity to solve economic and social problems into rural areas. Tourism’s economic and employment potential for rural areas depends heavily on the ‘linkages’ it builds with the other sectors of the rural economy.

Lithuanian tourism professionals provide the following definition of rural tourism: rural tourism – it is appropriate recreational activities of people who have arrived in rural areas and stay in the rural tourism homesteads (1). By the opinion of R. Dapkus (2009, p. 60), effective development of rural tourism is possible only with a balanced all levels of the organizational



structure and the coordination of communications, so it is very important in municipality of every district have a tourism specialist, responsible for implementation of tourism policy.

V. Gražulis and B. Žuromskaitė (2011) propose to take into account the significance of the development of Lithuanian rural tourism in shaping the country's competitive advantages and to increase tourist interest in travelling to separate tourist regions, to solve a number of problems:

- Uneven position of homesteads in the municipalities, for example, less expensive accommodation away from the major tourism centre can become an alternative source of income for the owners of rural tourism homesteads;
- Expand nomenclature of tourism services in addition to the basic services (accommodation and meals), to offer new products which might be interesting for tourists.

In order to attract more visitors in rural tourism homesteads, owners have to offer a widely range of services with its specialization (Sharples, 1997). Providing specialized services of rural tourism is a particular challenge in order to increase the competitiveness of rural tourism. There are 10 main specializations of rural tourism homesteads: for quiet recreation, education recreation, active recreation, rest with the family, the culinary heritage, nature-friendly country houses, health farmstead, family celebrations, corporate events, agro-tourism homesteads (28). Rural tourism homesteads in Lithuania are classified by the level of service and comfort using a system of storks (1 stork – lowest level, 5 storks – the highest level)<sup>1</sup>, (25) and in Latvia are classified using a system of butterflies (1 butterfly – lowest level, 5 butterflies – the highest level)<sup>2</sup>.

Table 1. External and internal factors, influencing the development of rural tourism (own survey)

External factors	Internal factors
Economic factors (GDP, salary developments, availability to use EU support).	Shortage of professional knowledges.
Law factors (legislation of rural tourism business).	Poor knowledge of foreign languages.
Natural factors (natural environment and its using for recreational activities, seasonality).	Imperfect organizational structure.
Political factors (political environment, visa, passport regime, customs, implementation of state tourism policy, criminogenic situation in the country).	Poorly facilities of equipment.
Social factors (demographics, lifestyles, celebration traditions and their changes, medical assistance and training arrangements).	Poorly providing information.
Technological factors (rural infrastructure, roads accessibility, water supply, access to the Internet).	Shortage of experience.

According to S. Bell, A. Montarzino: Aspinall, Z. Peneze and O. Nikodemus (2009), although Latvians retain a strong regard for their traditional countryside landscape, numerous socioeconomic barriers exist, especially the lack of services, which are some of the drivers of outmigration from the countryside to towns or to other countries. According V. J. Žilinskas and M. Maksimenko (2008: 7), for the development of rural tourism in Lithuania, it is necessary to analyse the favourable and negative development factors. If the exclusion of favourable factors is required for the development prospects of rural tourism, description of negative factors helps

<sup>1</sup> The survey involved 1,9% one stork, 9.6 % two storks, 21.2% three storks, 19.2% four storks 1.9 % five storks classified rural tourism homesteads.

<sup>2</sup> The survey involved 20% one butterfly, 40% two butterflies, by 20% four and five butterflies classified rural tourism homesteads. In the survey take part 13% classified rural tourism homesteads.





for objective assessment of the situation by permitting them to devise measures to eliminate or at least reduce the negative impact.

The scientific literature, e.g. I. Vainienė (2001), E. Vitkienė (2002), A. Armaitienė et al. (1999, p. 155) and others recognizes that the development of rural tourism is influenced by internal and external factors.

### **3. Analysis of management peculiarities of rural tourism development of Lithuanian and Latvian regions**

For the questionnaire survey Eastern Aukštaitija region in Lithuania and Latgale region in Latvia were selected. By the data of statistics Lithuania and Latvia (2014), there were 664 rural tourism homesteads in Lithuania, 244 rural tourism homesteads in Latvia. There is the highest number of rural tourism homesteads in Eastern Aukštaitija region (175) in Lithuania (2014). There were 68 rural tourism homesteads in Latgale region, Latvia (2014). It was composing questionnaire for owners of rural tourism homesteads. Questionnaire has placed on [www.apklausa.lt](http://www.apklausa.lt) in Lithuania and sent by e-mail for owners of rural tourism homestead in Latvia.

#### **The survey sample**

The survey sample of the research was calculated according to the formula of Schwarze (20). The survey in Lithuania involved 52 owners of rural tourism homesteads (according to the formula a sufficient size to ensure the representativeness of the research sample is 48 respondents). The survey in Latvia involved 36 owners of rural tourism homesteads (according to the formula a sufficient size to ensure the representativeness of the research sample is 21 respondents). Questionnaires were processed by Excel programme.

The rural tourism homesteads in Lithuania, which have participated in the survey, are located in these Eastern Aukštaitija districts: Molėtai (30.8%) Zarasai (26.9%), Anykščiai (19.2%), Utena (11.5%) and Ignalina (11.5%) districts. 67% of homesteads were founded over the last 10 years. The research included a diverse range of rural tourism homesteads: for quiet, passive recreation – 37%, for the rest of the family – 29%, for active leisure – 16%, for family celebrations – 14% and for corporate events – 4%.

The rural tourism homesteads in Latvia, which have participated in the survey, are located in these Latgale districts: Rezekne (18%), Daugavpils (15%), Dagda and Balvi (by 10%), Livani and Kraslava (by 7%), Vilani, Preili, Karsava, Gulbene and Varakjani (by 5%), Vilaka (3%) districts. 83% of homesteads were founded over the last 10 years. The research included a diverse range of rural tourism homesteads: for active leisure – 31%, for the rest of the family – 25%, for quiet, passive recreation – 20%, for family celebrations – 11%, for health purposes – 7%, special, ecological homestead – 4% and homestead for cognitive purposes 2%.

### **4. The analysis of rural tourism development perspectives in Eastern Aukštaitija region**

When analysing the Eastern Aukštaitija region's natural resources in the context of rural tourism development, it can be seen that this region consists of natural landscapes, natural recreational areas, their physical and aesthetic qualities, as well as the opportunity to know the nature in the areas, to acquire ecological knowledge (16). Eastern Aukštaitija region is a perspective region and attractive tourism area. There are 1,002 lakes in the region area. There is the highest number of lakes in comparison with other regions of the country. The region has many state-protected natural heritage objects – botanical, geological, hydrogeological, hydrographical, hydrological. The region is the state of protected areas in abundance – the protected area consists of 147 345.73 ha. It holds 20.46% of the region's territory. The region



covers an area of major national parks: Aukštaitija National Park, Anykščiai, Labanoras, Gražutė, Sartai and Asveja regional parks. Eastern Aukštaitija region consists of Utena, Anykščiai, Ignalina, Molėtai, and Zarasai districts (16). Eastern Aukštaitija region has sufficient resources of natural and cultural heritage for tourism development.

By the data of Lithuanian Statistics Department (*LSD*), in 2014 there were 176 rural tourism homesteads in Eastern Aukštaitija region, which accounted for 26.6 percent of the country's total number of rural tourism homesteads in Lithuania. Assessing the situation in the region by area, rural tourism is fairly evenly distributed – in all districts there were by 38 rural tourism homesteads, with the exception of Anykščiai district, in which there were 25 rural tourism homesteads. Eastern Aukštaitija region homesteads equipped with 749 rooms and 2,630 seats. According to the number of places in rural tourism homesteads, Eastern Aukštaitija region was the second region in comparison with other regions of the country in 2014 (*LSD, 2014*).

### **The analysis of rural tourism development perspectives in Latgale region**

Latvia has a wide range of tourism resources – the diversity of landscape and cultural and historical heritage, rich biological and geophysical systems which have mainly developed as untouched by civilization. There are 68 rural tourism homesteads in Latgale region. After restoration of independence of Latvia rural tourism became a 'rescue' and rural inhabitants viewed it as the only solution to stay living in the countryside. Unlike the majority of European countries, Latvia did not have to eliminate the consequences of mass tourism. The task was to promote a well-considered, balanced and sustainable development of rural tourism predicting and preventing the impact of the damaging factors (22). Rural tourism in Latgale is currently facing problems related to energy consumption, heat insulation, waste recycling and the use of materials to ensure sustainable development of rural tourism. In Latgale there are 12 rural tourist accommodation places that have been awarded the 'Green Certificate' confirming their contribution to the management principles based on sustainable tourism development (10). In Latvia rural tourism and related activities are currently well known for their predominantly 'extensive' nature – the number of rural tourists usually does not exceed the amount of local population, but these characteristics should be taken into consideration when planning sustainable development of rural tourism in the future.

Presenting a scientific discourse on the theme of development of rural tourism, attention should be drawn to the fact, that certain indicators evaluating any economic activity. Such indicators in business of rural tourism are the number of tourists, incomes from their visits, number of services and their cost, investments in business, number of seats and so on. Figures 1 and 2 present the variation of the homestead activity indicators in Lithuania and Latvia regions.

Comparing the indicators of the business of rural tourism homesteads in Eastern Aukštaitija region, Lithuania, noticeable faster decreasing investments to business (25%), number of tourists (25%), incomes (23%) and number of services (24%). Only 9% owners of rural tourism homesteads indicate growing number of tourists, only 8% owners of rural tourism homesteads indicate the growing of incomes and investments to business. 34% of rural tourism homesteads indicate stable situation of price of services and number of places. In Latgale region, Latvia, rural tourism homesteads noticeable decreasing the number of tourists (23%), the incomes (22%), price of services (18%) and investments to business (12%). Only 3% owners of rural tourism homesteads indicate the growing of incomes. 25% owners of rural tourism homesteads indicate stable situation of number of places, 24% owners indicate stable situation of investments to business and 19% indicate stable situation of number of services. To summarising changing all indicators of the business of rural tourism homesteads in Lithuania



and Latvia regions, indicators have higher value in Eastern Aukštaitija region in Lithuania (Figures 1 and 2).

In survey owners of rural tourism homesteads in Eastern Aukštaitija region, Lithuania, named the priority strengthens for the development of business: the location of rural tourism homestead (33%), existent infrastructure (14%) and variety of services in the homestead (10%). Owners of rural tourism homesteads in Latgale region, Latvia, named partly the same priority strengthen for the development of business: the location of rural tourism homestead (23%), existent infrastructure (14%) and advertising (14%). To summarizing survey answers, the main strength of rural tourism homesteads in Lithuania and Latvia regions are the homestead location (the lake, forest and a great presence in the landscape) and existent infrastructure. The first factor remains the most relevant, in terms of rural tourism exclusivity.

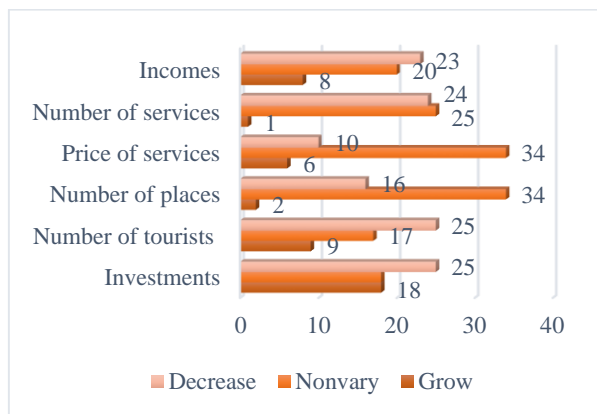


Figure 1. Variation of rural tourism homesteads activities indicators of Eastern Aukštaitija region, Lithuania (own study)

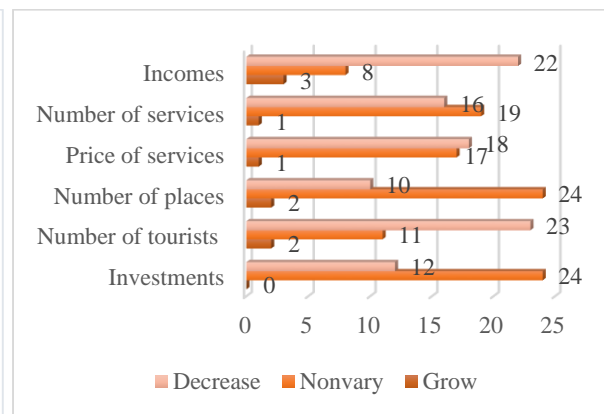


Figure 2. Variation of rural tourism homesteads activities in Latgale region, Latvia (own study)

As the main weaknesses of their business in Eastern Aukštaitija region, Lithuania, every fourth owner, named their homestead insufficient preparation to accept persons with disabilities (27%), and the imperfection of the existing infrastructure, in particular the poor communication and information tools to the surrounding area-wide (24%). As the main weaknesses of their business in Latgale region, Latvia, owners of rural tourism homestead named their homestead insufficient preparation to accept persons with disabilities (57%), and the imperfection of the existing infrastructure (28%). To summarizing survey answers, the main weakness of rural tourism homesteads in Lithuania and Latvia regions are the homestead insufficient preparation to accept persons with disabilities and the imperfection of the existing infrastructure.

The main rural tourism visitors of Eastern Aukštaitija region's in 2013 and 2014 years were staying overnight visitors<sup>3</sup>, who spend 2–3 days in rural tourism homesteads (Table 2). The same tendency was in 2014 year. The main rural tourism visitors of Latgale region's visitors in 2013 year were one day visitors and in 2014 year were staying overnight visitors (2–3 days) visitors. As shown the results of survey, there were 1.5-2 times more staying overnight visitors from Lithuania for 2–3 days than one-day visitors and 6 times more than staying overnight here over 3 days in Eastern Aukštaitija region, Lithuania. Foreign visitors, staying overnight, here, in this region, it was also much more than one-day visitors (4.2 times more than in 2013 and 2.3 times than in 2014 year). Even 40.8% visitors of homesteads indicated that spends in rural tourism homesteads 2 days. To summarising, the main visitors in rural tourism homesteads in the region are spending 2–3 days. It is obvious that the owners of homesteads offering new services, in particular they have to focus on this group of tourists; at the same time they have

<sup>3</sup> Staying overnight visitors (classification of World Tourism Organization).



more promote other groups of tourists to visit their homesteads. Expanding rural tourism business, owners should keep themselves who are their customers, since it depend the visitor's distribution by the arrival purposes to the homesteads.

Situation in Latgale region, Latvia is different from situation in Lithuania – there were similar numbers of one day visitors (36% in 2013 and 30% in 2014), staying overnight visitors 2–3 days (32% in 2013 and 36% in 2014) and staying overnight visitors more than 3 days (34% and 24%) from Latvia in 2013 and 2014. The similar situation was with visitors from abroad in 2013. There were more staying overnight visitors (2–3 days) in 2014 year. It is obvious that the owners of homesteads offering new services, in particular they have to focus on all groups of tourists.

*Table 2. Distribution of tourist by duration of stay in homesteads of rural tourism, % (own study)*

Visitors	Situation in Eastern Aukštaitija region, Lithuania				Situation in Latgale region, Latvia			
	Visitors from Lithuania		Visitors from abroad		Visitors from Latvia		Visitors from abroad	
	2013	2014	2013	2014	2013	2014	2013	2014
One day visitors	30	37	19	30	36	30	31	31
Staying overnight visitors (2–3 days)	60	54	81	70	32	36	35	43
Staying overnight visitors (more than 3 days)	10	9	–	–	34	24	33	25

As shown the results of survey, the foreign tourists to Eastern Aukštaitija (Lithuania) homesteads of rural tourism come from Russia (17%), Latvia (16%), Germany (14%), Poland (11%), Belarus (7%), by 5% from Finland, Estonia and France, by 4% – from Sweden and Denmark<sup>4</sup>, visitors from other countries compose 9%. Only 3% homesteads, which participated in the survey, did not attain foreign visitors at all. The foreign tourists to Latgale region (Latvia) homesteads of rural tourism come from Lithuania (20%), Russia (18%), by 16% from Poland and Estonia, Germany (6%), by 5% from Sweden and Denmark, by 3% from Finland and France. 5% homesteads, which participated in the survey, did not attain foreign visitors at all. Comparing visitors in rural tourism homesteads in Lithuania and Latgale regions, it can be concluded, that the majority of visitors came from neighbouring countries.

Comparing the most popular services in Lithuania and Latvia regions, the most popular services, providing constantly in Eastern Aukštaitija region, Lithuania are accommodation services (39%), event organization (18%), services, providing in summer time and leisure and sport services (by 11%). The most popular services, providing in season time in Eastern Aukštaitija region, Lithuania, are services, providing in summer time (26%), accommodation services (25%) and leisure and sport services (14%). The most popular services, providing constantly in Latgale region, Latvia are accommodation services (27%) and nutrition services (21%). The most popular services, providing in season time in Latgale region, Latvia are services of summer season (19%), services of winter season (14%) and event organization services (13%). To summarizing the results of survey, the most popular services for both regions are accommodation services and event organization services. By the data of survey a little bit more than half of owners of rural tourism homesteads (51.9%) of Eastern Aukštaitija region, Lithuania does not plan to expand rural tourism business first of all, due to economic

<sup>4</sup> Comparing the survey results by foreigners, visited the Eastern Aukštaitija homesteads by data of SD by the whole of Lithuania (2014) observed a similar trend - both in Lithuania and the Eastern Aukštaitija homesteads attain visitors from the neighbour countries.



(41%), political – every fifth and every tenth due law factors, further almost another bit intend to develop their activities (46.2%). According survey results, to develop own business in Eastern Aukštaitija region, Lithuania, intends 43% rural tourism homesteads, most of them – 3 and 4 storks classified rural tourism homesteads. It is provided such activities in the plans of owners of rural tourism homesteads: providing entertainment diversity development for active and passive recreation (sauna, horseback riding, hiking around the area, water activities, fishing, etc.), every fourth-fifth homestead plan to increase the number of places (21%), providing other measures too to promote the development of rural tourism business development.

As the results of the survey show, owners of rural tourism homesteads of Latgale region, Latvia plans to expand rural tourism activities. It is provided such activities in the plans of owners of rural tourism homesteads: growing the number of place in the rural tourism homestead (26%), providing entertainment diversity development for active recreation (sauna, horseback riding, hiking around the area, water activities, fishing, etc.) (24%), larger variety of summer entertainments (16%), rent of sport equipment (12%) and other measures.

By the data of the survey, for the development of rural tourism in Eastern Aukštaitija region, Lithuania, most of all economic (45%) factors hinder (Figure 3).

The positive side of economic factors should be noted: economic (GDP, salary developments, availability to use the EU support), – owners of the rural tourism homesteads have the opportunity to benefit from the EU support and get additional income, therefore, in order to reduce the negative impact of these factors on the development of rural tourism in the region, homestead owners need to try to take advantage of the multi-annual EU funding programmes 2014–2020, financial support to public and private tourism infrastructure development. Majority (58%) of the owners of rural tourism homesteads in Eastern Aukštaitija region, Lithuania do not benefited from the EU support for tourism business development, only 40% of the owners benefited from the EU support. As the results of the survey illustrate, for the development of rural tourism in the Latgale region, Latvia, most of all economic (56%) factors hinder (Figure 4). Majority (53%) of the owners of rural tourism homesteads in Latgale region, Latvia benefited from the EU support for tourism business development. The European Union structural funds are great acquisition for Latvia. It essentially stimulates the development of state. Tourism is one of possibility strategically and priority of develop of Latvia. It has important role to development for long-time, economic growth, employment, elevate of life quality.

To reduce the seasonality of negative consequences (natural factors, 13% in Lithuania region and 11% in Latvia region), the owners of rural tourism homesteads should develop seasonal services to meet fully the expectations of tourists. By offering new services, in particular owners of rural tourism, need to focus on the main visitors, who spend 2–3 days in the rural tourism homesteads, group together more to encourage other groups of tourists to visit their homesteads. To expand rural tourism business, owners need to identify to themselves who are their customers, since the objective of the arrival to the homestead depends on it. According to the research results, the objectives of the Lithuanian tourists for visiting rural tourism homesteads are changing, so by offering new services, it is desirable to focus on different target groups.

The negative effects of technological factors (8% in Lithuania region and 11% in Latvia region) of rural tourism development occur within infrastructure inefficiencies, access to rural tourism homestead, poor communication and information tools. In order to improve the existing infrastructure, it is appropriate to expand the recreation areas, children's playgrounds and sports fields, well-equipped accommodation and support facilities, to have high-speed Internet in the homesteads.

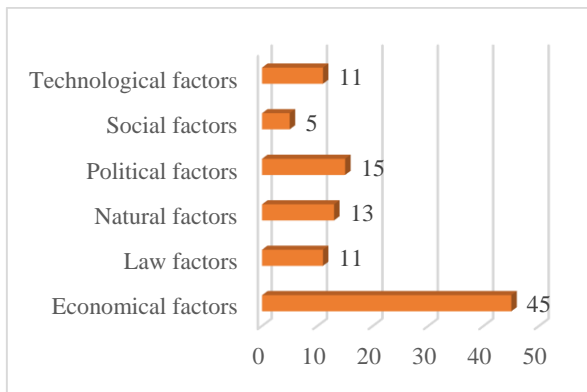


Figure 3. Influence of external factors in rural tourism homesteads of Eastern Aukštaitija region, Lithuania (own study)

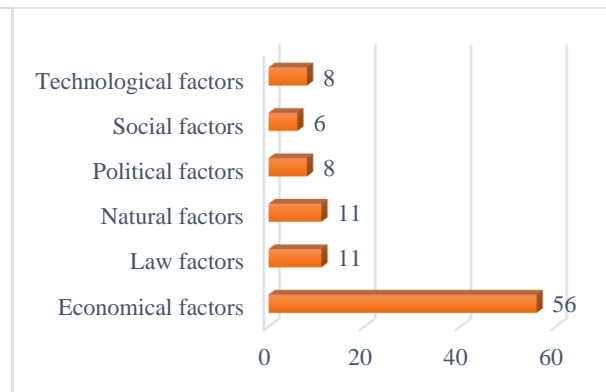


Figure 4. Influence of external factors in rural tourism homesteads of Latgale region, Latvia (own study)

Evaluating the internal factors, affecting the development of tourism, insufficient abilities of rural tourism personnel to communicate in foreign language(-s) are to be considered as one of the essential interference for successful development of rural tourism business. In order to overcome these obstructions, the municipality of this region initiated appropriate level of long-term counselling support/training programmes for sector of entrepreneurs, thereby enhancing rural tourism service providers to improving their entrepreneurial skills and business competitiveness by reducing barriers to communication in foreign languages. In this way, other limiting factors of rural tourism homestead development will be reduced as well – shortage of professional expertise, information and experience.

The respondents to the survey identified internal factors impact, one of the largest rural tourism strength – place of rural tourism homestead, more specifically, the lake, the forest and the superb landscape presence near homesteads. Unattractive place of rural tourism homestead is the major obstruction for successful business development.

## 5. Discussion

By the data of the survey, for the development of rural tourism in Lithuanian and Latvian regions most of all economic and natural factors hinder. The positive side of economic factors should be noted: economic (GDP, salary developments, availability to use the EU support), – owners of the rural tourism homesteads have the opportunity to benefit from the EU support and get additional income, therefore, in order to reduce the negative impact of these factors on the development of rural tourism in the region, homestead owners need to try to take advantage of the multi-annual EU funding programmes 2014–2020, financial support to public and private tourism infrastructure development. In order to reduce the negative impact of seasonality (natural factors), for owner of the homesteads it is important to take an interest, what more services can be offered to tourists at different times of the year, with the task the maximum meet their expectations.

Evaluating the negative impact of internal factor in both regions, one of the main factor – communication in a foreign language(-s) – should be taken at the regional level long-term consultancy supporting/training programs for businesses service sector on municipal level, thereby improving entrepreneurial skills and business competitiveness by reducing barriers for communication in foreign languages of rural tourism service providers. By the same way will be reduced the negative impact of internal factors (shortage of professional knowledge, information and experience, poor knowledge of foreign languages).



## 6. Conclusions

Performing the theoretical analysis of the development of rural tourism, tourism can significantly contribute in solving rural problems such as *unemployment, massive rural exodus creates and redistributes income, increases the activity of creating new jobs*. The development of rural tourism can act as a precondition for the transformation of rural areas, ensuring the incomes for representatives of rural tourism businesses, establishment of new small business enterprises and work placements. For the development of rural tourism in Lithuania, it is necessary to analyse the favourable and negative development factors. The successful development of rural tourism depends from external and internal factors. External favourable and negative development factors of rural tourism are economic, law, natural, political, social and technological. Internal factors are the size of homesteads, the number of services, the experience of owners of the homesteads in rural business, staff professional knowledge and the ability to communicate in a foreign language(-s) and others.

Comparing the development of rural tourism in Eastern Aukštaitija region, Lithuania and in Latgale region, Latvia, it can be concluded that situation in both regions is similar with small exceptions. To summarizing changing all indicators of the business of rural tourism homesteads (incomes, number of services, prices of services, number of places, number of tourists, investments to business) in Lithuania and Latvia regions, indicators has higher value in Eastern Aukštaitija region in Lithuania. The main strength of rural tourism homesteads in Lithuania and Latvia regions are the homestead location (the lake, forest and a great presence in the landscape) and existent infrastructure. The main weakness of rural tourism homesteads in both regions is the homestead insufficient preparation to accept persons with disabilities and the imperfection of the existing infrastructure. Comparing visitors in rural tourism homesteads in Lithuania and Latgale regions, it can be concluded, that the majority of visitors came from neighbouring countries. The most popular services of rural tourism homestead in both regions are accommodation services and event organization services.

According survey results, to develop own business in Eastern Aukštaitija region, it will plan providing such activities: providing entertainment diversity development for active and passive recreation (sauna, horseback riding, hiking around the area, water activities, fishing, etc.), every fourth-fifth homestead plan to increase the number of places, providing other measures too to promote the development of rural tourism business development.

By the data of survey a little bit more than half of owners of rural tourism homesteads of Eastern Aukštaitija region, Lithuania does not plan to expand rural tourism business first of all, due to economic, political – every fifth and every tenth due law factors, further almost another bit intend to develop their activities. As shown the results of survey owners of rural tourism homesteads of Latgale region, Latvia plans to expand rural tourism activities. It is provided such activities in the plans of owners of rural tourism homesteads: growing the number of place in the rural tourism homestead, providing entertainment diversity development for active recreation (sauna, horseback riding, hiking around the area, water activities, fishing, etc.), larger variety of summer entertainments, rent of sport equipment and other measures.

There are recommendations of the authors how to overcome obstructions of the development of rural tourism:

- In order to reduce the negative impacts of economic factors, owners of rural tourism homesteads have try to use the multi-annual EU funding programs of 2014–2020 years for financial support for development of public and private tourism infrastructure;
- In order to reduce the negative impact of seasonality (natural factors), for owner of the homesteads it is important to take an interest, what more services can be offered to tourists at different times of the year, with the task the maximum meet their expectations;



- In order to reduce the negative impact of technological factors, rural tourism areas have equipped with lounges, to improve Internet connection;
- In order to reduce the negative impact of internal factor, one of the main factor (communication in a foreign language/s), should be taken at the regional level long-term consultancy supporting/training programs for businesses service sector on municipal level, thereby improving entrepreneurial skills and business competitiveness by reducing barriers for communication in foreign languages of rural tourism service providers. By the same way will be reduced the negative impact of internal factors (shortage of professional knowledge, information and experience, poor knowledge of foreign languages).

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## THE RATES OF RETURN FROM INVESTMENTS IN HIGHER EDUCATION: A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF EU COUNTRIES

AGNIESZKA JAKUBOWSKA, ANNA ROSA

### Abstract

In the era of globalization and knowledge-based economy, investments in human capital have become a necessity. Education is one of the most important forms of investments in human capital. In order to assess and measure tangible benefits from higher education (both private and social ones), the rates of return from investments in higher education are calculated and estimated. The purpose of the present study is an analysis of those relationships that occur between the levels of expenditures related to education and economic effects expressed by an increment of benefits (private and public ones) as a result of increasing the level of education in the countries of the so-called 'old' and 'new' European Union. An assessment was also conducted of relationships between the level of per capita expenditures related to higher education and the level of private and public rates of return which may potentially be achieved. OECD empirical data on the NUTS 1 level was used to realize the objective accepted. A regression analysis was used and an assessment of the degree of correlation was made between the rates of return from investments in higher education in the EU economies examined. The research results demonstrated a high diversification in the achieved level of the economic effectiveness of investments in education, while the countries of the 'new' Union achieve statistically higher rates of return in higher education, in the perspective both of private and public investments.

**Key words:** higher education, private rate of return, public rate of return, investment in higher education, human capital, UE members.

**Classification JEL:** I23 – Higher Education; J24 – Human Capital; M12 – Personnel Management.

### 1. Introduction

Higher education constitutes one of the most essential areas of investments in human capital. Similarly as other investments, it requires specific expenditures to achieve the expected benefits in the future. Thus, an investment in education can be viewed like other investments, and evaluated for its rate of return. Research related to the rate of return from investments in education is conducted all over the world. It is evident based on international research concerning the effectiveness of investments in higher education conducted by Psacharopoulos and Patrinos that the profitability of investments in higher education is 9.9 % per one year of studies in Asia (without OECD member countries), 7.1% in Europe and North Africa, 12.0% in Latin America, 7.5% in OECD countries, 11.7% in South Africa and the Sahara region, and the world's average is 9.7% (*Psacharopoulos & Patrinos, 2004, p. 113*).

*The purpose of the study* is an analysis of relations that occur between the level of expenditures related to education and economic effects expressed by an increment of benefits (private and public ones) as a result of raising the level of education. In the analysis, the chief objective was an assessment of the effectiveness of investments in higher education. An attempt was taken to indicate the existing relations in this area which are observed among the European Union member states with a special consideration of the identification of those differences that occur on the level of the economies of the so-called 'old' and 'new' Union.

The research was based on the data available on the NUTS 1 level, which describes the level of private and public rates of return from investments in higher education. An assessment was performed of relations between the level of per capita expenditures on higher education and the level of private and public rates of return, which may potentially be achieved. An analysis of literature and elements of descriptive statistics were used in the realization of the accepted objective of the study. Furthermore, in the research into relations, a regression analysis



was used, and an assessment was performed of the degree of correlation between the rates of return from investments in higher education in the EU economies examined. The empirical analysis conducted was based on a set of data available from the OECD base. The economies accepted in the analysis of EU countries were selected considering the availability of comparable data concerning the level of expenditures related to higher education and the rates of return in the perspective of private and public investments. Taking into consideration a great diversification of the variables examined related to sex, it was justifiable to carry out the analyses separately for the groups of men and women.

## 2. Education as investment in human capital

In the era of knowledge-based economy, there is a growing significance of science and education that determines the processes of creation and investments in human capital, which constitutes an element of intellectual capital (*Jakubowska & Rosa, 2011, pp. 63–80*). Education can be considered as a system of specialized institutions whose objective is to transfer knowledge, competences and abilities (*Pateman, 2001, p. 181*). Human capital decides about the developmental potential of society and economy, and it contributes to social prosperity (*Jakubowska & Rosa, 2014, pp. 63–80*). Individual competitiveness based on intellectual (e.g. education), motivating and symbolic (e.g. prestige) resources constitutes the essence of human capital (*Czapiński, 2008, p. 5*). Higher education plays the key role in the improvement of the human capital quality. Therefore, universities should be able to push the boundaries of knowledge still ahead, put new and increasingly demanding challenges towards mankind and achieve tees of true wisdom, supported by cohesion, truth, honesty, high responsibility, ethics, and moreover, the highest attractiveness in the eyes of students, employers, and society (*Blaskowa, 2015, p. 71*).

Domański presents human capital as the resources of knowledge, abilities, health and vital energy, which are included in every human and society as a whole, which determines abilities to work, to adaptation, to changes in environment and possibilities to create new solutions. He emphasizes that this resource is not given through the genetic characteristics of a given population once and for all, but it can be increased through investments. The following are mentioned among the most important forms of investments in human capital (*Domański, 1993, pp. 19–20; Schultz, 1971, p. 9*):

- Expenditures related to health care that have an impact on the life expectancy and the vital force of human individuals;
- In-company trainings;
- Education on all the levels of education, including more and lifelong learning for adults, which is gaining on significance;
- Migration of population oriented onto search for work; finding of work enables a valorisation of human capital (and therefore, indirectly, investments in all tangible and intangible factors that increase people's mobility levels);
- Searching information on the economic situation and professional prospects;
- Scientific research.

Investments in education have an impact on an improvement of the human capital quality, which is of a key significance to economic development and growth (*Wilkin, p. 81; Becker, Becker, 2006, p. 89; Gemmell, 1996; Murphy, Shleifer & Vishny, 1991; Saxton, 2000; Wilson & Briscoe, 2004*). Therefore, the state's policy is essential which would be aiming at raising the profitability of the investments of this form. Research concerning the effectiveness of investments in education commenced as early as in the 1960s. The effectiveness of this investment can be considered in the following scales:

- Macroeconomic scale: it refers to research into the impact of the number of years of education on economic growth (*Robinson & Vaizey, 1966; Harbison & Myers, 1964*);



- Microeconomic scale: it refers to financial benefits related to the completion of another year of education, the problem of remuneration missed as a result of taking studies, or a surplus of the level of remuneration for people holding university degrees in relation to those with secondary education, or the rate of return of the individual costs incurred in relation to education (*Becker, 1975, pp. 201–225; Mincer, 1974, pp. 43–75*).

### 3. Returns of investment in higher education: a review of literature

In the literature, numerous publications can be found concerning the rate of return in relation to investments in higher education. Mincer (1974) proposed an equation to assess the influence of the years of education and professional experience on the remuneration level of an individual person. Later, Lauer and Steiner extended the Mincer's method in their research and they applied a qualitative approach: they diversified the levels of education and distinguished universities, higher vocational schools, general and vocational secondary schools (*Lauer & Steiner, 2000, p. 10*).

Psacharopoulos (1994) emphasized that the rate of return from investments in higher education decreases with an increase of the level of the national per capita income. However, Newell and Reilly (1999) were of a different opinion. They pointed out that the rate of return from education, especially on the higher level, in those countries that underwent transformation, was running on a low level (they assessed the rate on the level of 2%).

To assess and measure tangible benefits from higher education, the rates of return from investments in higher education are calculated and evaluated. The following are to be distinguished:

1. *Private rate of return*: The private rate of return measures the level of additional financial incomes achieved by a person owing to obtaining higher qualifications. The Mincer's method (1958, 1974) and discount methods, which constitute a useful tool that enables a comprehensive approach and a comparison of future financial flows in time (*Król, 2015*), are used to assess the private rate of return from investments in higher education. To assess the private rate of return, the costs of education incurred by an individual and the expected increase of future earnings are taken into consideration with the exclusion of taxes and social transfers (*Wilkin, 2009, p. 84; Strawinski, 2009, p. 40*).
2. *Social rate of return*: The social rate of return from education depends on the effect of completion of education for a person obtaining education and from the effect related to their economic environment. In the calculation of this, redistribution effects should also be taken into consideration (*Wilkin, 2009, pp. 84–85; Strawinski, 2009, p. 41*).

In the United States, the total individual and social benefits from education are estimated on the level 7.5% annually (*Acemoglu & Angrist, 1999*). However, it results from the research by Card (1999) that an additional year of education offers a bonus to earnings on the level from 6% to 11% depending on the field of study selected. In the research carried out in Italy by Brunello, Coni and Lucifora (2000), the return from higher education was assessed on the level 6.2% for men and 7.7% for women. Mendolichio (2005) also dealt with the rate of return taking sex into consideration in his research. He demonstrated that the rate of return from higher education is greater for women in the majority of countries, and it ranges from 7 to 12% while for men it is in the range of 6.5–11%. Similar research results were obtained by Lauer and Steiner, (2000, p. 13). It is evident from their research that the completion of university studies in the years of 1984–1997 resulted for women in an increase of remuneration by over 9% per one year of studies (men who completed the university had a lower growth of remuneration as compared to that of women, and it was just under 8%). Harmon, Oosterbek and Walker (2002) examined fifteen European Union countries, and they assessed the average European rate of return to be on the annual level of 6.5%.



Strawiński (2006) conducted research related to the determination of the rate of return from investments in higher education in Poland. He found that the private (technical) rate of return from education for Poland was in the range of 6–9.5% for the period of 1998–2006. The results of research by Adamczyk and Jarecki (2008) demonstrate that it pays off to undertake higher studies in Poland, which is especially true for men. The average rate of return is higher than other possibilities of investment with a similar risk being close to zero.

It is evident based on research concerning the payback time related to investments in higher education which was carried out by Jarecki that this is a beneficial investment, and there is a payback of expenditures incurred together including remuneration lost as a result of undertaking higher studies within an average period of five years from the completion of studies. The shortest payback period can be observed in those sections which economic education corresponds to, while the longest one is observed in those which technical education as well as administration and education correspond to (Jarecki, 2006, pp. 21–34).

#### 4. Rate of return on investment in higher education – perspective of EU countries

In spite of great interest both on the part of scientists and politicians, the issue of an assessment of the economic effectiveness of investments in education still constitutes the current direction of empirical research. The issue of the rates of return which can be potentially achieved from expenditures related to education constitutes the grounds for decisions taken within the framework of the state’s budgetary policy and budgetary policy on the level of single households. The analysis presented below is aimed at an assessment of the diversification degree of the rates of return connected with undertaking higher level education. The objective was an identification of the model of reactions on the part of the so-called ‘new’ EU member states in order to determine the convergence degree of the EU area in this scope. Due to the availability of comparable empirical data, 16 EU member states were selected for the analysis. Taking into consideration a great diversification of the variables examined in relation to sex, it was justifiable to carry out the assumed analyses separately for a group of men and a group of women.

The foreseen empirical analysis was based on a set of data which is available from the OECD base that describes the private and public rates of return from higher level education for women and men. These rates express the relation between additional benefits and additional costs resulting from undertaking and completion of higher level education. The accepted method to determine additional (marginal) benefits and costs connected with raising the level of education is in accordance with the computational methodology proposed by the OECD. This methodology is presented in Figure 1.

$$\begin{aligned}
 & \text{TOTAL PRIVATE BENEFITS } j = \\
 & = (\text{Expected net earnings at level } j) - (\text{Expected net earnings at level } j-1) = \\
 & = \{(1-\text{Unemployment rate})_j - (\text{Net earnings})_j + (\text{Unemployment rate})_j - (\text{Net Unemployment benefits})_j\} - \\
 & \{(1-\text{Unemployment rate})_{j-1} - (\text{Net earnings})_{j-1} + (\text{Unemployment rate})_{j-1} - (\text{Net Unemployment benefits})_{j-1}\}
 \end{aligned}$$
  

$$\begin{aligned}
 & \text{TOTAL PUBLIC BENEFITS } j = \\
 & = (\text{Expected tax receipts at level } j) - (\text{Expected tax receipts at level } j-1) = \\
 & = \{(1-\text{Unemployment rate})_j - (\text{Tax receipts})_j + (\text{Unemployment rate})_j - (\text{Net Unemployment benefits})_j\} - \\
 & \{(1-\text{Unemployment rate})_{j-1} - (\text{Tax receipts})_{j-1} + (\text{Unemployment rate})_{j-1} - (\text{Net Unemployment benefits})_{j-1}\}
 \end{aligned}$$

Figure 1. Measurement of additional benefits and costs from raising of the level of education, OECD methodology (author’s own study based on data from OECD, 2015)



Table 1 presents the level of the assessed public and private rates of return from investments in higher education that constitute a relation of potential additional incomes to costs for selected EU countries. This table also includes the results of a statistical descriptive characterization of the variables examined, which is aimed at an assessment of the level of their diversification in the EU economies examined.

*Table 1. Selected statistics for the tested EU states in 2011 (Source: author's own study based on data from OECD database, 2015)*

EU country	Rate of return on investment in higher education			
	private		public	
	man	woman	man	woman
Austria	11.0%	8.8%	8.0%	6.2%
Czech Republic	23.5%	16.3%	17.0%	13.5%
Denmark	8.9%	6.9%	5.5%	2.2%
Estonia	20.3%	13.8%	7.5%	3.6%
Finland	9.6%	7.1%	7.5%	4.6%
Germany	10.6%	6.4%	8.7%	4.5%
Hungary	25.4%	16.2%	24.1%	16.9%
Italy	9.5%	9.5%	9.4%	7.8%
Poland	29.2%	24.0%	15.1%	12.6%
Portugal	18.7%	20.5%	11.5%	11.0%
Slovakia	20.6%	14.8%	14.6%	10.5%
Slovenia	17.4%	16.1%	14.0%	11.3%
Spain	9.1%	10.5%	6.2%	6.8%
Sweden	8.3%	7.3%	3.1%	0.3%
United Kingdom	15.7%	8.7%	23.4%	37.2%
<b>Descriptive characterizations</b>				
Average	15.9%	12.5%	11.7%	9.9%
Standard deviation	6.9%	5.4%	6.3%	8.8%
Spread	20.9%	17.6%	21.0%	36.9%
Minimum	8.3%	6.4%	3.1%	0.3%
Maximum	29.2%	24.0%	24.1%	37.2%
Q25	9.6%	8.0%	7.5%	4.6%
Median	15.7%	10.5%	9.4%	7.8%
Q75	20.5%	16.2%	14.9%	12.0%
Coefficient of variation	43.4%	43.4%	53.5%	89.0%
N (number of observations)	15	15	15	15

The results presented of the descriptive characterization point to the fact that in spite of the process occurring of social and territorial convergence in the EU area, there are still significant divergences in the level of the rates of return obtained from higher level education. These differences refer both to the rates of return calculated from the perspective of private investments by households as well as in relation to the so-called public investments in human capital. In the group of member states examined, the level of the rates of return obtained from the private investments in higher education fluctuated from 6.4% (Germany, women) to 29.2% (Poland, men). The public rate of return was also characterized by a high spread. It accepted



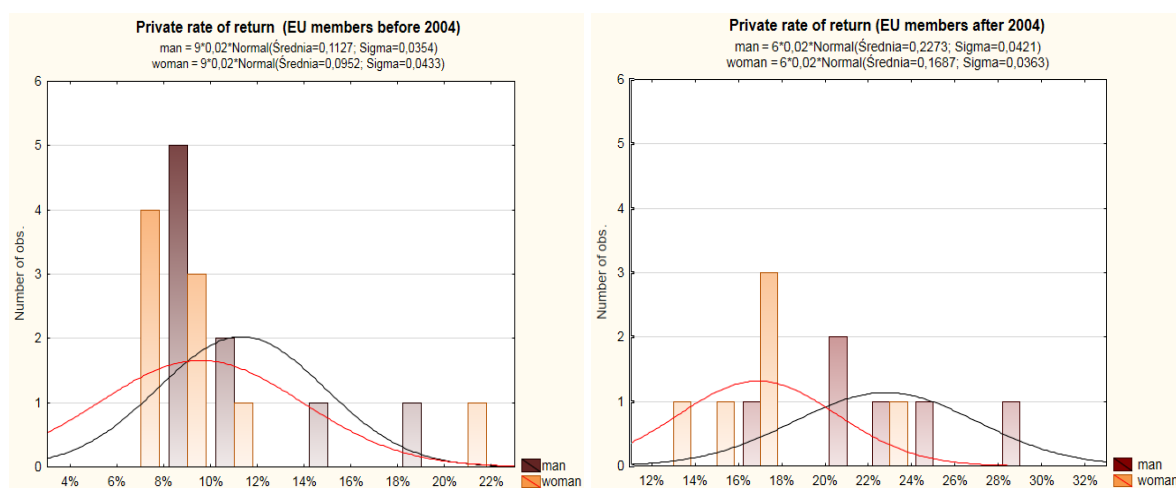
values from 0.3% (Sweden, women) to 37.2% (the United Kingdom, women). This index simultaneously achieved the highest level of diversity in the group examined (the coefficient of variation being on the level of 89%).

## 5. Research results

For the needs of the foreseen analysis aimed at an assessment of the convergence degree of the 'old' and 'new' Union as regards the equalization of the rate of return level from investments in higher level education, two groups of states were distinguished from among the groups examined:

- (1) States accepted to the EU by the year 2004 that represent highly developed economies with market traditions: Denmark, Germany, Spain, Italy, the Netherlands, Austria, Portugal, Finland, Sweden and the United Kingdom;
- (2) Countries accepted to the EU structures after the year 2004 that represent Middle and East European economies with the experiences of political transformations: the Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Poland, Slovenia and Slovakia.

An analysis of the distribution of the rates of return examined in the individual groups of the EU member states demonstrated significant differences between the average effectiveness of investments in higher education. These differences are evident in the perspective both of private and public investments. In the case of the 'old' EU member states, the average private rate of return was 11.3% for men and 9.5% for women with analogous values observed in the so-called 'new' Union being on the level of 22.7% (men) and 16.9% (women). Similar tendencies can also be observed in relation to the public rate of return: the member states examined from 'before the year 2004' observe lower economic effectiveness of expenditures connected with higher education as compared to that of the Middle and East European countries examined. The average rates of return on the level of 9.3% (men) and 9.0% (women) observed in the 'old' Union states correspond to the average public rates of return achieved on the level of 15.4% for men and 11.4% for women in the 'new' Union states. Figure 2 presents the distributions of the private and public rates of return from higher education in both groups examined of EU economies.



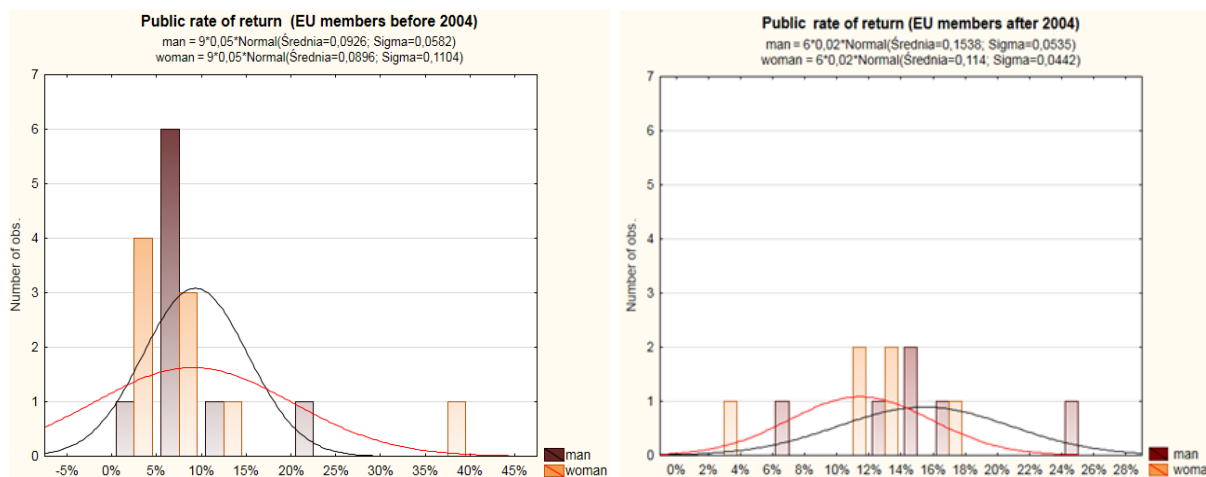


Figure 2. Histogram of private and public rates of return from investments in higher level education for women and men for selected EU members (author's own study based on OECD data, 2015)

A fundamental element of the analysis conducted was to determine the relationships that occur between the observed rates of return from the perspective of public and private investments. The results obtained are presented in Figure 3.

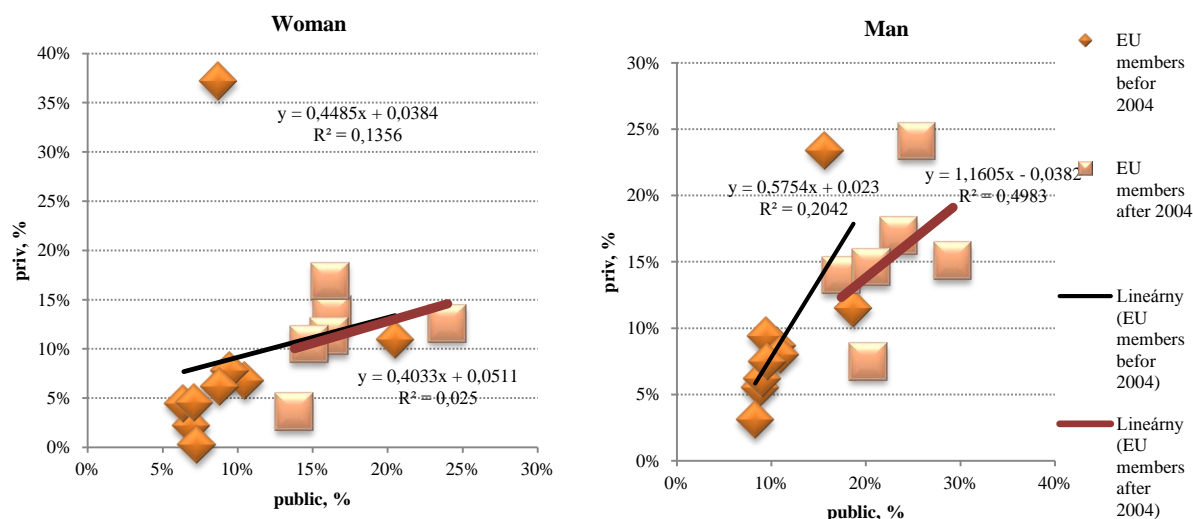


Figure 3. Relation between public and private rates of return from investments in higher education in the examined EU countries (author's own study based on OECD data, 2015)

The results presented point to similar patterns of relation in the individual groups of the member states: as a rule, higher rates of return in the private perspective correspond to higher public rates of return from investments in higher education. It is characteristic that in the case of the 'old' EU countries, a strong positive relation is observed between the rates of return examined for men (linear correlation coefficient of 0.71) and a statistically weak connection can be noticed of these rates in the case of women (correlation coefficient of 0.16). In the groups of the 'new' Union states, the level of relationships between private and public rates of return for women and men is on a relatively similar level: the coefficient assessed of correlation was 0.45 for men and 0.37 for women respectively.

The low degree of connection between public and private rates of return, which is observed in the case of women, is the result of a relatively weak tax effect that occurs in the situation of growing incomes that are determined by a raising level of education. The tax effect determines in a fundamental way the level of public benefits from investments in higher education.





In the case of both groups examined of the EU member states, a positive relation between the rates of return obtained by women and men can also be observed (Figure 4). This relationship, which is observed in the case both of private and public rates of return, is statistically strong in both groups examined. The indexes of correlation calculated in the case of public investments reached the value 0.98 for the ‘old’ EU countries and 0.95 for the ‘new’ member countries. The analogue level of the correlation indexes between the rates of return obtained by women and men from private investments amounted to 0.77 (member states before the year 2004) and 0.78 (member states after the year 2004) respectively.

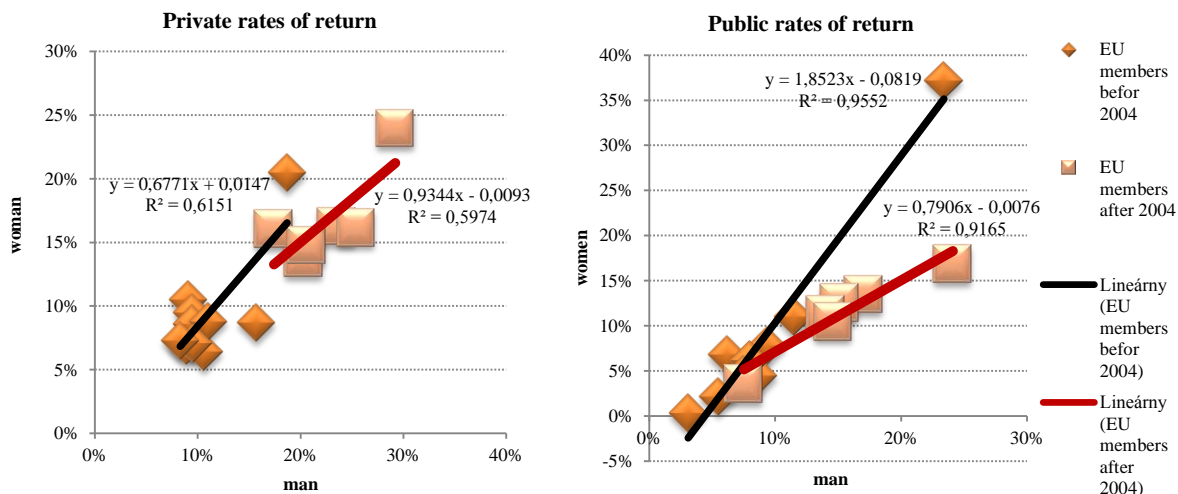


Figure 4. Relation between the rates of return from investments in the higher education of women and men in the EU countries examined (author's own study based on OECD data, 2015)

A question that requires a separate analysis is the relation between the level of expenditures incurred by private (households) and public (state) investors in connection with higher level education and the potential to achieve a high level of economic effectiveness. The analysis carried out in this area demonstrates that in the case of both groups of member states, a negative relation between the level of additional expenditures and the potential rate of return from investments in higher education can be observed in the case of private investments (Figure 5) and public investments (Figure 6).

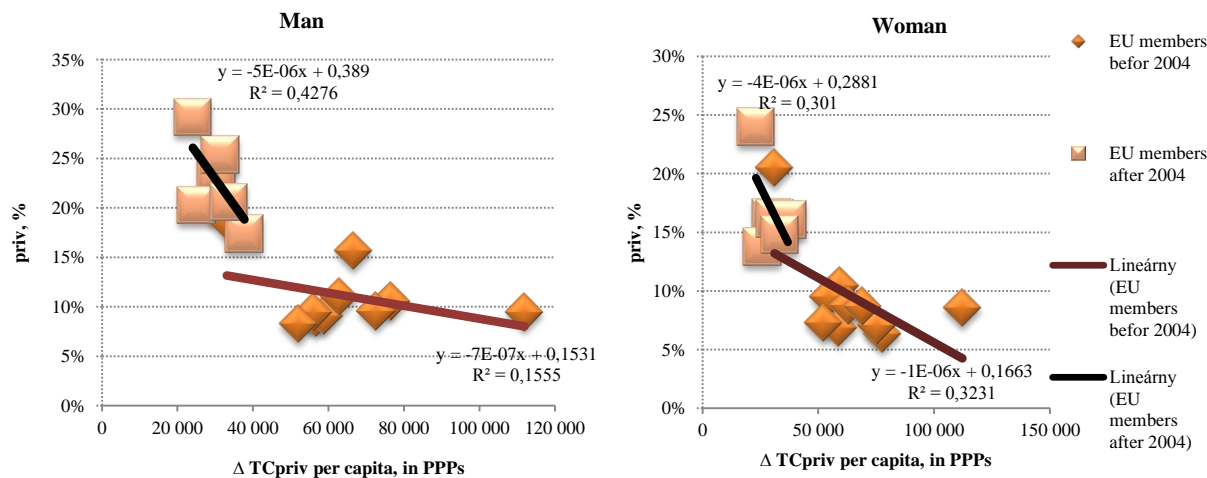


Figure 5. Relation between the level of additional (private) expenditures on higher level education ( $\Delta TC_{priv}$  per capita, in PPPs) and the private rate of return from investments in the higher education (%) of women and men in the EU countries examined (author's own study on OECD data, 2015)

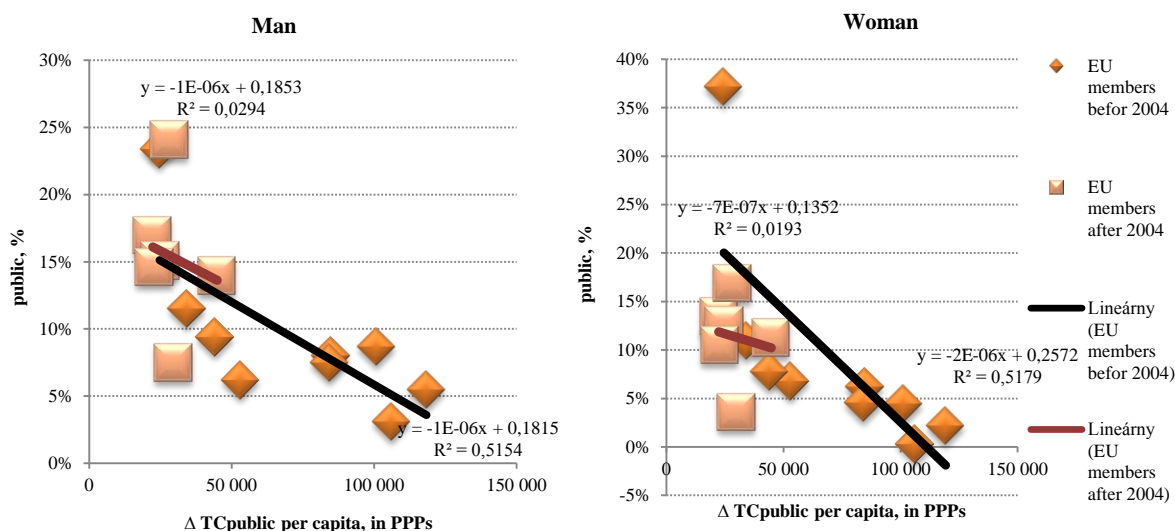


Figure 6. Relation between the level of additional (public) expenditures on higher level education ( $\Delta TC_{publ}$ , per capita, in PPPs) and the public rate of return from investments in higher education (%) of women and men in the EU countries examined (author's own study based on OECD data, 2015)

The relationships presented on the diagrams above serve to confirm the unfavourable tendencies that are observed in the group of the EU member states examined. In accordance with the previous findings, the so-called 'new' EU countries obtain statistically higher rates of return in connection with higher education, in the perspective both of private and public investments. Relatively high rates of return are connected here with the lowest level of additional expenditures on higher education from among the countries examined. In the group of the Middle and East European states examined, the average additional private per capita expenditures connected with taking up and completion of higher education were assessed on the level of USD 30.35 for men and USD 30.100 for women. Concerning public investments, the values were USD 28.800 (men) and USD 28.767 (women) respectively. Analogous expenditures in the case of the 'old' EU states examined were over two times higher and these reached the average values of USD 64.720 for men and USD 65.310 for women in the private sector. Even greater disproportions between the groups of the countries examined can be observed in relation to the values of public per capita expenditures. In the case of the 'old' EU states, they reached the level of USD 72.900 for men and USD 28.767 for women. In both cases, this constitutes over 250 per cent of the average value of public expenditures on higher education in the Middle and East European member states examined. Relatively low rates of return obtained in rich EU states constitute a natural economic consequence of these relations: an increment of additional benefits (in absolute terms) that is observed in the 'old' EU states is unable to equalize the great divergence in expenditures. The result of this situation is the evident low level of the rates of return from additional expenditures on education in rich countries.

## 6. Conclusions

The relationships observed between the level of the rates of return and the values of additional expenditures in relation to the completion of higher level education point to the fact that in the case of the EU member states examined, one may talk about an operation of the law of decreasing productivity: additional per capita expenditures aimed at an increase of the level of education statistically offer smaller and smaller additional benefits that are measured with a 'marginal' rate of return. This effect is evident in the case of both EU member state groups examined, whereas the 'new' EU member states that are still found at the beginning of the path



measured with the level of per capita expenditure receive a characteristic ‘educational’ dividend. Owing to relatively small expenditures with relatively high benefits (an average on the EU level), the Middle and Eastern European countries currently obtain the highest rates of return in the group of member states (in the perspective both of private and public rates of return).

The present analysis demonstrated that for the ‘old’ EU member states, the average private rate of return was 11.3 per cent for men and 9.5 per cent for women, while in the ‘new’ EU member states, the rate reached the level of 22.7 per cent (men) and 16.9 per cent (women). Furthermore, it was observed that it is usually higher rates of return in the private perspective that correspond to higher public rates of return from investments in higher education.

It needs to be emphasized, however, that the analysis conducted was of a static nature. It assumes that specific paths are duplicated of the socio-economic development of states, which is to be considered as a probable situation only. The great diversification demonstrated in the present research of the level reached of the economic effectiveness of investments in education points to the need for a detailed analysis on the level of individual EU economies. Correct recognition of the effects of economic decisions taken in the area of investments in education constitutes a key determinant of a rational state’s budgetary policy and of the private investment management process.

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## PŘÍNOSY KONCEPCE ŘÍZENÍ VÝKONU SLUŽBY PŘÍSLUŠNÍKŮ POLICIE ČESKÉ REPUBLIKY

### Management Concept Benefits of Members of the Czech Republic Police

PETR JEDINÁK, MAREK ČANDÍK

#### Abstract

The paper describes the benefits of the proposed concept of performance management services to the members of the Police of the Czech Republic. At present, the management and assessment of policing performance of police officers can be considered as a priority which also includes, based on this evaluation, further education and development in line with the needs of the police. The active attitude of police officers appears to be the necessary condition of the success in the course of this long-term targeted process. From the general viewpoint there is a contribution of such implemented conceptions of police service management for individual police officers as well as for their managers and also for the police as an organization. Educated, flexible and motivated police members, who continuously deepen their knowledge and who are able to transform it into their skill and abilities in policing are a real contribution to the police organization. In the paper contain results of empirical research of relating problems respondents of these researches the members of the Czech Republic police – of scientific assignment No. 4/3 that is part of the Integrated research task No. 4 for the years 2010–2015 being carried out at the Police Academy of the Czech Republic.

**Key words:** power of control services, benefits management concept, service performance, research task, human resource management.

**Classification JEL:** M12 – Personnel Management.

### 1. Úvod

Lidské zdroje se mohou zdát jako strojový výraz, ale je tomu právě naopak. V poslední době si společnosti začali uvědomovat, co je vlastně definuje a jak jsou lidské zdroje pro společnost významné. Lidské zdroje lze jednoduše definovat jako to nejdůležitější co organizace má. Z tohoto důvodu by se každá organizace měla o své 'lidské zdroje' starat, protože lidské zdroje rozhodují o úspěšnosti a výkonnosti každé organizace. Řízení lidských zdrojů je promyšlené řízení zaměstnanců určitým promyšleným a logickým způsobem. Řízení lidských zdrojů v sobě zahrnuje zejména řízení pracovníků, jejich motivování, rozvoj, vzdělávání, získávání a výběr nových pracovníků (*Armstrong, 2007*). Nejpřednějším zájmem managementu organizace je sledování a vyhodnocování pracovního výkonu zaměstnanců, který rozhodujícím způsobem ovlivňuje úspěšnost organizace. Proto se soudobé pojetí managementu lidských zdrojů intenzivně zabývá řízením pracovního výkonu (*Mládková, Jedinák a kol., 2009, s. 98*). V příspěvku představena navrhovaná koncepce řízení výkonu služby příslušníků (dále také policistů) Policie České republiky (dále také policie).

Policie ČR je podřízena ministerstvu vnitra. Tvoří ji policejní prezidium, útvary s celostátní působností, krajská ředitelství policie a útvary zřízené v rámci krajských ředitelství. Zákon zřizuje 14 krajských ředitelství policie. Jejich územní obvody se shodují s územními obvody 14 krajů České republiky. K zajištění úkolů policie má k dispozici necelých 40 000 příslušníků Policie ČR (dále také policistů) a přes 10 000 občanských zaměstnanců. Činnost policie a plnění stanovených úkolů vychází ze zákona č. 283/1991 Sb., o Policii České republiky<sup>1</sup>. Řídící složkou policie je policejní prezidium v čele s policejním prezidentem. Policejní prezident odpovídá za činnost policie ministru vnitra. Policejnímu prezidiu vykonávajícímu převážně

<sup>1</sup> Zákon č. 283/1991 Sb., o Policii České republiky ve znění pozdějších změn a doplňků



poradní a kontrolní činnosti jsou podřízeny útvaru s celostátní působností a všechna krajská ředitelství policie. Útvary s celostátní působností zřizuje ministr vnitra na návrh policejního prezidenta. Krajská ředitelství policie jsou zřízena zákonem. Policejní prezidium zejména určuje cíle rozvoje policie, řeší koncepci její organizace a řízení a stanoví úkoly jednotlivých služeb. V rámci policie<sup>2</sup> působí služba pořádkové policie, služba dopravní policie, služba cizinecké policie, letecká služba, pyrotechnická služba, ochranná služba, služba kriminální policie a vyšetřování a další specializované služby. Policejní prezidium rovněž analyzuje činnost policie, vytváří policejním útvarům podmínky pro plnění jejich úkolů a koordinuje jejich činnost při plnění úkolů, které přesahují jejich územní nebo věcnou působnost. Krajská ředitelství policie jsou útvary s územně vymezenou působností, sloužící veřejnosti na vymezeném teritoriu a představují samostatné organizační složky státu. Při plnění úkolů policie samostatně hospodaří s finančními prostředky ze státního rozpočtu. Samostatnou složkou policie jsou útvary s celostátní působností, plnící specifické a vysoce specializované úkoly na celém území státu. Některé poskytují odborný servis ostatním policejním útvarům, jiné se specializují například na odhalování organizovaného zločinu nebo korupce a závažné finanční kriminality. Speciální útvary byly zřízeny též k potírání drogové kriminality nebo k zajištění ochrany prezidenta republiky a dalších ústavních činitelů.

## 2. Koncepce řízení výkonu služby

Navrhovaná koncepce řízení výkonu služby je zaměřena na řízení výkonu služby policistů. Vychází z koncepce řízení pracovního výkonu, jak jí vědecky stanovil přední britský odborník Michael Armstrong<sup>3</sup>. Ten definoval základní cyklus řízení pracovního výkonu a charakterizoval jej jako nepřetržitý, sám sebe obnovující cyklus, který je tvořen dohodou o pracovním výkonu na základě definované role, plánem osobního rozvoje, následujícím řízením pracovního výkonu v průběhu roku. Celý cyklus je ukončen jeho přezkoumáním, vedoucím k hodnocení výkonu.

Pro podmínky českých organizací tuto koncepci přepracoval prof. Josef Koubek<sup>4</sup>, který většinu Armstrongových děl přeložil do češtiny. Vlastní koncepci řízení pracovního výkonu vymezuje takto: prvotní fází procesu je dohoda o pracovním výkonu, pokračuje vlastním pracovním výkonem, který je po určitém časovém období hodnocen a na základě výsledků hodnocení se odvíjí jeho odměňování, další vzdělávání a rozvoj pracovníka v organizaci. Tuto koncepci lze dobře po drobných úpravách aplikovat i pro takovou organizaci, jakou je Policie České republiky. Pro její stanovení byla využita data získána v rámci vědecko-výzkumných projektů realizovaných na Policejní akademii České republiky v Praze v letech 2008 – 2014. Pomocí analýzy takto získaných dat tuto koncepci navrhuje do současných podmínek Policie České republiky. Odvodili její cyklické fáze, vycházející ze zastávaného služebního místa

<sup>2</sup> Viz internet: [www.policie.cz](http://www.policie.cz), publikace *Policie České republiky*, s. 6

<sup>3</sup> Michael Armstrong je absolventem London School of Economics, předním představitelem Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development a partnerem Institute of Management Consultancy. Vydal řadu vědeckých publikací, např. *Reward Management (Řízení odměňování)*, *Performance Management (Řízení pracovního výkonu)*, *How to Be an Even Better Manager (Jak být ještě lepším manažerem. Česky vyšlo v roce 1995)*, *A Handbook of Management Techniques (Příručka postupů v řízení)*, *A Handbook of Employee Reward (Příručka odměňování pracovníků)* a *Management and Leadership (Management a leadership)*. Česky vyšlo v nakladatelství Grada Publishing v roce 2008). Snad nejznámější jeho knihou je *A Handbook of Human Resource Management Practice. Desáté vydání (Řízení lidských zdrojů. Nejnovější trendy a postupy, 2007)*.

<sup>4</sup> Prof. Ing. Josef Koubek, CSc., působil na katedře personalistiky Vysoké školy ekonomické v Praze a dlouhodobě spolupracuje s řadou zahraničních univerzit jak v oblasti vědeckého výzkumu, tak v oblasti pedagogické. V posledních deseti letech se aktivně zúčastnil mnoha vědeckých a odborných konferencí a seminářů v zahraničí. Publikoval více než 300 prací, z toho asi 80 v zahraničí. K jeho nejvýznamnějším publikacím patří *Řízení lidských zdrojů. Základy moderní personalistiky*, která až dosud vyšla ve třech vydáních a několika dotiscích (Praha: Management Press 1995, 1997, 2001), *Personální práce v malých podnicích* (dvě vydání Praha: Grada Publishing 1996 a 2003), *ABC praktické personalistiky* (Praha, Linde, 2000) a *Anglicko-český výkladový slovník personalistiky* (Praha, Management Press, 2003).



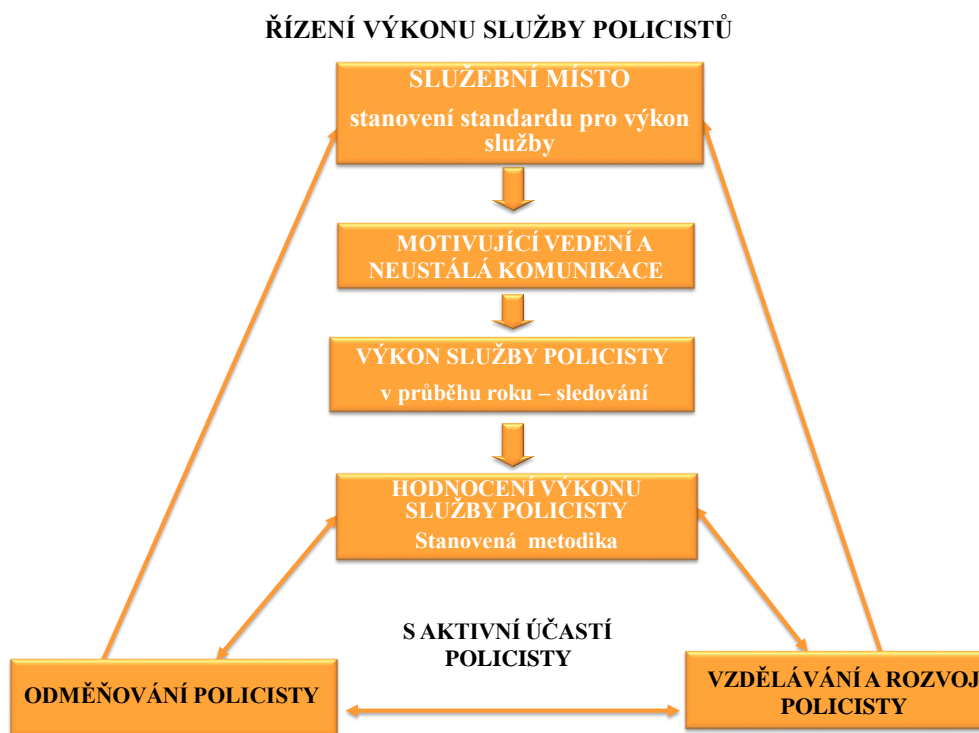
(definování standardu výkonu služby pro držitele služebního místa), přes vlastní odváděný výkon služby policisty (prováděný pod motivujícím vedením policejního manažera). Následnou fází je hodnocení výkonu služby konkrétního policisty (provádí policejní manažer). V závěrečné fázi, jež vychází z výsledků hodnocení, se jedná o odměňování, vzdělávání a další rozvoj příslušníka policie.

V rámci koncepce řízení pracovního výkonu se operuje s pojmem výkon služby. Předmětem našeho vymezení a zkoumání je služba. Službu konají příslušníci, kteří jsou zařazeni ve služebním poměru. Ten je specifický od pracovního poměru, v jehož rámci je předmětem zkoumání pracovní výkon. Z pohledu organizací lze na pracovní výkon zaměstnance a na výkon služby policisty nahlížet shodně.

Definice výkonu služby může být následující: „Výkon služby je plnění služebních povinností policisty v rámci jeho zastávaného služebního místa. Policista by měl odvádět alespoň standardní výkon služby. Zahrnuje policistovo služební chování, jednání a uplatňování znalostí, dovedností a schopností při provádění služebních úkonů a všech činností v souvislosti se službou“.

Řízení výkonu služby je proces, během kterého dochází zároveň k provázání:

- Organizačních;
- Týmových;
- A individuálních cílů s klíčovými, základními schopnostmi příslušníků PČR.



Obr. 1. Návrh koncepce řízení výkonu služby policistů

Jde o výraz zvyšující se participace každého příslušníka na řízení. Tento proces je zaměřen na následující činnosti:

- Plánování a soustavné zlepšování výkonu služby, než na hodnocení dosavadního výkonu;
- Orientuje se spíše na budoucnost než na minulost;
- Zvyšování odborných kompetencí policistů;



- Zvyšování kultury organizace;
- Identifikaci a následné řešení problémů, v souvislosti s výkonem služby;
- Podporuje aktivní policisty v rámci jejich dalšího působení v policii.

V rámci koncepce se použila v pořadí třetí fáze (hodnocení příslušníků), která je považována za prioritní. Logicky navazuje na dvě předešlé (definování standardu pro výkon služby a vlastní výkon služby). Nová metodika hodnocení byla do policie postupně aplikována od roku 1999 a na základě vyhodnocení pilotních projektů zavedena do celé policie od roku 2002. Další následné fáze (odměňování policisty a vzdělávání a rozvoj), by měly vycházet z výstupů z hodnocení. Tím by měl být celý cyklický proces v určeném období (doporučení jednoho roku) ukončen. Metodika hodnocení policistů **obsahuje:**

1. *Posouzení klíčových oblastí pro výkon profese hodnotitelem* – odbornosti, kvality plnění služebních povinností a úrovně teoretických znalostí, včetně jejich aplikace při výkonu služby – zpracovává hodnotitel (přímý nadřízený hodnotitele), který ohodnotí pomocí pětistupňové škály pracovní výkon hodnoceného ve vybraných oblastech (určeno 18 základních oblastí).
2. *Sebehodnocení klíčových oblastí pro výkon profese hodnoceným* (pokud hodnocený využije možnosti sebehodnocení). Hodnocený ohodnotí svůj pracovní výkon pomocí pětistupňové škály ve vybraných oblastech (určeno 18 základních oblastí – shodné jako v bodě č. 1).
3. *Rozhovor hodnotitele s hodnoceným*, který je veden cílem projednání výsledků hodnocení, případně též k porovnání sebehodnocení s výsledky hodnocení. Tato metoda zastřešuje metodiku vycházející z bodu č. 1 a č. 2.
4. *Hodnocení významných událostí*. Záznamy významných událostí se provádějí pouze u hodnocených, u nichž se projevil výrazně podstandardní nebo výrazně nadstandardní výkon služby. Slouží též i k projednání negativního či pozitivního jednání hodnoceného.
5. *Závěrečné hodnocení*, v jehož rámci jsou v závěru hodnocení stanoveny úkoly dalšího odborného rozvoje na hodnocené období. Jedná se o termínované úkoly hodnocenému, směřující k odstranění nedostatků v jeho služební činnosti a pro případ rozvoje jeho další služební kariéry.

### 3. Výstupy z provedených výzkumů

Realizované výstupy byly převážně cíleny na proces a metodiku hodnocení příslušníků PČR. Proběhly v rozmezí let 2008 – 2014 (2123 respondentů).

Tab. 1. Počty respondentů v jednotlivých letech (vlastní výzkum)

Rok výzkumu	Počet respondentů
2008	78
2009	454
2010	310
2011	502
2013	406
2014	373

Respondenti – studující policisté kombinované formy na PA ČR v Praze, účastníci kurzů CŽV z řad Policie ČR. Výzkumy poskytly relevantní data, jak na metodiku hodnocení nahlíží samotní policisté a zda je možné stávající platnou metodiku služebního a průběžného hodnocení příslušníků Policie ČR využít v navrhované koncepci řízení výkonu služby.

Data byla vyhodnocována průběžně (každoročně). Kromě hlavních sledovaných oblastí byly zkoumány i rozdílnosti pohledů na danou problematiku např.: dle délky praxe, služebního





zařazení, pohlaví, manažer – řadový policista. Statistické analýzy provedeny na 5procentní hladině významnosti. K vyhodnocování bylo použito softwarových prostředků (MS Excel 2007 – 2013; Statistica v.10; SPSS v13.0).

K analýze výzkumných předpokladů byly použity matematicko-statistické metody (F-test, W-test). Dle závěrů ověřených předpokladů byly použity parametrické nebo neparametrické metody (t-test, U-test).

Tab. 2. Závěry z provedených výzkumů (vlastní výzkum)

Výstupy z výzkumů – celkové shrnutí	
Prioritní otázky k metodice hodnocení	Vyhodnocení odpovědí od respondentů
Výsledky sebehodnocení byly v rozporu s výsledky hodnotitele	<i>téměř u poloviny respondentů (48 %)</i>
Splnil hodnotící rozhovor očekávání	<i>u více než poloviny respondentů (52 %)</i>
Objektivnost výsledků hodnocení zpracovaných hodnotitelem	<i>pozitivně hodnoceno u víc než poloviny respondentů (6 %)</i>
Mohl jste se vyjádřit ke stanoveným úkolům na další hodnotící období	<i>necelá polovina respondentů (44 %)</i>
Určení klíčových oblastí pro výkon služby	<i>více jak dvě třetiny hodnotí kladně (69 %)</i>
Stanovení úkolů od nadřízeného na další hodnotící období	<i>stanoveno více jak čtyř pětina respondentů (81 %)</i>
Dokáže metodika ohodnotit pracovní výkon policisty	<i>ano – více jak polovina respondentů (52 %)</i>

Z výstupů výzkumů uvedených v tabulce 2 můžeme dojít k závěru, že více jak polovina oslovených respondentů vnímá současně platnou metodiku hodnocení příslušníků pozitivně, takže jí můžeme v navrhované koncepci řízení výkonu služby policistů využít. To nezakládá ale skutečnost, že jí nebudeme muset v budoucnu přizpůsobovat, aby uměla co nejlépe ohodnotit skutečný výkon služby policisty.

#### 4. Limity a přínosy navrhované koncepce

Na základě celkového posouzení současné situace a budoucích vyhlídek rozvoje Policie České republiky, **limity koncepce** mohou být následující:

- Podpora vrcholového vedení Policie ČR;
- Časový faktor – nelze očekávat, že řízení výkonu služby bude fungovat rychle. Je to proces dlouhodobý, než v charakteru organizace zapustí kořeny;
- Linioví manažeři.

Prioritním subjektem v koncepci řízení výkonu služby jsou **policejní manažeři**, a to převážně ti, kteří jsou služebně zařazení na nejnižších stupních řízení. Ti vytváří podmínky pro to, aby řadoví příslušníci mohli efektivně pracovat. Měli by se aktivně se podílet na řízení výkonu služby svých podřízených policistů. K vrcholovému (TOP) managementu v policii patří policejní prezident a jeho náměstci, ředitelé odborů na policejním prezidiu, krajsí ředitelé a jejich zástupci. Do středního managementu policie zařazujeme vedoucí odborů krajských správ policie, velitelé územních celků (dříve okresní ředitelé) a jejich zástupci. Mezi liniové manažery spadají vedoucí jednotlivých oddělení a služeb v rámci vymezených územních celků a jejich zástupci. Všichni tito manažeři disponují přidělenými finančními, informačními, technickými a především lidskými zdroji tak, aby co nejlépe splnili požadované úkoly, které jsou od nich na konkrétním služebním místě požadovány. Služební místo je v policii dáno



systematizací<sup>5</sup>. Ta je důležitým nástrojem k dosažení úkolů policie cestou stanovení organizačního uspořádání, stanovení optimálních počtů služebních míst příslušníků a jejich struktury z hlediska kvalifikačních a dalších požadavků. Řídící činnost v policii obsahuje velké množství složitých, velmi často konfliktních situací. Má-li v této souvislosti policie úspěšně a dlouhodobě naplňovat své poslání, musí být řízena skutečnými profesionálními manažerskými osobnostmi, které se vyznačují odborně bezpečnostní kvalifikací, mravní vyspělostí, psychickou a sociální odolností. Do popředí u nich vstupují takové schopnosti, jako je předvídání bezpečnostních rizik, orientace v krizových situacích, přijímání adekvátních rozhodnutí a jejich realizace v řídicím procesu. Je tedy prioritní pro policii mít na pozicích všech manažerů takové policisty, kteří zabezpečí splnění vytyčených strategických úkolů a kteří budou umět dobře řídit lidské zdroje v organizaci, tzn. pomocí různých manažerských nástrojů řídit pracovní výkon řadových policistů. Tito manažeři by měli disponovat takovými znalostmi a schopnosti, aby dokázali na základě věrohodně a objektivně získaných informací:

- Posoudit kvalitu plnění úkolů Policie ČR a motivovat policisty k jejich plnění;
- Posoudit, zda je chování policistů v souladu s Etickým kodexem Policie ČR;
- Efektivně řídit a následně kontrolovat výkonu služby policistů;
- Rozhodovat ve věcech kázeňských a ve věcech služebního poměru;
- Posuzovat odbornosti policisty, jeho profesních znalostí a schopností;
- V součinnosti s policistou se podílet na stanovení plánu úkolů jeho dalšího odborného rozvoje v organizaci.

V rámci výkonu své profese policejní manažer zastává při řízení výkonu služby policistů různé manažerské role a vykonává řadu činností, které lze definovat z pohledu managementu jako výkon manažerských funkcí. O manažerských rolích a manažerských funkcích pojednávají následující podkapitoly. Požadavky kladené na policejní manažery jsou velmi náročné, představují soubor manažerských profesních způsobilostí spočívající ve znalosti nástrojů, metod a technik moderního managementu a v dovednostech jejich adekvátního využití v určitém situačním rámci. Dále je zde zastoupena složka humanitní, jakožto individuální schopnost manažera 'umět to s lidmi', která je aktivně ovlivňuje v zájmu plnění poslání organizace. Též nesmíme zapomenout zmínit složku koncepční, jež představuje určité umění vidět širší systémové souvislosti dopadů přijatých rozhodnutí na další vývoj organizace a další působení na okolí. Jistě by se dalo souhlasit i s tvrzením, že čím větším dílem je v manažerových profesních způsobilostech zastoupena tato složka, tím vyšší úroveň zodpovědnosti za další působení organizace může převzít.

Vedoucí příslušník má velmi významný podíl na úspěšnosti a efektivnosti skupiny, což je objektivním ukazatelem výkonu služby. Též se zúčastňuje na utváření mezilidských vztahů a svým chováním a jednáním ovlivňuje disciplínu, morálku policistů a vytváří prostor pro jejich aktivitu a iniciativu.

**Přínosy navrhované koncepce** řízení výkonu služby mohou být různorodé, k nejdůležitějším lze přiřadit následující:

- Zlepšování výkonu služby celé organizace;
- Sladění individuálních cílů s cíli organizace;
- Uspokojování potřeb a naplňování očekávání všech zainteresovaných stran.
- Vytváření kultury výkonu;
- Zlepšování individuálního výkonu;
- Základna pro osobní rozvoj policistů;
- Aktivní komunikace a zapojování všech policistů do diskuse a řízení;

<sup>5</sup> § 4 zákona č. 361/2003 Sb., *O služebním poměru příslušníků bezpečnostních sborů*, ve znění pozdějších změn a doplňků.



- Podklady pro rozhodování o odměnách podle přínosu či výkonu, které přitahují, stabilizují a motivují vysoce výkonné policisty.

Důležité je určitě i zjišťovat **efektivitu** nové koncepce. Tu lze sledovat mnohými způsoby, doporučit lze následující možnosti:

- Poskytováním pravidelné zpětné vazby;
- Pozitivní – s cílem klást důraz na cestu k dalšímu rozvoji a zlepšování;
- Konstruktivní – s cílem identifikovat oblasti potřebné ke zlepšení;
- Na důkazech založená – opírající se o fakta a odvolávající se na výsledky, události, kritické případy a významné projevy chování, které ovlivnily výkon služby. Měla by akceptovat dohodnuté cíle, kritéria úspěšnosti a měřítka výkonu.

## 5. Závěr

Řízení lidských zdrojů je v současnosti jednou z nejdynamičtěji se rozvíjejících oblastí řízení organizace, přináší nové pojetí člověka jako lidského činitele v systému řízení. Teoretici i praktici v současnosti hledají a zkoušejí nové a efektivnější přístupy k řízení lidí. Stále častěji je v odborné literatuře pojem lidské zdroje nahrazován pojmem lidský kapitál, je zdůrazňován respekt k individualitě každého člověka, jeho osobnosti. Řízení lidí je stále více nahrazováno jejich vedením. Je zřejmé, že personální práce v současnosti klade zvláštní důraz na motivační nástroje k dosažení maximálního výkonu organizace a poukazuje na potřebu kooperativního partnerství mezi zaměstnancem a zaměstnavatelem. Personální práce přestává být záležitostí odborných specialistů, ale stává se součástí každodenní práce všech vedoucích pracovníků. Vedoucím pracovníkům je v současnosti svěřována obrovská zodpovědnost. Očekává se od nich, že budou nejen plnit svěřené úkoly, řídit pracovní výkon, přepracovávat zastaralé organizační postupy, ale i vytvářet čerstvé přístupy k motivaci, rozvíjet talent a schopnosti podřízených pracovníků s ohledem na zrychlující se vývoj moderní společnosti (Koubek, 2007). Toto tvrzení beze zbytku platí i pro takovou organizaci, jakou je Policie České republiky.

Od Policie ČR se očekává, že své úkoly bude plnit co nejlépe, tak aby s jejich službami byli jejich příjemci (všichni občané naší republiky spokojeni). Výkon služby v policii je velmi rozmanitý a policie musí neustále čelit a reagovat na nově vzniklé výzvy a hrozby (v poslední době velmi aktuální situace např. muniční sklady, běženci). Aby tyto úkoly policie dobře zvládla, musí být v jejich řadách takoví policisté, kteří budou odvádět alespoň standardní výkon služby a byli ochotni se neustále vzdělávat. V této souvislosti musí policie zajistit a nastavit takové procesy, aby policisté neodcházeli z jejich řad (hlavně ti zkušení – znalostní pracovníci, a to na všech součástech policie). Velmi prioritní je vypracování a zavedení kariérního řádu, a právě k tomuto cíli by mohla velmi pozitivně přispět realizace nové koncepce řízení výkonu služby. Od policisty se vyžaduje na zastávaném služebním místě vykonávat službu co nejlépe. Každý policista by měl znát, jaký výkon služby se od něj očekává, a jaké má možnosti v rámci kariérního růstu v Policii České republiky.

V příspěvku představena koncepce řízení výkonu služby pro příslušníky Policie ČR, zmíněny limity a její přednosti a v přehledu představeny výstupy z výzkumu, provedené ve vztahu k navrhované metodice. Výzkumy byly vedeny snahou získat relevantní data pro další zlepšování a zkvalitňování výkonu služby příslušníků policie. Výzkumy prováděné v rámci organizace by měly vycházet z požadavků praxe a následně výstupy získané z těchto výzkumů by měly do praxe směřovat (Jedinák, 2012, s. 98).

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## LIFELONG LEARNING PROGRAM IN UNIVERSITY/INDUSTRY PARTNERSHIP PROJECT TEMPUS RECOAUD: TRAINING OF ECO- MANAGEMENT AND CLIMATE CHANGE ADAPTATION

BORUT JEREB, DARJA KUKOVIČ, TINA CVAHTE

### Abstract

Text (in English) is written in 11 and presents the topic, logic structure, methods and main results. Present paper presents the international university/industry partnership project Tempus RECOAUD – its aims, objectives and methodologies, which are manifested through the framework of Lifelong learning program (LLP). The aim of international project Tempus RECOAUD is to raise the climate change and pollution awareness of Russian universities' teachers and students as well as representatives of several transport and gas industry companies of Russian Federation and also to implement the efficient Eco-Management and Auditing with the latest tools. Since EU countries are currently more aware of this issue, four Universities from EU have participated in training seminars as trainers as well as the designers of the structured curriculum, based on the concept of Lifelong learning. In this way the absorptive capacity of the industry increases, which raises the sustainability of the region. The implementation of Eco-Audit and Environmental Management is planned to be completed with the cohesion of three imperatives that meet the above objectives: LLP development, training seminar and the development of case studies. LLP was developed on the basis of target audience and its needs, whereby Textbook has started to develop at the very beginning of the project. According to LLP EU partners have trained Russian university teachers, whereby training courses were videotaped to ensure an efficient knowledge transfer and multiplier effect. Case studies were developing on three different levels – first they were developed by EU partners, then by Russian university teacher and finally by students and representatives from the companies. Case studies will be integrated into the final edition of the Textbook. The most innovative aspect of the project is recognized in the whole process of knowledge transfer, as it fosters not only the Eco-Auditing skills, but also the awareness of the importance of Environmental Management.

**Key words:** Eco-Auditing, Environmental Management, Lifelong Learning Program (LLP), University/industry partnership.

**Classification JEL:** D83 – Search; Learning; Information and Knowledge; Communication; Belief; Unawareness.

### 1. Introduction

Presently, many governments in the European Union and other OECD countries recognize the need for closer cooperation between higher education institutions and industry to stress innovation policies and graduate employability, since labor markets increasingly rely on higher skill levels and transversal competences. But, the burden still remains on universities, as each region searches its own way to involve universities into regional development (*Azagra-Caro, 2006, p. 38*). The most advanced universities are placing more focus on developing the practical and entrepreneurial skills of their students, and on promoting innovation and stakeholder partnerships. Thus, they endeavor to equip students with the advanced knowledge, necessary skills and competences they need throughout their professional lives. Universities should also maintain and renew skilled workforce through close cooperation between governments, higher education institutions and students to become more responsive to employers' needs, while on the other hand employers could better understand the educational perspective (*Aspin & Chapman, 2000; EHEA, 2009; Sursock, 2015*).

In Russia, they are faced with low level of Research and Development (R&D) financing, inadequate development of public-private partnership models and inadequate support to innovative Small and Medium Enterprises (SMEs). To establish innovative climate, new



government strategy ‘Innovative Russia 2020’ implies the increase of the share of innovatively active companies from the current 9.3% to 40–50% as well as to register about 3000 patents in EU, United States and Japan by 2020 (*Panarina, 2015, p. 25*).

R&D – especially higher education institutions – should exploit all the given channels of knowledge transfers: networks, continuing professional development, consultancy, collaborative research, contract research, licensing, spin-outs, and finally, teaching (*EC, 2009*). Research-oriented companies in OECD countries has adopted the norm of ‘open innovation’ which led them to cooperate with universities and fund academic research (*Altbach, Reisberg & Rumbley, 2009, p. 157*).

R&D activities also affect the absorptive capacity of companies – the concept for analyzing the innovation processes and the effect of organizational learning on the creation of sustainable competitive advantage. The absorption of scientific knowledge requires greater capacities for the acquisition and exploitation than the industrial knowledge, but education of personnel or R&D activities, is a key factor in the absorption of external knowledge from scientific sources (*Vega-Jurado, Gutiérrez-Grazia & de-Lucio, 2007*).

A useful tool for defining strong partnerships between public authorities, higher education institutions, students, employers and employees was provided by the European Universities’ Charter on Lifelong Learning, which was developed by the European University Association. Lifelong learning outcomes can be recognized in the knowledge, skills and competences. Lifelong learning is supported by European organizational structures and funding, as well as it is usually encouraged by national policies (*EHEA, 2009, p. 3*).

## 2. Lifelong learning program

The EU agency Eurostat has classified education and learning into four broad categories – Formal education, Non-formal education, Informal learning and Random/incidental learning (*Gresswell & Hoogerwerf, 2007, p. 8*) – presented in Figure 1, wherein Lifelong learning encompasses the whole spectrum of formal, non-formal and informal learning (*EC, 2001*).

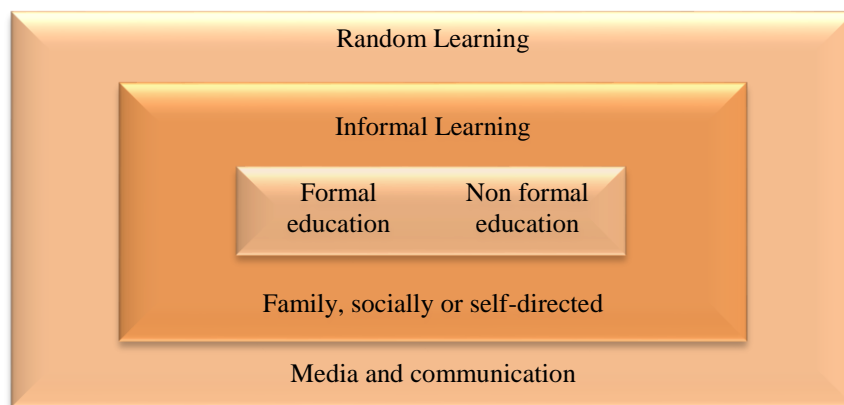


Figure 1. Categories of learning (*Gresswell & Hoogerwerf, 2007, p. 9*)

At the Lisbon European Council in March 2000, the concept of Lifelong Learning Program (LLP) was set as a key element of the strategy for dynamic and competitive economy on the basis of sustainable economic growth and social cohesion (*EC, 2000*).

The LLP was designed to enable people at any stage of their life to take part in stimulating learning experiences, as well as developing education and training across Europe. With a budget of nearly 7 billion euro, the program, which ran from 2007–2013, funded a range of exchanges, study visits, and networking activities. The activities of LLP continue under the new Erasmus+



program from 2014–2020 (*Lifelong learning program, European Commission, n. d.*). The concept of lifelong learning is not limited only to EU, but is well accepted in other developed countries, as its goals are beneficial in general. Lifelong learning generally means new basic skills for all, more investments in human resources, innovations in teaching and learning, valuing learning, rethinking guidance and counselling and bringing learning closer to home (*EC, 2000*).

Key competences represent a transferable, more functional package of knowledge, skills and attitudes that all individuals need for personal fulfilment or development, inclusion and employability, which should be developed by the end of compulsory education or training, which forms the basis of all life learning (*EC, 2005*).

Lifelong learning especially develops areas of competencies listed below (*EC, 2005*):

- Communication in the mother tongue;
- Communication in foreign languages;
- Numeric imagination and skills in mathematics, natural science and technology;
- Information and communication technology (ICT);
- Learning to learn;
- Interpersonal, intercultural and social competences;
- Innovation and entrepreneurship;
- Cultural awareness and expression.

The aim of international project Tempus RECOAUD is to raise awareness of Russian universities and several transport and gas industry companies of Russian Federation about the affection of their pollution on climate change and to train them implement the efficient Eco-Management with the latest tools (*Application Form of RECOAUD, 2012*). In this way, involved Russian companies which are directly connected to involved universities, gain external partners who will provide knowledge to aid defining trajectories that are new to them (*Bercovitz & Feldman, 2007, p. 931*). Since EU countries are currently more aware of this issue, four Universities from EU have trained Russian University teachers to train employees of targeted companies as well as several students, which represent future employees of these companies. All activities of the three-year project were organized on the basis of lifelong learning concept.

### 3. Project Tempus RECOAUD

According to the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC) in 2010 the Russian Federation was ranked in 3rd place in the list of the greenhouse gas (GHG) emitting countries worldwide (excluding emissions from forest use and change), (*UNFCCC, 2012, FCCC/SBI/2012/31, p. 14*). Although the total amount of GHG – emissions decreased by 34.1 % from 1990 until 2010 (because of the breakdown of the Soviet Union), it was still remarkable with 2.207.596 Gg CO<sub>2</sub> – equivalents, whereas around 70% are CO<sub>2</sub> – emissions (*UNFCCC, 2012, FCCC/SBI/2012/31, p. 14*). To improve environmental safety and to reduce, the total emissions, the Russian Federation is constantly increasing the volume of funds on environment protection. In 2005 they accounted 233.9 billion rubles and in 2010 they reached 372.4 billion rubles (increase by 59.2%). The commitment of observance of binding emission reduction targets within the Kyoto protocol (no increase of CO<sub>2</sub> – emissions compared to 1990) highlights the meaning of climate change mitigation for the Russian Federation and thus for its economy and industry. The implementation of Eco-Audit and Environmental Management in their business decision making is crucial for enterprises not only to observe legal guidelines but also to increase their (energy) efficiency and thus reduce costs and gain competitive advantage. Furthermore, the impacts of climate change (e.g. heavy precipitation, heat or cold waves) will have a stronger influence on enterprises and their daily business in the future either directly (e.g. damages of production infrastructure by flood or storms, impacts of heat waves/high



temperatures on the health of workers and productivity of machines) or indirectly (e.g. impacts on procurement by extreme weather events). Thus, the adaptation to the impacts of climate change has to be integrated into the corporate long-term planning and daily decision making (*Application Form of RECOAUD, 2012*).

Therefore, the responsible persons in the enterprises had to be trained sufficiently in order to be able to implement efficient Eco-Management in their company. Within the education and studies for ecologists and specialists, environmental issues were integrated. However, this education was rather general (or is restricting too strong on a specific aspect; e.g., a retraining course at the Ural State University of Railway Transport on ‘Ecological Audit for workers at transport’) and so far there were no special lifelong learning programs in the Russian partner universities that address managers, responsible for the corporate Environmental Management, in order to train them for the implementation of Eco-Audit and climate change adaptation in their enterprises. In fact, the education and training necessarily had to be aligned to international standards ISO 14000 family (*ISO 14001, 2004; ISO 14001, 2015*), ISO 26000 (*ISO 26000, 2010*) and ISO 31000 family (*ISO 31000, 2009; ISO 31010, 2009*) and finally the state of the art of science.

The project RECOAUD attempts to close the above gaps and thereby at the end achieve the following objectives (*Application Form of RECOAUD, 2012*):

1. By developing and implementing a standardized curriculum for a lifelong learning program ‘Eco-Audit and Environmental Management’ in the partner universities and regions, the awareness for facing and integrating into corporate decision making will be increased and thus the regional economy strengthened.
2. The knowledge exchange and cooperation will be fostered in several perspectives. On the one hand, the exchange between European and Russian universities refreshes existing relationships and builds up new ones. The RECOAUD project will update and synchronize the lifelong learning education related to climate change (Eco-Management and climate change adaptation) according to international standards and the state of the art.
3. As students – the future generation of experts in the companies – are integrated in the implementation of the courses, important experiences and impulses can be used for the update of the general education at universities in this field. Involved students might represent new recruits for the companies, as highly skilled graduates are desirable inputs for successful industrial development in a given society (*Puuka & Marmolejo, 2008*).
4. On the other hand, the transfer of knowledge and the relationship between Russian partner universities and enterprises will be sustainably fostered. The knowledge exchange between enterprises from different regions will provide best practice examples and allow cooperations for an efficient and sustainable joint action for facing climate change.
5. By developing a standardized program and implementing it within a case for the railway sector, the regional exchange and cooperation is sustainably fostered. Following, the concept can be successfully extended to other regions and industries and thus the awareness of climate change of the Russian economy and industry can be increased. Thus, the Russian economy and industry can develop in a long-term and sustainable way by recognizing and overcoming the risks of climate change and by managing their proper responses.
6. Finally, based on the described motivation and objectives, RECOAUD will achieve a main objective: to have a major impact on the society at large. By providing comprehensive education and information on the challenges of climate change and how to face these (by Eco-Management and adaptation) the awareness is sustainably increased within the trained participants. More important, by passing on the knowledge within the individual (business and private) environment, a multiplier effect is started (from the workers and students) including and affecting the whole society. Not least because of the increased awareness, actual behavior and action (related to Eco-Management and climate change adaptation)





will be reconsidered and adapted. Thus, a sustainable impact on the society at large is achieved.

By developing and implementing a standardized and internationalized lifelong learning program ‘Eco-Audit and Environmental Management’, the main objective of the proposed project RECOAUD to raise awareness and to sensitize Russian enterprises for integrating environmental and climate change related issues into their corporate decision making, should be achieved. Furthermore, RECOAUD fosters regional cooperation between major regions of the Russian Federation and the standardization and internalization of lifelong learning of Eco-Audit and Environmental Management. Therefore, the project contains several major components (work packages), as listed below (*Application Form of RECOAUD, 2012*):

- WP 1 Development of the curriculum for a lifelong learning and further education program ‘Eco-Audit and Environmental Management’ for enterprises in Russia;
- WP 2 Training of university teachers from Russian partner universities for the teaching of the lifelong learning and further education program ‘Eco-Audit and Environmental Management’;
- WP 3 Implementation of the developed curriculum within training courses for Russian railway and oil companies from partner regions;
- WP 4 Development of case studies for the integration of environmental issues in corporate decision making for Russian enterprises;
- WP 5 Integration of the developed case studies into the curriculum of the lifelong learning program ‘Eco-Audit and Environmental Management’;
- WP 6 Feedback and adaptation of the curriculum for future implementations of the lifelong learning program ‘Eco-Audit and Environmental Management’;
- WP 7 Development of a concept for future regional cooperation and transfer of the lifelong learning program to other regions and branches;
- WP 8 Management of the project;
- WP 9 Quality control.

In the compilation of the RECOAUD consortium, it was ensured that all the required skills for successful achievement of set objectives are provided by participating partners. This is reflected in the proposed implementation of objectives and work packages of the project.

The applicant and main coordinator of RECOAUD, Technische Universität Dresden (TUD) has great expertise in the management of large scale projects. Their European Project Center successfully managed various TEMPUS projects in the past. For coordination of the project contents, TUD along with University of Maribor (UM) function as coordinator of the European partners, while Samara State Transport University (SSTU) functions as content coordinator of the Russian partners (*Application Form of RECOAUD, 2012*).

EU partners show great expertise in the field of ecology in general and the field of Eco-Audit and Environmental Management especially. However, different partners have different strengths in different aspects. By compiling the consortium and assigning tasks according to their strengths, it was ensured that all partners can use their strengths and multiply them within the consortium. The leading coordinator TUD show its expertise in the field of Eco-Audit and Environmental Management. The Faculty of Logistics from the University of Maribor (UM) focuses in their research and education on risk management and supply chain standards. Both the Faculty of Management from Czestochowa (CUT) and Faculties of Civil Engineering and Operation and Economics of Transport and Communications from Žilina (UNIZA) are experts in the field of standards of Environmental Management and integration of environmental aspects in corporate decision making, with a background of Transport and Logistics (*Application Form of RECOAUD, 2012*).

The Russian partners represent major regions in Russia – SSTU from Samara, Ural State University of Railway Transport (USURT) from Ekaterinburg, Omsk State Transport



University (OSTU) from Omsk and Tyumen State Oil and Gas University (TSOGU) from Tyumen. Their background of Transport/Railways (SSTU, USURT, OSTU) and Oil and Gas (TSOGU) represent industries that are highly sensitive to environmental impacts. Thus, Eco-Audit and Environmental Management is highly relevant in their research and education. Due to their connection to major regional companies, their research is focused on practical integration of environmental and work safety aspects, process efficiency and integration of Eco-Audit into organizational decision making (*Application Form of RECOAUD, 2012*).

For the RECOAUD project, cooperation with the target group was crucial. Major regional companies from all partner regions stated their great interest, the topical high relevance and ensured their support and participation. The participation in this program and thus the gain of additional expert knowledge are great benefits for the selected students, who represent the next generation of specialists for the companies. Finally, the support of the regional (departments) ministries of education shows their high interest in the program and its standardization and accreditation.

### Innovative aspects of the project

We recognize the most innovative aspects of the whole project especially in the curriculum for the LLP, its implementation as well as its development during the run of project. The implementation of Eco-Audit and Environmental Management is going to be achieved, when the cohesion of three imperatives will be ensured – LLP development, training seminar and the development of case studies.

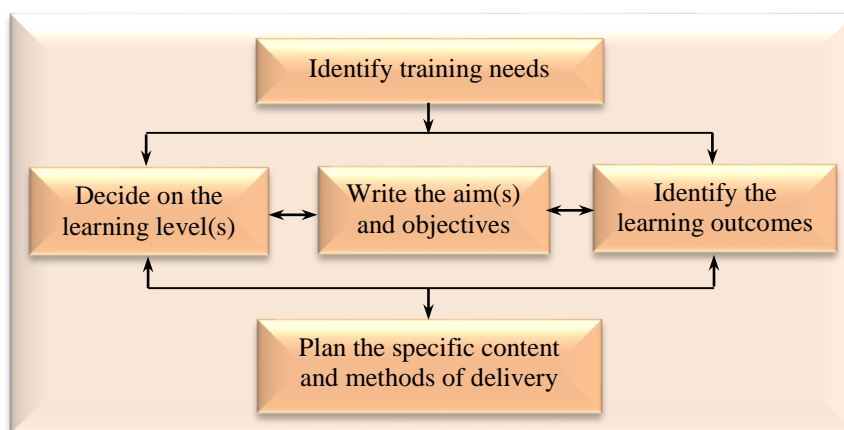


Figure 2. Framework for designing learning programs (Gresswell & Hoogerwerf, 2007, p. 7)

The LLP was developed on the basis of the framework for designing learning programs presented in Figure 2 and described below:

1. According to chosen framework, first we have identified training needs – all partners have done the survey about the eco-standards they use in their country to find the gaps between them. The target audience had had a lack of advanced knowledge concerning the environmental management and its efficient implementation.
2. On the basis of the results of personal interviews and questionnaires, EU partners decided on the learning level according to European Qualifications Framework (EQF), (*European Qualification Framework, 2008*). Overall level of our learning program was advanced level. This level is intended for those with a good working knowledge and a variety of experiences in a relevant professional field. The adapted learning program at this level provides an in-depth study of one or more areas of environmental management and the competence to manage complex technical or professional activities or projects – to take



- responsibility for decision-making in unpredictable work or study contexts; to take responsibility for managing professional development of individuals and groups.
3. According to the achieved consensus about the form of syllabus EU partners then identified the learning outcomes by setting the draft of the structure of the curriculum, which was approved by Russian partners. EU partners also started to find respective state of the art, while Russian partners systematically started the literature review.
  4. Finally, EU partners planned the specific content in setting the draft for the Textbook, as well as they chose the methods of delivery. UM was responsible to do the compilation of the methods and didactics tools in the form of LLP, where Fink's taxonomy (*Fink, 2003*) was used.

Training seminars RECOAUD course was organized and implemented in two different places – theoretical training in Czestochowa (CUT), and practical training in Samara (SSTU), where 8 EU teachers (2 from each EU partner) trained 16 teachers from Russian Universities.

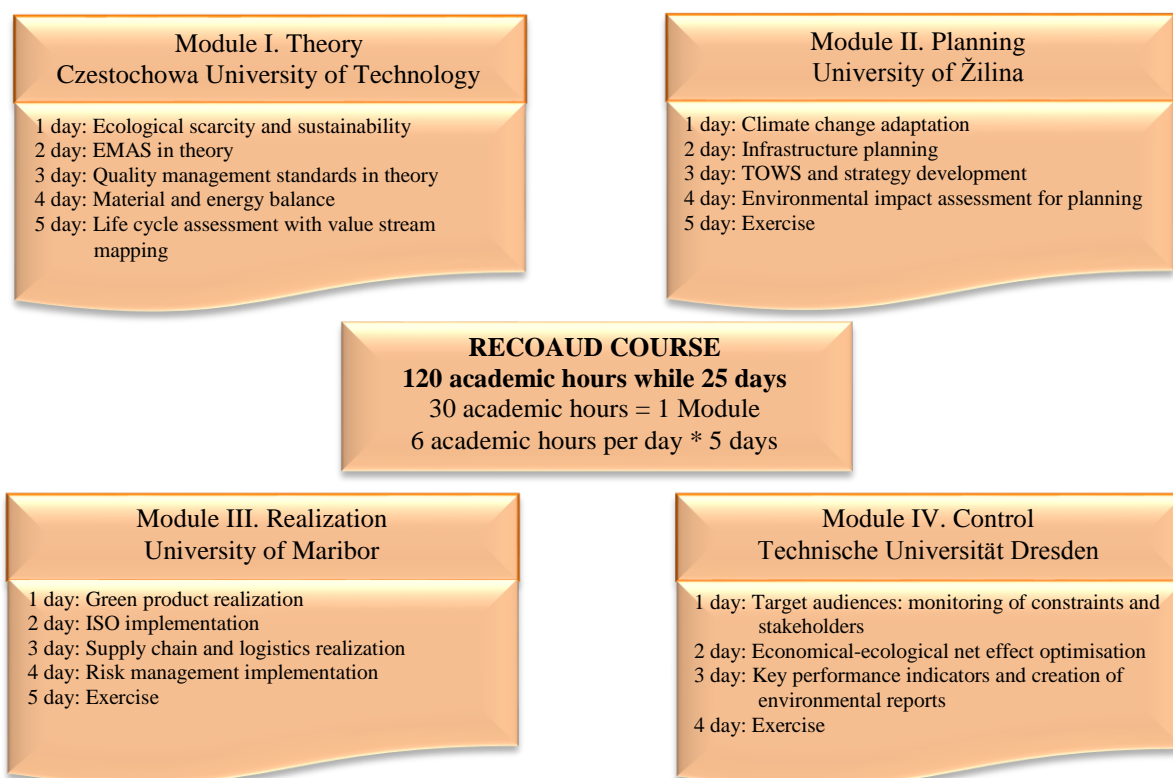


Figure 3. RECOAUD course content in Modules (own source: *Lifelong Learning Program in Environmental Management and Audit, 2015*)

The course was composed from 4 Modules implemented by each EU partner, respectively to their competences. The content of the course can be seen in Figure 3. After completing the Modules I and II the knowledge of the participants was assessed via test examination, while completing the Modules III and IV the knowledge of the participants was assessed by completing case-study exercises and searching for real-life problem solutions. Finally, a question list to collect feedback on teaching methodology, teacher's competence, content, unmet expectations, associated learning needs.

However, videotaping of the trainings and clear guidelines ensured an efficient knowledge transfer and multiplier effect. In this way continuation of the courses is ensured as well as the extension to other regions or universities (multiplier effect by 'teacher training teacher') beyond



project. To enable such dissemination of ‘Lifelong Learning Program in Environmental Management and Audit’ the use of virtual classroom or a website, where material is published is recommended to implement so called ‘blended learning’ – a hybrid system, where the e-classroom study complements the auditory process (online & ‘face to face’) and appropriate technology, suitable teachers, adequate support and also commitment from users are required. Discussions, opinions and questions of users should be enabled in virtual environment (*Cvahte, Trafela, Rajh & Jereb, 2013*).

The most innovative part of the project is recognized in the methodology of transferring the knowledge, which manifests itself through case studies development. Within the project we can recognize four levels of case studies development (Figure 4):

1. On the basis of state of the art, made by European partners, the first level of case studies was introduced for the training of Russian teachers, the representatives from universities.
2. Russian teachers had developed their own case studies, based on Russian companies to introduce them into the curriculum of training their students as well as the representatives from enterprises.
3. Students and the representatives from enterprises together had developed their own case studies, based on their own enterprises to introduce them into the case study competition. Technological innovation can achieve most advanced level by having a two-way flow of information – from science from universities to industry as well as from technological know-how from industry to universities (*Altbach et al, 2009, p. 154*).
4. The fourth level of case studies development represents the victorious set of case studies suitable for the final textbook as the key material of the final curriculum.

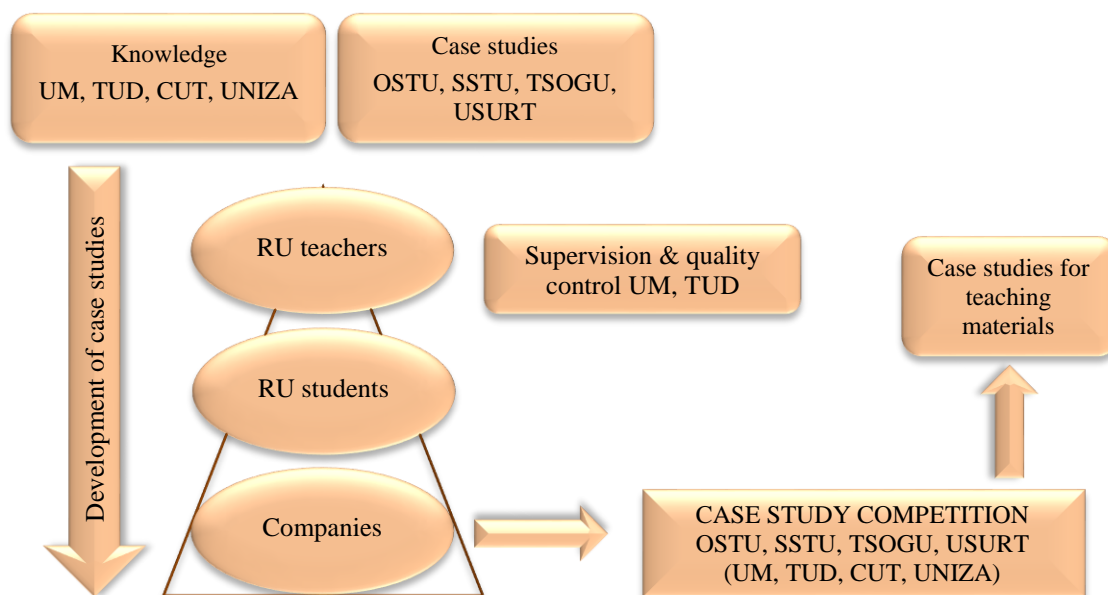


Figure 3. The structure of innovative transfer of knowledge – case studies development methodology (own source: The insert of the presentation on the meeting in Tyumen – Working session with the students of the RECOAUD courses)

European partners (UM and TUD) have supervised Russian partners during all stages of case studies development, to ensure quality control.

The development of case studies has a sustainable impact on education and practice equally. By integrating case studies in future courses, the education is fostered. Furthermore, innovative case studies will achieve a sustainable impact for international research and education. By involving students in case study development, their motivation is raised. Finally,



by further dissemination (e.g. e-learning), other companies can apply them as best practice examples.

#### **4. Discussion: overall sustainability**

The aim of the project was to raise the awareness of the international society through the LLP in university/industry partnership project Tempus RECOAUD. LLP was used to gain advanced skills, demonstrating mastery and innovation, required to solve complex and unpredictable problems in a specialized field of environmental issues. Thus the specific objectives of the project were the development of a curriculum for the further education on 'Eco-Audit and Environmental Management'; training of Russian university teachers for the implementation of the course; introduction of new techniques in the educational process of the lifelong learning education; fostering of the cooperation between the participating regions in Russia; and fostering of the knowledge exchange and cooperation between participating organizations and companies.

To achieve set objectives LLP was organized and implemented to ease the transfer of knowledge on environmental management from EU to Russia by presenting and discussing the theoretical background and the state of the art of environmental management (based on guidelines, frameworks, standards and EU legislation) and environmental vs. financial performance; by providing constructive and creative environmental solutions; and by promoting the participant's correct use of terminology and clear reporting skills.

The outcomes of the course were developed in accordance to the objectivities of the program, thus after conducting the RECOAUD course participants will be able to identify and use the broad context of environmental issues; identify and use guidelines, frameworks, standards and legislation for environmental management; describe the complexity of the problem; evaluate investments according to environmental aspects; apply instruments that support sustainable (environmental, economic and social) solutions; articulate and justify solutions to diverse audiences through reporting of environmental performance.

RECOAUD achieves to raise the awareness of the national society, using an innovative approach and multiplier effect. The education for both, students and practice, according to Eco-Audit and Environmental Management is standardized. Existing structures are extended and regional and national cooperation (ministry – industry – society) is fostered. Thus, RECOAUD will have a great sustainable impact on the society at large. By training not only specialists, but also students, a best possible multiplication is achieved. First, trained specialists can multiply their know-how in their own company as well as to subordinate ones or associations. Second, students represent the future generation of specialists. Additional education increases their chances on the job market, whereas they then multiply their experiences to future workplaces. In sum, a sustainable impact on regional industry (companies) and society (workers and students) is achieved.

#### **5. Conclusion**

The aim of this paper is not only to present the project to a larger public in order to disseminate the contents, but mostly to present a case of best practice in project applications, management and most importantly, project innovativeness. Based on this, academics and practitioners can gain insight and ideas on further increasing EU funding for their projects based on implementing innovative and contemporary approaches into their project ideas.

Education in the field of Eco-Audit and Environmental Management was being aligned according to international standards. Although the curriculum focuses on lifelong learning, it can be adapted into general education at universities beyond RECOAUD. Furthermore, in the future the program can be integrated into e-learning of participating universities. In addition, European universities equally can integrate the gained experiences into their education



programs. The aimed accreditation of the course, supported by regional ministries of education, ensures extension and continuation beyond RECOAUD.

The sustainable impact for society at large is reflected in all objectives of RECOAUD. The support of regional industry and ministries ensures success of the project.

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## ДИСТРИБЬЮЦИЯ ОБРАЗОВАТЕЛЬНЫХ ИННОВАЦИЙ, ЛИНГВИСТИЧЕСКИЕ И ЦЕННОСТНЫЕ ОРИЕНТАЦИИ В ЭНЕРГОСБЕРЕЖЕНИИ В ЭКОНОМИКЕ ЗНАНИЙ

### Distribution of Educational Innovations, Linguistic and Valuable Orientations in Energy Saving in Economy of Knowledge

SERHII Y. KASIAN, OLEXANDRA E. KOLOMOYCHENKO

#### Abstract

The corporate culture in modern energy generating companies is mostly based on modeling of mental and linguistic features of business communication among employees. We consider that in the process of complex supply enterprises with gas services, oil and other energy sources is necessary to contribute to the establishment of interactive contacts. To our mind, it is important to develop the approaches of scientists forming proper energy interrelations, in the process of modeling a flexible production system. Computer information software together with a comprehensive concept of internal marketing in the regulation of technological and business processes contributes to the efficiency of the power enterprise. Thus, the strengthening of marketing relationship and intensification of cooperation in the development of partnerships between economic agents of energy markets assists the improvement of resource flows distribution. In an article theoretical and methodological aspects of formation and distribution of educational innovations in modern social economy, taking into account logistic and linguistic, psychological components of power distribution and energy saving at the enterprises are investigated.

**Key words:** linguistic determinants, economy of knowledge, logistics, energy saving, energy distribution, marketing, customers, value.

**Classification JEL:** M12 – Personnel Management.

#### 1. Введение

В процессе управления высокотехнологическими предприятиями необходимо учитывать морально-этические и лингвистические детерминанты. Социально-ориентированное управление базируется на комплексном развитии человеческого потенциала и интеллектуальных ресурсов. Развивающаяся мировая тенденция мультидисциплинарности обучения предусматривает постоянное повышение квалификации персонала современных предприятий. Развитие информационного общества и экономических знаний во многом основывается на постоянном усовершенствовании лингвистических и психологических навыков во время получения соответствующей компетенции. Корпоративная культура современных энергогенерирующих компаний в основном основывается на моделировании ментальных и лингвистических черт бизнес коммуникации среди сотрудников. С точки зрения эволюционирования и глобализации мировых рынков, предприятия вынуждены изменять свою маркетинговую стратегию, преобразовывать ее, подстраиваясь к современным информационным технологиям. Следует отметить, что создается и стремительно развивается новое направление в маркетинге – Интернет-маркетинг, в котором широко используются современные наработки лингвистических, логистических, информационных технологий и коммуникаций.

Содействует формированию компетенций сотрудников энергетических предприятий эффективное высшее образование, на которое сегодня возлагаются задания обеспечения потребностей рынка труда и сфер экономической деятельности квалифицированными кадрами. Поэтому научным работникам и педагогам следует использовать зарубежный опыт модернизации высшего образования, что способствует





развитию экономических и учебных систем, как Польши, так и Украины.

Создание ведущими государствами мира пространства «новой экономики», вызывает значительный интерес в наращивании интеллектуального потенциала, организации бизнес-взаимодействия на основе использования значительных возможностей, скрытых в таком потенциале.

## 2. Анализ теории или современных знаний в описуемой теме

Исследованию вопросов дистрибуции образовательных инноваций, определению лингвистических и ценностных ориентаций энергосбережения в условиях экономики знаний посвящены работы выдающихся ученых и практиков по маркетингу, образованию, экономике, таких как: *И. Дашевская, Christian Gronroos, И. В. Лилык, Т. Е. Оболенська, Т. О. Примак, Е. В. Крикавський, Н. В. Чернописька, Ж. Смотрич, Т. Г. Диброва, Н. І. Грицак, Г. І. Скорик, М. Porter, О. В. Зозулёв, Ph. Kotler, Н. Л. Савицька, М. В. Михайлова, А. С. Булатов, Claude Clair, Jacques Pfister, Gerard Gimenez, Stanislaw Borkowski, Robert Ulewicz, Н. И. Чухрай, Я. Гавриць, О. Гурна.*

В работах этих специалистов освещаются вопросы маркетингового взаимодействия экономических агентов на энергетических рынках, построения междисциплинарных образовательных и научных программ, определения стратегических ценностных ориентиров и логистического обеспечения при применении современных энерго сберегающих технологий.

Целью данной статьи является исследование теоретико-методологических аспектов формирования и дистрибуции образовательных инноваций в современной социальной экономике, с учетом логистико-лингвистических, психологических компонентов энергораспределения и энергосбережения на предприятиях. В соответствии с данными целями в работе поставлены *следующие задания*:

- проанализировать образовательные инновации при формировании интердисциплинарных образовательных программ в современной экономике;
- определить лингвистические составляющие маркетингового взаимодействия предприятий на энергетических рынках в условиях сервисной экономики, основанной на распространении знаний;
- описать маркетинговое коммуникационное обеспечение распространения энергосберегающих технологий в информационной экономике;
- раскрыть конкурентные силы, ценностные ориентации и формирование конкурентных преимуществ предприятий энергетической отрасли;
- провести информационное обеспечение Интернет-сайтов с учетом внедрения высокотехнологичного энергосберегающего оборудования на предприятиях;
- проанализировать нравственные и логистические составляющие маркетингового коммуникационного бизнес-взаимодействия на энергетических рынках.

Объект данной работы – образовательный процесс и маркетинговое распространение энергосберегающих инноваций в социальной экономике. Предмет работы – теоретико-методологические положения внедрения образовательных инноваций и энергосберегающих технологий в современной экономике знаний.

## 3. Методы

Интегрированные маркетинговые коммуникации, лингвистическое обеспечение и электронная логистика сегодня в международной маркетинговой деятельности энергетических предприятий используются в недостаточных объемах, поэтому организация и координация рыночной деятельности агентов рынка энергетических ресурсов на основе холистического маркетинга требует более тщательного научного исследования. Во время проведения исследований в данной статье использованы



следующие научные методы: обобщение, сравнение, индукция и дедукция, системный подход к анализу экономических, энергетических и социальных явлений.

#### **4. Образовательные инновации и логистика энергообеспечения на ценностных и лингвистических основах**

Маркетинговый энергетический анализ позволяет комплексно исследовать механизм формирования одного из главных индикаторов успешности бизнеса – выручки от реализации изделий, прямо и косвенно отражает количественную и качественную стороны движения энергетических потоков на современных высокотехнологичных рынках. Вот почему в современных условиях инновационного развития экономики знаний необходимо уделять научно-исследовательское внимание многогранным лингвистическим вопросам исследования эффективности предоставления энергетических услуг.

Среди составляющих маркетингового взаимодействия предприятий на энергетических рынках необходимо формировать эффективные международные маркетинговые коммуникации, в том числе в сети Интернет (*Дашевская, 2006*). Такие коммуникации должны быть построены на основе учета лингвистических критериев поиска информации потребителями в Интернете. Следует определять SEO-копирайтинг как процесс создания текстов, которые будут отвечать трем основным требованиям: оптимизация поисковой системы; легкое восприятие посетителями; побуждение к действию.

Одним из основателей научного направления маркетинговых услуг является северная школа Christian Gronroos, которая справедливо отмечает важность интерактивного маркетинга, что подразумевает интенсивное взаимодействие между внутренним персоналом и клиентами предприятия (*Gronroos, 1990*). Конечно, такое взаимодействие возможно в информационном пространстве Интернета (*Лилык, 2013*). Мы считаем, что в процессе комплексного снабжения предприятий газом, нефтью и другими источниками энергии необходимо способствовать созданию интерактивных контактов.

Отметим, что консолидация транспортных перевозок играет важную стимулирующую роль в обслуживании потребителей на современных энергетических рынках. В процессе энергораспределения целесообразно использовать стратегию дифференциации обслуживания клиентов на основе коммуникационного взаимодействия с региональными центрами дистрибуции. Успешное взаимодействие и высокое качество сервисного обслуживания может быть обеспечено на основе постоянного совершенствования качества учебных и научных программ.

Так, при формировании интердисциплинарных образовательных программ в современной социальной экономике, ориентированной на знания, ключевое значение играет признание, что идеи и основы учебных программ должны иметь *междисциплинарный характер*. При идентификации создания рабочих учебных программ следует развивать институциональную составляющую качества культуры обучения на основе последующего развития и установления идеалов совершенствования и увеличения сфер и границ знаний и компетенций. Данное обстоятельство соответствует современной парадигме системного распространения инноваций в культурной, образовательной и социальной сферах, которое необходимо организовывать с учетом основных положений герменевтического подхода (*Оболенська, 2001*). На наш взгляд, распространение инноваций в энергетической сфере должно быть осуществлено на основе принципов повышения квалификации и постоянного обучения персонала, обслуживающего энергосберегающие технологии.

В этой связи программа обучения бакалавров, специалистов и магистров должна



соответствовать мировому опыту и составляется с учетом достижений практики подготовки специалистов различных социально значимых специальностей. Сфера услуг вносит весомую лепту в функционирование рынка труда и в сравнении с материальным производством является менее материало-, ресурсо- и энергоемкой. Поэтому данная сфера поглощает излишек рабочей силы, что возникает вследствие повышения экономической эффективности высокотехнологических предприятий. Деятельность персонала на таких энергетических предприятиях требует новых знаний, полученных на основе инновационных образовательных технологий. Тем самым создаются предпосылки для более ускоренного перехода к экономике, ориентированной на знания.

Как справедливо отмечает Т. О. Примак, пропаганда и PR позволяют формировать заинтересованность потребителей к определенным сегментам рынка. Она обращает внимание на необходимость распространения сведений о предприятии и формирование общественного мнения, связанного с его деятельностью (*Примак, 2004, с. 168*). Мы считаем, что SEO-копирайтинг является одной из составляющих маркетинговых коммуникационных мероприятий, поскольку благодаря нему создается эффект «живого» общения энергетического предприятия с целевыми потребителями. С помощью SEO-копирайтинга формируется международный имидж энергогенерирующего предприятия, что способствует расширению масштабов маркетинговой деятельности за рубежом. В частности, предметом тщательного анализа при написании статей в SEO-копирайтинга является оценка условий направления маркетинговых коммуникаций, объясняющих внедрение инновационных энергосберегающих технологий, на рынки товаров и услуг стран ЕС, США, Канады и Японии (*Бакушевич, 2013*).

Мы считаем, что не следует пытаться заполнить web-страницу как можно большим количеством ключевых фраз. Два-три удачно подобранных ключа на разных языках дадут максимальный эффект в международной энергетической деятельности. При оптимизации стоит обратить внимание также на расположение ключевого слова на английском и украинском языках. В этом случае следует учитывать, что в титуле, описании страницы или в тексте – такое расположение будет работать по-разному. Существует определенная статистика, которая отвечает на вопрос: «С какими тегами и где лучше расположить энергетическое вхождение?» (*Brekenridg, 2010*). По нашему мнению, чтобы текст об использовании альтернативных источников энергии легче читался, нужно использовать так называемые морфологические вхождения.

Маркетинговые коммуникации международных энергетических предприятий должны быть построены с учетом лингвистических, психологических особенностей поведения энергетических агентов рыночных процессов (*Дьячук, 2006; Mozer, 2004, с. 25–28*).

В современных условиях интенсификации коммуникационного взаимодействия экономических агентов необходимо снижать потери в энергораспределительных сетях. На наш взгляд, распространение логистических систем способствует энергосбережению, о чем справедливо подчеркивают ученые-маркетологи, экономисты многих научных школ. В частности, представители научной школы маркетинга и логистики Национального университета «Львовская политехника» (Украина) Е. В. Крикавский, Н. В. Чернописька правильно отмечают, что в логистических системах реализуется синергетический эффект.

Такой эффект заключается в ускорении материальных и энергетических потоков, а также снижении логистических затрат и повышении уровня удовлетворенности клиентов (*Крикавский, 2009, с. 16*). На самом деле, внедрение логистических систем в энергопроводящих сетях, особенно в интеграции с энергетическими технологиями Smart Grid способствует повышению аккумуляции энергии и снижению ее цены.



Возникновение и процесс роста сети Интернет, улучшение информационных технологий, систем и стандартов их взаимодействия способствовали созданию нового движения сегодняшнего бизнеса – электронного бизнеса (*Смотрич, 2007*). Главной и важной фундаментной частью электронного бизнеса является электронная коммерция. Большинство маркетологов под электронной коммерцией понимают структуры сделок, при которых лингвистическое взаимодействие сторон проводится электронным способом. Электронная коммерция – это способ ведения бизнеса в глобальном масштабе (*Диброва, 2009*). Она позволяет компаниям в полной мере взаимодействовать со своими поставщиками и вскоре отвечать на запросы и ждать заказчиков.

Н. І. Грицак, Г. І. Скорик оценивают особенности взаимодействия экономических агентов на рынке электроэнергии Украины, обосновывая установление тарифов, привлечение объемов инвестиций, распределение регулирующих полномочий государства. Они детально описывают основные проблемы развития прозрачных конкурентных механизмов на украинском рынке электроэнергии, справедливо выделяя износ активной части основных фондов, низкий уровень конкуренции. Безусловно, уместным является интегрирование отечественных энергетических потоков в рамках объединенной энергосистемы Европейского Союза (*Грицак, с. 280*). Ученые исследуют взаимодействие между продавцами и потребителями на рынке электроэнергетики, отмечая наличие двух ступеней посредников.

Среди комплекса проблем функционирования природной монополии на энергетическом рынке Украины выделяется неэффективная политика энергосбережения, недостаточное выполнение требований Европейской Хартии относительно не дискриминационного доступа к электрическим сетям (*Грицак, с. 282–283*). На наш взгляд, следует поддержать предложенную учеными схему функционирования реорганизованного рынка электроэнергии, которая базируется на создании рынка двусторонних договоров.

Предприниматели уже давно воспринимали аутсорсинг как запасную стратегию для крупного бизнеса, но технология сделала инструмент более доступным для малого бизнеса – и для некоторых небольших фирм, аутсорсинг сделал мощное воздействие на их рост, производительность и практический результат. Поэтому следует всячески развивать аутсорсинг в ходе энергетического взаимодействия, учитывая лингвистические особенности поведения экономических субъектов энергетических распределительных сетей.

Заметим, что известная модель пяти конкурентных сил М. Porter's может быть углублена с учетом специфики энергетической отрасли (*Porter, 1990*). На наш взгляд, маркетинговое энергетическое распределение должно учитывать основные составляющие рыночной теории управления на основе положений современной философии бизнеса. При этом стратегическая концепция маркетинга в сфере энергораспределения предусматривает учет долгосрочных тенденций энергетического коммуникационного взаимодействия на рынках.

Следует отметить, что совершенствование имеющихся и разработка новых методик управления энергетическими ресурсами, потоками ресурсов промышленного предприятия, конкретизация направлений и методов оценки влияния маркетинговых, финансовых факторов на характер закупок энергетических ресурсов является объективной необходимостью для развития промышленных предприятий экономики знаний (*Зозулёв, 2002*).

Ф. Котлер целесообразно определяет маркетинговую среду как набор факторов, оказывающих существенное влияние на способность предприятия формировать успешные взаимоотношения с целевыми рынками (*Kotler, 1995*). Большинство ученых-маркетологов определяют маркетинговую среду предприятия как совокупность



факторов и процессов, которые влияют на содержание и структуру управления маркетингом, рыночную осведомленность об ассортименте предложений и установление взаимовыгодных отношений с целевыми группами потребителей, остальными экономическими агентами партнерского окружения (*Крикавский, 2014*).

Функционирование энергетических рынков требует анализа основных энергетических потоков, оценки языка общения энергетических агентов. При этом важно проводить маркетинговое планирование, мониторинг и аудит деятельности энергогенерирующих предприятий. Этому научно-методическому аспекту посвящены труды многих ученых.

В частности, Н. Л. Савицька, О. В. Жегус, М. В. Михайлова основательно определяют направления, цели, задачи и функции контроля во время маркетингового планирования на предприятии. Они справедливо делают акцент на применении в качестве инструментов контроля маркетингового мониторинга и маркетингового аудита, в полной мере соответствует выявленным функциям и адаптации к изменениям маркетинговой среды. Ученые справедливо предлагают концептуальные основы контроля реализации маркетингового планирования предприятия. Эти принципы сформированы на основе учета взаимодействия с внешней и внутренней маркетинговой средой, воплощения функций, направлений и задач контроля. Среди результатов контроля справедливо выделены адаптация маркетинговой деятельности в конъюнктурных изменениях и минимизация маркетинговых рисков (*Савицька, 2015, с. 163–166*).

В качестве действенного инструментария ученые предлагают процедуры организации контроля реализации маркетингового плана на предприятиях. В этих процедурах предусмотрена система оценки результатов маркетинговой деятельности, информационное обеспечение, анализ и отчет по контролю (*Савицька, 2015, с. 167–169*). Действительно, построение контрольных мероприятий по принципам, очерченными учеными, способствует формированию оптимальной маркетинговой политики предприятия. Однако, мы полагаем, что следует более широко применять комплекс маркетинговых коммуникаций. Такое коммуникационное обеспечение позволяет, с одной стороны, более интенсивно взаимодействовать с целевыми рынками и их субъектами в процессе мониторинга, а с другой стороны, способствует разъяснению обществу результатов маркетинговых действий (*Кубрак, 2013*). Маркетинговая активность современных энергетических предприятий должна быть построена на основе концепции социально-этичного маркетинга. Забота о благосостоянии общества, коммуникационное разъяснение специфики внедрения новых энергосберегающих технологий, использования многих языков общения с потребителями гарантирует успешное энергетическое деление на соответствующих рынках (*Duncan, 2006*).

А. С. Булатов, при изложении механизма функционирования рынка труда и оценки теоретических подходов к его анализу подчеркивает важность моделирования равновесия, что отображено в работах представителей неоклассической экономической школы, таких как Р. Samuelson, М. Feldstajn, Е. Holl. Подобных взглядов придерживаются также представители концепции экономики предложения: D. Gilde, А. Laffer. Действительно, при регулировании спроса и предложения рабочей силы необходимо осуществлять постоянные инвестиции в образование и квалификацию (*Булатов, с. 230–231*). Такие инвестиции должны постоянно сопровождать и взаимно обеспечивать образовательные инновации, построенные, на наш взгляд, на повышении интерактивности и интердисциплинарности учебных программ, что позволит повысить адаптивность образовательного процесса и социальную защищенность выпускников в условиях современной образовательной и социальной среды.

Усовершенствование организационных и дидактических составляющих учебного



процесса исследуют многие ученые. В частности, представители постобразовательной бизнес-школы Марселя (Франция), профессора *Claude Clair, Jacques Pfister, Gerard Gimenez* описывают планы обучения в этой школе. Так, после бакалаврата предлагается подготовительная программа, содействующая поступлению кандидатов на основную постобразовательную программу. Программа основного обучения в постобразовательной бизнес-школе Марселя включает три фазы, отображающие три года обучения и исследований с широким использованием инновационных методов. В частности, студенты на первом году обучения изучают основы менеджмента на примере фирм, имеющих важное социальное и экономическое значение.

На втором курсе студенты исследуют концепции и технологии менеджмента, расширяя свои знания. Во время третьего года обучения студенты углубляют знания и расширяют свои компетенции в выбранной сфере специализации по менеджменту. Причем, после успешного окончания первого курса, студенты могут выбрать три альтернативных варианта: 1. Двухлетняя программа совместного обучения и работы на локальных предприятиях; 2. Классическое специализированное обучение в вузе с написанием проектов в соответствии с поставленными карьерными целями каждого; 3. Международная методика в пределах Международной бизнес-программы (*Clair, 2001, с. 17–21*). На наш взгляд, данные альтернативы отображают инновационный подход в обучении, заключающийся в системном и последовательном развитии теоретических знаний и практических навыков с учетом требований международных экономических процессов.

Представители польской научной школы инженерного производства *Stanisław Borkowski* и *Robert Ulewicz* (*Czestochowa University of Technology, Poland*) изучают ресурсы гибкой производственной системы. Они различают обрабатывающие центры на основе постоянно управляемых машин, автономной станции обработки, гибких производственных систем и линий, относящихся к ресурсной базе. В этом случае ученые всесторонне анализируют ресурсы гибкой автоматизации производства, их составных части и характерные особенности (*Borkowski, 2010*).

На наш взгляд, важно разработать подходы ученых, формирующие соответствующие взаимосвязи энергии, в процессе моделирования гибкой производственной системы. Компьютерная информационная программа вместе с всеобъемлющей концепцией внутреннего маркетинга в сфере регулирования технологических и бизнес-процессов способствует эффективности энергетического предприятия.

Безусловно, в качестве рекомендации следует выставлять информационный энергосберегающий контент на таких языках, как английский, немецкий, французский, испанский и китайский. В условиях глобальной экономики с ее определенными локальными особенностями следует проводить информационное обеспечение сайтов на языке той страны, где внедряется высокотехнологичное энергосберегающее оборудование. В Украине следует поддерживать и распространять украинский язык в процессе обмена информацией и общения основных рыночных энергетических агентов в сфере распределения ресурсных потоков.

По нашему мнению, лингвистическое обеспечение создания видео и аудио роликов, массивов текстовой и графической информации повышает значимость информационного компонента в распространении ведущих энергосберегающих технологий на основе применения альтернативных источников энергии. Современные более образованные потребители на энергетических рынках требуют своевременного и полного потока информации про инновационные высокотехнологичные разработки (*Лильк, 2011*).

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современного маркетинга и отмечают функциональную и процессную составляющую понимания маркетинга, когда поток маркетинговых ценностей обслуживает комплекс заинтересованных организаций (*Чухрай, 2010, с. 12*). Они выделяют значимость получения конкурентных преимуществ за счет формирования потоков маркетинговых ценностей. В условиях современного маркетинга следует организовывать продажу товаров с крупнейшими индивидуализированными ценностями. Исследуя логистику и конкурентные преимущества, ученые отмечают целесообразность завоевания лидерства по обслуживанию, по снижению затрат. Исследуя виды деятельности, которые образуют цепочку ценностей, ученые справедливо устанавливают механизм достижения конкурентного преимущества за счет комплексного наращивания элементов системы цепи ценностей (*Чухрай, 2010, с. 24–27*). Мы считаем, что такие принципы понимания маркетинговых ценностей и логистики могут быть внедрены при моделировании поведения экономических агентов на энергетических рынках. Рекомендуем включить в такое моделирование лингвистические и логистические детерминанты, что позволит улучшить уровень логистического сервиса за счет учета культурных и языковых особенностей каждой нации.

Отметим, что в современных глобальных условиях маркетингового взаимодействия менеджеры, маркетологи предприятий управленческие решения, особенно в сфере энергетического распределения, должны принимать мгновенно и правильно (*Старостина, 2010*). При этом не должно быть изменено качество и своевременность поставки потоков газа, топливно-энергетических ресурсов для экономических агентов промышленности. С целью поддержки рационального энергетического баланса поступлений и расхода положительную роль в условиях энергетической зависимости промышленного сектора Украины играет широкое использование потоков энергии альтернативных источников.

Именно комплексно организованная маркетинговая деятельность является эффективной. Присоединяемся к позиции Стефана Шоу, который понимает эффективность маркетинговой деятельности как надлежащую организацию продажи, является частью маркетинга. Ученый справедливо считает, что такой маркетинг заключается не только в создании, но и в выявлении потребности, донесении способа ее удовлетворения лучшим путем для потребителя (*Shaw, 2007*).

В условиях дефицита и ограниченности энергетических ресурсов уместно заботиться о соблюдении нравственных составляющих бизнес-взаимодействия на энергетических рынках, использование маркетингового и производственного потенциала альтернативных источников энергии. В процессе перераспределения потоков энергетических средств, несмотря на высокую стоимость и значимость энергоснабжения, необходимо избегать возникновения деловых и трудовых конфликтов в данном контексте (*Чухрай, 2011*).

Экономический эффект от внедрения маркетинговых мероприятий основывается на совершенном познании своего потребителя, достигается за счет маркетинговых исследований. В принципе мы согласны с позицией Гарри Беквита, относительно того, что маркетинговые исследования могут быть и недостаточно эффективными (*Bekvit, 2004*). Поэтому, такие исследования следует проводить с системным подходом, что будет способствовать большей обоснованности составляющих Marketing-Mix международных энергетических компаний.

С нашей точки зрения, соединение логистического и технологического подходов в процессе распределения энергетических потоков дает возможность сокращать потери энергии и финансовых средств. Логистика обслуживания рециклинга отходов позволяет более широко внедрять безотходные инновационные технологии, достигая желаемого уровня их экономической эффективности.



## 5. Заключение

Содействуют формированию значительного интеллектуального потенциала нации на общегосударственном уровне образование, профессиональная подготовка, повышение квалификации кадров, оздоровление работников через систему отраслевых санаториев, пансионатов, баз отдыха. Важным является духовное наполнение интеллектуального потенциала, что осуществляется через систему мировоззрения каждого человека и формируется через культурные, религиозные мероприятия и ценности. Именно гуманитарное образование позволяет формировать людям систему ценностных ориентиров в обществе, что содействует повышению трудового потенциала.

Таким образом, усиление маркетинга отношений и активизация сотрудничества в развитии партнерских отношений между экономическими агентами энергетических рынков способствует улучшению распределения потоков ресурсов.

Создание междисциплинарных учебных программ на основе образовательных инноваций мы предлагаем проводить при партнерском взаимодействии с ведущими мировыми учебными заведениями, что приведет к повышению внутренней и внешней академической мобильности. Для обеспечения надлежащего интерактивного маркетингового взаимодействия на энергетических рынках целесообразно развивать человеческий потенциал и компетенции персонала, ускорять скорость загрузки и улучшать степень защиты информации. На самом деле, в рамках когнитивного пространства стоит исследовать психологические атрибуты поведения потребителей, акцентируя на установлении направлений и параметров лингвистического взаимодействия между представителями различных заинтересованных групп.

Развитие и совершенствование Интернет-сайтов энергогенерирующих компаний должны осуществляться путем расширения языковой среды информационного контента, позволит повысить осведомленность потребителей о результатах использования энергосберегающих технологий.

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# DEMOGRAPHIC AND SOCIO–ECONOMIC FACTORS AND QUALITY OF THE MATHEMATICAL EDUCATION

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## Abstract

In the present paper the authors bring the analysis of the quality of the mathematical education at the secondary schools with respect to the demographic and socio- economic factors. All comparisons are made on the base of the public data. The results are developed applying the theory of the statistical hypotheses testing and linear regression models. It is shown the most important factors affecting the quality are demographic factors joined with the population age and the type of the school. The best results among the sectors are still achieved at the public schools

**Key words:** mathematical education, quality of the education, socio-economic factors, demographic factors.

**Classification JEL:** I23 – Higher Education.

## 1. Introduction

Education plays the crucial role in the human resources development. The labor market still indicates the hungry for high educated employees. It is most visible in the growing demand for the technical staff, especially for the IT specialist. According to Eurostat (2013) forecasts, by 2020 the EU up to 35% of all jobs will require higher education, while at present only 26% of the adult workers in the European countries have a higher education qualification.

In our recent work (Kozubík & Kozubíková, 2015) we have analyzed the ten year development of the mathematical education performance during the last decade. The permanent decline in the quality was proved especially in the upper quantiles, like the third quartile and the 95-th percentile. The follow-up work (Kozubíková & Kozubík, 2015) then identifies the reasons of the negative trends on the higher secondary level of the education as insufficient motivation of all component entering the educational processes.

The educational institutions constantly face as well many external elements. These are usually referred as socioeconomic factors. The influence of such factors was studied long years by many authors worldwide. Let us introduce at least (Trow, 1972; Levine, 1993; Blanden & Gregg, 2004; or Tomul & Polat, 2013). As a key factors which affect school performance were detected:

- Previous student attainment;
- Socio-economic status of the student intake;
- School size, based on number of students;
- Rural/urban location;
- School sector – public, private or church (in Slovakia mostly Catholic);
- Demographic factors.

In the present paper we develop the analysis of the quality of the higher secondary mathematical education with respect to the socio-economic factors mentioned above. The work is concerned in the mathematical education as it undoubtedly belongs to the key competences for entering the technical universities.

## 2. Methodology

The analysis is based on the collection of the open access data, provided by Statistical Office of the Slovak Republic and data sets about external part of the school-leaving exams which are published by National Institute for Certified Educational Measurements. Statistical



Office of the Slovak Republic offers on its web site access to more kind of databases. For purposes of the paper was selected the database STATDAT which contains reports (Tables) of economic and socio-economic development indicators. The classification system of reports is based on maintaining the structure of domains and fields similarly as in the web Portal. Data from various statistical fields are presented in the form of reports in monthly, quarterly or yearly time series. Reports of the Indicators of Economic Development of the SR contain data Tables, year selection filter and notes. Report outputs can be exported into PDF, XML, XLS, CSV formats and the multidimensional Tables into PDF and XLS formats (*STATDAT, 2015*).

The data about the results of the external part of the school-leaving exams are regularly published on the new data portal (*NUCEM, 2015*). Novelty of the last years is providing the results for each school individually, including its address, teaching language and sector in which it belongs. It enables to distinguish among the state, private and ecclesiastic schools, among urban and rural schools or among Slovak and Hungarian teaching language in the schools.

So the data structure enables to analyze the performance by most of the introduced factors. As the data are provided about the whole school, we cannot analyze the question about the previous student attainment since the personal data are not at disposal. Similarly, the socio-economic status was considered only as average value for regions or districts. The same is true about the demographic data, which are also considered as the average values for the whole region or district.

From the published demographic indicators were taken in account for our purposes the following: Proportion of persons of the pre-productive age, which is expressed as the percentage of the persons in the age under 15. *Mean age of resident* as a typical indicator of statistical samples. *Median age* that provides better information about age's distribution than the average. *Ageing index*, which is defined as the ratio of the number of elderly persons of an age when they are generally economically inactive (aged 65 and over) to the number of young persons (from 0 to 14). *Population density* which is determined as the number of people per unit of area, quoted per square kilometer. All of these indicators are published on the territorial level of the districts.

From the socio-economic indicators were analyzed two important factors:

- *Earnings of employees* by European Classification of Economic Activities which is provided as averages for every district.
- *Regional gross domestic product per capita* which is in statistics provided on the level of regions.

The obtained data has been processed by statistical methods. Our aim is to compare the quality levels by regions, sectors, types of schools etc. The average values were compared by the statistical hypotheses tests, especially by the *t*-test for comparing the average values.

The variances of both samples were supposed to be unequal, therefore the testing statistics have the form

$$T = \frac{\bar{x}_1 - \bar{x}_2}{\sqrt{(n_1 - 1)^2 s_1^2 + (n_2 - 1)^2 s_2^2}} \cdot \sqrt{\frac{n_1 n_2 (n_1 + n_2 - 2)}{n_1 + n_2}},$$

where  $\bar{x}_1$ ,  $\bar{x}_2$  are the averages of the samples,  $s_1^2$ ,  $s_2^2$  their variances and  $n_1$ ,  $n_2$  are the sizes of both samples (*Anděl, 2007*). Since the size of each sample was large (hundreds or thousands of observations), it leads to very large number of degrees of freedom and therefore we compared the resulting values with the critical values of the normal distribution.

To test the equality of the medians we apply the Wilcoxon signed-rank test (*Anděl, 2007*). Let are given two samples  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$  and  $y_1, y_2, \dots, y_m$ . Instead of the values we use their rankings in the ordered sequence of all  $n+m$  values from both samples. We decide by the value of the Wilcoxon rank test statistics



$$W = nm + \frac{n(n+1)}{2} - R_x,$$

where  $n$ ,  $m$  are sizes of the samples and  $R_x$  is the sum of rankings of the first sample in the whole ordered sequence.

The relation of the performance to the socio-economic and demographic factors were analyzed by the methods of the linear regression. The dependency of the factors was supposed in the form of the simple linear model

$$y_i = \alpha + \beta x_i + e_i.$$

The linearity of the regression was tested by the  $t$ -test of the null hypothesis  $H_0: \beta=0$ . We have computed the  $t$ -statistics and  $p$ -values which are decisive for the hypothesis rejecting.

### 3. Results and discussion

The school-leaving exams results represent a numerous set of the data and their processing requires using of suitable software tools. All physical computations were proceeded with a help of the free open source software tool R.

For the demographic aspects we get negative results for the relations between performance and the density of the population as well as for the ageing index. The  $t$ -statistic values belonged into the interval from -1.33 to -0.84 and all adequate  $p$ -values were higher than 18 (the highest even greater than 40!). These numbers stipulate a very low confidence level for rejecting the null hypothesis. So we can consider the performance level to be independent of these two demographic factors.

*Table 1. The values of the  $t$ -statistics and  $p$ -values for selected demographic factors. (Source: Own computations, data SLOVDAT and NUCEM)*

Factor	Year	$t$ -statistic	$p$ -value
Average age	2014	-1.872	0.065
	2015	-1.914	0.059
Age median	2014	-1.997	0.0493
	2015	-1.978	0.056
Portion of the population in the pre-productive	2014	2.504	0.0144
	2015	2.556	0.0125

For the next three demographic factors we have got quite different results. The testing values for the  $t$ -test about linearity of the regression are summarized in the Table 1. From the Table 1 we see, that absolute value of all computed  $t$ -statistics exceeds 1.87 and the greatest  $p$ -value is only 0.065. It enables rejecting of the null hypothesis at confidence level exceeding 90%. Especially, the portion of the population in the pre-productive age is a very strong dependent factor since the adequate  $t$ -statistics are greater than 2.5 what enables rejecting the null hypothesis with confidence level at about 99%. Natural explanation of this dependency is lower or higher competition in the given region which leads to the worse or better performance respectively. The resulting regression lines are illustrated on the Figures 1, 2 and 3.

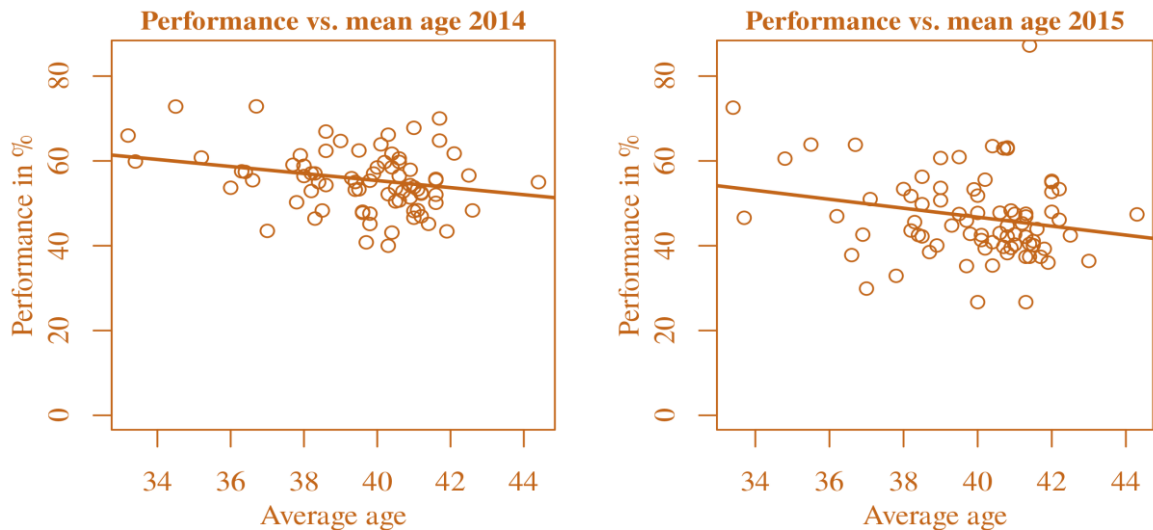


Figure 1. Regression line for performance vs. the average age in 2014 (left) and in 2015 (right) (own processing)



Figure 2. Regression line for performance vs. the age median in 2014 (left) and in 2015 (right) (own processing)

To analyze the influence of the economic environment on the education quality we took in account the factors of the average wage and GDP per capita. The data about the average wage are published on the level of districts and the GDP per capita by regions. Therefore we have at first analyzed the correlation of the date series. In both cases we get very bad results for rejecting the null hypothesis. The  $p$ -values was all greater than 0.19 and most of them has exceeded 0.3. So we obtained surprising result that the quality of the mathematical education does not depend on the level of the economic development in the given region. Certainly, we get only rough estimates based on the average values. But the data for the deeper analysis of the individual economic situation and study results of each students are missing.

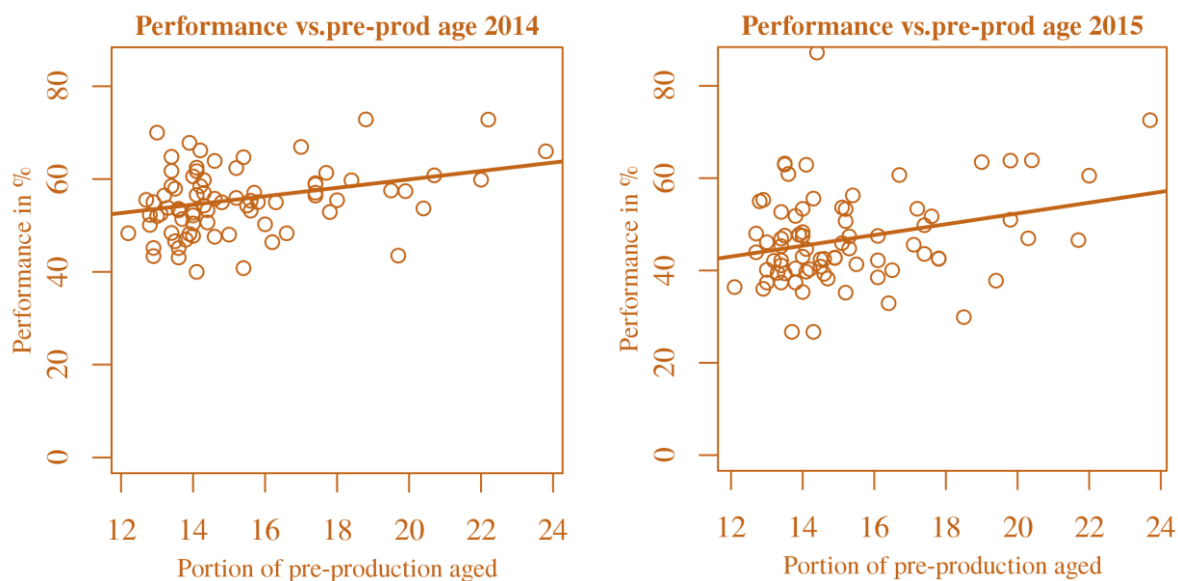


Figure 3. Regression line for performance vs. the portion of the population un the pre-productive age in 2014 (left) and in 2015 (right) (own processing)

We also compared the results for different types of the schools. In the Slovak educational system we distinguish among high schools, secondary technical schools, business academies and secondary vocational schools. The rest of the schools like conservatory, hotel academies etc. do not represent sufficient large number of participants, so we are not able to get sufficiently significant results. Testing the null hypothesis  $H_0: \mu_1 = \mu_2$  about the identical means we get sufficiently high  $t$ -statistics for all pairs containing the high school to reject the null hypothesis. The values were greater than 35 in both years. So we can conclude, that the high school have achieved significantly better results than all other types of schools.

Similarly, the  $t$ -statistics for the pairs containing the secondary technical schools has achieved the values greater than 7.5, so we can also reject the null hypothesis and conclude, that their mathematical education is significantly better than remaining two types. The  $t$ -statistics for the business academies and secondary vocational schools are quit small, in 2015 it is only 0.3. So we cannot reject the null hypothesis and conclude the business academies and secondary vocational schools provide the same quality of the mathematical competences.

The differences are clearly visible from the box-plots on Figure 4. The top and bottom of each rectangle represent the third and the first quartile respectively. The bold line placed inside in the rectangles then corresponds to the median value.

When analyzing the performance of the tests it can seem, that there is a significant difference with respect to the teaching language. This impression is supported namely by the great difference in the average performance in 2015, when it was more than 10%. But we must not forget as well great variance of the results. This variances lead to the  $t$ -statistics only 0.2 in 2015 and 0.046 in 2014. Therefore we cannot reject the null hypothesis, that the quality of the mathematical skills is the same, independently on the teaching language.

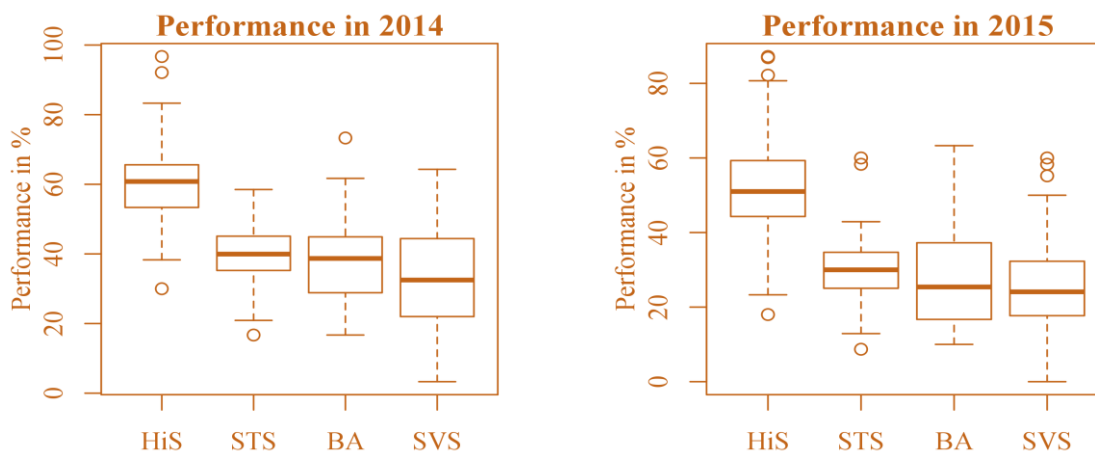


Figure 4. Box-plots of the average performances with respect to the type of the school. HiS-high school, STS-secondary technical school, BA-business academies and SVS-secondary vocational schools (own processing)

Next aspect which can affect the quality of the mathematical education is location of the school, if it belongs to urban or rural schools. For our purposes we considered as urban schools located in the metropolis of the regions and all other we have classified as the rural schools. The computed average performances were almost equal in 2014 (61.0 for the urban schools and 61.1 for the rural school) and in 2015 the difference makes only 2%. That means we have not detected any significant difference in the mathematical competences on urban or rural school, what was also confirmed by *t*-statistics whose values are less than 0.1.

The last factor which has been analyzed by the authors is the sector in which belong the school. Three sectors were distinguished – the public, private and church (mostly Catholic). Since the schools founded by Bishops Conference of Slovakia are almost exclusively the high schools (exactly two schools are of the different type) it was impossible to compare other types because a not significant number of participants. The relevant statistics of the samples are arranged in the Table 2.

Table 2. The most important statistics of the test performances with respect to the sectors of the schools (source: own computations, data SLOVDAT and NUCEM)

Year	Sector	Average performance	Performance median
2014	State	61.5	60.8
	Private	61.2	60.5
	Catholic	53.8	56.7
2015	State	52.2	51.0
	Private	56.5	40.9
	Catholic	48.2	46.7

Because a relatively large variance of the samples, all the *t*-statistics are approaching very small values from 0.1 to 0.3. Therefore they do not enable to reject the null hypothesis about the same means for all three sectors. Due to large differences in medians, namely in the 2015, we applied also Wilcoxon signed rank test, to test the hypothesis about equal medians for all sectors. The corresponding *p*-values tend to zero and they take values in order of  $10^{-5}$  and lower. Therefore we can reject the equality of medians with extremely high confidence level.



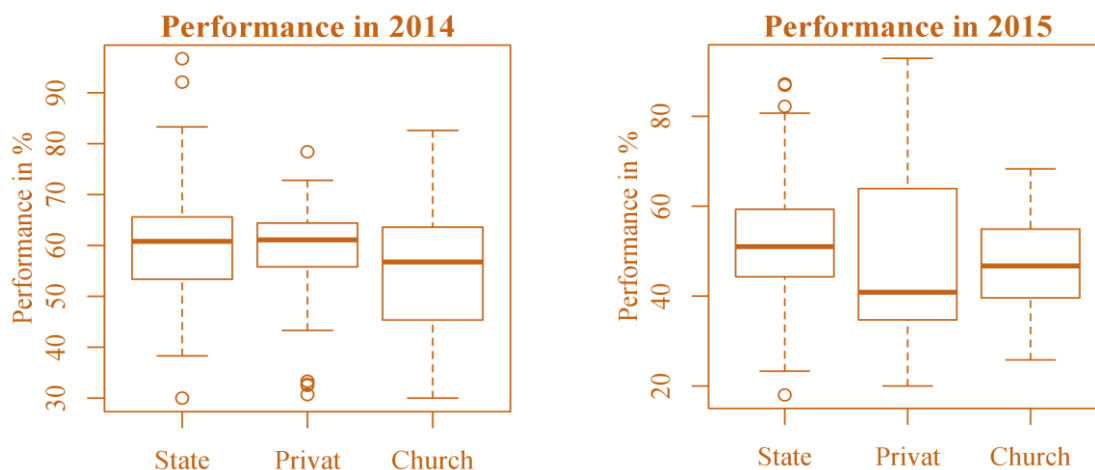


Figure 5. Box-plots of the average performances with respect to the sector of the school (own processing)

We can conclude, that in both years the Catholic school reached significantly worse results than the state schools, while the private schools were comparable with the state schools in the 2014, but in 2015 they reached worse results than the catholic schools. The box-plots illustrating the results are in Figure 5. From the box-plots we clearly see that the performance of catholic schools has in both years evidently lower median than the state schools. The situation in the private sector looks a little bit unclear. The median is lower, but here is great right asymmetry, which caused the third quartile to be much higher than the other two sectors. It is caused by one single school with extremely good results.

#### 4. Conclusion

Undertaking the statistical analysis we have seen surprising result, that economic strength of the regions has no significant influence on the quality of the mathematical education. On the other hand, it was proven that demographic factors are important elements affecting the quality of education. Strength influence has namely the portion of the pre-productive aged group in the population. It confirms the expectation that more competitive environment leads to the better quality. As a positive result can be evaluated the finding that the high schools are significantly better than other types, since they in the first row prepare students for universities.

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# EMPLOYEE EXPERIENCE MANAGEMENT КАК МЕТОД УПРАВЛЕНИЯ ПРОЦЕССОМ РЕСТРУКТУРИЗАЦИИ ПЕРСОНАЛА

## Employee Experience Management in Decruitment Process

ANNA KRASNOVA

### Abstract

Parting with the employee has never been and will not be an easy task, even if the employer makes a decision to dismiss. At the same time, no company can avoid the situation in which termination of employment is the only possible solution. However, even in difficult times for both sides, the separation of the employer and co-workers can and should be used as the potential of the employees with whom parted. Their opinion about the organization and management processes, offer advice about modernization of company and simply experience associated with being in the ranks of the company's employees are very important to the employer. Information obtained in this way could allow the company to not only introduce changes in the management of business, but also, no doubt, have a positive impact on the brand of employer and the organization as a whole. The article presents the employee experience management in the process of restructuring of the company's staff.

**Key words:** employee experience management, downsizing, decruitment, layoffs, employer branding.

**Classification JEL:** M12 – Personnel Management.

## 1. Введение

Интенсивные изменения, происходящие в течение последних нескольких лет на глобальном рынке труда, непосредственно отразились на его стабильности. В литературе появилось понятие «эпохи постзанятости» (*Бутенко, 2007*), характеризующееся снижением продолжительности трудоустройства сотрудника у одного работодателя.

В настоящее время большинство развитых стран переживает кризис талантов (*Hauss, 2015*). Связан он, однако, не только с несоответствием компетенций, ожидаемых работодателями от сотрудников (согласно имеющимся квалификациям), но и с осознанием сотрудниками того, что это их потребности должны быть удовлетворены в первую очередь, а значит, если работодатель не может им этого гарантировать, необходимо с ним расстаться.

Ситуация, при которой сотрудник в любой момент может покинуть фирму в поиске нового места работы, приводит к утрате значения одного из важнейших понятий трудовых отношений – лояльности, дающего некогда работодателю гарантию стабильности трудовых ресурсов.

Большинство фирм, к сожалению, до сих пор расставание с сотрудниками рассматривают только с одной перспективы – расторжения трудового договора по инициативе фирмы. В связи с этим, работодатели не обращают внимания на мнения расстающихся сотрудников о фирме, их замечания и предложения, которые, несомненно, можно было бы использовать для усовершенствования системы управления персоналом и развитием фирмы.

*Целью статьи* является предоставление перспективы использования опыта сотрудников (employee experience) расстающихся с фирмой для усовершенствования фирмы и укрепления бренда работодателя.

## 2. Employee experience management в управлении человеческими ресурсами

На протяжении многих десятилетий работодатели не заботились о мнении сотрудников, их впечатлениях о фирме и возможных предложениях по ее модернизации.



Человек был лишь рабочей силой и все, что от него требовалось, это должное исполнение служебных обязанностей. Однако изменения, произошедшие в области управления человеческими ресурсами, положили начало эре управления талантами, что непосредственно было связано с отдачей большинства рычагов управления фирмой именно в руки сотрудников. Фирмы начали ценить в людях не только время, интеллектуальную и физическую силу, которые работник посвящал выполнению своих служебных заданий, но и их вклад в развитие фирмы благодаря новым идеям и предложениям.

Бизнес-практика последних лет показала, что предприятия использующие мнения и предложения клиентов в целях усовершенствования фирмы, способов обслуживания и оферты предлагаемых фирмой продуктов и услуг намного быстрее добивались успеха (*Apirian, 2015*). Эффекты таких действий не заставляли себя долго ждать, принося фирмам лояльность покупателей, рост продаж и повышение конкурентоспособности на рынке. Подобно опыту клиента, опыт работника является наивысшим показателем того, что происходит, когда работник взаимодействует с фирмой (*Morgan, 2015*).

Employee experience management (управление опытом сотрудников) является понятием подразумевающим использование фирмой впечатлений, мнений и предложений сотрудников, связанных с трудоустройством, с целью рационализации форм и методов управления фирмой (*Morgan, 2015*).

Первоначально, управление опытом работника сводилось исключительно до анализа впечатлений „несостоявшихся” сотрудников в процессе набора персонала (candidate experience), (*Crispin, Orler & Newman, 2014*). Управляющие предприятием пытались таким образом узнать, почему же идеальный кандидат отказался от трудоустройства. Со временем оказалось, что еще большим информационным потенциалом владеют актуальные сотрудники, изо дня в день прибывающие в фирме и как никто другой знающие нюансы ее деятельности. Именно это дало начало управлению опытом персонала (*Romaneczko, 2014*).

Мнение о фирме каждый сотрудник начинает накапливать уже в моменте рекрутинга, читая объявление работодателя и решая, стоит ли подавать заявку на трудоустройство. Участвуя в процессе набора персонала, потенциальный работник увеличивает знания о фирме, а тем самым и количество впечатлений о работодателе. Каждое его действие, совершенное в стенах фирмы либо для нее, каждая проведенная минута, каждый предмет, связанный с работодателем увеличивают его опыт и отражаются на мнении о фирме. Все что происходит во время трудоустройства (*Caprek, 2012*) и с чем сотрудник имеет отношение, начиная с рабочего места, коллег и руководителей, заканчивая формой оплаты труда и дополнительных бенефитов имеет огромное значение в восприятии им фирмы. Процесс приема на работу, жизнедеятельности в фирме и расставания с работодателем являются главными источниками его опыта, который являет собой неиссякаемый потенциал к усовершенствованию предприятия.

Управление опытом работников имеет две основные функции (*Employee Experience Institute*):

- Повышение производительности и оптимизация бизнес-процессов в области человеческих ресурсов;
- Улучшение имиджа фирмы.

Необходимо подчеркнуть, что управление опытом сотрудников непосредственно связано с процессом внутренней коммуникации в фирме, а согласно А. Потоцкому успех фирмы зависит от количества и качества использования внутрефирменных знаний (*Potocki, 2011*), т.е. тех, которыми владеют сотрудники.



### 3. Реструктуризации персонала – сущность понятия, проблематика

Количественные изменения в сфере трудоустройства фирмы могут быть вызваны увеличением либо уменьшением человеческих ресурсов. При увеличении речь идет непосредственно о процессе набора персонала и росте численности сотрудников. Не вызывает сомнения и терминология, говорящая, что процес приема на работу носит название рекрутинг. Когда же речь идет о сокращении штата сотрудников чаще всего в литературе используется определение дерекрутинга – т.е. процесса противоположного приему новых работников. Дерекрутинг однако, представляет собой широкое понятие об изменениях в форме и структуре человеческих ресурсов фирмы, а значит базируется не только на количественных изменениях в трудоустройстве, но и так называемых качественных (*Schwan & Seipel, 1997*). Под этим понятием кроются (*Pocztowski, 1998*): ограничение приема новых сотрудников, перемещения сотрудников внутри организационной структуры, перевод или сокращение ставок, изменение графиков рабочего времени; внедрение новых форм организации труда, предоставление временного бесплатного или частично оплачиваемого отпуска и т. д..

Однако одним из наиболее болезненных и трудных для фирмы моментов в процессе дерекрутинга является расставание с сотрудником. Определение процесса расторжения трудового договора часто носит название реструктуризации персонала либо увольнения.

С целью написания данной статьи автор приняла определение реструктуризации персонала в виде следующего утверждения: *реструктуризация персонала это сокращение числа сотрудников фирмы в результате расторжения либо не продления трудового договора по инициативе сотрудника, увольнения работника работодателем, а также освобождение от занимаемой должности по причинам, не зависящим непосредственно от работодателя и работника.*



Схема 1. Основания для расставания с сотрудником (собственная работа)

Основания до расставания с сотрудником представлены на 1 схеме. Чаще всего уход работника предвещает расторжение либо непродление с ним трудового договора, что может наступить по инициативе работодателя, сотрудника, а также по соглашению сторон. Однако существуют так же причины прекращения сотрудничества независящие от сторон трудового договора, например смерть работодателя или сотрудника, уничтожение предприятия вследствие природных катаклизмов, а также утрата здоровья сотрудника, что делает невозможным его дальнейшее трудоустройство на занимаемой ранее должности.



В зависимости от обстоятельств и целей, реструктуризация персонала может включать в себя изменения в сфере занятости на отдельных рабочих местах, в определенных подразделениях, а также в масштабах всей фирмы, а проведенная должным образом может поспособствовать ее обновлению (*Pocztowski, 1998*).

Причины, дающие возможность расторжения трудового договора с сотрудником по инициативе работодателя обычно прописаны в трудовом законодательстве страны, в которой действует фирма. Чаще всего такими основаниями являются (*Устинова, 2008; Трудовой кодекс РК, 2016; Трудовой Кодекс РФ, 2016–2015; Kodeks Pracy RP, 2016*):

- Прекращение деятельности работодателя (ликвидации работодателя);
- Вынужденное сокращение штата работников (их численности либо занятости) вызванное, к примеру, снижением объема производства либо оказываемых услуг, уменьшением количества реализуемых проектов, релокацией производства, снижением продаж, усилением конкуренции, повлекшим ухудшение экономического состояния фирмы;
- Несоответствие сотрудника с занимаемой должностью (недостаточные квалификации, негативные результаты аттестации персонала);
- Дисциплинарный проступок сотрудника.

В случае совершения дисциплинарного проступка работником работодатель может его уволить, используя расторжение трудового договора, как меру дисциплинарного взыскания. Причиной увольнения, в данном случае, может послужить:

- Систематическое неисполнение работником без уважительных причин служебных обязанностей, возложенных на него трудовым договором, а также правилами внутреннего трудового распорядка;
- Ненадлежащее исполнение по вине работника возложенных на него служебных обязанностей;
- Отсутствие работника без уважительных причин на рабочем месте;
- Нахождение сотрудника на работе в состоянии алкогольного либо наркотического опьянения;
- Употребление в течение рабочего дня веществ, вызывающих состояние алкогольного и наркотического опьянения;
- Неоднократное нарушение сотрудником правил охраны труда или пожарной безопасности, а также однократное нарушение, повлекшее тяжкие последствия для самого сотрудника, его коллег либо работодателя;
- Совершение сотрудником хищения чужого имущества, умышленного его уничтожения или повреждения (по вступившему в законную силу постановлению суда);
- Другие нарушения, зависящие от выполняемой профессии (например, совершение аморального проступка сотрудником, выполняющим воспитательные функции);
- Нарушение условий заключения трудового договора, например, условий о запрете конкуренции;
- Представление сотрудником работодателю заведомо ложных документов или сведений при заключении трудового договора;
- Достижение сотрудником пенсионного возраста, установленного законом страны, в которой действует фирма-работодатель.

Реструктуризация персонала фирмы может, в конечном счете, положительно повлиять на функционирование фирмы и даже стать стимулом ее развития (*Pocztowski, 2007*). Условием таких эффектов является не только правильное проведение процессов сокращения персонала, но и использование данной ситуации до усовершенствования



фирмы. Одним из таких методов является управление опытом сотрудников (employee experience management).

#### **4. Возможности использования employee experience в процессе реструктуризации персонала**

Реструктуризация штата сотрудников считается одной из самых пугающих функций управления человеческими ресурсами (*Stevens, 2013*), которая часто реализуется ненадлежащим образом. Следствием проведения неадекватных действий работодателя могут быть не только потеря наиболее ценных сотрудников, но и ухудшение имиджа фирмы, ослабление ее бренда, и даже снижение рыночной стоимости фирмы.

В процессе реструктуризации персонала опыт сотрудников (employee experience) должен быть использован в **трех главных целях**:

- выявления причин и оснований расставания с сотрудником, а также эффектов реструктуризации для того, чтобы в будущем суметь предотвратить подобную ситуацию;
- модернизации бизнес-процессов в области человеческих ресурсов благодаря использованию опыта сотрудников, остающихся в стенах фирмы;
- построения имиджа фирмы, как работодателя (employer branding).

Коммуникация в фирме не без оснований считается одним из наиболее важных процессов (*Konecki, 2007*), ибо является неотъемлемым элементом функционирования фирмы и оказывает решающее влияние на ее эффективность. Б. Мичингтон – мировой эксперт в области управления брендом работодателя – в своих публикациях не раз подчеркивали, что имидж фирмы, прежде всего, должен быть основан на использовании опыта сотрудников ([www.brettminchington.com](http://www.brettminchington.com)), а значит, если работник все-таки решил покинуть ряды фирмы, необходимо понять мотивы его решения. Часто причиной расставания сотрудника с фирмой, является поиск альтернативной занятости, которая могла бы выполнять его профессиональные ожидания или отвечать его потребностям, которые не могут быть удовлетворены текущим работодателем. В таком случае опыт сотрудника необходимо использовать в контексте ответов на следующие вопросы:

- Что является главной причиной увольнения сотрудника?
- Какие условия в фирме могли склонить его до такого решения?
- Какие действия предпринятые фирмой, могли бы предотвратить увольнение данного сотрудника?
- Какое мнение имеет сотрудник о фирме в целом, а также о фирме, как работодателе?
- Какие потребности сотрудника не были удовлетворены работодателем?
- Был бы данный сотрудник склонен вернуться к данному работодателю?

Не менее важным является включение членов фирмы в процесс внесения необходимых изменений, показывая их необходимость, а также последствия которые они им принесут (*Pocztowski, 1998*). Участие сотрудников в жизни фирмы, возможность вместе принимать решения о направлениях ее развития, выражать свое мнение и даже критиковать, позволяет сотрудникам почувствовать себя частью фирмы, ощутить свое реальное влияние на ее деятельность, успехи и достижения (*Apirian, 2015*). Подобная интеграция не только укрепляет связь сотрудника с фирмой в целом, но и практически гарантирует его лояльность и усиление бренда работодателя.

В процессе реструктуризации персонала, остающиеся в фирме сотрудники, могут показать работодателю, чего им не хватает, чтобы полностью использовать свой рабочий потенциал, показать лучшие, по их мнению, пути решения проблем, а также продемонстрировать дополнительную мотивацию. Благодаря проведению опросов



удовлетворенности сотрудников и исследования их ожиданий, работодатель может не только выявить нехватку ресурсов, но и компенсировать их недостаток. Кроме того, понять потребности сотрудников, адаптируя к ним системы управления талантами, и развития индивидуальной карьеры, избегая при этом угрозы увольнений в будущем.

К тому же, если сокращение штата произошло согласно инициативе работодателя и было вызвано ослаблением финансовой позиции фирмы, именно оставшиеся сотрудники будут наиболее заинтересованы в том, чтобы ситуация изменилась к лучшему. А значит, будут готовы поделиться важным опытом, вытекающим из их сотрудничества с клиентами, партнерами и другими стейкхолдерами, чтобы получить возможность вернуть сильную рыночную позицию фирмы.

Сокращение персонала непосредственно отражается на имидже работодателя (employer brand). Employer branding (управление брендом работодателя) основывается на совокупности разносторонних действий предпринимаемых фирмой, направленных на создание уникального имиджа фирмы, как лучшего работодателя и управления им (Wojtaszczyk, 2012). Целевой группой данных действий фирмы являются, прежде всего, ее актуальные (Melde & Benz, 2014), потенциальные (Geißler, 2007) и бывшие сотрудники, а также другие ключевые стейкхолдеры в виде партнеров, государственных органов и подрядчиков (Wojtaszczyk, 2012). Согласно С. Барроу, который первым использовал термин employer branding, бренд работодателя представляет собой набор уникальных (Geißler, 2007) функциональных, экономических и психологических преимуществ для сотрудников, предлагаемых им работодателем (Jonze & East, 2016). Непосредственное участие сотрудников в судьбе фирмы благодаря employee experience позволит фирме обеспечить эти уникальные преимущества сотрудникам.

На актуальном рынке труда для каждой фирме потеря репутации, как хорошего работодателя, практически автоматически приравнивается к потере конкурентоспособности (Бутенко, 2007). Учитывая тот факт, что существует четкое эмоциональное соотношение между сотрудниками и работодателем, основанное на марке работодателя (Jonze & East, 2013), фирмы должны позаботиться, чтобы оно не было утрачено в результате процессов реструктуризации персонала. Поэтому важно помнить, что, несмотря на расставание с фирмой, увольняемый и увольняющийся сотрудник остается ее членом и, все еще может внести свой вклад в ее деятельность и развитие.

Опыт сотрудников может быть использован в области каждой функции управления человеческими ресурсами. Однако, среди специалистов в области управления персоналом, все также существует мнение, что фирмам намного проще расстаться с топ-менеджером, нежели с рядовым сотрудником (Трубачева, 2013). Во многих фирмах процесс расторжения договора с представителем верхних слоев организационной иерархии продуман до мелочей. В таких ситуациях работодатель старается не только остаться в хороших отношениях с бывшим сотрудником, но и создает возможность сотрудничества в будущем. В прошлом, сотрудники не имели возможности, поделиться своим мнением о бывшем работодателе с широким кругом клиентов. Сегодня – всеобщий доступ к сети Интернет, позволяет обмениваться субъективным мнением о работодателе в режиме реального времени, из любой точки мира и в любой форме. Обмен информацией возможен не только благодаря социальным сетям, но и специально созданным для этой цели веб-сайтом (Stevens, 2013).

Если работодатель не только не хочет публичного негативного выражения мнения сотрудника о фирме, но и расчитывает принять его замечания во внимание, просто необходимо приступить к осуществлению программы управления опытом сотрудников в процессе реструктуризации персонала.





## 5. Выводы

Несмотря на то, что ни одна фирма не способна полностью предотвратить расставание с сотрудником, по какой бы то ни было причине, необходимо учитывать их мнение и опыт, для совершенствования конкретных функций управления человеческими ресурсами в будущем.

Деятельность сотрудника и его опыт являются мотором инновации и гибкости фирмы (PWC, 2014). Следовательно, чтобы быть успешным, руководство каждого предприятия должно научиться сложному искусству управления персоналом, используя психологию человека (Karney, 1998). Психологические аспекты employee experience management в свою очередь, наглядно демонстрируют, что принятие во внимание в процессе модернизации предприятия мнения, комментариев и примечаний сотрудников, особенно в контексте реструктуризации персонала, положительно влияет на идентификацию работников с фирмой, их мотивацию к работе, а также способствует повышению лояльности.

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## GROWTH POTENTIAL OF WELLNESS TOURISM

MICHAL MACHÁČ

### Abstract

Wellness tourism has a significance meaning for world economy. Its importance as well as incomes to state budgets increase every year. To achieve the long-term development there must be ensured adequate conditions and eliminated obstacles that could break the development of this industry. Although the interest of clients permanently rises, no one knows the duration of the period of success. In spite of this fact it has a big assumptions for smooth future development. Presented article focuses on determination of factors, which will play a key role in future development of wellness tourism in worldwide context.

**Key words:** clients, development, factors, future, tourists, wellness tourism.

**Classification JEL:** M12 – Personnel Management.

### 1. Introduction

Wellness tourism is becoming increasingly popular among consumers all over the world. It is very important and means one of the highest sources of incomes for world economy and therefore it is considered as strategic segment of economy of world's states (*Orieška, 2011a, p. 5*). The importance of this category of tourism for society is very significant and its growing dominance at the market is confirmed by many researches all over the world. According to new report from the Global Spa & Wellness Summit, wellness tourism is now a \$494 billion worldwide industry (October 2014), (*Travel Market Report, 2014*).

The wellness tourism is the growing sector and it should not be confused by health tourism, as both are different concepts (*Gúčík et al., 2004*). The wellness tourism industry is doing well as the size of the global wellness industry in 2010 was around \$1,848.7 million and it is rising continuously (*Global Wellness Institute, 2014*). There are many reasons why this sector is so popular. Probably it is a combination of wellness and tourism, which has led many people to seek for better ways to take care of themselves. Wellness tourism provides various fitness and wellness programs for young as well as elderly people and offers quality care and effective services to people. It is also resulting from stressing live of people and their unhealthy way of live (*Orieška, 2011b, p. 68*).

### 2. The wellness tourism

Although the term wellness is known since 17<sup>th</sup> century, it was used only after 1970's and permanently only in last 10–15 years, when the usage of the term began to be popular. In some vocational literature is the wellness tourism defined as a different concept of medical tourism, which is the wrong meaning (*Orieška, 2011b, p. 68*). According to some researches, that were realized in selected states, the people cannot see the differences among wellness and medical tourism (*Spanring, 2007, pp. 298–299*). Although the explanation of this word exists, the definition is not available in vocational books. Some explanatory dictionaries provide the explanation of this term as well-being and also an activity linked with positive approach to living (*Explanation Dictionary, 2013*). Study of World Health Organisation defines wellness “as a state of complete physical, mental and social well-being“ (*Global Wellness Institute, 2013, p. 27*). As a kind of tourism wellness tourism involves people who travel to a different place to proactively pursue activities that emphasize the proactive maintenance and improvement of their personal health and well-being, and who are seeking unique, authentic or location-based experiences and therapies not available at home (*Eliašová, 2007, pp. 164–165*). These experiences may, but typically do not involve, medical doctors or facilities. The clients seeking integrated wellness and prevention approaches usually have an ambition to sustain and improve



their health or quality of life (*Hettler, 1976, p. 18*). Therefore the combination of terms wellness and tourism can be defined as travel for the purpose of promoting health and well-being through physical, psychological or spiritual activities (*Orieška, 2011b, p. 124*). While wellness tourism is often correlated with medical tourism because health interests motivate the traveller, wellness tourists are proactive in seeking to improve or maintain health and quality of life, often focusing on prevention, while medical tourists generally travel reactively to receive treatment for a diagnosed disease or condition (*Orieška, 2011b, p. 68*).

In the last years the providing of wellness services has raised. The rising potential is based on increasing interest of clients about this kind of services. Past years ago wellness activities seemed to be only a dominance of spa medical institutions, which started to provide wellness services as addition to medical and spa services. But in presence, the majority of wellness treatments happen outside of traditional spas (*Global Wellness Institute, 2013, pp. 26-27*). Wellness sections in traditional hotels and aqua parks with thermal water are among the most popular. In terms of market demand this type of tourism represents interesting development potential (*Sacr, 2011, p. 26*). Nowadays need of individuals for protection of health seems to play important role. People like feeling healthy. They take wellness stays for a vacation to ensure missing sleep, avoid unhealthy meals, and practice some routine exercises in combination with exploring the local area, discovering the local habits, etc. (*Global Report, 2013*). The following Table maps important factors, that people motivate to do wellness travel and compares it with unwell travel.

*Table 1. Factors of unwell and wellness travel (Global Wellness Institute, 2013; Global Wellness Tourism Economy 2013, p. 27)*

<b>Unwell Travel</b>	<b>Wellness Travel</b>
Unhealthy and over-eating	Healthy living
Travel stress	Rejuvenation & relaxation
Excessive drinking	Meaning & connection
Poor sleeping	Authentic experience
Disruption of fitness routine	Disease prevention & management

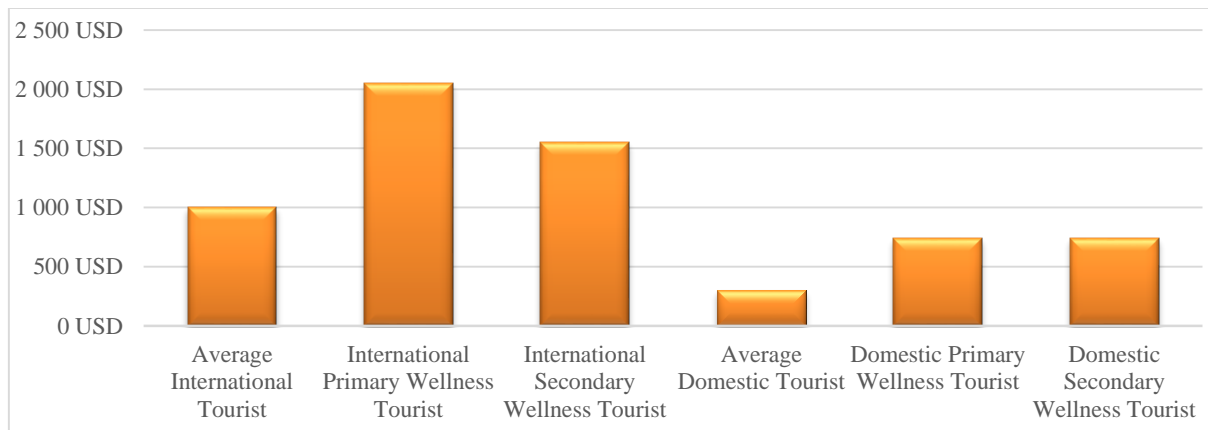
In tourism sector nothing has been so successful so far as wellness. Health way of life is something what needs everybody of us. Advantage of wellness is based on fact, that it is not linked with medical treatment and therefore the dating with a doctor is not necessary as it is in case of medical tourism. As a result of this we can say, that wellness packages of hotels, spa, relax centres, etc. include many kinds of well-being activities and activities focused on improvement and support of health and beauty, that are dedicated almost for everybody. Because it is not based on environment conditions the wellness tourism can be realized everywhere (*Global Spa Summit, 2010, pp. 17–18*).

### **3. Growth potential of the wellness tourism**

The potential of wellness tourism is fascinating. Years ago nobody knew what wellness is and what does it mean. For a long time it was considered as a part of regular tourism but now it creates its own category. Since 70's when this term was used for the first time, the behaviour of clients has changed. In this quickly changing world the people started to realize the importance of health, psychological relax and other wellness-related activities and therefore they are finding new ways to protect their health by doing wellness activities (*Yeung, 2013, p. 23*). Why it is so? Because people want to have less stress, more energy and efficiency in work. Especially the meaning factor of health protection and realizing, how important it is, leads people to searching of health prevention and protection activities. Considering all the known facts we can mark these reasons as the most important reasons why wellness tourism rapidly grows (*Global Spa & Wellness Summit, 2013, p. 26*).



As describe the researches, Europe is the second largest wellness tourism market, with \$158.4 billion in annual, combined international and domestic expenditures compared to North America's \$171.7 in 2014. The interest of clients in wellness tourism is based on the fact that the human health benefits from hot selected nutrition, exercises, mineral baths, beauty care, saunas and other natural and water-based treatments (*Global Report, 2013*). According to Global Business Travel Association wellness clients are generally high-yield clients, spending on average 130% more than the average client (*Global Wellness Institute, 2013, p. 14*). Statistical data of 2014 present, that international wellness clients spend approximately 59 percent more per trip than the average international tourist.



*Figure 1. Spending of Wellness Tourists (Global Wellness Institute, 2014; SRI International for Wellness Tourism Data; Euromonitor for General Tourism Data, p. 15)*

Within the visions of Global Business Travel Association wellness tourism is expected to grow by 9.9% annually over the next years, reaching \$678.5 billion by 2017 (*Global Spa & Wellness Summit, 2013, p. 40*). The growing potential of wellness tourism also presents the Table of leading countries of world wellness tourism. The research that was realized in last years, confirms that biggest growth is significant in South Africa countries and present ca. 17% growth since 2012 until 2017. From the European – Asian continent the most significant growth leaders are expected to be Russia, Turkey and Poland with about 12.4 to 13.1% growth. Growth of the other leaders through 2017 states the following Table 2.

*Table 2. Growth Leaders through 2017 (Global Spa & Wellness Summit, 2013, Global Spa and Wellness Summit Material, p. 40)*

	<b>Annual Growth</b>	<b>Trips/ Arrivals Added</b>	<b>Global Rank-Trips Added</b>
Russia	13.1%	8.5 mil.	# 6
Turkey	12.6%	5.4 mil.	# 13
Poland	12.4%	4.1 mil.	# 16
Switzerland	8.9%	5.4 mil.	# 12
Hungary	8.9%	2.4 mil.	# 20
Czech republic	8.9%	2.1 mil.	# 21
Austria	6.9%	4.5 mil.	# 14
Spain	6.2%	3.5 mil.	# 18
France	5.5%	8.3 mil.	# 7
Germany	4.7%	12.7 mil.	# 5



These data reflect the modern trends, when wellness-minded consumers integrate healthy habits and activities into their lifestyles and their travel. It is important to take into account, that many consumers especially businessmen, hard workers, people who work psychically look for ways to take care themselves much more, than it was few years ago. The development and growth potential of wellness tourism is based on variety of physical, mental, spiritual, emotional, environmental and social well-being. All the activities like fitness, body activities, nutrition, weight-loss, anti-ageing and beauty link these interests of consumers with travelling (*Global Wellness Institute, 2013, pp. 20–23*).

According to point of the interest, the literature recognizes two different kinds of wellness travellers, which can be recognized as primary and secondary wellness travellers. Primary wellness travellers travel entirely for wellness purposes. On the other side the secondary wellness travellers engage in wellness-related activities as part of a trip (*Hesková, 2011, p. 112*). The research of Global Wellness Institute confirms, that secondary wellness travellers create 87% of total wellness tourism trips (*Global Wellness Institute, 2013, p. 13*). For example wellness tourists visiting a region for treatment usually spend some time there, enjoying a holiday until their treatment is complete. The revenues generated by the industry can be used to improve the local infrastructure and facilities in regional sectors. This in turn, tends to have a positive impact on visiting tourists who want to visit the region again, thus helping this cycle continue. Some of these destinations would also encourage tourists to become enduring residents, thereby promoting overall development of the region in the process (*Horner & Swarbrooke, 2003, pp. 63–70*).

The growing wellness tourism has attracted many local, regional and probably also international players to cover all the activities for clients. But the development potential of wellness tourism brings challenges that must be also solved on the national level by government which creates legislative and infrastructure conditions for possible development (*Sacr, 2011, p. 37*).

The future of wellness tourism will be based on cooperation. Private bodies involved in wellness tourism will be forced to cooperate together to create a visible mechanism for the industry, that can provide an assurance of quality among wellness travellers. As a necessary reason for cooperation we can point out a need for improvement of quality standard, which means amount and range of services. There is a direct linking among them and experience on the market and therefore it should rise constantly. One of the ways for improvement of provided services is certification of quality (*Novacká, 1996, p. 7*). It will play a key role in future in decision process of travellers looking for unique experience and good quality. Facts for establishment of these systems are also supported by growing activities in some countries, which have already started a process of national system of quality in tourism sector. Upon our opinion, the future of tourism services and not only in wellness sector will be based on deeper mutual cooperation of private and public bodies that will be forced to create conditions for travellers that expectations rise every year.

The future growth of wellness tourism is related to world's economy leaders. The world's economy leaders will play a key role in wellness sector development, because they are the countries, where the interest about wellness services is rapidly growing from year to year. From the demand point of view the wellness tourism represents very interesting development potential. In the era of globalisation and multicultural society there is a need for adaptation of packages of services to new requests and expectations of clients. These should be as good so that they would be able to fully meet clients' needs.

The future of wellness tourism will stand on uniqueness, because the clients expect something new, something unique and unconventional. To ensure this aspect, the cooperation of wellness institutions and travel agencies will be very important, because without cooperation with them, there is no possibility for preparation of complex services for clients. These complex



packages is something, what modern wellness clients need. Wellness institutions should be providing combination of wellness activities and region exploring because the clients probably would like to utilize the free time actively while having the all-inclusive services. Wellness sector will also need to find something special, something what is not traditional and is based on uniqueness. The future in wellness tourism will probably bring new techniques, technologies, ideas and ways of well-being.

#### 4. Conclusion

The wellness tourism has a significant global meaning and is an important category of tourism. Based on realized researches we can assume, that its importance will also rise in next decades. To achieve the future development, the adequate conditions have to be created. But it does not only mean the development of the institutions providing wellness activities, but also the development of region, where the institution is located. The future success of wellness tourism is also linked with quality of provided services. The importance is also given to cooperation with other local and regional players, thanks to which the complexity of tourism services is ensured. In modern era is this idea very important. Different cultures mean various expectations. Therefore the responsible in wellness tourism should take it into account. Wellness tourism has predispositions for its development and therefore have to face new challenges. Right assimilation to new challenges will bring growth in wellness tourism.

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## EMPLOYER BRANDING MISALIGNMENT – FROM TALENT MANAGEMENT TO VALUE MANAGEMENT

EWA MATUSKA

### Abstract

Employer Branding (EB) is a core part of strategic HRM and has to respect socio-psychological factors influencing employees' careers' decisions, including different generations work values. EB conceptualized as talent management HR strategy is not sufficient today and should to go deeper to organizational behaviour concepts. The paper promotes value management as the basis for effective EB. Employees' and company's shared values offers loyalty as organizational participation mechanisms and engagement at work as most important attribute of talents. Their current global surveys delivered by global consultancy Great Place to Work® and its national data addressed to Poland, updated by research dedicated to work values of Millennials and by own study done on sample of Polish employees' (N = 100) are used to illustrate the switch in Employee Value Proposition (EVP) from pragmatical benefits into moral and social values. Conclusion re-defines EB as integrated corporate value management.

**Key words:** employer branding, talent management, value management.

**Classification JEL:** M12 – Personnel Management

### 1. Introduction

Employees are "...the only ones who can build your corporate reputation" (*Brian Walker, CEO of Herman Miller company*).

Employer brand of specific organization is obviously determined by many factors including attractiveness of the sector, company's reputation, quality of products and service, location, work environment, pay, economic conditions, employee benefits, people and culture, work/life balance and corporate social responsibility (*Kelly Services, 2013*). Recently, when the strengthening 'war for talents' (*Michaels et al, 2001*) started to be a real challenge for employers globally, it is much harder than before to attract and retain most effective employees – so called talents. Talent management today is the main approach in employer branding (*Mandhanya & Shah, 2010*). Its aim is to promote employer's brand – similarly as product or service brand. The more expressive and attractive is employer brand – more probable that 'talented' employees will join the company and will secure its competitiveness (*Cheese et al. 2007; Xiang et al 2012*). Employer branding (EB) is determined firstly by specific labour market kind – the market of employees' where employees make decisions where to work, and employers have problems to fill vacancies. Observed globally scarcity of talents is influenced by many factors including negative demographic trends, and massive mobility of employees and politically insecure situation in many areas of the globe. Workforce is ageing and new work generations (so-called Millennials' – generations Y and Z) basically differ from the older ones in their work priorities, drivers and aspirations. Because of all of it, successful EB should to agree both company's business objectives and employee's personal objectives. Thus, also the content of talent management has to be updated with new elements coming deeper from area of psychology, sociology, anthropology and behavioural economy.

First new assumption should be that talents are 'everywhere', not only in youngest high-skilled cohorts entering labour market (for example – fresh graduates), but also in groups till now not vocationally activated, or going to be too early deactivated (women, elder workers, people with some disabilities, etc.). Talents are firstly already recruited employees, staying loyally in employment with company, although maybe they not deliver expected highest work performance, but offer other valuable assets, and in hands their managers is to activate them. There are voices of specialists that employer branding have to change today. Firstly, from



external one, addressed to new candidates – like it is mostly today, to more internal one – addressed to currently employed workers (*Minchington, 2014*). This change has to be accompanied by new philosophy addressed to human resources, where is used long-term perspective of employment and strategy of building mutually beneficial (both for employees as for employers) organizational culture. Such approach offers human capital management (HCM) approach – the higher stage of human resources management (HRM), using value management (VM) as integrated system connecting corporate and employees' benefits.

The basic question taken into consideration in this paper is: *How to build effective employer brand in times where employees steering their careers and openly planning to move from one company to another one?*

The paper proposes to switch the main tool used for employer branding: from currently used talent management, characteristic for HRM approach – to value management – being part of HCM. The platform of EB should be not strategies oriented on careers, but on values. The integrated value system, shared by corporation and by particular employees should compose common organizational sense of identity – the attractive positive image of company.

An author has used desk research as the main methodological approach studying relevant literature addressed to employer branding strategies. The basis were reports coming from recent global (2015) and European (2013) editions of the wide EB study conducted by Great Place to Work® Institute and the research done in “*Gen Y and Gen Z Global Workplace Expectations Study*” (2014) by Millennial Branding and Randstad US. The national insight illustrated EB strategy development in Poland was written on the basis of data delivered by the study *Employer Branding in Poland*, the study of HRM Institute (2015), updated by results of own study done on a sample of employed extramural students (N = 100).

## 2. Evolution of Employer Branding theory

Analysing still rather scarce literature addressed to employer branding we found this notion is mostly located on the boundary field between marketing, human resources management and organizational psychology (or organizational behaviour, OB), which mutually derive from their work. It can be observed that there is variety of employer branding and employer brand definitions, and that theory of EB is usually closely connected with HRM practice (*Christiaans, 2013; Wojtaszczyk, 2012*).

### 2.1. EB as a border concept

**Marketing approach** in EB is corporate and personnel marketing, focused mostly on external and internal communication strategy about *EVP – Employee Value Proposition* which role is to promote benefits of work place in surroundings to attract employees (*Jenner & Taylor, 2008, p. 7*) and on building effective customers (employees) – organization (employer) relationships (*Dunmore, 2002, p. 195*). Depending on to whom initiatives in the field of employer branding are addressed, EB is divided into *external* and *internal*. External employer branding is addressed to future employees: professionals, graduates and other stakeholders. This kind of EB is implemented by public relation and marketing means, including: ITC channels, co-operation with opinion – leading media, image – enhancing recruitment projects, etc. Internal employer branding communicates to existing and leaving employees and is implemented by means of benefits and development/outplacement programs of corporate culture. In both EB types are used the same tools like in product marketing: they show attractive benefits to convince potential customers (employees) ‘to buy’ the work place. The objective is also the same – to achieve company’s better competitiveness. This purely pragmatic approach can be found even in a frequently cited employer branding definition, where EB is seen as (...) “*the process of building an identifiable and unique employer identity, and the employer brand as a concept of the firm that differentiates it from its competitors*” (*Backhaus & Tikoo, 2004*).



Similarly, Branhan considers that EB is “applying traditional marketing principles to achieving the status of Employer of Choice” (*Branhan, 2000, p. 18*). However, the “value proposition (EVP) proposed in ‘marketing wrapping’ not necessary will be bought by smart customers – employees, who check value propositions” with reality and compare the result with own personal value profiles. When they will realize their personal values are not fit to company’s – they have the choice – can change the job place. It is why EB has to use more sophisticated marketing tools than only promotion.

**Human resource management/human capital management** perspective represents currently the main stream of theory explaining EB research and practice. EB in frame of HRM is planned and implemented together with basic personnel processes including recruitment/selection, competence profiling, career path, remuneration/motivational systems, etc. The connection of EB with HRM is so evident that some authors assume EB encompasses to all HRM processes (*Edwards, 2010*) and that EB plays key role in a strategic HRM (*Figurska & Matuska, 2013*), with ‘talent management’ as first line HR process (*Branhan, 2000*). Most recent views on EB, especially those interpreting data from global surveys collected during last global downturn, locate employer brand as closely related to corporate strategic management of (*Minchington, 2013, pp. 2–3*). Organized in frame of strategic HRM, EB obviously uses adequate marketing tools (so-called personnel marketing) and widely derives from organizational psychology and OB concepts. As most adequate platform for EB seems to be human capital management (HCM) approach which sees workers of organizations as potential to create value: “Human capital management in the organization is based on the optimal investing in the people and their resources gradually emerging fields where they can identify their own values, as consistent with the core strategy of the organization and its accompanying business model” (*Hesketh 2014, p. 31*). Recently published Deloitte Consultancy paper “New model for talent management Agenda for 2015” assumes that: “Employee engagement is your employer brand” (*Bershin, 2014*). Talents at work are not looking for career, but rather for experience. They will stay in employment only as long as company will deliver them personally valuable experience. If not - they will look for better place for own self - development. Data obtained from recent Gallup Report alarm: “The state of the global workplace shows that only 13% of global workforce is ‘highly engaged’, 63% ‘disengaged’, and 24% ‘actively disengaged’” (*Gallup Report, 2013, p. 12*). Engagement at work is consisted with the sum of adequate work attitudes of particular employees’. It is not about their qualification or skills, but about behaviour, about – motivation. The question arises: *Why talents, first attracted by companies with high efforts, and carefully selected from the pool of candidates, so easy are keen to be not motivated at work?* The answer probably lies in critical ratings given by employees to the most important intra organizational factors. On a scale from 1 to 5 the average evaluations of employees given to key issues of organizational culture were following (*Bershin, 2015*): senior leadership – 2.8; own career opportunities – 2.9; company’s culture – 3.1; work-life balance – 3.2.

The conclusion of J. Bershin is that organizations should definitely change their HRM approaches – they can’t any long be focused on such traditional issues like: ‘employees’ performance management’, ‘better motivating’, or ‘improving engagement’, but should to start to think how to build the new kind of organization – ‘*an irresistible organization*’, which people simply will not want to leave. The reason is that: “The employee-work contract has changed: people are operating more like free agents than in the past. In short, the balance of power has shifted from employer to employee, forcing business leaders to learn how to build an organization that engages employees as sensitive, passionate, creative contributors” (*Bershin, 2015, p. 148*). Referring this conclusions to EB strategy it can be stated that traditional EB’s offer based on the vision of attractive ‘career path’ has to change into offer including more



symbolic ‘benefits’ including commitment, self-development, cooperation, shared sense of identity, common values, etc.

**Organizational behaviour (OB)** perspective explaining EB exists from the beginning of this concept. The foundation of EB was delivered by Barrow already in 1990 on a ground of organizational psychology and psychologists has formulated the first definition specifying EB as: “Development and communication of an organization's culture as an employer in the marketplace. It is the package of functional, economic and psychological benefits provided by employment and identified with the employing company” (*Ambler & Barrow, 1996, p. 187*). The psychological approach in EB uses such concepts as: employees’ awareness and perception, organizational culture and psychological contract (*Sullivan, 2004*). OB orientation helps recognize and differentiate particular individual/group organizational participation mechanisms to plan effective EB strategy. The explanation can be following: an employee’s individual personal perception conditions psychological contract between particular employee (potential or already engaged with company) and employer and tracks his/her employment/ lay off decisions. It sounds with above cited Bershin’s remark about basic change of ‘employee – work contract’ and confirms that HRM approach in EB undoubtedly should use OB perspective. The newest OB research is dedicated to employees’ aversive behaviour towards employer’s reputation and executed via Internet. It is also seen as the result of contract broken by employer and kind of “revenge” from side of disappointed or harmed employees.

**Behavioural economics and neuropsychology** represents the research fields they can be easily adopted to EB issues. It is worth to mention here for example so called ‘nudging theory’ explaining how to influence human’s personal choices (*Thaler & Sunstein, 2008*), or Kahneman’s theory (*2011*) about two tracks (‘slow and fast’) of human thinking and decision making. Especially the last concept seems to be worth to be explored in terms of EB. It explains background of peoples’ career decisions, tells how to facilitate innovations, how promote cooperation and built commitment and trust in organization. Kahneman’s concept disqualifies dominated in a main stream of economy assumption that that people are motivated to maximize their own personal self-interest defined in terms of material gains and losses. Unfortunately, on a similar, false assumption are built EB strategies using traditional marketing approach promoting pragmatical benefits as attributes of attractive work place. Other neuroeconomic findings confirms that people at work are motivated by a broader range of goals than only pragmatic perspective and the social, or cooperative perspective is very important in their work decisions (*Declerc et al, 2013*).

It can be conclude that employer branding theory during its short history already has passed evolution – from organizational psychology, through personnel marketing and human resources management/human capital management to corporate management, and still is during change. Undoubtedly, EB represents kind of a ‘border’ concept which has to derive from many different research domains and fields, both economic, as social one, and maybe even biological, or technical. The new challenges for EB are connected with globalization and demand wider, or deeper, recognizing and understanding complex interactions staying behind employer branding’s expected success.

One of such proposals represents the integrated value management strategy, which should not be seen not only as a marketing tool (like it is usually), but as coherent, integrated system linking in one system both corporate strategy and personalized employees’ career strategy.

## **2.2. Misalignment – from talent management to value management**

Building EB surely demands to make definition of Employer Value Proposition (EVP). EVP should be broad enough to attract sufficiently big scope of different individuals, but in the same time – has to be precisely described to be easily distinguished from similar proposals of competitors. However, EVP necessary also should be identical with core corporate values



which in best way would exemplifies company's mission and business strategy. It should be much more, than only pragmatically oriented marketing tool of EB.

EB subordinated to overall company's HRM/HCM policy surely should promote unique and specific organizational values distinguishing the company from competitors but also should involve basic humanistic values advocating for: fairness, trust, transparency, loyalty, but also should promote. Company's core values are defined in its mission, as overall communicate addressed to all stakeholders and "The most important values are related to company's strategy and reputation. Its publication to employee allows them think more analytically about the company and its environment, various possibilities and career perspectives" (*Giedraitis et al, 2015, p. 46*). It suggests that corporate values are carefully processed by employees' and compared with their own personal values. The result of this analysis is the basis for employees' work decisions. Thus, value management (VM) should be the background of EB strategy, and EVP should deliver not only pragmatic, but first symbolic, argumentation for it. Operationally, EVP aspires be recognized by future/ current employees as competitive on the three OB psychological levels:

- In mental sense – perceived as best alternative of cognitively benchmarked possible job offers;
- In emotional sense – felt as true, unique, attractive, challenging, etc.;
- In motivational sense – directing behaviourally to join / stay with organization, as an employee.

EB makers have to understand that any marketing communicate (as EVP is) has to respect the mechanisms of communicate addresses behaviour, it this case – employees. The complicated matter of successful value management necessary has to be planned taking into consideration the points of the view of both sides: the side of company's values and the side of employees' values. It has to win from the effect of *values congruence* (*Edwards & Cable, 2009*), or *values contamination* (*Giedraitis et al, 2015, p. 39*). Simply, both sides of values have to agreed in perceived *common sense of identity* of company. Identity of the organization "(...)" refers broadly to what members perceive, feel and think about their organizations. It is assumed to be a collective, commonly shared understanding of the organization's distinctive values and characteristics" (*Hatch & Schultz, 2007, p. 327*). The same, EB can be defined as a symbolic, collective interpretation done by employees and referring to what the organization is, and what it wants to be. This is a kind of organizational mindset, but built with particular mindsets' of all employees. Only people can decide if they will internationalize offered work content in form of shares values, or not. If they will recognize deep disagreement between theory and practice – any officially promoted corporate values will be not influencing their behaviour. The same, EB strategy will fail.

It is why we propose EB strategy has to re-orientate – from talent management – to value management. Talent management is today commonly used in EB strategies and implemented together with HRM practices. Its goal is to attract and retain most talented (gifted, high-skilled) employees. During selection of candidates, the attention of recruiters is focused on hiring desirable abilities and skills, but it is very hard accurately filtrate true motivation to take the job. As it is well known, both from HRM and OB theories, working motives generally can be activated in two ways: by using external motivators – for example in form of offered finance incentives, career paths visions, etc., or by internal drivers – individual goals, interests, and values. But just internal drivers, which are specified individually and frequently stay hidden, are most important in directing and holding desirable work – related behaviour.

Thus, when companies really want to gain the most effective 'creative level of motivation' (*Blašková, Bizik & Jankal, 2015, p. 521*) from their employees', they obviously have to activate their *internal personal values*. It is easy to predict, that when high skilled (talents) have the free choice to decide where to work, they will carefully compare different jobs offers before



decision-making. They will not rely only on separate, even most attractive, marketing communications prepared by companies. Before employment decision they will check employer's reputation, using for example possibilities offered by Internet platforms – so called user-generated content (UGC)<sup>1</sup>. UGCs have the high potential to sway perception and opinion about job places and they present the ranking of companies in different branches. Similarly, easily they can use own social networks to ask for opinions about companies. Even when external EB strategy will be successful and the 'talent' will finally decide to work for particular company – he/she will still has the choice – to stay at work, or to change it. Working for particular company he/she will critically observe and verify declared EVPs with reality checking real corporate values and comparing them with own personal values.

To be successful on the way to shape common identity of employees and the organization, it requires: *definition, implementing and internalization the same (or at least similar) values*; the same from side of company, and from side of employees. And it is really a challenge for EB strategy, especially in situation where individual values of workforce varying a lot, and especially the new work generations work motives differ basically from the motives of older workers (*Cennamo & Gardner, 2008*).

It is why – according to the paper's author – talent management, mainly implemented as an external version of EB and addressed to future employees with most desirable (high) set of competencies – is nonsufficient today. More adequate seems to be corporate strategy based of value management. It promises deeper insight into real competence of candidates to work or already employed people, more accurate selection, better career planning and activation of work engagement. It offers higher probability success than superficial marketing effect of EVP used today in a main stream of employer branding.

### **3. Results, discussion and implications of research**

Last global surveys confirms that company's brand implementing is moving from the marketing department into the hands of its employees. Using power of Internet, active in social media, workers can well act as company's brand advocates – only if they want to do it.

#### **3.1. Selected global and European surveys**

The recent global report 'Company as Community' (*Great Place to Work® Institute, 2015*) that accompanies its 5th annual list of the 'World's Best Multinational Workplaces'<sup>2</sup>. Confirms that most important for evaluation of employer brand is employees' perception of company as a *place of great culture*. Thus, the foundation of a strong EB culture are trusting relationships. The survey is based on evaluation done by employees of companies that voluntarily submitted their participation in the competition for the best employer. External auditors evaluates employees' opinions and creating limited final list of companies. In the list of '25 World's Best companies' ranked by employees (led by 1st ranked Google) are these with evident 'camaraderie factors' reflecting friendly (even family-like) organizational culture. Employees value competent management, including leaders' effectiveness at coordinating staff. They also care deeply about what might be considered workplace basics: proper resources and equipment for the job, a physically safe environment, and the ability to take time off when necessary. As report's authors conclude: EB is not just about pragmatic benefit of employees, but about common business benefits that come from a 'high-trust workplace'. Simply – it is about successful value management.

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<sup>1</sup> Examples of globally well recognizable employer's UGC sites represent: Glassdoor, Vault, JobAdvisor, CareerSupport365, and many other. In Poland are for example: [gowork.pl](http://gowork.pl), [pracoznawcy.pl](http://pracoznawcy.pl), [opracodawcach.pl](http://opracodawcach.pl), [goldenline.pl](http://goldenline.pl), [pracuj.pl](http://pracuj.pl) and many other.

<sup>2</sup> Online: [https://s3.amazonaws.com/bestworkplacesdb/publications/WO\\_2015\\_BestWorkplaces\\_en.pdf](https://s3.amazonaws.com/bestworkplacesdb/publications/WO_2015_BestWorkplaces_en.pdf)



The similar results delivers recent report “Building a better society by helping companies transform their workplaces” (*Great Place to Work® Institute in Europe, 2013*), completed by the same consultancy and using the same methodology, addressed for the Europe<sup>3</sup>. It is worth notice that first evaluation across Europe was done in 2003 on a sample of 550 companies coming from 12 countries, and in 2013 already participated 2.119 companies from 19 countries. On the final ‘Best Companies’ list 2013 were located 100 companies: 25 best multinational, 25 best large companies (with more than 500 employees) and 50 SMEs. Country representation and company sectors of this list presents Figure 1.

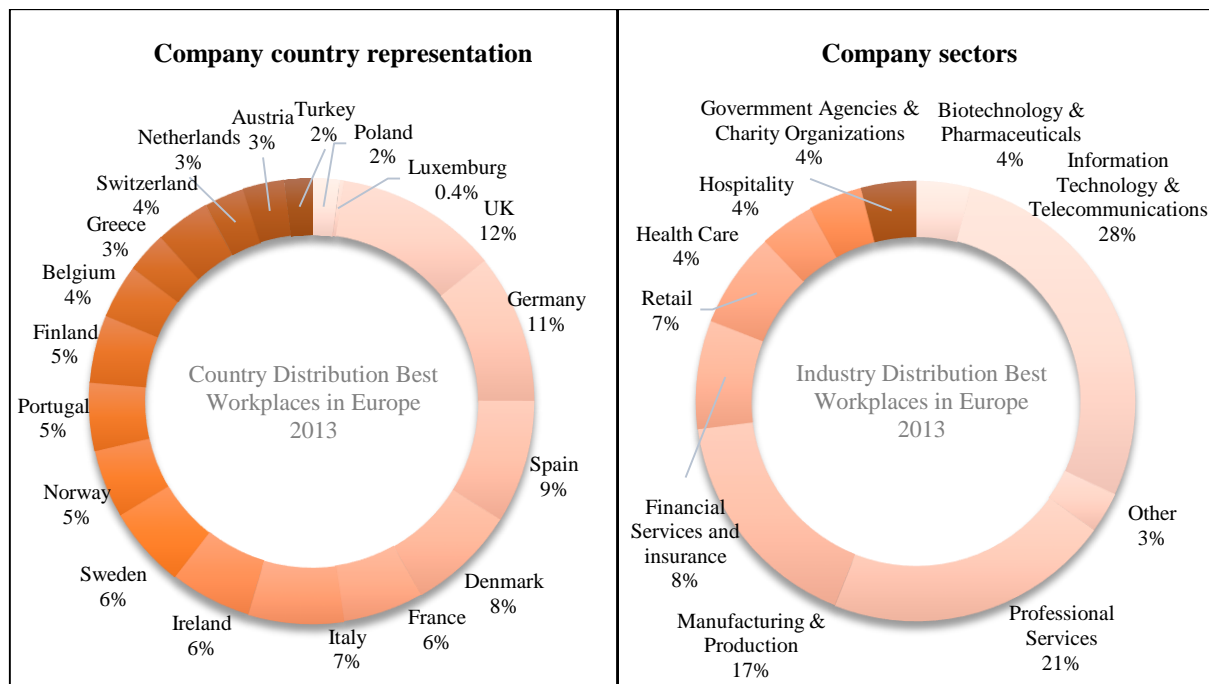


Figure 1. *Great Place to Work® Institute survey in Europe 2013 – company country and sectors representation (Report of Great Place to Work® Institute, 2013 p. 5)*

It doesn't surprise that Information Technology & Telecommunications companies are the largest sector group (28%) on the list, followed by professional services companies (21%), and these two groups make up half of all companies recognized as best employers. Manufacturing & Production, Financial Services & Insurance, and Retail companies are also well represented industry groups. In a minority are represented companies in the health care, biotech and hospitality industries, as well as government agencies and charity organizations. This variety of organizations proves the fact that any company can become a great workplace. Nearly 50% of the 100 companies on the list are based in one of the 'Big 5' European countries – France, Italy, Germany, Spain and the UK. The next most represented group are Danish companies with 8%. Another 25% of the companies come from a group of countries composed of Ireland, Sweden, Norway, Portugal and Finland. The remaining 20% of companies are contributed by Belgium, Greece, Switzerland, Netherlands, Austria, Turkey, Poland<sup>4</sup> and Luxembourg. The positive observation is that during decade from 2003 to 2013 the average 'Trust Index' – the measure of trusts of employees to their work places increased significantly – from 81 to 87, and

<sup>3</sup>Online:[http://www.greatplacetowork.net/storage/documents/Publications\\_Documents/2013\\_europe\\_publication.pdf](http://www.greatplacetowork.net/storage/documents/Publications_Documents/2013_europe_publication.pdf)

<sup>4</sup> Poland till now is the only one country from former socialistic countries of Europe participating in a *Great Place to Work® Institute* surveys since 2008. In report 2013, PL covers only 2% of companies.



the highest scores were achieved in SMEs – 92 (*Great Place to Work® Institute survey in Europe 2013, p. 7*).

Above data confirms, both globally and from perspective of Europe that although EB still stays rather exclusive, than common phenomenon between companies, many employers started to understand that labour market had changed a lot and it is worth to care about their employer brand. More over they have to accept that first association for employer brand in mindsets of employees is the value of ‘high-trust workplace’ founded on strong organizational culture, nor individual instrumental benefits. Analysing EB’s determinants of ‘shared sense identity within organization’ it is worth to know to which extend are similar/different are working drivers (motives, needs, values) directing career planning of workforce cohorts defined usually as talents. Especially, the analysis of work plans and needs of two youngest generations, so – called Millenials – Gen Y (born after 1985) and Gen Z<sup>5</sup> (born after 1995) should be carefully considered from the perspective of EB.

The first global systematic research comparing their work-related values ‘Gen Y and Gen Z Global Workplace Expectations Study’ was delivered by two consultancies: Millennial Branding and Randstad US (2014). The survey was done on sample of 1,000 respondents of each generation from 10 countries (USA, Brazil, Canada, China, Germany, India, South Africa, Sweden, Turkey, UK) and has revealed that:

- Both generations plan switch employers few times during they life: Gen Z plan is to work for four companies, compared to Gen Y’s – five times;
- For Gen Z, one-third (34%) are most motivated by opportunities for advancement, followed by more money (27%) and meaningful work (23%);
- Gen Y is primarily motivated by more money (38%), opportunities for advancement (30%) and meaningful work (15%);
- Least important for both groups is having a good boss (7%) or working for a fast-growing company (6%);
- Both generations like to work with technology to help them accomplish their goals (Gen Z 77%, Gen Y 81%) and they expect to do projects (Gen Z 76%, Gen Y 81%);
- They both prefer corporate office space as their top work environment; however Gen Y (45%) has greater preference for a traditional office than Gen Z (28%). But second choice of work location is a co-working space that operates independently of the employer (Gen Z 27%, Gen Y 26%), and Gen Z shows a slight preference for a home office (Gen Z 19%, Gen Y 13%);
- Gen Z (61%) has stronger desire for managers to listen to their ideas and value their opinions over Gen Y (56%), and Gen Y (58%) has a stronger desire for managers to allow them to work independently than Gen Z (46%);
- Both Gen Z (65%) and Gen Y (69%) say the people whom they work with would enable their best work. While facility location is more important to Gen Y (47%) over Gen Z (36%), Gen Z (38%) has greater interest to personalize their own work space than Gen Y (34%);
- Both generations expect a lot from leaders: one-half (52%) of Z and Y state that honesty is the most important quality for being a good leader, after honesty leaders should exhibit a solid vision (Gen Z 34%, Gen Y 35%) and good communication skills (Gen Z 32%, Gen Y 34%).

Conclusions from above data should be carefully considered by employers as youngest work generations:

- Plan to change at least few times an employer;

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<sup>5</sup> Generation Z sometimes alternatively is signed as Gen C (from the adjective ‘Connected’ describing their main attribute – constant communication with many people).





- Finance incentives are placed on second place in case of youngest generation – Z (on first place in case of gen Y);
- For both generations most important at work are internal drivers like opportunities for advancement and work content;
- They both expecting independency at work and possibility of doing tasks on their own account (projects, freelancing), developing new skills (IT technology) and friendly working surrounding (open-space office, home office);
- From leaders they expect high morality (first – honesty) and competency (creative vision, communication) as well as an attention to employees' ideas and opinions;

Summarizing, the youngest employees, usually perceived as best representatives of 'talent' pull, put high demands to employers. They expect first moral and social values: the honest and competent leadership and partnership in work relations, and on a second place – an operational values: independence at way or working and good work conditions (including finances). They are aware of their work value and expect valuable work. However, they not promise they will stay loyal in employment with company and openly declare they will change work place after some time to develop own professional experiences. It shows, that they plan their careers by themselves, and talent management here is rather aimless.

### **3.2. National surveys – Poland**

The first organizations who started implement employer branding in Poland were corporations who copied solutions developed for western mother – companies in new established Polish departments.

#### **EB assessment done by external auditors**

Already in 2008 the Polish Association of Personnel Management had published data that “76% of surveyed companies plan to in the coming year to develop or revise employer branding strategies” (*PSZK Report, 2008, p. 22*). This survey was done on a sample of 342 big employers, mostly based on foreign capital and was not representative for all Polish organizations.

Today, the growing importance of employees' perception of the company is evident in Poland. It can be illustrated by extending popularity of the competitions for the title of Best Employer. Polls of this type are organized each year by the biggest Polish and international institutes and organizations. One of the players announcing since eight years the list of 'Best Workplaces in Poland' is the Institute 'Great Place to Work®', the division of global consultancy (discussed earlier). Prizes are awarded in three categories based on the number of people employed in the company: separately for small, medium and big organizations.

The place on the list determined by the total score of two aspects: audit of organizational culture and HR practices (Culture Audit ©), which is 1/3 of the evaluation and the results of the staff survey (indicator of confidence in the company, Trust Index ©), which comes up 2/3 final evaluation. This means that about whether the company will be among the 'Best Workplaces' decides first all employees. Among the many companies that participate in the study during the whole year, only lead goes on the list.

In 2016 the edition attended 86 companies, which together employ more than 47.5 thousand employees, including 23 companies participated in the survey for the first time were awarded only 25 companies. Comparative analysis done by Institute 'Great Place to Work®' assumes that during eight years of its evaluation in Poland the level of satisfaction of employees in the companies honoured with the title of 'Best Workplaces' systematically grows up. In 2012 (4<sup>th</sup> edition) 75% of employees was inclined to agree with the statement '*all things considered,*



*I believe that my company is a great place to work*, in 2016 year – this level averaged to 85%.<sup>6</sup> The comments published to statistical analysis of the data collected in 2015 and 2016 editions of ‘Best Workplaces in Poland’<sup>7</sup> show that on final positive assessment of the employees’ had the biggest impact three factors including:

- The belief that the company is managed honestly;
- The feel the employer sees not only the employee in person employed by, but also human;
- Partner treatment by employer irrespective on the position occupied by the employee.

Above data prove that for employees important is to which extent company’s organizational culture fits to their personal value system and they evaluate company’s ‘Trust Index’ through prism of corporate values.

The winners of the competition ‘Great Place to Work® in Poland’ in 2015 and 2016 generally boast a very high assessment issued to them by the workers in above three issues. In 2015, per average, 90% of the employees of awarded organizations were convinced that the company is managed honestly, 79% felt that recognizes the people in them, and 85% felt be treated by employer as partners. The biggest difference between 2016 and 2015 winners of the competition concerns dialogue within the organization. Significantly increased the willingness of employers to consult workers (ratio improved by 5%), and involve them in decision-making processes relating to their work and the environment (up 6%). Over the next five edition of progress in building partnerships can be seen even more – both indicators went up by 10 percentage points. From next year edition (2017) the company plan evaluate dimension of work-life balance, which also for Polish employees started to be important.

All above data confirm that Poland did significant progress in promoting idea of employer branding during last decade, although it is true only in case of most aware companies which willingly want to check themselves in terms of employer brand. They represent mostly multinational corporations located in areas where labour market started to be more competitive, thus they have to do efforts to attract talents. HRM departments of them started to understand that they can’t gain any more from existing in Poland for long time market of employer (connected with significant level of unemployment, from 2015 decreased to the average level under 10%) and have to care about future and current workers and their satisfaction. Polish domestic companies have started to copy for the title of the ‘Best Employer’ from 2015, because of it, summing up, competing in EB rankings is in Poland still marginal.

The great value of this survey that it is based on objective assessment: the ‘Trust Index’ describes the field of agreement/disagreement between values of employees and company’s culture and the index of ‘Culture Audit’ gives characteristic of human resources practices realized by the company.

### **Employer branding self – assessment done by employers**

The most recognizable and complete EB research in Poland, addressed directly to employers, is the survey of HRM Institute. It is conducted annually since 2012. Comparing the answers given by employers’ on the same questions from year to year, allows to observe trends and changes in perceiving the role and the content of EB in corporate strategies. The surveys are performed by using CAVI method (Computer Assisted Web Interviews). The fourth edition, done in March – May 2015 has collected answers of 295 employers/CEOs/ HR specialists from across the Polish companies, who represented different business profiles. The most numerous

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<sup>6</sup> It is worth to note that in described earlier comparative cross Europe survey (*Report of Great Place to Work® Institute, 2013*) Poland was present exclusively by multinational corporations, three of IT / storage data sector: Microsoft, SAS Institute, EMC and one from food production sector – Mars. There were no Polish company in a pool of large or SMEs.

<sup>7</sup> Available only online: <http://www.greatplacetowork.pl>



were the branches of information and technology (14%), manufacturing (11%), recruitment (10%), banking (6%), FMCG (6%) and consulting (5%).

Aggregating the answers given for the same questions about existence and the state of EB strategy in the company, we can observe that during period 2012 – 2015 the trends were only moderately optimistic. The amount of companies declaring they already “have defined EB strategy” is very slightly rising during period 2012 – 2015, but in the same time, the amount of companies declaring that ‘we don’t have defined EB strategy’ – is also insensibly rising, however stays on a higher level comparing to the level of first one. It means EB development in Poland is rather defensive than offensive and it is still more companies that don’t have EB strategy – than those which have. We present the trends in Figure 2.

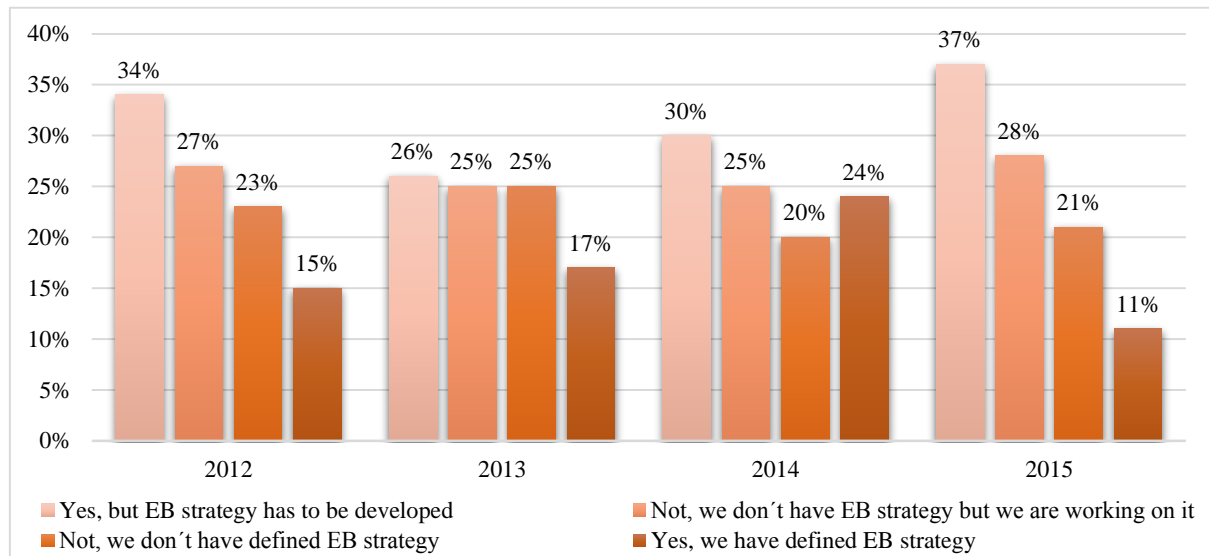


Figure 2. Employer branding strategy of Polish companies in years 2015–2012. Declarations of employers (HRM Institute, 2015)

Above data, delivered by HRM Institute (2015) confirm that general awareness between Polish employers about what it is, and what for is/should be useful the EB strategy, still is not clear, especially is SMEs sector. Companies declare they know and use EB, and that their EB strategies ‘have to be developed’ (although is a different range), but there is rather their declaration, than reality. Such conclusions seem to be justified in the light of aggregated obtained results and discovered trends and correspond to data about participation in rankings for the title of ‘best employer’. All of above confirms, that for Polish companies the first reason to think about EB is realized problem with attracting/retention of good employees. In Poland, the supply scarcities started to be observed already in 2008 when 49% employers had realized the problem and this trend is continued: in 2015 – already 41% of companies had difficulties to fill positions, in compare to 33% in 2014 (Manpower Group, 2015, p. 43). It means that enterprises, and especially bigger ones, have to attract employees and afraid they will be not able to realize their business plans. It is why they started to think about building employer branding. The situation is still different in a less competitive regions of Poland where relative lack of good job places is.

### Subjective perception of EB among employed students – own study

The survey, based on 15 item questionnaire was conducted on randomly selected sample (N = 100) of currently employed extramural students of second year of the 1<sup>st</sup> grade academic program of management. Questions of questionnaire were dedicated to students’ subjective perception of employer branding policy/practices and EVP implemented at their work places.



Students knew EB issues as they have just passed the course of human resources management, where this topic was also discussed. Respondents were employed in companies representing mostly SMEs based on domestic capital (75%), only 25% of work places had connections with foreign capital. Structure of works: production sector (44%), service sector (28); administration/public sector (23%), 5% – self-employment, agriculture. All those work places were located in the region of middle Pomerania, city county Slupsk and rural counties: Slupskie, Bytowskie and Leborskie. This region still copes with moderate problem of unemployment (about 15% – 25%) and lack of sufficient amount of good work places. The relative vicinity of ‘Tri city’ agglomeration (Gdansk – Gdynia – Sopot) encourages more mobile citizens to look for better career possibilities there, but it is connected with additional expenses. The sample of respondents was also controlled by gender (54% women, 46% man) and age (43% till 35 years old, 67% of 35 and more years old). After qualitative and quantitative analysis of the answers for survey we have found that:

- According to 44% of respondents such HRM practice like EB doesn’t exist at all in their work places and employers don’t see the need for it;
- According to 61% of respondents EB strategy exists only declaratively in an official company’s strategic documents (like business mission, HR regulations), and totally is not coherent with employers’ HR practices implemented in reality;
- Almost 35% of respondents suspect their CEO’s/executive manager doesn’t recognize the adequate meaning of employer branding and they not separate it from for example product brand;
- About 25% of employers have changed their motivational systems into more competitive (including slight wage increases) during last year;
- Close to 33% of respondents has realized that at their work place occur temporary problems with filling vacancies and HRM department repeats recruitment for some vacancies;
- Close to 26% of respondents seriously consider changing work place during next two years, 12% already intensively look for the new job offer. Such answers were given mostly by respondents to 35 years old.

And what about EVP of employers?

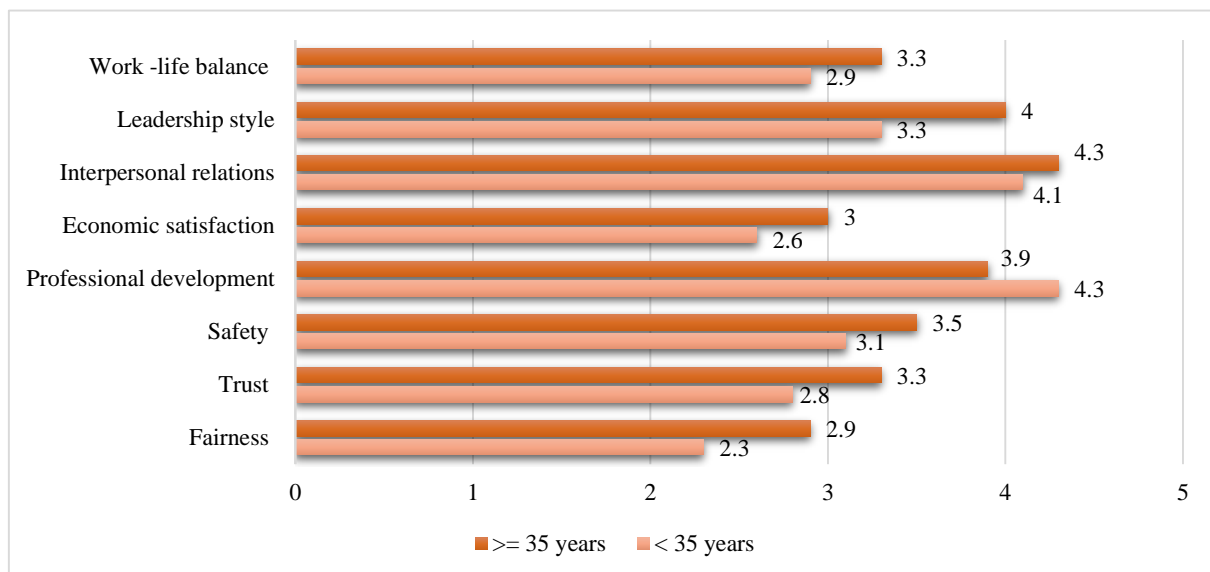


Figure 3. Student’s subjective evaluation of EVPs’ in their work place (own study)



The subjective evaluation of recognized EVPs' in respondents' current work places was checked by putting following question: *To which extend, according to you, such of yours personal values as ... is filled in your work place?* They had to give assessment to every item on a five points Likert's scale, where: 1 point meant – not at all; 2 – rather not, 3 – sometimes, 4 – rather well, 5 – very well.

The obtained average results were following: Fairness – 2.6; Trust – 3.05; Safety – 3.3; Professional development – 4.1; Economic satisfaction – 2.8; Interpersonal relations – 4.2; Leadership style – 3.65; Work-life balance – 3.1. The results addressed to EVP evaluation have varied little bit between employees according to their age (to 35 years old and 35 years and more), although not significantly. The results differentiated by age of respondents are illustrated in a Figure 3.

Above data shows that EVP for both age subgroups of respondents is an important issue and that they are not equally satisfied with different aspects of EB their work places.

For younger respondents values filled at their work places were evaluated in a following way:

- As most satisfied, on 1st place – professional development (4.3 points);
- As satisfied on 2nd place – interpersonal relations (4.1 points);
- Satisfied on 3rd place – leadership style (3.3 points);
- Satisfied on before last place (not satisfied) – economic satisfaction (2.6 points);
- Satisfied on last place (totally not satisfied) – fairness (2.3 points).

For older respondents values satisfied at their work places were assumed as follow:

- As most satisfied, on 1st place – interpersonal relations (4.3 points);
- As satisfied on 2nd place – leadership style (4.0 points);
- Satisfied on 3rd place – professional development (3.9 points);
- Satisfied on before last place (not satisfied) – economic satisfaction (3.0 points);
- Satisfied on last place (totally not satisfied) – fairness (2.9 points).

Taking these results together with an average ones, we can conclude that:

- Both groups are most dissatisfied with fairness in their work places;
- They are also equally not satisfied with economic benefits and critically evaluating trust in their work places;
- Work gives them only moderate level of safety and work-life balance;
- Most satisfaction they derive from interpersonal relations and professional development at work, slightly less – with leadership style.

Obtained results confirm that employer branding is generally till now low developed in non-competitive labour market areas in Poland, like middle Pomerania region and EVP offered by work places (even if they not promote it in any way) not satisfies employees morally (lack of fairness and trust), and nor economically. The only area where respondents perceive sufficient satisfaction at work is field of interpersonal relations and professional development.

Employer seems not understand that labour market is during evolution and they soon can have problem to retain most engaged, loyal employees. This situation probably will change in close future, when more people will decide to change the employer.

#### 4. Conclusion

Organizations striving for business success have to attract and retain most effective employees – talents, but it is a challenge in times when market of employees' substitutes market of employer. Employees today are basically different than few decades ago, they are aware of their competence and the value their own work for the company. As obvious they treat economic satisfaction and safety, adequate equipment, possibility to care about work-life balance. But firstly they expect fair and trustable work surroundings, partnership relations and



competent leaders – such organizational culture where they can develop their professionalism and express engagement and innovativeness. Especially youngest generations put high demands to employers and loyally inform that they want construct their career paths by themselves. Because of it talent management widely used in employer branding strategies is today not sufficient. Employer branding has to be rather conceptualized as strategic corporate approach based on integrative value management.

The awareness among employers about the need for redefinition of employer branding strategy differs when we look at it from prospective of global, regional, or local labour market. On a less competitive local markets employer branding stays still more declaration than reality. It is worth to understand that EB is not more only marketing, or even human resources activity, but part of corporate strategy. It is not about pragmatic benefit of employees, but about common business benefits that come from a ‘high-trust workplace’. Simply – it is about corporate value management.

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## SENSE OF SAFETY IN INTERVIEWEES/EMPLOYEES OF AN EXAMINED ORGANIZATION

ANNA MICHAŁKIEWICZ

### Abstract

The article presents the problem of sense of safety in interviewees/employees of an examined organization. The aim of this article is to describe what actions would the interviewees/employees take in order to improve their sense of safety in the context of a study being carried out with their involvement, as well as actions that the researcher can undertake with a view to ensure such safety to their subjects. The paper describes the notion of safety understood in 3 ways: as a need, value and feeling. Certain factors determining subject's sense of safety have been elaborated on. Based on literature and personal observations made during initial contact with the interviewees and in the course of the interviews, the author describes actions undertaken by the interviewees that could resonate with their sense of safety. These actions address mainly the need of anonymity. Whereas creating an atmosphere of trust, using the trust transfer mechanism and ensuring confidentiality are some of the actions that a researcher can undertake with a view to help their subjects feel safe.

**Key words:** sense of safety, safety, interviews, employees.

**Classification JEL:** M12 – Personnel Management.

### 1. Introduction

While arranging for and carrying out quality interviews touching on subjects that are difficult for the interviewees or that somehow concern the functioning of their organization, one encounters various difficulties – from obtaining subject's consent to participate in the study, through agreeing on some organizational matters (time, place, registration), to receiving answers to sensitive questions. There may be various reasons behind this. The problem may consist in the lack of sense of safety in the workplace or fear that participation in such an interview might affect this safety.

The *aim of this article* is to describe what actions would the interviewees/employees take in order to improve their sense of safety in the context of a study being carried out with their involvement, as well as actions that the researcher can undertake with a view to ensure such safety to their subjects.

Author of this article carried out a research related to the performance appraisal system in a university. One of the methods used within this study consisted in conducting interviews. The author presents herein her observations on the sense of safety in subjects at the stage of making contact with the researcher and subsequently during the interview.

### 2. Safety in the workplace as a need, value and feeling

Safety can be defined as „an objective state characterized by a lack of danger that is experienced subjectively by individuals or groups of people” (*Korzeniewski, 2000, p. 437; Klamut, 2012, p. 41*). This subjective perspective is governed by the psychological understanding to safety described as: a need, a value and a feeling (*Klamut, 2012, p. 42*).

In order to discuss the first of the above-mentioned aspects – safety as a need, we may want to start by defining ‘a need’. And thus a need can be described as “a construct that corresponds to a certain force in the brain, which governs perception, apperception (perception plus interpretation), thinking, objectives and actions so as to transform the existing, unsatisfactory situation in a specific way” (*Oleś, 2003, p. 112*). A need will then be understood as a disposition to act, a stimulus, whose lack or insufficiency triggers to act. A need will therefore cause tension in the system, whereas its realization – reduction of the said tension.



Some of the various classifications of needs refer directly or indirectly to the need of safety. Maslow's pyramid of needs is one of them, in which it is defined as a need of: physical safety, psychological safety and stability (*Schultz & Schultz, 2002, p. 283*). Maslow further points out that the need of safety includes the need of assurance, support, care, law and borders, strong caregiver etc. (*Maslow, 2006, p. 65*). In the everyday life, the need of safety manifests itself as a preference for stable employment, a wish to have insurance, but also a tendency to prefer the already known over the unknown (*Maslow, 2006, p. 66*). In Alderfer's ERG theory, the need of safety is classified as one of the needs of existence. Realization of these in the workplace would consist in ensuring security of employment and a safe working environment (*Schulz & Schultz, 2002, p. 284*). In his two-factor theory, Herzberg also refers to safety. Among the hygiene factors, he includes security of employment, but also security at the level of interpersonal relations, company's policy, atmosphere in the organization, factors that come into play in satisfying the need of safety in an organization (*Basińska & Jeran, 2012, p. 54*). Klamut (*2012, p. 43*) refers also to the classification of needs by Murray, who distinguishes three needs related to a danger-free life: the need to avoid physical injuries (avoidance of damage), the need to avoid psychological injuries from other people and the need to avoid psychological injuries in one's own eyes (avoidance of actions that may lead to diminishing one's self-esteem). This third item consists in avoiding defeat, shame, ridicule, and may lead to a tendency to refrain from taking action caused by fear of defeat (*Franken, 2005, p. 31*). Unsatisfied need of safety is correlated with a sense of fear and anxiety (*Klamut, 2012, p. 43*).

Safety is not only a need but also a value. As such, one will have a permanent conviction that "a certain way of acting or a consequent state is more desirable from the perspective of an individual or society than the opposite way of acting or state" (*Mądrzycki, 2002, p. 118*). Values are organized in a hierarchical system reflecting their respective importance. Those that are most crucial for a given individual will impact most their behaviour/way of acting (*Mądrzycki, 2002, p. 119*). Values help to specify the nature of various needs and to determine the way in which they can be satisfied. They enable a person to decide which needs will be satisfied and in which order, especially when not all of them can be satisfied (*Mądrzycki, 2002, p. 119*). From this perspective, safety appears to be an important factor in the motivational process. Safety as a value will impact the activity of a given individual, however, unlike in case of a need of safety, taking action will not be governed by its lack – existing or expected (*Klamut, 2012, p. 45*).

The third dimension of psychological understanding of safety relates to assessing the level of safety experienced by a subject, so the sense of safety. Such sense is an effect of satisfying a given need on the one hand and realizing a value on the other. However, unlike needs or values, the sense is dependent on an individual person – feeling and experiencing. Thus the sense of safety will be a state of peace, assurance and lack of dangers. Such a state of mind is an effect of a subjective assessment of a situation (*Klamut, 2012, s. 46*). Since safety and risk are linked together, the sense of safety can also be perceived as a subjective assessment of risk acceptability (*Bańka, 2002; Klamut, 2012, p. 48*).

When it comes to the sense of safety at work, it also implies psychological safety, which can be defined as "a feeling that the employee can express their self without fear that it might have negative consequences for their self-image, status or career" (*Kahn, 1990; Wołoska, 2013, p. 124*). It is one of the dimensions of the climate in an organization, to which contribute: flexible and supportive management, transparent rules and norms, as well as employee's freedom to express their feelings (*Kahn, 1990; Wołoska, 2013, p. 124*). Thus the possibility of freely express the self is one of the factors contributing to the sense of safety (*Wypych, 2015, p. 84*).

Safety as a need, value, but also a subjective feeling is an important aspect of people's functioning in organizations. Sense of safety – related to the security of employment and to relationships at work that are open and supportive – constitutes an important factor for



employees' commitment (*Kmiotek, 2013, p. 186*). On the other hand factors such as: lack of trust, stress, anxiety, feeling unsecure, low quality of the management and leadership, impacting negatively the sense of safety, are considered as potential causes for the lack of employees' commitment (*Kmiotek, 2013, p. 187*).

Conducting research inside an organization may undermine the sense of safety in the interviewees/employees. Kvale points out that in doing research one should always be driven by the ethical rule of making good, which means that the risk of harming the subject of a study should be minimized (*2004, p. 122*). Interviewees cannot be risking any loss or damage nor should they have such impression. This kind of negative emotions triggered by a study are also considered to be a loss or damage to the subject. It is the researcher that is responsible for the safety and wellbeing of their subjects (*Corbine & Morse, 2003, p. 349*).

The question is how to conduct interviews related to the functioning of an organization in a way that employees' sense of safety remains intact. The present article elaborates on the following aspects of interviewing employees: conditions and place, creating an atmosphere of trust, contact/number of meetings, granting anonymity.

### **3. Employees' sense of safety during interviews related to the functioning of their organization**

Conditions and place of the meeting is the first of several factors discussed herein that play a role in building the sense of safety in an interview situation. Oppenheim (*2004, p. 88*) points out that these have to prevent the subject from feeling intimidated or anxious. According to Gudkova (*2012, p. 123*) the best place to conduct an interview is „the natural environment of the subject, where they feel most comfortable”. Public places on the other hand do not contribute to building trust. It may seem obvious that public places, such as cafes, where there is many people, do not help the interviewee to feel safe. However, the question is whether the workplace is truly the most comfortable place to conduct a study related to their organization. Pauses and various disruptions are difficult to avoid in such a situation (*Oppenheim, 2004, p. 87*). They may be caused by colleagues sharing the same room, other employees, clients or phone calls.

It proves beneficial for the sense of safety to create an atmosphere of trust and commitment at the first stage of conversation (*Gudkova, 2012, p. 123*). Openness of the researcher, their involvement and readiness to answer questions related to the aims of the study or the way data is going to be used, are very important for building trust (*Gudkova, 2012, p. 124*). Knox & Burkard (*2009, p. 569*) stress that if the researcher fails to build a good relation with the interviewee, it will compromise the sense of safety experienced by the employee confronted with the researcher and further increase the unwillingness to discuss sensitive matters. Knowledge gathered during the interview is largely dependent on the quality of social interaction between the interviewee and the researcher. The quality of such relation depends on the interviewer's ability to create conditions allowing for the employee to feel safe (*Kvale, 2010, p. 38*). Participation in a research may be positive for the interviewee and provide a more in-depth insight into their life private or professional, or impact the person negatively and provoke anxiety, activate defence mechanisms (*Kvale, 2010, p. 46*). According to Kvale (*2010, pp.48–52*), one can find directions on how to build a relationship with the interviewee, on how to create an atmosphere of mutual trust and security, on how to ask questions and listen to answers, in therapeutic interviews, in which the dynamism of interaction and the way of formulating questions are absolutely key. Among factors contributing to an atmosphere of safety, we can find a so-called transfer of trust mechanism, which consists in introducing the researcher to the interviewee by someone they trust (*Gudkova, 2012, p. 124*).

The above-mentioned quality interviews in psychotherapy require more than one meeting. This procedure facilitates the sense of safety in subjects in the interaction with the interviewer



(Knox & Burkard, 2009, p. 569). However applying the same approach to studies in the domain of management may seem difficult and in many cases groundless. Nevertheless, if the interviews touch on sensitive topics, it is worthwhile to think how one could achieve the effect of increasing sense of safety similar to multiple meetings. As some substitute of this procedure, the researcher might want to contact the interviewee directly while asking for their consent to participate in the study. As a result, the interview will no longer be the first contact of the employee with the researcher.

Another aspect connected to interviewees' sense of safety lies in their need for anonymity. Schwarz's experiments confirm that „more the researcher insists on assuring the interviewees about the confidentiality, the more their readiness to participate in the study would diminish” (Krzewińska, 2006, pp. 109–110). The fact of strongly underlining that the study would be confidential led to the belief that the tool used for research would contain a lot of details and personal questions. It was observed that extensive clarifications on the confidentiality issue caused a more pronounced anxiety that the data gathered might be revealed to third persons (Grzeszkiewicz-Radulska, 2009, p. 112). No difference was observed between a group who did not receive any assurance of confidentiality and a group who received one such sentence to read (Krzewińska, 2006, pp. 109–110). Interviews and especially spontaneous discussions on the functioning of an organization may constitute a danger to employee's sense of safety. This is due among others to not granting full anonymity of the interviewees. According to the above-mentioned, putting excessive stress on the anonymity may further diminish the sense of safety in the interviewees.

#### **4. Study on attitudes to performance appraisal system in an organization and the sense of safety – personal observations**

The study was performed on employees of one of the universities. They were either interviewees or candidates for interviewees in a research related to attitudes of employees to the performance appraisal system in their workplace. 24 cases were analysed: 23 subjects agreed to participate in the interview, 1 refused. Research method used was participative observation. As a result 23 interview cards drafted after the initial contact and the proper interview were analysed, as well as the meeting with the person who refused to take part in the interview. Factors evaluated were as follows: a general readiness to make such interview (attitude to the interview, first contact), attention paid by the interviewee to the question of anonymity, including their reaction to the researcher asking for permission to record and the choice of place for the interview made by interviewees.

The initial contact with the interviewees could be engaged in 3 different ways: the majority of meetings were held during their office hours (13 subjects), the rest were contacted by phone (6 subjects) or by e-mail (5 subjects). Those subject that were contacted by phone or e-mail had been previously briefed by a trusted person on the intention to conduct an interview and agreed to be contacted. During the first contact, the author presented herself, quickly explained the area of the research and its stages, asking the subject to participate in one of the said stages, i.e. interviews. The researcher pointed out that the subsequent stage of her study would concern all the employees and the interviews were necessary for her to prepare for this next part. Then, she briefly explained that the interview would be entirely anonymous. Vast majority of subjects readily and quickly expressed their consent. Two of them wished to take the proper interview immediately after expressing their consent. One person described their attitude to the study as ambivalent. After receiving further details on the scope of questions, the person agreed to participate, however providing that the interview would not be recorded. One person was difficult to contact directly and therefore they were asked by e-mail when it would be convenient for them to meet the researcher with a view to discuss her request. Since the subject remained silent, the researcher tried again to meet them during the office hours. The employee



agreed to participate in the interview rather reluctantly ('ok if you insist') and when informed about the confidentiality, they replied that at their age, they are no longer afraid of anything. Only one of the requested persons refused. However it may be worthwhile to state that the refusal did not happen directly after the researcher explained her request. The subject asked for time to think about it and communicated their refusal by e-mail saying that they understood the importance of the examined area but still did not agree to participate in the study. The below table presents different methods of engaging the initial contact and reactions of the interviewees.

*Table 1. First contact and subjects' attitudes to participating in the study (own study)*

	<b>Personal contact</b>	<b>Phone</b>	<b>E-mail</b>
<b>Total</b>	13 subjects	6 subjects	5 subjects
<b>Refusals</b>	1 refusal communicated by e-mail	–	– (1 no reply, consent granted after meeting in person)
<b>Attitude to participation in the study</b>	Varied – from rather negative reactions (refusal), through ambivalent (consent but no recording, "ok if you insist"), rather positive but with visible lack of assurance at the off-set, to positive (consent granted rapidly, but in some cases visible uncertainty when asked for permission to record)	Positive reactions – subjects were previously informed that such contact would happen with a view to seek consent for an interview. The idea was introduced by persons well-known to the subjects (consent to share their contact details with the researcher was understood as by default agreement to participate in the study; probably transfer of trust mechanism)	Positive reactions – all subjects agreed for a person well-known to them to share their contact details; one person doubted if they should be an interviewee (they considered that their opinion was not representative for the whole organization)

Regarding anonymity as a factor contributing to the sense of safety, it was decided to briefly inform candidates for interviewees about the fact that the study would be anonymous. It was pointed out that all information that could help to identify the subject would be held confidential. Interviewees' reaction to this declaration was overall positive and considered sufficient by the majority. Some of the subjects however had additional questions or remarks related to this issue. Detailed questions related to anonymity would in most cases be formulated when asked for permission to record. Thus it appears that recording was a diminishing factor for the sense of safety, however providing additional information helped calm the anxiety experienced by some of the interviewees. The person who refused to participate had bigger objections. In their case the conversation did not go as far as asking for permission to record and still anonymity issues were raised by the subject.

It was observed that subjects that needed additional assurance of anonymity belonged to the following groups:



- Members of organizational units in which they were easy to identify based on their title/rank (both higher – in a smaller unit, and lowest – master in a unit with few assistants) or function;
- Subjects with a negative attitude to the object of the study, pointing to the injustices or defects in its functioning (it has to be clarified however that not all subjects that criticised the appraisal system expressed such need for the anonymity to be additionally reconfirmed);
- Subjects that had already experienced in the past some problems related the performance appraisal system consisting the object of the study. It may be that a possibility of linking different problems within a given department was perceived by these interviewees as a threat to their anonymity.

All subjects, except for one, refrained from specifying the cause behind their increased interest in matters related to anonymity. Only one stated directly why this issue was so important for them, i.e. their function in the department allowed for easy identification. During the interview, this person named that function and at the end of the conversation referred again to the issue of anonymity.

During this specific study interviewees were interested in confidentiality issue of their data. Nevertheless in the vast majority of cases the anxiety would abate when additional explanation was provided.

*Table 2. Actions and decisions of the interviewees related to the analysed safety factors (own source)*

<b>Safety Factor</b>	<b>Actions and decisions</b>
<b>Place of the interview</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- 6 subjects suggested that the meeting takes place outside of their room due to the possibility of other people being present</li> <li>- some subjects, while deciding on the date/time of the meeting, would look for a time slot when there would be no one else in the room</li> </ul>
<b>Anonymity</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- some of the subject wanted to understand how the researcher intended to ensure anonymity, specifically they enquired about transcription of the interviews and the necessity to hide distinctive features of the interviewees</li> </ul>
<b>Recording</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- one person refused to be recorded, saying that now in the era of recordings and tapping in Polish politics, it had a bad connotation for them</li> <li>- one subject wanted to make sure that their function (revealed in the interview) would not be disclosed in the article</li> <li>- two subjects enquired about the audio version of the interview, fearing that it might potentially be spread</li> </ul>

Relative to the last factor analysed herein in the context of the sense of safety, i.e. the place of the interview, it is worthwhile to note that the assumption was that the interviewee would feel most at ease at their place of work, in this specific case a room in the unit by which they were employed. And the fact is that most of the subjects suggested such a solution, i.e. to meet in their room. With one limitation however – expected presence of other persons, colleagues sharing the same room. There may be a few reasons for that, explaining why the interviewees would want to ensure that no third persons are present during the interview. And these are not necessarily related to the matter of sense of safety during an interview. Firstly, this group of subjects would certainly be aware that interviews should be conducted without other people being present. Secondly, the interviewees might simply be cautious not to disturb others at work by holding a long conversation. Thirdly, and interesting from the perspective of interviewees



sense of safety, the subjects may have felt uncomfortable with other people being present during the meeting due to the object of the conversation. It became apparent during the interviews that for some subjects performance appraisal was a difficult experience and sometimes negative emotions still persisted. The topic of the conversation was therefore sensitive for them and discussing it openly in public would undermine their sense of safety. We may conclude that, if the researcher is not aware of whether the interviewee's previous experience in the examined domain was good or bad, it would benefit their sense of safety to have the freedom to choose where the meeting should take place.

The above analysis demonstrates that the majority of subjects did not perceive the interview as a substantial threat to their safety. Some uneasiness or anxiety could be solved by the subjects taking certain steps related to the previously discussed aspects: place of the meeting, anonymity and, one step further, recording.

The below table outlines certain actions observed in the subjects that may improve the sense of safety in the interviewees.

Based on the interviewees' reactions during the initial contact and the subsequent interview, it may be concluded that for some subjects the object of the study – performance appraisal system in their organization – may have been perceived as a threat to their safety. All interviewees, except for one, were able to deal with their anxiety by seeking more extensive explanation and choosing a convenient place for the meeting. Some of the subjects probably did not feel threatened by the situation at all, nor by the object of the study; they did not enquire about disclosing data or methods of ensuring anonymity; information provided by the author was judged as sufficient. These interviewees displayed a trustful attitude towards the interviewer (one person said: "if you say that the study is anonymous and the recording erased, then I believe this will be the case").

## 5. Conclusion

Researchers are often confronted with refusals from selected people. Reasons may vary but one of them is the lack of sense of safety. Therefore, it is important to be cautious in this area and create an atmosphere of trust, ensure the data is safe. Observations made on the occasion of this study constitute just an introduction to a wider research on interviewees/employees' sense of safety. Certain decisions and actions - potentially important for building the sense of safety in an interview situation – were observed in the subjects: choice of place so as to avoid presence of other people, seeking additional information on how the researcher intends to guarantee confidentiality, pointing to certain statements that should not be published, looking to be assured about confidentiality of recordings. Relative to actions that a researcher may undertake in order to ensure a sense of safety to the interviewees, it is worthwhile to reflect upon the process of setting up an interview, paying attention to certain items described in the literature, such as: creating an atmosphere of trust, making use of transfer of trust mechanism or avoiding to underline excessively the confidentiality matters. It would be interesting to further elaborate in research on the extent to which the sense of safety is improved by meeting the interviewee at least twice (first meeting – initial contact, second meeting – proper interview) or to examine in what way precisely the nature of the initial contact influences interviewees' sense of safety.

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## ROLA ORGANIZACJI POZARZĄDOWYCH W KREOWANIU FORESIGHTU

### The Role of NGOs in Shaping the Foresight

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#### Abstract

This study provides reflections on the importance of the active participation of stakeholders of the market and, in particular, non-governmental organisations, in the creation of future foresight activities. The aim of the work is to demonstrate the relevance of cooperation of non-governmental organisations (resulting, inter alia, with specifics, scope, and impact) in the framework of the specific financial, organizational and methodical possibilities. Research assumptions, taking into account the idea that NGOs are a vital element in shaping the activities of foresight, were verified by national and foreign literature analysis.

**Key words:** organization, foresight, non-profit, process.

**Classification JEL:** C1 – Econometric and Statistical Methods and Methodology (General); L3 – Nonprofit Organizations and Public Enterprise; M1 – Business Administration.

### 1. Wprowadzenie

Implikacje przeobrażeń dokonujących się w różnych sferach życia społeczno-gospodarczego determinują konieczność działań restrukturyzacyjnych. Odpowiedzią na turbulentne zmiany może wdrażanie zasad foresightu w organizacjach pozarządowych, warunkujących przetrwanie, a nade wszystko ich rozwój. Zarówno procesy twórcze, jak i innowacyjne zdeterminowane są przez rozbudowaną konstelację uwarunkowań zewnętrznych oraz wewnętrznych, które można ponadto rozpatrywać w kategorii stymulatorów, a także barier foresightu.

Główny przedmiot zainteresowań badawczych autora (ze względu na ograniczone ramy niniejszego opracowania) stanowią wybrane czynniki funkcjonowania organizacji pozarządowych. Dostosowanie tych podmiotów to wieloetapowy i długotrwały proces, łączący się z koniecznością pokonywania szeregu barier występujących zarówno w nich samych, jak i w ich otoczeniu.

### 2. Identyfikacja organizacji pozarządowych

Funkcjonowanie podmiotów gospodarczych, ich identyfikacja oraz charakterystyka funkcjonowania jest szeroko omawiana w literaturze przedmiotu. Należy jednak pamiętać, że w życiu społeczno-gospodarczym (*Limański & Drabik, 2007, s. 30*), dla mieszkańców poszczególnych obszarów terytorialnych ('zwykłych mieszkańców'), pewnych grup społecznych, itd. najważniejsze znaczenie mają organizacje pozarządowe.

Organizacja pozarządowa nazywana „organizacją obywatelską”, „organizacją trzeciego sektora” to podmiot, najczęściej założony przez obywateli lub organizacje, działający z własnej inicjatywy w ramach określonego przez siebie wycinka interesu publicznego. Tak więc podmioty prowadzące działalność prospołecznie, często niedochodowo (non profit – NPO), w ramach różnych form działania (wolontariat, fundacje, itd.) postrzegane są jako organizacje pozarządowe (non governmental organization – NGO).

Literatura wskazuje na różnorodność określeń organizacji pozarządowych (*Bogacz-Wojtanowska, 2006, s. 27–39*) między innymi jako organizacje: nie nastawiona na zysk (non for gain organization NFGO), tworzone przez administrację rządową (governmental organized



non governmental organization – GONGO), tworzone przez przedsiębiorstwa (business organized non governmental organization BONGO), tworzone przez prywatnych darczyńców (donor organized non governmental organization DONGO).

Oznacza to, że są to działalności (powstające z inicjatyw osób prywatnych lub prawnych) działających w interesie publicznym a nie społecznym, jakim jest np. związek zawodowy, partia polityczna. Ta cienka granica oddzielająca interesy społeczeństwa jednej organizacji lub jej członków a grupy społecznej zdefiniowana jest ustawowo (*Ustawa z dnia 24 kwietnia 2003*), mówiąc iż: *organizacjami pozarządowymi są, nie będące jednostkami sektora finansów publicznych, w rozumieniu przepisów o finansach publicznych, i niedziałające w celu osiągnięcia zysku, osoby prawne lub jednostki nieposiadające osobowości prawnej utworzone na podstawie przepisów ustaw, w tym fundacje i stowarzyszenia, z zastrzeżeniem ust. 4*. Podstawy prawnej identyfikacji organizacji pozarządowych, a w szczególności określenia wymogów tworzenia, działania, określa Konstytucja Rzeczypospolitej Polskiej, ustawa o działalności pożytku publicznego i o wolontariacie, która precyzuje specyfikę funkcjonowania i realizacji zadań. Ustawa pozwala organizacjom pozarządowym również ubiegać się o *status organizacji pożytku publicznego* jeżeli spełni warunki, że:

- Ze względu na istotę swoich działań, może być uznany za organizację pożytku publicznego;
- Podmiot jest w stanie spełnić wszystkie wymagania formalne związane z uzyskaniem statusu organizacji pożytku publicznego,

będzie mogła korzystać z ustawowych uprawnień, wpływających na rozwój oraz konkurencyjność działania. Oznaczać to może, że każda organizacja pozarządowa, w celu zapewnienia sobie bytu, musi kreować przewagę konkurencyjną w poszczególnych obszarach:

1. Społecznym – realizacji inicjatyw określanych mianem „wspólne dobro” pozwalające na budowanie indywidualności, specjalizacji, w ramach budowania zaufania społecznego poprzez realizację celów priorytetowych dla określonych grup społecznych;
2. Organizacyjnym – kreowania elastycznych, prostych struktur organizacyjnych, bazujących na m. in. wolontariacie, wiedzy i doświadczeniu oraz umiejętnościach dostosowywanych do dynamicznie zmieniającego się otoczenia, realizowanych projektów, a przede wszystkim misji organizacji;
3. Ekonomicznym – umiejętności zdobywania funduszy niezbędnych do funkcjonowania i rozwoju organizacji, realizacji poszczególnych aktywności (projektów) a także inwestowania w ramach określonych możliwości ustawowych;
4. Zarządczym – odpowiednio kreowanej polityki rozwoju organizacji wspierającej różne obszary działalności życia społeczno-gospodarczego, w tym także komercyjne, pozwalające na zwiększanie potencjału organizacji oraz łańcucha wartości organizacji;
5. Politycznym – znaczącego uniezależnienia się od administracji państwowej, przy jednoczesnym świadczeniu usług na jej rzecz.

Udogodnienia i możliwości przysługujące ustawowo spowodowały, że w literaturze przedmiotu zaczęto analizować organizacje pozarządowe w ramach: zakresu i form działania, źródeł finansowania, rodzaju prowadzonych aktywności, itd. , co stworzyło swoistego rodzaju typologię (*Bacchiaga & Borzaga, 2006; Hansmann, 1987; Iwaszkiewicz-Rak, 1997*). Pozwala to na określenie profilu aktywności organizacji poprzez realizację zadań zleconych i własnych (wynikających z misji, strategii, itd.), do których zaliczyć można między innymi: pomocowe, hobbystyczno-rekreacyjne, projektowe (zadaniowe), pośredniczące (reprezentujące interesy określonych społeczności lub grup społecznych), itd. W tym miejscu należy podkreślić, iż w Polsce organizacje pozarządowe mogą prowadzić swą aktywność w 33 obszarach, które identyfikuje oraz reguluje ustawa o działalności pożytku publicznego i o wolontariacie. Rzeczywistość funkcjonowania podmiotów na dynamicznie rozwijających się rynkach wskazuje, że organizacje nastawione wyłącznie na działania prospołeczne (opiekuńcze) bazują



głównie na zewnętrznym finansowaniu (najlepiej dotacyjnym oferowanym przez Państwo), gdyż bez niego nie miałyby zdolności do prawidłowego funkcjonowania. Innymi słowy w czysto modelowych organizacjach, sfera ekonomiczna (Bosschee, 2008, s. 209–238), w organizacjach non profit nabiera ogromnego znaczenia przy zakresie, specyfice oraz aktywności organizacji. Dlatego organizacje pozarządowe w ramach swoich zadań prospołecznych prowadzą dodatkowo działania zarobkowe, tworząc intermodelową specyfikę organizacji (Jarosiński & Kuczmierowska, 2007), którą przedstawiono w tab. 1.

Tabela 1. Klasyfikacja organizacji (ewaluacja własna na podstawie: Hamsman, 1987; Iwaszkiewicz-Rak, 1997)

Zakres działania Źródła finansowania	Organizacje wzajemne, samopomocowe	Organizacje przedsiębiorcze
Organizacje dotacyjno- charytatywne	Charytatywno-samopomocowe - wspólnotowe	charytatywno- przedsiębiorcze
Organizacje handlowe (pozyskujące środki wyłącznie ze sprzedaży dóbr i usług)	handlowo-pomocowe	handlowo-przedsiębiorcze

Z uwagi na charakterystykę podmiotowości prezentowanej w tab. 1 oraz dla podkreślenia znaczenia organizacji pozarządowych, kreowanych jako „bufor społecznościowy”, identyfikuje się walory i potencjały, niezbędne w codziennym życiu społeczno-gospodarczym, określające NGO (Seiler, 2002; Załuska & Boczoń 1998) między innymi jako:

- Gwarant podstawowych wartości społeczeństwa obywatelskiego;
- Redystrybutor pozyskanych zasobów wśród społeczeństwa;
- Oferent usług społecznych, około biznesowych (lobbing);
- Integrator społeczności lokalno-regionalnej, środowiskowej, określonych grup społecznych;
- Kreator aktywizacji zawodowej, społecznościowej, kulturowej, personalnej (budowanie potencjału kapitału ludzkiego);
- Regulator realizowanych zadań ustrojowych i środowiskowych;
- Stabilizator satysfakcji społecznej;
- Inspirator, propagator potrzeb społecznych oraz zachowań instytucji JST.

Istotne staje się zatem, aby podmioty pozarządowe, stanowiące podstawę dla rozwoju lokalnej społeczności, funkcjonowały w coraz szerszym systemie aktywności społecznej, w ramach działań własnych lub partnerskich, na rzecz lokalnego, krajowego, międzynarodowego, globalnego zrównoważonego rozwoju.

### 3. Działalność organizacji pozarządowych w Polsce

Analiza działalności rozkwitu organizacji pozarządowych w kraju przypada na lata 90. XX wieku. Należy jednak wspomnieć, że pierwsze organizacje (pojedyncze) pojawiły i rozwijały się w okresie II Rzeczypospolitej (1918 – 1939), lecz II Wojna Światowa znacząco je zminimalizowała oraz ograniczyła działalność. Okres dominacji komunistycznej, spowodował ogromny spadek społecznej aktywności. Część organizacji pozarządowych została zlikwidowana (ich majątki przejęło państwo), część włączono w ideologiczne struktury. Dopiero po 1989 r. organizacje pozarządowe, dzięki przywróconej swobodzie zrzeszania się i zakładania stowarzyszeń, zaczęły pojawiać się jak przysłowiowe „grzyby po deszczu” oraz



działać w różnych sferach społecznych np. edukacyjnej, kulturalnej, oświatowej, naukowej, społecznej.

W ramach misji organizacji następowały specjalizacje organizacji pozarządowych np. nastawionych wyłącznie na przeciwdziałanie skutkom patologii społecznych (bezrobocie, alkoholizm, bezdomność, narkomania), działań profilaktycznych (punktów konsultacyjnych, edukacyjnych, schronisk) oraz w ramach aktywności (*Olkiewicz, 2015*) osób niepełnosprawnych.

Obecnie organizacje pozarządowe wspierają działania organizacji rządowych, zachowując swoją autonomię, w ramach działań zleconych oraz w obszarze współpracy projektowej lub partnerskiej. Mimo występujących barier rozwojowych organizacji pozarządowych (*ESS, 2006; Siciński, 2002; Rymśa, 2006*) częstą praktyką podmiotów jednostek samorządów terytorialnych (JST) jest świadome<sup>1</sup> kreowanie czasowych, określonych działań prospołecznych, w ramach strategii rozwoju, ukierunkowanych na organizacje pozarządowe, osiągając w ten sposób odpowiednie instrumentarium marketingowe, zarządcze i społeczno-gospodarcze. Organizacje pozarządowe zajęły się zatem także między innymi działalnością:

- *Edukacyjną wśród młodzieży* – tworząc odpowiednią infrastrukturę m.in. niepubliczne szkoły, fundacje wspomagające szkoły państwowe, fundusze stypendialne i programy pomocy skierowane do uzdolnionych ale niezamożnych uczniów oraz tych, którzy chcą kontynuować naukę za granicą (Fundacja Nauki Polskiej, Polska Fundacja Upowszechniania Nauki, Fundacja Stefana Batorego), a także organizacje studenckie krajowe (np. Niezależny Zrzeszenie Studentów, Zrzeszenie Studentów Polskich) i międzynarodowe (np. Europejskie Forum Studentów AEGEE, AISEC – Międzynarodowe Stowarzyszenie Studentów Nauk Ekonomicznych i Handlowych);
- *Skautingu wśród młodzieży* – Związek Harcerstwa Polskiego (ZHP) i Związek Harcerstwa Rzeczpospolitej (ZHR);
- *Kulturową* – Fundacja Kultury, Fundacja im. Fryderyka Chopina oraz fundacje i stowarzyszenia działające na rzecz zachowania i promocji polskich dóbr kultury (np. zabytków, dzieł sztuki);
- *Na rzecz ochrony praw człowieka* – monitorując przestrzeganie praw człowieka i obywatela w Polsce, a także w państwach uznawanych za niedemokratyczne (np. Helsińska Fundacja Praw Człowieka, Amnesty International);
- *Na rzecz pro ekologii* – monitorując i aktywizując działania podejmowane w ramach ochrony środowiska naturalnego i zapewnienia równowagi ekologicznej (np. Fundacja Nasza Ziemia, Społeczny Instytut Ekologiczny, Fundacja Wspierania Inicjatyw Ekologicznych, Obywatelski Ruch Ekologiczny);
- *Na rzecz osób zaginionych* - poszukując osoby zaginione i niosąc pomoc rodzinom osób uznawanych za zaginione (Fundacja ITAKA);
- *Na rzecz osób uzależnionych* – tworząc hospicja oraz udzielając pomocy terapeutycznej, socjalnej i prawnej osobom zarażonym HIV i chorym na AIDS, przeciwdziałając zjawisku pedofilii i rozprzestrzenianiu się zakażeń HIV i narkomani (Polska Fundacja Pomocy Humanitarnej „Res Humanae”, MONAR, Stowarzyszenie ‘Solidarni Plus’, Stowarzyszenie na Rzecz Prewencji HIV/AIDS ‘TADA’).

Wśród największych organizacji pozarządowych zajmujących się działalnością charytatywną trzeba wymienić takie, jak: Polski Czerwony Krzyż, Caritas Polska, Polska Akcja Humanitarna, Fundacja SOS, Fundacja Wielkiej Orkiestry Świątecznej Pomocy.

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<sup>1</sup> Model współpracy administracji publicznej i organizacji pozarządowych – wypracowanie i upowszechnianie standardów współpracy (2009–2011), współfinansowanego przez Unię Europejską z Europejskiego Funduszu Społecznego, w ramach Programu Operacyjnego Kapitał Ludzki, Działanie 5.4, Poddziałanie 5.4.1.



Rozwój organizacji pozarządowych spowodował, że część organizacji przekształciła się w samorządy zawodowe (autonomię gwarantują oddzielne ustawy) czy korporacje zawodowe (zrzeszające obowiązkowo wolne zawody np.: lekarzy, adwokaci, notariuszy, architektów, komorników). Przekształcenia ustrojowe Państwa, a w szczególności budowa demokracji, pozwoliły na rozwój organizacji pozarządowych o charakterze międzynarodowym między innymi w zakresie:

1. *Dialogu społecznego i społeczeństwa*, np. Fundacja Konrada Adenauera, Fundacja im. Roberta Schumana, Fundacja Edukacja dla Demokracji, Fundacja im. Friedricha Berta, Polsko-Amerykańska Fundacja Wolności;
2. *Nauki i techniki*, np. Międzynarodowy Instytut Oceanu Pacem in Maribus (IOIPM), Międzynarodowa Akademia Medycyny Lotniczej i Kosmicznej (IAASM), Międzynarodowa Unia Architektów (IUA);
3. *Kultury*, np. Międzynarodowa Rady Muzyki (ICM), Organizacja do spraw Oświaty, Nauki i Kultury (UNESCO), Międzynarodowe Centrum Studiów w dziedzinie Ochrony i Restauracji Dóbr Kultury (ICCROM).

Pokazuje to, że zarówno dla organizacji pozarządowych oraz organizacji samorządowych daje to możliwość wypracowania mechanizmów współpracy na przyszłość oraz kreowanie wartości dodanej (*Bogacz-Wojtanowska, 2011, s. 81*), *Zarządzanie procesem współpracy jednostek samorządu terytorialnego i organizacji pozarządowych*, [w:] *Jak współpracować: administracja publiczna – sektor pozarządowy*, „Trzeci Sektor”, numer specjalny 2011. Instytut Spraw Publicznych, Warszawa.) pozwalające na określenie tempa rozwoju gospodarczo-społecznego (*Verstyak & Korop, 2016, s. 91–98; Gao & Ding, 2015, s. 436*) postrzeganej przez społeczność lokalno-regionalną.

#### 4. Istota foresightu

Znaczenie rozwoju indywidualnego, organizacji, gospodarki, społeczeństwa, państwa nabiera coraz większych wartości w szczególności, iż szybko zmieniające się otoczenie bazuje na współczesnym instrumentarium zarządzania np. benchmarkingu. Zjawiska globalizacji, powszechnego wykorzystywania internetu, itp. powodują, że „coś”, co jest innowacją w krajach amerykańskich, może za chwilę stać się innowacją w krajach europejskich. Z jednej strony stanowi to ograniczenie a z drugiej szansę na pobudzenie kreatywności działań związanych z wizjonerskim tworzeniem oraz planowaniem przyszłości.

Nowoczesną metodą pozwalającą na zaspokojenie tak wygenerowanej potrzeby stał się foresight. Różnorodna klasyfikacja identyfikuje foresight, powodując liczne rozważania oraz badania tego zjawiska.

Z jednej strony foresight uważany jest za nowoczesne *narzędzie* planowania wskazuje na najbardziej akceptowane społecznie sektory gospodarki i działania, na których powinna się koncentrować finansowa pomoc państwa. Ponadto wyniki zawarte w raportach pozwalają na ukierunkowanie zmian regulacji prawnych w sposób służący poprawie warunków funkcjonowania przedsiębiorstw przy zachowaniu lub zwiększeniu korzyści ekonomicznych państwa (*Nowicka, 2004*). Odmienne zdanie mają między innymi Borodako (2009), Miles i Keenan (2002), Safin & Ignacy (2010), Coates (1985), i in. uważając, iż jest to *proces*.

Analizując podejścia autorów można stwierdzić, iż foresight jest to proces, który w systematyczny, partycypacyjny sposób identyfikuje i gromadzi wiedzę dotyczącą przyszłości pozwalającej na kreowanie wizji oraz obszarów prorozwojowych w okresach średnio- i długoterminowych.

Natomiast inni uważają, że foresight to *typ badań długookresowych* (*Irvine & Martin*), *budowanie* obrazu przyszłości (*Jasiński, 2007*) czy *studia nad przyszłością* (*Practical, 2001, s. 5*). Takie podejście pozwala poprzez odpowiednie badania (dające dane wejściowe), działania przetwarzania i transformacji generować prognozy, potencjały, determinanty, dzięki



którym stworzy się kierunki, plany, priorytety rozwojowe badanych podmiotów, branż, obszarów, polityk itd. To oznacza, że jest on kompilacją strategicznych działań zawierających kompleksowe prospektywne myślenie (kreowanie), działanie i generowanie (wiedzy) przy aktywizacji i zaangażowaniu prosumentów rynku.

Kreowanie przyszłości poruszane w literaturze jest już od początków działalności człowieka, które ewaluowało poprzez futurystów aż do działań foresightowych. Początki działań tych działań datuje się na lata 60 XX wieku. Obecnie można przyjąć, iż foresight jest na przełomie wzrostu i dojrzałości, a wynika to z faktu coraz częstszych praktyk stosowania w różnych krajach świata. Przechodził on kilkakrotną transpozycję (*Georghiou et al., 2008*), która opierała się na generacji:

1. Technologii – prognozowaniu wszelkich działań pro technologicznych, wynikających z dynamiki zmienności technologicznej i oczekiwań.
2. Rechnologii i rynkach – kreowano działania łączące obszary dynamicznie zmieniających się wymagań.
3. Wymiarze społecznym – dążono do włączenia i wzmocnienia podmiotów społecznych, w tym także organizacji pozarządowych.
4. Wymiany wiedzy, doświadczenia i kompetencji wynikającej z systemu nauki i innowacji a działaniami państwa lub jednostek samorządów terytorialnych.
5. Interakcji zmiennych, uzyskanych w ramach kompleksowych działań:
  - Wykorzystujących wiedzę i doświadczenie realizowanych i zrealizowanych różnych programów foresightowych;
  - Aktywizacji różnych grup społecznych (prosumentów rynku) w czynny udział procesowy (badawczy i decyzyjny);
  - Generowania i identyfikowania działań strategicznych, wizjonerskich niezbędnych do kreowania przyszłości.

Procesowe badania foresightu prowadzone są wg wypracowanej metodyki badawczej obejmującej najczęściej fazy przygotowawczą (Pre-Foresight), rekrutacji (Recruitment), tworzenia (Generation), działania (Action), która uzupełniana jest oceną (Renewal) (*Popper, 2008, s. 62–69*). Skuteczność i efektywność przewidywania przyszłości przez zespół projektowy, w głównej mierze zdeterminowane jest wiedzą własną (*Olkiewicz, 2015a*) oraz uzyskaną wynikającą z interakcji kreatywności i kompetencji, w tym także osób współuczestniczących na bazie zależności lub partnerstwa. Wszelkie działania poparte są wynikami wnikliwych badań wykorzystujących narzędzia foresightu sklasyfikowanych w grupy (*Nazarko & Ejdyś, 2011*): ilościowe, jakościowe, mieszane (półilościowe).

W Polsce głównym impulsem do stosowania działań foresightowych było uruchomienie Narodowego Programu Foresight oraz stworzenie finansowania unijnego w ramach obszarów badawczych. Uniwersalność oraz wszechstronność możliwości wykorzystania foresightu przejawia się poprzez obszerną klasyfikację, do której zalicza się kryteria: (*Okoń-Horodyńska, 2009, s. 14*) podmiotowe, przedmiotowe, terytorialne, funkcji, organizacji i zarządzania, zakresu, horyzontu czasu, tendencji wewnętrznych, podejścia, postrzegania, udziału stron trzecich. Oznaczać to może, kreowanie przyszłości w ramach metody foresightu oraz mieć szerokie zastosowanie, niezależnie od charakteru podmiotu czy obszaru działania. Obecnie w kraju zrealizowano około 40 projektów, zarówno o charakterze branżowym i terytorialnym. Wydaje się, że tak mała ilość zrealizowanych projektów wynikać może z braku świadomości prosumentów rynku o takim instrumencie kształtowania scenariuszy przyszłości (*Farrington, Henson & Crews, 2012, s. 26–33*) lub jego kosztowności.

Istotnym staje się zatem propagowanie działań foresightowych w ramach zrównoważonego rozwoju, budowania innowacyjności, mega trendów oraz konkurencyjności przedsiębiorstw, gospodarki, kraju.



## 5. Implementacja organizacji pozarządowych w działania foresightu

Znaczące nasilenie tendencji globalizacyjnych w gospodarce światowej, przemianach politycznych, technologicznych, internetu, społecznych oraz kulturowych spowodowało pobudzenie kreatywności podejmowanych działań związanych z przedsiębiorczością, czego dowodem są między innymi START UP'y.

Rozwój przedsiębiorczości komercyjnej, nastawionej na maksymalizację zysku i zwiększenie wartości organizacji, generujący i pobudzający gospodarki poszczególnych państw, kontynentów, świata zapowiadany jest poprzez wizjonerów (w tym także zespoły projektowe, badawcze itd.), którzy w ramach działań foresightu kreują i identyfikują potencjalne kierunki rozwoju oraz określają ich sfery działania a także oddziaływania. Warto zadać pytanie: gdzie, w tym wszystkim, jest organizacja pozarządowa? Jak się okazuje organizacje pozarządowe znajdują się w centrum uwagi, co w dalszej części zostanie udowodnione.

Przejawy kreowanych zależności widoczne są w działaniach i metodyce foresightu (Popper et al., 2010; Keenan & Popper, 2008, s. 16–38; Popper, 2008, s. 62–69), gdyż wykorzystuje specyfikę wielowymiarowości organizacji pozarządowych kierujących się (Kozuch, 2005):

- Przesłanką działania – bezinteresownością, działalnością na rzecz wspólnot, społeczeństwa, mniejszości, dobroczynnością itd.;
- Priorytetami – partycypacja społeczna, partnerstwo, dobrowolność działania, przedsiębiorczość, pomoc w osiągnięciu strategicznych celów (dla zwiększonego dobra społecznego);
- Odpowiedzialnością – oddziaływania rezultatów w aspekcie społecznym, geograficznym (terytorium lokalne, regionalne, krajowe itd.), działających w ramach mandatów organizacyjnych na rzecz prosumentów. Wydaje się więc, że organizacje pozarządowe są doskonałym narzędziem działań foresightu pozwalającym w wiarygodny, skuteczny oraz kompleksowy sposób przeprowadzić badania.

Ważne zatem jest, iż wielopłaszczyznowe i wielowymiarowe interakcje kreowane przez organizacje pozarządowe w ramach tworzonego zaufania społecznego (społeczno-lokalnego) dają znaczące możliwości osiągnięcia sukcesu prowadzonych działań projektowych. Jest to efektem możliwości stosowania nowoczesnych form zarządzania, wykorzystując różnorodne instrumentarium zarządzania, sposoby oraz formy docierania do różnych grup akcjonariuszy rynku.

Specyfika funkcjonowania organizacji pozarządowych powoduje, że prosumenci mogą być również rozpatrywani jako członkowie organizacji (rys. 1), dając tym samym zwiększoną populację badawczą pożądaną w badaniach foresightu. Również, między innymi, poprzez wykorzystanie wolontariatu (Brudney & Meijs, 2009, s. 564–581), jako instrumentu funkcjonowania organizacji pozarządowych, który w ramach foresightu pozwala na:

- Zidentyfikowanie oraz analizę potrzeb społeczeństwa;
- Zainicjowanie procesów współdziałania, współuczestnictwa, oraz;
- Pobudzać interakcje niezbędne w procesie (uczestniczenia) interesariuszy rynku;
- Kreować postawy obywatelskie.

Pozyskana wiedza oraz dane jakościowe jak i ilościowe, zostaną odpowiednio wykorzystane w foresightingowym procesie kreowania przyszłości.

Jak wskazują badania, na (Popper, 2008, s. 62–89) najbardziej zaangażowane w prace badawcze są organizacje pozarządowe wykorzystujące średnio sześć metod badawczych. Uzyskane efekty są odpowiednio dystrybuowane wśród prosumentów, co pozwala dodatkowo organizacjom pozarządowym, na indywidualne inicjatywy mające na celu wzmocnić elementy zachowań proobywatelskich. Korzyści wynikające z uczestnictwa organizacji pozarządowych w ramach działań foresightu są bardzo znaczące, dlatego na etapie budowania metodyki należy



określić, czy organizacje będą brały udział altruistycznie, czy należy zapewnić im odpowiednie finansowanie (Makarova & Sokolova, 2014, s. 75–91).



Rysunek 1. Uczestnicy działań organizacji pozarządowych (opracowanie własne)

W większości przypadkach, co pokazuje literatura (Popper, 2008, pp. 62–89), organizacje działają na warunkach komercyjnych, w szczególności w Europie wschodniej i południowej (Keenan & Popper, 2008, s. 16–38). Tak więc, w ramach prowadzonych działań, organizacje pozarządowe w znaczący sposób implementują się w kreowanie przyszłości (Johnston, 2012, s. 56–68; Prudzienica, 2013, s. 215–226) formalne wynikające z działań foresightu i nieformalne w ramach prowadzonych badań tworząc interakcje oraz więzi, w określonym obszarze działania lub oddziaływania.

Podsumowując rozważania należy wskazać, iż możliwości kreowania przyszłości, budowania postaw prospołecznych, itd. wpłynęła tak pozytywnie na organizacje pozarządowe, że z uczestnika projektu stają się coraz częściej zleceniodawcą, co znacząco wpływa na stosowanie innowacyjnych działań prospołecznościowych.

## 6. Konkluzje

Niniejsza przedstawia znaczenie organizacji pozarządowych w metodyce działań foresightu. Zwrócono uwagę na analizę procesów zachodzących w organizacjach pozarządowych, metod ich optymalizacji oraz kryteria wyboru źródeł finansowania w ramach foresightu. Procesy te powinny być wspomagane narzędziami informatycznymi, zaletą których jest m.in.:

- Precyzyjne określenie możliwości kreowania scenariuszy przyszłości;
- Precyzyjne określanie kolejności wykonania zleceń;
- Skuteczniejsze wykorzystanie posiadanej infrastruktury;
- Reagowanie na zmiany zachodzące w otoczeniu, poprzez wykorzystanie posiadanej wiedzy w kreowaniu przyszłości (Bober, 2010, s. 393–403).

Wraz z podejmowaniem istotnych decyzji związanych działaniami foresightowymi, kształtowane są rozwiązania w zakresie innowacyjnych działań prospołecznościowych oraz informacji odpowiednio do powstających potrzeb. Implementacja zasad foresightu w ramach organizacji pozarządowych powinna dążyć do:

- Utworzenia bazy danych (centralne repozytorium danych);
- Integracji procesów informacyjno-decyzyjnych (tworzenia scenariuszy);
- Kompleksowej współpracy interesariuszy;





- Doskonalenia systemu kontroli kosztów (Bober, 2012, s. 71–78);
- Prowadzenie spójnej polityki pro jakościowej;
- Wdrażania zintegrowanych systemów informatycznych (opracowanie procedur oraz standardów w zakresie foresightu).

Reasumując, w prezentacji problematyki wykorzystaniem koncepcji foresightu w organizacjach pozarządowych zwrócono szczególną uwagę na powiązanie teorii z praktyką (wykorzystanie podejścia procesowego). Ponadto implementację spójnych strategii komunikacyjnych determinującą specyfikę organizacji pozarządowych. Zbudowanie zaufania oraz dobrych relacji umożliwiających efektywne procesy wymiany informacji. Instrumentem ułatwiającym realizację założonych celów są kompleksowe zasady foresightu.

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## KNOWLEDGE, SKILLS, ABILITIES, AND BEHAVIORS CRUCIAL FOR LOGISTICIANS

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### Abstract

The present paper consists out of theoretical and empirical part. First part covers the theoretical overview, where the field of competencies in logistics was analysed, studied and compared within existing domestic and international professional literature. The second part consists of research on competencies of two undergraduate educational programmes at the Faculty of Logistics, University of Maribor. In the research we analysed all of the competencies, gained by completing 67 individual study subjects of the two study programmes. At the end we compared competencies gained from both study programmes and concluded with findings and future research. Our findings indicate that students from both study programmes gain a lot of basic competencies needed for understanding and working in complex logistics systems. In the second and third year basic competencies (such as knowledge of mathematic, economy accounting etc.) is complemented with more specific logistics competencies (knowledge of logistics modelling). The findings also indicate a clear lack of competencies gained through practical work at the University degree programme.

**Key words:** logistics, competencies, knowledge, skills, abilities, behaviours.

**Classification JEL:** M12 – Personnel Management.

### 1. Introduction

For contributing to this area of research, the present paper firstly discusses theoretical approaches to the area of competencies and competencies in logistics. In the practical part we define and interpret our findings and also conclude with our findings and future plans. Our primary research goal is to analyse and present competencies of logistics experts, when receiving a diploma thesis from two different programs of the Faculty of Logistics, University of Maribor: (1) Professional degree programme Economic and Technical Logistics; and (2) University degree study programme System Logistics.

The Professional degree programme Economic and technical logistics familiarizes students with the basic but key logistics functions: needs planning, procurement, warehousing, distribution, transport, after-sales and disposal logistics. In the first year, the students are familiarized with models and practical tools needed in the working environment. Most of the study in the second and third year is modular, which means that the students can choose the direction of study and career path. The most important part of the professional degree education is a mandatory work placement in an organisation, which the students complete in the summer semester of the final year. The programme focuses on gaining practical experience and is thus suitable for students who want to start working immediately after graduation (*Study programmes, Faculty of Logistics, 2013*).

In the interdisciplinary University degree study programme System logistics students gain knowledge of logistics processes (organization of supply chain concepts, logistics techniques and technologies, optimization methods in logistics, etc.) as well knowledge of logistics systems (modern transport systems, planning and management of a logistics system, warehousing systems, etc.). During study, students get acquainted with tools and methodologies, which enable students to analyse and design logistics systems, find solutions to problems as well as to implement logistics systems. Teaching methods encourage students to think critically, while the inclusion of professionals from practice in the delivery of the study programme provides students with the opportunity to learn about trends and dynamics of the work in organisations in which successful management of logistics processes creates a competitive edge. The study programme is predominantly designed for students who want to



familiarize themselves with the basics of the systematic aspect of logistics and search for jobs at the middle management level; also for those, whose greatest wish is to continue their education with the master's programme System Logistics (*Study programmes, Faculty of Logistics, 2013*).

Competencies in logistics are relatively undefined due to logistics in Slovenia and abroad is a rapidly evolving industry, acquiring importance. Although the concept as such has been around since the building of the pyramids, the very concept of logistics as well as different definitions is tremendous, this also applies to the work of a logistics expert. When a student completes education at the Faculty of Logistics, University of Maribor various competencies from the Faculty and employers are expected.

In general, these are the following (*Competences of Diploma Students, Faculty of Logistics, b. d.*):

- The ability to analyse, synthesize and estimate solutions, make optimal decisions in logistics systems and logistics processes;
- The ability to apply theoretical knowledge to solve practical problems independently;
- Development of communication skills;
- Ethical reflection;
- The ability to master supply and distribution chains;
- Connection of knowledge and adapting of various problems;
- The ability to use contemporary ICT and information management systems in their own professional working area.

## **2. Knowledge, skills, abilities, and behaviours in the logistics sector**

The most general definition for competencies is “abilities, skills and knowledge to perform work successfully” (*Eraut, 1994*). Traditionally, Hayes (*1980*) defined competency as generic knowledge, motives, traits, self-image, and skills associated with superior performance in the workplace. Competency is perceived as the knowledge, skills, ability, and attitudes required to effectively performing roles within an organisation (*Richey, Fields & Foxon, 2001; Paquette, 2007*). Pinto and Walker (*1978*) state that competencies are the specific skills, knowledge, abilities, and other attributes, such as values and attitudes, required for effective performance of activities.

Lucia and Lepsinger (*1999, p. 5*) define competencies as a tool “that identifies the skills, knowledge, personal characteristics, and behaviours needed to perform a role effectively in the organization and help the business meet its strategic objectives”.

Competencies can be defined from two different perspectives: from organisational and personal point of view. For us, competencies of individuals will be important in this research.

Slovenian researchers of competencies define them in the several following ways. Kohont (*2005, p. 33*) argues that competencies are a whole of interrelated skills, knowledge, motivation, self-image and values that an individual knows, wants and is able to successfully use in a given work situation. Kohont (*2005*) also writes about general competencies, about managerial competencies and work specific competencies of individuals performing different job. General competencies are the most general one's, mostly they describe general characteristics of individuals. Managerial competencies are competencies related to general managerial tasks (like leadership, human resources management etc.). Work specific competencies are defined for each job and are very different from one work field to another (*Kohont, 2005*).

Majcen (*2009, p. 21*) defines competencies as “individual properties, characteristics, knowledge, skills required for successful work or whether that employees have them or not”. Therefore Majcen (*2009, p. 23*) distinguish between competencies needed for work and competencies of employees. Majcen (*2009, p. 24*) therefore suggests the following definition of competencies: “competencies are those qualities or characteristics of the worker, enabling



him to successfully carry out tasks and solves problems in a particular workplace or work area, so: knowledge and experience, different abilities and skills and other personal characteristics (motivation, values, ...).”

There have been several different international studies in the field of competencies in logistics. One of international studies is about the competencies of logistics analyst, logistics engineer and logistics controller (*Novalog, p. 2004*).

Professional competencies in these filed are according to Novalog research (*2004*):

- Ability to overview the total logistics process;
- Ability to understand the logistics potential for the company;
- Ability to analyse and optimize existing logistics systems (especially in warehouse) and to propose improvements;
- Ability to interact with complex supply chain concepts;
- Ability to define and implement an efficient logistics flow;
- Ability to understand the role and possibilities of ICT for supply chain optimisation in order to give this an important role in the design process;
- Ability to conceptualise problems/issues/solutions;
- Ability to work process and customer oriented;
- Ability to make use of IT-Tools;
- Ability to produce forecasts;
- Ability to work with big datasets (especially business analyst);
- Ability to translate proposals and change processes in costing consequences;
- Ability to perform cost/benefit analyses;
- Ability to deliver achievable time-phased targets;
- Ability to draw up and judge legal contracts.

Furthermore, personal competencies were set (*Novalog, 2004*):

- Ability to negotiate with external service providers;
- Ability to lead, innovate, challenge and motivate individuals and teams;
- Ability to work in project form;
- Ability to report about a proposal and present it to the logistics management or to a (potential) customer;
- Ability to implement inventory control.

Technical skill that are according to Novalog (*2014*) required for a logistics analyst, logistics engineer and logistics controller are:

- Supply Chain Management and Logistics know-how;
- Good overview on the total logistics process (understand manufacturing processes and relationship with logistics);
- Broad knowledge about the structure of the warehouse;
- Robust understanding of ERP and SCM systems);
- Highly analytical skills and organised, data processing/statistical skills);
- Reporting and presentation skills (also presentations towards (potential) customers);
- Management skills (including project management);
- Advisory skills;
- Negotiation skills;
- Commercial skills (involvement in tenders, in close cooperation with sales people);
- Costing (budgeting, accounting, controlling, activity-based-costing) (deepest for logistics controller);
- Good level of numeracy;
- Solid technical competency in basic PC applications (PC applications such as Microsoft Office), especially to work in a quite sophisticated way with EXCEL and ACCESS);



- Language skills;
- Legal knowledge;
- Knowledge about carrier conditions;
- Construction knowledge (linked to decision about new or extended premises, especially logistics engineer).

Interpersonal skills required for logistics filed are following (*Novalog, 2004*):

- Ability to work in a project form;
- Excellent oral and written communications (effective communicator);
- Persuasiveness to the managing directors;
- Personal authority to convince other employees, customers or suppliers;
- Ability to create consensus about the way to go (reconcile different interests);
- Ability to operate effectively as a constructive team player;
- To be assertive while maintaining good interpersonal relationships with colleagues;
- Self-starter, ability to work on own initiative with minimum supervision, high level of self-motivation and enthusiasm;
- Flexible approach to work.

There is of course also specific knowledge needed for successful work in logistics (*Novalog, 2004*):

- Logistics software: Enterprise Resource Planning-System (ERP), Advanced Planning System (APS), Warehouse Management System (WMS);
- Other software tools: diagnostic and simulation tools, forecasting and planning tools, design tools, design tools;
- Technologies in logistics: RFID, Barcode (warehousing), e-Commerce (commercial).

Another important source of competencies in logistics is ELA (European Logistics Association). The research has shown that companies cannot imagine logistical experts without good social and intercultural skills on one hand, and specialist skills on the other hand (*Alfonz, 2011*).

### 3. Methodology

This chapter describes methods used for data collection to analyse competencies gained by students who complete the two educational programmes at the Faculty of Logistics, University of Maribor.

First of all an extensive literature review was completed. In preparation of the theoretical part we have analysed, studied and compared the existing domestic and international professional literature. For the empirical part we conducted an analysis of the two existing undergraduate study programmes of the Faculty of Logistics, University of Maribor and analysed all of the competencies, gained from 67 individual study subjects of two study programmes. At the end we compared competencies gained from both study programmes and concluded with findings and future research.

#### Research results

We conducted an in-depth analysis of the competencies of individual subjects of the two three year undergraduate study programmes: Professional programme Economy and technical logistics and University degree study programme System Logistics, from the academic year 2010/2011. It should be noted that the study programmes, since the beginning of the analysis until the end of the report, changed and transformed).

In the next two tables all subject for individual programme are presented (see Table 1 and Table 2). We also have to mention that 1 European Credit Transfer and Accumulation System (ECTS) point presents 25–30 hours (*EC, 2016*).



*Table 1. Subjects within Professional programme Economy and technical logistics (Study programmes, Faculty of Logistics, 2013)*

Subject		ECTS
<b>Year 1</b>		
Basics of logistics		3
Fundamentals of the theory of systems		7
Fundamentals of computer science and informatics in logistics		7
Supply chains		7
Foreign language (English/German)		7
Fundamentals of mathematical methods 1		8
Fundamentals of mechanics and electrical engineering in logistics		6
Fundamentals of logistics techniques and technology		8
Fundamentals of economics in logistics		8
<b>Year 2</b>		
Fundamentals of mathematical methods 2		8
Application of optimization techniques in logistics		8
Application of statistical methods in logistics		7
Basics of spatial modelling		7
Warehouse technics and technology		6
Transport in the logistics system		6
Managing human resources		6
Management in green supply chains		6
Foreign language 2 (English/German)		6
<b>Year 3</b>		
Methods and technics for design of logistic processes		6
Basics of law and insurances in logistics		6
Economic module 1	Trade logistics	6
	E-business	6
	Basics of project management and logistics	6
Economic module 2	Green technologies in logistics processes	6
	Business information systems in logistics	6
	Basics of project management in logistics	6
Technical module	Specific elements of transport system	6
	Packaging	6
	Basics of project management in logistics	6
Military module	Security in logistics processes	6
	Military logistics	6
	Logistics in public administration	6
Practical qualification		20
Diploma thesis		10

*\*Note: in the third year you only select one module and complete your practical qualification in a selected working environment*

Each study programme has in its description written the competencies which should be gained when finishing a specific subject. By receiving all of the ECTS points of individual subjects, the student should gain all of the intended competencies. For instance, by completing a subject Basics of spatial modelling in the second year of a Higher educational programme Economy and business logistics, the student should receive competencies as: acquaintance with the basics of logistics processes modelling, knowledge on how to build models and their optimization, familiarity with the basics of mathematical modelling tools, knowledge of the construction of models of simple logistics processes, knowledge-based geographic information





systems and their use in logistics, knowledge of the clarification of the role and significance of GIS modelling in logistics, team work, communication skills and the like.

*Table 2. Subjects within University study degree programme System Logistics (Study programmes, Faculty of Logistics, 2013)*

Subject	ECTS	
<b>Year 1</b>		
Introduction to logistics	3	
Management in logistics	7	
Theory of systems	7	
Computer science and informatics in logistics	7	
Foreign language (English/German)	6	
Mathematical methods 1	8	
Mechatronics systems in logistics	6	
Principles of logistics activities	8	
Economics in logistics	8	
<b>Year 2</b>		
Mathematical methods 2	8	
Quantitative modelling in logistics	8	
Statistical methods in logistics	7	
Geographical modelling in logistics	7	
Advanced modelling in logistics	6	
Transportation logistics	6	
Human resource management	6	
Management sustainable supply chain	6	
Foreign language 2 (English/German)	6	
<b>Year 3</b>		
Warehouse systems and operation	6	
Law and insurances in logistics	6	
Economic module	Contemporary aspects of transportation	6
	Development of sustainable supply chains audit	6
	Project management in logistics	6
Technical module	Planning and management of logistics systems	6
	Packaging and reverse logistics	6
	Project management in logistics	6
Military module	Security in logistics processes	6
	Military logistics	6
	Logistics in public administration	6
Research – practical training	20	
Diploma thesis	10	

*\*Note: in the third year you only select one module.*

The analysis of competencies which should be gained with completion of the individual study subject of both programmes reveals that in most cases students (by completing – logistics experts) reveal that students in both study programmes gain mostly general competencies (especially in the subjects of first two years), as general foreign language skills, ability to handle standard methods and procedures of mathematical analysis, basic economy and the like. General competencies are then also complemented with work specific competencies such as knowledge of specific logistics terminology in English/German.



Most logistics specific skills are gained through modules, where the Faculty on both programmes divides students on the ones with more technical, business or military competencies.

When comparing both study programmes we noticed a clear lack of competencies gained with practical work in a company, within University degree programme. These are: acquired communication skills, team-work, use of information technology like specific company programmes and other tools needed to carry out the set tasks, problem solving by finding a solution to the given assignments and working in a group with other employees in the organization. Within the University degree programme we also noticed a more in-depth approach to research work, where students have to research certain topics individually. The latter is also reflected on all of the subjects of the mentioned programme.

#### 4. Conclusion

In our analysis we firstly examined the existing national and international professional literature and thus defined competencies, crucial components (knowledge, skills and personal characteristics), importance and individual types of competencies. Further on we also defined competencies in logistics.

The field of competencies in logistics is very interesting to study. Several quantitative studies (*Knežević, 2010, Kukovič, 2011; Vrtič, 2011*) have shown, that in many cases competencies in logistics in Slovenia are mostly learned in working period, which is logical, since the study of logistics is quite new in Slovenia.

So, we wanted to analyse competencies gained by completing two undergraduate logistics programmes of the Faculty of Logistics, University of Maribor; so skills, knowledge and abilities, gained by finishing all of the subjects of an individual programme, also needed for successful work in the logistics sector.

We can sum up, that students from both study programmes gain a lot of basic knowledge, needed for understanding and working in complex logistics systems. In the second and third year basic knowledge (mathematic, economy etc.) is complemented with work specific logistics competencies. These are at the University degree programme more theoretically in-depth, and at the Higher educational programme more practical; thus you can gain a lot of competencies connected to practical work.

Our study represents a starting point for future research where competencies from Master and Doctoral study programmes will also be analysed. From this on we will be able to identify which logistics competencies should be gained when completing individual programme, also the ones which should be included as necessities of modern logistics business.

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## CZYNNIKI WIEDZY A INNOWACYJNOŚĆ PRZEDSIĘBIORSTW – ANALIZA TEORETYCZNO-EMPIRYCZNA

### Knowledge Factors and the Innovativeness of Enterprises – Theoretical and Empirical Analysis

DANUTA ROJEK

#### Abstract

The objective of this article was to analyze the issue of knowledge with respect to the innovativeness of enterprises, understood as the ability to generate and absorb innovation. The article presents the results of literature studies and selected existing studies, pointing to knowledge as an important factor supporting the innovativeness of enterprises. The paper also includes a characterization of selected aspects of knowledge, which became the basis for the construction of a research tool in own studies, focused on the identification of the strategic factors of innovativeness of companies. The outcomes of empirical analysis, carried out using the methods of factor analysis and structural equation modeling, were then presented. As a result of the empirical analysis, the skillful use of the intellectual capital resources was identified as the strategic factor for the innovativeness of enterprises.

**Key words:** knowledge, innovativeness of companies, strategic factors of enterprise innovation.

**Classification JEL:** M12 – Personnel Management.

#### 1. Wprowadzenie

Wzrost inteligentny, czyli rozwój gospodarki oparty na wiedzy i innowacjach, jest jednym z priorytetów, wskazywanych przez Komisję Europejską w Strategii ‘Europa 2020’ (*Komisja Europejska, 2010, s. 5*). Wobec rosnącego znaczenia innowacyjności przedsiębiorstw w gospodarce opartej na wiedzy, coraz więcej uwagi poświęca się w literaturze czynnikom stymulującym zdolność przedsiębiorstw do generowania i absorpcji innowacji. Wśród tych czynników istotna rola przypada wiedzy, a zwłaszcza tym jej aspektom, które sprzyjają zaangażowaniu pracowników w procesy innowacyjne.

Celem rozważań w niniejszym opracowaniu jest analiza wpływu czynników wiedzy na innowacyjność przedsiębiorstw. W artykule przedstawiono rozważania na temat innowacji i innowacyjności przedsiębiorstw oraz wyniki studiów literaturowych i wybranych badań zastanych, wskazujące na wiedzę jako czynnik wspierający innowacyjność przedsiębiorstw.

Scharakteryzowano wybrane aspekty wiedzy, które stały się podstawą do budowy narzędzia badawczego w badaniach własnych, dotyczących poszukiwania strategicznych czynników innowacyjności przedsiębiorstw. Zaprezentowano wyniki analizy empirycznej, przeprowadzonej metodami analizy czynnikowej i modelowania równań strukturalnych.

W wyniku analizy empirycznej, przeprowadzonej metodą analizy czynnikowej, wyznaczono potencjalne strategiczne czynniki innowacyjności przedsiębiorstw z obszaru wiedzy. Wykorzystanie metody modelowania równań strukturalnych pozwoliło na wyłonienie strategicznego czynnika innowacyjności przedsiębiorstw w ramach czynników wiedzy. Czynnikiem ten opisano jako umiejętne wykorzystanie zasobów kapitału intelektualnego.

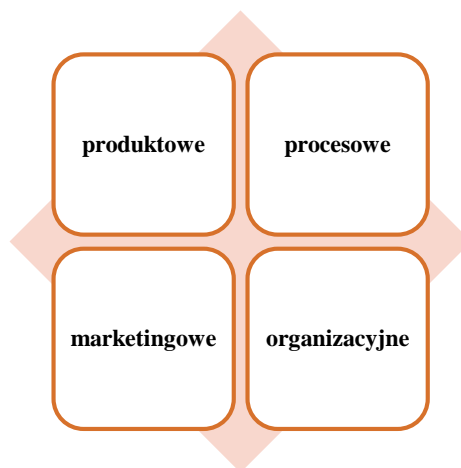
#### 2. Innowacje a innowacyjność przedsiębiorstw

Zdaniem M. E. Portera, w zdolności przedsiębiorstwa do bycia innowacyjnym, do ciągłego podnoszenia poziomu innowacyjności i uzyskiwania dzięki temu odpowiedniej efektywności, należy upatrywać przewagi konkurencyjnej (*Porter, 2001, s. 192*). Użyte m.in. przez cytowanego autora pojęcie innowacyjności przedsiębiorstw nie doczekało się dotychczas



jednolitej, powszechnie przyjętej definicji. Innowacja, według Podręcznika Oslo, to „wdrożenie nowego lub znacząco udoskonalonego produktu (wyrobu lub usługi) lub procesu, nowej metody marketingowej lub nowej metody organizacyjnej w praktyce gospodarczej, organizacji miejsca pracy lub stosunkach z otoczeniem” (*OECD & Eurostat, 2008, s. 48*).

W kontekście badań własnych, w przyjętym zakresie problematyki opracowania, rozważania dotyczą innowacji w obrębie produktu (produktowych), w obrębie procesu (procesowych), organizacyjnych i marketingowych (por. rysunek 1).



Rysunek 1. Rodzaje innowacji w przedsiębiorstwie (*OECD & Eurostat, 2008, s. 49*)

Czy wdrożenie pojedynczej innowacji jest podstawą do zapewnienia długookresowego rozwoju przedsiębiorstwa? Należy zgodzić się z M. Pichlak, która podkreśla, że „przetwanie oraz dalszy rozwój organizacji mogą w większym stopniu zależeć od zdolności organizacji do systematycznego tworzenia, adaptacji i implementacji innowacji, aniżeli od pojedynczych wdrażanych zmian” (*Pichlak, 2012, s. 9*). Pogląd ten staje się punktem wyjścia do określenia pojęcia innowacyjności przedsiębiorstw. Znajduje on odzwierciedlenie m.in. w definicji P. Niedzielskiego, według którego innowacyjność przedsiębiorstwa oznacza „zdolność dotworzenia i wdrażania innowacji, jak również ich absorpcji, wiążącą się z aktywnym angażowaniem się w procesy innowacyjne” (*Niedzielski, 2005, s. 74*). Oznacza także, zdaniem cytowanego autora, angażowanie się w zdobywanie zasobów i umiejętności, niezbędnych do uczestniczenia w tych procesach.

Dla potrzeb opracowania przyjęto zatem, że innowacyjność przedsiębiorstwa jest rozumiana jako zdolność do tworzenia i wdrażania innowacji, jak również ich absorpcji, która wiąże się z aktywnym angażowaniem się w procesy innowacyjne. Definicja ta, autorstwa P. Niedzielskiego, w świetle problematyki opracowania, odnosi się do innowacji w obrębie produktu, w obrębie procesu, organizacyjnych i marketingowych.

### 3. Czynniki wiedzy a innowacyjność przedsiębiorstw w świetle literatury

W aspekcie tematyki opracowania przeprowadzono studia literaturowe, poddając analizie zarówno rozważania teoretyczne, jak i wyniki wcześniejszych prac badawczych. Mimo że czynnikiem wpływającym na innowacyjność firm poświęcono wiele uwagi w piśmiennictwie naukowym krajowym i zagranicznym, katalog najistotniejszych czynników innowacyjności przedsiębiorstw jest ciągle otwarty. Przedmiotem rozważań autorki stały się wewnętrzne czynniki wspierające innowacyjność przedsiębiorstw, zwane dalej także ‘czynnikami innowacyjności przedsiębiorstw’. Liczni autorzy wskazują na różnorodne wewnętrzne (endogeniczne) czynniki innowacyjności przedsiębiorstw, rozpatrując je w podziale na czynniki ekonomiczne i pozaekonomiczne, bądź też przedstawiając je łącznie.



W ramach analizy tych czynników, szczególną uwagę zwrócono na znaczenie czynników wiedzy dla innowacyjności przedsiębiorstw.

### 3.1. Wiedza jako wewnętrzny czynnik innowacyjności przedsiębiorstw

Interesującą klasyfikację wewnętrznych czynników ekonomicznych, z podziałem na czynniki bezpośrednio i pośrednio wspierające innowacyjność przedsiębiorstw, proponują A. Wziątek-Kubiak i E. Balcerowicz (por. tabela 1).

Tabela 1. Wewnętrzne ekonomiczne czynniki innowacyjności przedsiębiorstw (opracowanie własne na podstawie: Wziątek-Kubiak & Balcerowicz, 2009, s. 17)

<b>Wewnętrzne czynniki ekonomiczne innowacyjności przedsiębiorstw:</b>	
<b>Bezpośrednio wpływające na innowacyjność</b>	Zakumulowane zasoby kapitału ludzkiego (w tym poziom jego wykształcenia i kwalifikacji), czyli wiedzę i umiejętności zatrudnionych, będące efektem wykształcenia formalnego: o charakterze ogólnym i specjalistycznym oraz nabytego doświadczenia.
	Zasoby zakumulowanej wiedzy mierzonej wydatkami na badania naukowe i wielkością zatrudnienia personelu naukowo-badawczego; obejmują one badania naukowe, prowadzone w przedsiębiorstwie i w kooperacji z innymi podmiotami: krajowymi i zagranicznymi.
	Zasoby wiedzy uprzedmiotowionej w postaci zakupionych maszyn i urządzeń, budynków.
	Zasoby wiedzy nieuprzedmiotowionej w postaci nabytych licencji i patentów.
	Zasoby wiedzy zewnętrznej nabytej w następstwie wchłonięcia pozytywnych efektów zewnętrznych wiedzy płynącej z otoczenia – od innych podmiotów oraz w efekcie współpracy z tymi podmiotami (powiązania produkcyjne, handlowe, finansowe).
	Zasoby komercyjne (które odzwierciedlają postrzeganie firmy, jej reputację, znak firmowy).
	Zasoby organizacyjne.
<b>Pośrednio wpływające na innowacyjność</b>	Zasoby finansowe przedsiębiorstwa, które wpływają na jego zdolność do finansowania innowacji.
	Zadłużenie przedsiębiorstwa, wyznaczające jego gotowość do podjęcia ryzyka związanego z opracowaniem i wprowadzeniem innowacji.
	Wielkość przedsiębiorstwa, wpływająca m.in. na możliwości sfinansowania badań naukowych w długim okresie.

Autorki klasyfikacji, przedstawionej w tabeli 1, kładą akcent na **zasoby wiedzy**, a także na zasoby komercyjne i organizacyjne, jako wewnętrzne czynniki bezpośrednio wpływające na innowacyjność firm. Wskazywany wśród czynników kapitał ludzki (wiedza i umiejętności zatrudnionych) jest istotnym wewnętrznym czynnikiem innowacyjności firm. Współcześnie, rozwój gospodarki, tworzenie innowacyjnych rozwiązań w zakresie technologii produkcji i nowych produktów, a także dyfuzja innowacji, nie są możliwe bez odpowiedniego zaplecza wykształconych i kreatywnych pracowników.

Z analizy wyników badań empirycznych i literatury przedmiotu wynika, iż szczególne znaczenie w nowoczesnej strategii personalnej firmy odgrywają kompetencje pracownicze (Filipowicz, 2004, s. 36–37). Mimo różnorodności podejść w badaniach kompetencji, cechą wspólną jest fakt, iż kompetencje społeczne warunkują efektywne funkcjonowanie w warunkach różnorodnych kontaktów międzyludzkich.



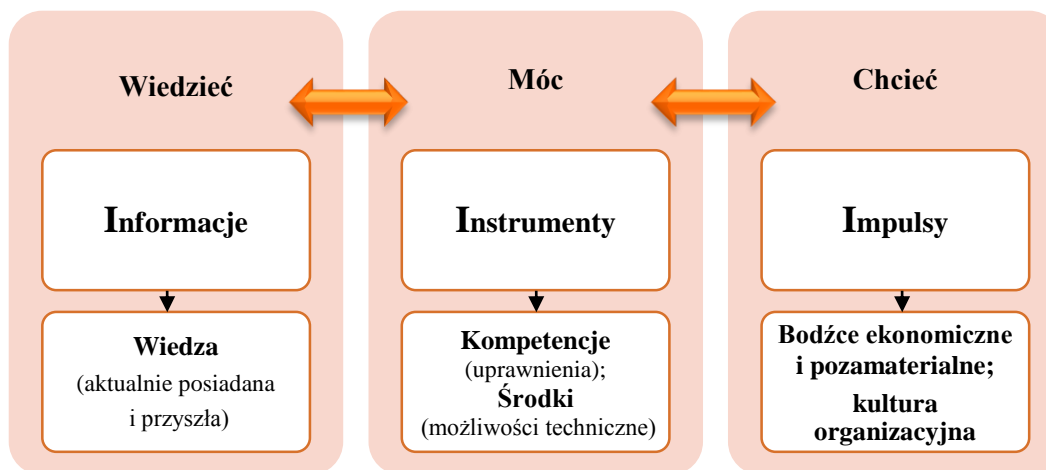
Tabela 2. Społeczne czynniki innowacyjności przedsiębiorstw (opracowanie własne na podstawie: Mazurek-Kucharska, Block & Wojtczuk-Turek, 2008, s. 20–21)

Grupa czynników	Uszczegółowienie
Czynniki mentalne i świadomościowe	Wiedza osobnicza, wartości i normy kulturowe, zasady i kultura osobnicza oraz uwarunkowana nimi kultura organizacji.
Czynniki związane z ogólną wiedzą o zarządzaniu	Wiedza o strategiach zarządzania firmą i strategiach jej rozwoju, zarządzanie wiedzą, zarządzanie zmianą, zarządzanie relacjami z klientami i akcjonariuszami, zarządzanie kapitałem firmy, zarządzanie kapitałem ludzkim, zarządzanie w warunkach transformacji, rewitalizacji i wzrostu konkurencyjności przedsiębiorstw.
Czynniki związane z wiedzą na temat konkretnych strategii rozwoju przedsiębiorstwa	Wiedza na temat strategii personalnej, strategii wzrostu konkurencyjności, strategii zarządzania wartością firmy, strategii tworzenia marki produktu, strategii zarządzania w warunkach transformacji i rewitalizacji firmy.
Czynniki związane z wdrażaniem strategii przedsiębiorstwa w danym okresie jego rozwoju	Umiejętności rozróżnienia warunków rozwoju i wyboru konkretnej strategii krótko-, średnio i długoterminowej przedsiębiorstwa, świadomość znaczenia powiązania danej strategii z konkretnym osadzeniem przedsiębiorstwa w przestrzeni współpracy i konkurencji, także w wymiarze ponadlokalnym i ponadregionalnym, niekiedy globalnym.
Zarządzanie relacjami wewnątrz przedsiębiorstwa i w jego otoczeniu	Problem relacji z klientem, problem komunikacji wewnątrz firmy, komunikacji z otoczeniem biznesowym i zdolności dotworzenia nowej jakości relacji, np. klastrów.
Przywództwo i autorytet w przedsiębiorstwie	Preferowany styl przywództwa, wpływ przywódcy na realizację celów przedsiębiorstwa, preferencje i oczekiwania pracowników co do stylu przywództwa w konkretnej organizacji.
Czynniki psychologiczne	Problem kreatywności pracownika i pożądanych wymiarów potencjału kompetencyjnego pracowników o dużych możliwościach kreatywnych i innowacyjnych.

Kompetencje społeczne można określić m.in. jako niezbędny zestaw umiejętności, potrzebnych do społecznego funkcjonowania jednostki (Cavell, 1990, s. 111–122). Zestaw umiejętności, przyczyniający się do podnoszenia innowacyjności przedsiębiorstw, oparty jest na szeroko rozumianej **wiedzy**, pozyskiwanej m.in. w procesach edukacji i zdobywania doświadczenia.

Grupy czynników społecznych wspierających innowacyjność przedsiębiorstw, wyłonione przez badaczy na podstawie badań empirycznych, przedstawiono w tabeli 2. Oparte są one m.in. na wiedzy osobniczej, wiedzy z zakresu zarządzania, wiedzy o strategiach rozwoju i strategiach funkcjonalnych, umiejętności tworzenia, wyboru i wdrażania strategii. Katalog czynników społecznych uzupełniają umiejętności przywódcze menedżera, kultura organizacyjna, komunikacja wewnątrz firmy oraz interakcje z otoczeniem, prowadzące do tworzenia kapitału relacyjnego.

Warto przywołać przedstawianą w literaturze próbę systematyzacji wewnętrznych czynników innowacyjności firm, jaką stanowi tzw. formuła 3I (Informacje – Instrumenty – Impulsy), zwana także formułą Wiedzieć – Móc – Chcieć (Zajączkowski, 2003, s. 42–45). Informacje określają wiedzę, instrumenty – kompetencje i środki, w tym możliwości techniczne, zaś impulsy dotyczą motywowania i kultury organizacyjnej firmy (rysunek 2). Analiza formuły pokazuje, że w ramach wymienionych modułów ujęto zarówno czynniki wiedzy, jak też czynniki technologiczne (środki, możliwości techniczne), czynniki organizacyjne i zarządcze (kompetencje, bodźce, kultura organizacyjna).



Rysunek 2. Wewnętrzne uwarunkowania innowacyjności firm – Formuła 3I (opracowanie własne na podstawie: Zajczkowski, 2003, s. 42–45).

### 3.2. Wiedza jako wewnętrzny czynnik innowacyjności małych i średnich przedsiębiorstw

W podrozdziale przedstawiono wyniki wybranych, zastanych badań empirycznych, przeprowadzonych w Polsce w ostatnim dziesięcioleciu, dotyczących czynników wspierających innowacyjność małych i średnich przedsiębiorstw. Szczególną uwagę poświęcono analizie wewnętrznych czynników innowacyjności firm.

Ograniczenie analizy do przedsiębiorstw o wskazanej wielkości wiąże się z określeniem próby badawczej do badań własnych. Próba celowa została bowiem dobrana spośród innowacyjnych małych i średnich przedsiębiorstw przetwórstwa przemysłowego.

Badania A. Zych (Zych, 2013, s. 221), przeprowadzone w 2013 r. wśród 181 małych i średnich przedsiębiorstw sektora rolno-spożywczego w województwie podkarpackim (w tym: 87,8% małych przedsiębiorstw, 12,2% średnich firm) pokazują, że najbardziej pozytywny i stymulujący wpływ na działalność innowacyjną mają czynniki wewnętrzne, a wśród nich – zasoby finansowe ( $S = 4,186$ ) i **kapitał ludzki** ( $S = 4,005$ ).

Wyniki omawianych badań naukowych przedstawiono na rysunku 3. Respondenci oceniali wpływ czynników na działalność innowacyjną w pięciostopniowej skali Likerta 1 – 5 (odpowiednio: zdecydowanie negatywny wpływ, raczej negatywny wpływ, brak wpływu, raczej pozytywny wpływ, zdecydowanie pozytywny wpływ).

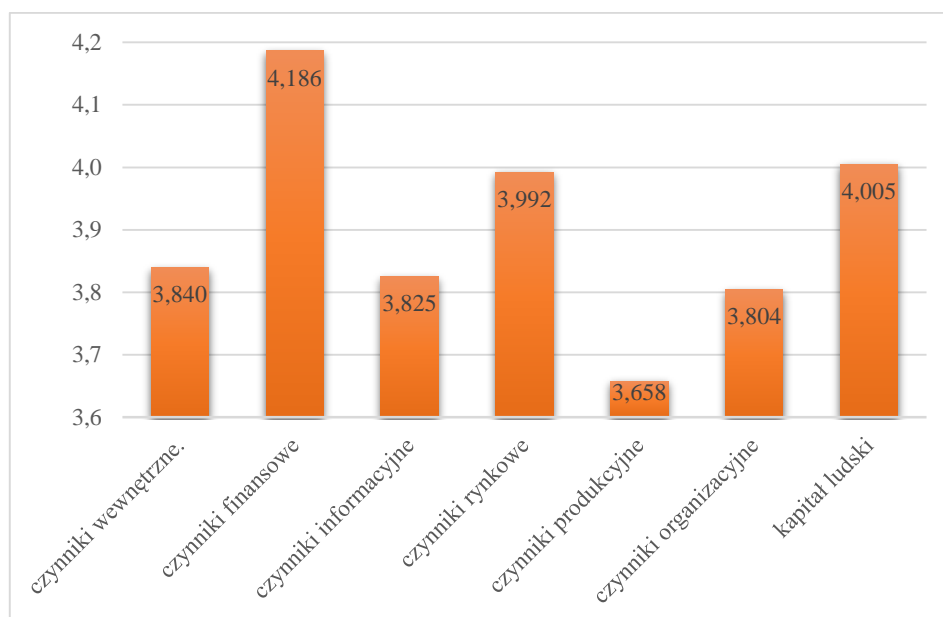
Wykorzystany do oceny wpływu czynników na działalność innowacyjną współczynnik oddziaływania  $S$ , stanowi średnią arytmetyczną ważoną:

$$S = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{x_i n_i}{n_i}$$

gdzie:  $n_i$  – liczebność (częstość bezwzględna, z jaką występuje  $i$ -ta wartość zmiennej  $x$ ).

Z kolei badanie empiryczne, przeprowadzone w 2011 r. na Mazowszu (na łącznej próbie 1941 przedsiębiorstw, w tym małych i średnich firm), pozwoliło na wskazanie **wewnętrznego kapitału intelektualnego, wykwalifikowanych kadr**, na wysokim, trzecim miejscu wśród czynników innowacyjności przedsiębiorstw (por. tabela 3).





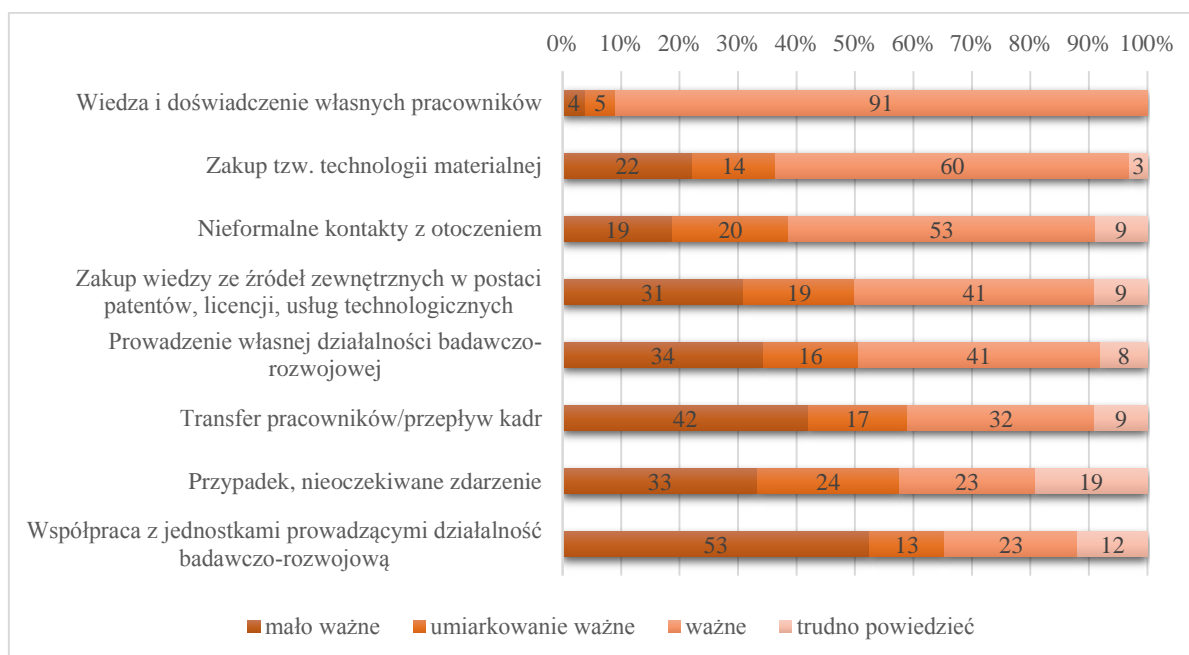
Rysunek 3. Współczynnik oddziaływania S dla poszczególnych grup czynników wewnętrznych innowacyjności małych i średnich przedsiębiorstw (Zych, 2013, s. 221)

Tabela 3. Główne czynniki innowacyjności mazowieckich przedsiębiorstw (Mackiewicz & Dąbrowska, 2012, s. 63)

Lp.	Czynnik innowacyjności przedsiębiorstw
1	Nadwyżki pozwalające na finansowanie innowacji (środki własne)
2	Konkurencja
3	<b>Wewnętrzny kapitał intelektualny, wykwalifikowane kadry</b>
4	Kooperacja/kontakty z innymi przedsiębiorstwami
5	Potrzeby klientów
6	Powiązania z firmami zagranicznymi
7	Dojrzałość rynku odbiorów, otwartość na innowacje
8	Doświadczenia innych firm
9	Powiązania nieformalne (np. nieformalne kontakty z kadłą zarządzającą instytucjami badawczo-rozwojowymi)
10	Dynamiczny rynek (zmieniające się oczekiwania klientów)
11	Konieczność dostosowania się do obowiązującego prawa
12	Konieczność redukcji kosztów

Istotne znaczenie **wiedzy** i doświadczenia pracowników potwierdzają również odpowiedzi tych samych respondentów na pytanie o podanie źródeł innowacyjności mazowieckich przedsiębiorstw (por. rysunek 4). Spośród badanych, aż 91% uznaje to źródło za ważne dla innowacyjności firm. Analizowane badanie pokazuje także, że 41% badanych firm zalicza do ważnych źródeł zakup wiedzy ze źródeł zewnętrznych, w postaci patentów, licencji, usług technologicznych.

Interesującym wynikiem badania jest ocena nieformalnych kontaktów z otoczeniem. Ponad połowa badanych uznaje je za ważne źródło innowacyjności przedsiębiorstw.



Rysunek 4. Źródła innowacyjności mazowieckich przedsiębiorstw (Dziemianowicz et al., 2012, s. 20)

Natomiast wyniki badania ankietowego, przeprowadzonego w 2012 r. przez Urząd Statystyczny w Lublinie (w ramach projektu Kapitał Intelktualny Lubelszczyzny 2010 – 2013) na próbie 650 przedsiębiorstw (w tym małych i średnich firm), dobranej metodą losowo-warstwową, pokazują następujące zależności, zachodzące między wybranymi działaniami przedsiębiorstw a ich innowacyjnością (Chrzanowski, 2013, s. 29):

- Fakt współpracy przedsiębiorstwa z jednostkami badawczo-rozwojowymi zwiększa prawdopodobieństwo wdrożenia innowacji o 16,7% w porównaniu do pozostałych firm;
- Funkcjonowanie przedsiębiorstwa w sieci kooperacji wpływa pozytywnie na stopień innowacyjności przedsiębiorstwa, przy czym dla kooperacji o zasięgu regionalnym zwiększa prawdopodobieństwo wdrożenia innowacji o 13,1%, dla zasięgu krajowego o 20,7%, a dla zasięgu międzynarodowego o 16,6%;
- Utrzymywanie kontaktów biznesowych z podmiotami z regionu, z kraju i z zagranicy ma pozytywny wpływ na wdrażanie innowacji, a zależność pomiędzy zasięgiem kontaktów i stopniem innowacyjności przedsiębiorstwa jest dodatnia (im większy zasięg, tym większa „skłonność” do wdrażania innowacji);
- Przedsiębiorstwa, które podejmowały działania ukierunkowane na rozwój swoich pracowników, charakteryzowały się o 10,5% wyższym prawdopodobieństwem wdrażania innowacji w porównaniu do pozostałych firm.

Omawiane wyniki badań empirycznych potwierdzają przede wszystkim znaczenie dla innowacyjności współpracy z jednostkami badawczo-rozwojowymi, powiązań kooperacyjnych, kontaktów z innymi podmiotami. Współpraca ta sprzyja pozyskiwaniu **wiedzy** i dzielenia się nią. Natomiast ostatni spośród wymienionych wniosków z badania, dotyczy podejmowania działań ukierunkowanych na rozwój pracowników, a zatem wzrost ich wiedzy i umiejętności.

**Czynniki wiedzy**, wskazywane w wybranych klasyfikacjach czynników innowacyjności przedsiębiorstw, znajdują zatem odzwierciedlenie w wynikach najnowszych badań empirycznych.



#### 4. Strategiczne znaczenie czynników wiedzy dla innowacyjności przedsiębiorstw

Teoria przedsiębiorstwa oparta na wiedzy zakłada, że to wiedza – jako zasób strategiczny – warunkuje przetrwanie i rozwój firmy oraz jest podstawą trwałej przewagi konkurencyjnej (Macias, 2008, s. 13). Tworzenie tej przewagi zależy w dużym stopniu od umiejętności pozyskiwania i wykorzystania wiedzy. Zarządzanie wiedzą odnosi się do przepływu wiedzy wewnątrz organizacji oraz do relacji firmy z podmiotami zewnętrznymi, tj. klientami, dostawcami, konkurentami czy jednostkami naukowo-badawczymi.

Autorska koncepcja strategicznych czynników innowacyjności przedsiębiorstw opiera się na założeniu istnienia **najistotniejszych czynników wewnętrznych, związanych z posiadanymi przez przedsiębiorstwo strategicznymi zasobami, kompetencjami oraz umiejętnościami ich wykorzystywania, dodatnio wpływających na innowacyjność przedsiębiorstw.**

W procesie badań własnych założono w pierwszej kolejności identyfikację potencjalnych strategicznych czynników jako istotnych czynników wewnętrznych pozytywnie wpływających na innowacyjność przedsiębiorstw, a następnie - wyłonienie najistotniejszego spośród nich.

Przyjęto, na podstawie przeprowadzonych studiów literaturowych, że potencjalne strategiczne czynniki innowacyjności przedsiębiorstw w obszarze wiedzy będą wyłonione z przyjętych przez autorkę wymiarów, dla których następnie zostaną określone obserwowalne zmienne pierwotne (por. rysunek 5).



Rysunek 5. Schemat postępowania w procesie określenia zmiennych pierwotnych dla celów badań własnych

##### 4.1. Wybrane wymiary strategicznych czynników wiedzy

W obszarze czynników wiedzy przyjęto dla celów opracowania następujące wymiary: (1) organizacja inteligentna, (2) kapitał intelektualny, (3) learning-by-doing, (4) know-how, (5) tacit knowledge, (6) crowdsourcing.

##### Organizacja inteligentna

Organizację inteligentną (*intelligent organization*) traktuje się jako wyższą formę organizacji uczącej się (Kłak, 2010, s. 189). Jest to taka organizacja, w której wiedza – ciągle oskonalona – traktowana jest jako najcenniejszy zasób. Organizację inteligentną można potraktować jako prototyp organizacji bliskiej idealnej, posiadający szczególnie wyróżniające go cechy spośród innych w otoczeniu, który charakteryzuje: systematyczne rozwiązywanie problemów, eksperymentowanie, uczenie się na podstawie zdobytych wcześniej doświadczeń, uczenie się od innych, przekazywanie wiedzy przez organizację szybko i efektywnie (Hejduk, 2003, s. 52–53). Organizację inteligentną cechują (Mikuła 2007, s. 51):

- Odrzucenie tradycyjnych struktur organizacji działalności, duża elastyczność poprzez stosowanie krótkotrwałych układów czynności roboczych, ciągłe prowadzenie procesu kwestionowania i zmiany podstawowych założeń, norm i reguł działania;
- Zdolność do znajdowania nowych pól aktywności (niemieszczących się w dotychczasowym otoczeniu) i posiadanie systemu wczesnego ostrzegania,



pozwalającego wyprzedzać nowe zdarzenia zachodzące w otoczeniu oraz rozmycie granic w zasięgu działalności, wykorzystywanych zasobów i instrumentów;

- Wysoki poziom przedsiębiorczości wewnętrznej, pełna wewnętrzna otwartość informacyjna, pozwalająca łatwo uzyskiwać informacje oraz umożliwiającą wolność wypowiedzi i pielęgnowanie odmienności zdań, co staje się podstawą wewnętrznego zróżnicowania;
- Ciągłe uczenie się – nie tylko na podstawie doświadczeń, ale także prowadzenie eksperymentów i prac badawczych;
- Partnerskie układy z dostawcami i klientami zewnętrznymi oraz innymi interesariuszami.

Tabela 4. Porównanie cech organizacji tradycyjnej i inteligentnej (opracowanie własne na podstawie: Mikula, 2007, s. 53)

Organizacja tradycyjna	Organizacja inteligentna
Praca wykorzystująca w pełni tylko wiedzę niewielkiej części pracowników.	Praca oparta na wiedzy wszystkich uczestników.
Struktura hierarchiczna.	Struktura sieciowa.
Funkcjonalny system zarządzania.	Centralne miejsce w systemie zarządzania zajmuje zarządzanie wiedzą i kapitałem intelektualnym.
Dominuje praca rutynowa, powtarzanie czynności i procedur.	Dominuje praca nad innowacjami (B+R) i w oparciu o rozwiązania innowacyjne.
Praca indywidualna i grupowa.	Praca zespołowa.
Praca polegająca na pełnieniu funkcji.	Praca projektowa.
Wykorzystanie indywidualnych zdolności.	Synergia w pracy zespołowej.
Silna pozycja kierowników (dążących niejednokrotnie do wzmocnienia pozycji i władzy oraz do autokratycznego kierowania).	Brak typowych stanowisk kierowniczych – a jeśli są, to menedżer jest trenerem i inspiratorem.
Orientacja do wewnątrz firmy na zachowanie równowagi wewnętrznej.	Orientacja na zewnątrz i tworzenie wartości globalnej.
Koordinacja z góry.	Koordinacja przez uczestników zespołów.

Wśród cech organizacji inteligentnej akcentowany jest dominujący charakter prac nad innowacjami. Cechy przedsiębiorstwa jako inteligentnej organizacji wpisują się w ciąg czynników, wskazywanych już jako istotne dla innowacyjności firm, np. praca zespołowa, praca projektowa, elastyczność struktury organizacyjnej, odejście od struktur hierarchicznych (por. tabela 4). Przedsiębiorstwo inteligentne tworzy klimat sprzyjający wewnętrznej przedsiębiorczości, uczeniu się i kreowaniu innowacji.

### Kapitał intelektualny

W organizacji inteligentnej bardzo ważną rolę odgrywa wysoki **kapitał intelektualny**. Koncepcja kapitału intelektualnego wyrosła na gruncie podejścia zasobowego. Źródłem przewagi konkurencyjnej są zróżnicowane zasoby i umiejętności, a współcześnie szczególnie istotne są zasoby wiedzy. Kapitał intelektualny, niewymierny w sensie księgowym, staje się źródłem przewagi konkurencyjnej – o tyle ważnym, że w praktyce rynkowej niemożliwym do imitacji. Można przyjąć, że kapitał ten tworzy „nowy kod genetyczny” organizacji opartych na wiedzy i zorientowanych na przyszłość (Morawski, 2005, s. 104).

Bliższą charakterystykę kapitału intelektualnego podają A. Jarugowa & J. Fijałkowska, według których (Jarugowa & Fijałkowska, 2002, s. 93–94):

- **Kapitał ludzki** obejmuje kompetencje i umiejętności pracowników; jest zintegrowany z człowiekiem (pracownikiem), jego wiedzą, zdolnościami, umiejętnościami,



wykształceniem, predyspozycjami zawodowymi, rutyną, z jego przedsiębiorczością, innowacyjnością, powiązaniem z klientami, dostawcami, współpracownikami i działaniami w firmie;

- **Kapitał strukturalny** składa się z kapitału organizacyjnego (wewnętrznego) – wiedzy akorzenionej w obszarach procesów organizacyjnych i innowacji oraz kapitału relacyjnego (zewnętrznego), będącego efektem dobrych relacji personelu organizacji z klientami i partnerami na rynkach, a także wizerunku (renomy) organizacji; kapitał ludzki jest wspierany przez kapitał strukturalny w postaci: sprzętu komputerowego, oprogramowania, baz danych, baz wiedzy, struktury organizacyjnej, *know-how*, marek, znaków handlowych, patentów, innowacji, relacji z klientami, ich lojalności, stałego udziału organizacji w zintegrowanych kanałach dystrybucji, jej kultury organizacyjnej, innowacyjnej, procesów zarządzania, systemu informacyjnego, a także powiązań finansowych organizacji i jej współpracy z innymi firmami - dostawcami usług, również w procesie innowacji.

Istotne znaczenie dla rozwoju kapitału intelektualnego ma poziom wykształcenia pracowników, a także szkolenia, konferencje, umożliwiające dzielenie się aktualną wiedzą i rozwój kompetencji. M. Mroziewski określa kapitał intelektualny jako koncepcyjną zdolność przedsiębiorstwa i osób w nim zatrudnionych do osiągania dochodów oraz budowania potencjału konkurencyjności w przyszłości, szczególnie w oparciu o aktywa intelektualne i relacje społeczne, ukierunkowane na poszukiwanie wiedzy, jej przetwarzanie, wzbogacanie i przekazywanie interesariuszom w postaci artefaktów rodzących różnorodne korzyści i postęp społeczno-gospodarczy (Mroziewski, 2008, s. 48). Tak rozumiany kapitał intelektualny należy postrzegać jako istotny czynnik wspierający innowacyjność przedsiębiorstw.

### **Tacit knowledge**

Od lat 90. XX w. propagowana jest rola wiedzy w budowaniu przewagi konkurencyjnej. Odstąpiono od utożsamiania jej tylko z wiedzą ludzi nauki i ze sferą badań i rozwoju. Wiedza stała się specyficznym zasobem przedsiębiorstwa, rozpatrywanym pod kątem wkładu, jaki wnosi w osiąganie jego celów (Kowalczyk & Nogalski, 2007, s. 21–40). Przedsiębiorstwo, aby było w pełni konkurencyjne na globalnym i lokalnym rynku, powinno spełniać następujące warunki: posiadać i absorbować odpowiednią wiedzę oraz umieć posiadaną wiedzę wykorzystać (Kisielnicki, 2008, s. 262).

Z punktu widzenia przedsiębiorstwa ważne jest znaczenie zasobów wiedzy dla realizacji celów firmy. B. Kożuch przedstawia klasyfikację rodzajów wiedzy według jej znaczenia dla przedsiębiorstwa, wyróżniając (Kożuch, 2009, s. 57):

- Wiedzę kluczową technologiczną, będącą wyróżnikiem organizacji, czyli wiedzę, która odróżnia firmę od innych konkurujących jednostek;
- Wiedzę kluczową koordynacyjną, czyli wiedzę o wiedzy, opartą m.in. Na przyjętych wzorcach postępowania, konkretnych układach interpersonalnych i przepływie informacji;
- Wiedzę pomocniczą, czyli taką, która nie została wytworzona w organizacji, ale jest przez nią wykorzystywana, np. Zakupione oprogramowanie lub licencja;
- Wiedzę rynkową, stanowiącą odzwierciedlenie zrozumienia w przedsiębiorstwie procesów rynkowych.

W literaturze przedmiotu podkreśla się, że do generowania i absorpcji innowacji potrzebna jest nie tylko wiedza, wyniesiona w procesie formalnego kształcenia, ale także wiedza płynąca z posiadanego doświadczenia. Z punktu widzenia innowacyjności przedsiębiorstwa, warto więc przywołać podział wiedzy na: wiedzę dostępną, zwaną też jawną (*explicit knowledge*) i wiedzę ukrytą, zwaną też cichą (*tacit knowledge*). Jak twierdzą I. Nonaka i H. Takeuchi, wiedza dostępna (*explicit knowledge*), wyrażana w języku formalnym, może być przekazywana



w postaci danych, uniwersalnych zasad, skodyfikowanych procedur. Natomiast wiedza ukryta (tacit knowledge), spersonalizowana, zawarta w jednostkowym doświadczeniu – obejmuje osobiste przekonania, nastawienia, wartości, a także intuicję, jest więc rezultatem zdolności i doświadczeń (Nonaka & Takeuchi, 2000). Na ukrytą wiedzę składają się także rutynowe zachowania, mechanizmy działania i normy charakterystyczne dla danej organizacji (Jashapara, 2014, s. 35). Wiedza ta przyrasta wraz ze wzrostem doświadczenia. Wiedza formalna nie reprezentuje bowiem tego wszystkiego, co „wie” przedsiębiorstwo jako organizacja.

Procesy innowacji stwarzają warunki dla wychodzenia poza aktualną wiedzę i przyczyniają się do powstawania nowej wiedzy, w tym wiedzy podmiotowej (jawnej i ukrytej). Wyniki badania przeprowadzonego wśród 71 hiszpańskich firm konsultingowych pokazują, że pozyskanie wiedzy i doskonalenie technik integracji wiedzy prowadzą do wzrostu innowacyjności przedsiębiorstw (Pichlak, 2012, s. 67–70).

### **Learning-by-doing**

Innowacyjność przedsiębiorstwa bazuje na ciągłym procesie uczenia się, w tym uczenia się przez działanie (learning-by-doing). Przedsiębiorstwo czerpie bowiem swoją wiedzę z przeżytych doświadczeń, z analiz przyczyn sukcesów i niepowodzeń. *Learning-by-doing*, z jednej strony, można wiązać z pracą na danym stanowisku, jak i rotacją na stanowiskach pracy. Wiedza wywodząca się z doświadczenia, powstaje dzięki różnorodnym kontaktom wewnątrz firmy, przepływie informacji, a także dzięki interakcjom zewnętrznym: z klientami, dostawcami, miejscową społecznością (Zimniewicz, 1999, s. 84).

Uczenie się przez działanie (learning-by-doing) można traktować jako narzędzie transferu wiedzy ukrytej. Konieczne jest zarówno analizowanie dobrych praktyk, jak i porażek, aby wykorzystać wnioski z doświadczenia w następnych okresach działalności.

### **Know-how**

Badania pokazują, że strukturę wiedzy tworzy dużym stopniu dotychczasowe doświadczenie. Dzięki niemu powstaje techniczny wymiar wiedzy ukrytej, wyrażony w wiedzy praktycznej *know-how*. Termin *know-how* może być rozumiany jako istotne, ważne informacje poufne, zidentyfikowane we właściwej formie.

W. Walczak stwierdza, że pojęcie *know-how* jest utożsamiane ze zdobytym doświadczeniem, a więc nie obejmuje tylko wiedzy jawnej (*explicit knowledge*), dającej się łatwo kodyfikować, ale również powstaje na bazie wiedzy ukrytej (*tacit knowledge*), która jest trudna do identyfikacji, wyceny i transferu. Co więcej, jest to wiedza ucieleśniona w ludzkim umyśle, i tylko od woli oraz chęci posiadającej ją osoby zależy, czy będzie ona chciała się tą wiedzą podzielić z innymi. W wielu przypadkach może to być cenna wiedza dostępna jedynie dla wąskiego grona osób, które stają się jej depozytariuszami dzięki zajmowanemu stanowisku, dostępowi do ważnych informacji służbowych, związanych z działalnością danego przedsiębiorstwa (Walczak, 2011, s. 22).

### **Crowdsourcing**

Twórca koncepcji *crowdsourcingu*, J. Howe, zwraca uwagę na możliwość rozwiązywania różnego typu problemów przy wykorzystaniu zewnętrznego źródła wiedzy, jakim są niezdefiniowane grupy ludzi, głównie społeczności internetowe (Howe, 2008, s. 21). Idea *crowdsourcingu* zakłada, że grupa ma szerszą wiedzę niż poszczególne jednostki, ponieważ dzięki efektowi synergii efekt współdziałania jednostek jest wyższy niż suma rezultatów indywidualnych działań. Wykorzystanie mądrości „tłumu”, która może stać się dla przedsiębiorstwa źródłem innowacji, uzależnione jest od pewnych czynników, wśród których wymienia się: aktywność pasjonatów, powstanie ruchu otwartej wynalazczości w dziedzinie



oprogramowania, zwiększenie dostępności narzędzi produkcji oraz powstanie społeczności internetowych, które są zorganizowane w oparciu o interesy poszczególnych jednostek i ich zainteresowania (Howe, 2008, s. 17–18). Przedsiębiorstwo powierza np. rozwiązanie zadania nieokreślonej grupie ludzi, w formie otwartego zaproszenia za pośrednictwem Internetu, z zamiarem wykorzystania rozwiązania. Zadanie zostaje wykonane przez osoby, które nie są powiązane z firmą, nieodpłatnie lub za relatywnie niskim wynagrodzeniem.

W ramach realizacji idei *crowdsourcingu* w procesie innowacji, przedsiębiorstwa wykorzystują dwa podejścia:

- Podejście społeczne – zakładające wykorzystanie już istniejących sieci, wspólnot, w tym profesjonalnych wspólnot praktyków;
- Podejście technologiczne – zakładające dotarcie do ekspertów z różnych dziedzin, a następnie zaproszenie ich do zgłaszania rozwiązań w ogłoszonych konkursach.

Firmy mogą tworzyć internetowe platformy, umożliwiające włączenie wymienionych członków społeczeństwa w procesy innowacji. *Crowdsourcing* może stanowić czynnik innowacyjności przedsiębiorstw, zwłaszcza małych i średnich firm, jako alternatywne i często tańsze źródło pozyskiwania innowacji.

#### 4.2. Opis procedury przeprowadzonych badań empirycznych

Dobrana próba celowa obejmuje 550 działających w Polsce małych i średnich innowacyjnych przedsiębiorstw przemysłowych, których podstawowy przedmiot działalności mieści się w sekcji C według PKD 2007 – *Przetwórstwo przemysłowe*. Za innowacyjne uznano takie przedsiębiorstwo, które w badanym trzyletnim okresie (2011 – 2013) wprowadziło co najmniej jedną innowację w obrębie produktu, w obrębie procesu, marketingową lub organizacyjną. Przyjęto definiowanie małych i średnich przedsiębiorstw na podstawie kryterium liczby zatrudnionych (odpowiednio: 10 – 49 i 50 – 249), przy czym określenie „małe i średnie przedsiębiorstwa” nie jest w niniejszym opracowaniu równoznaczne z pojęciem tzw. sektora małych i średnich przedsiębiorstw (MŚP).

Zasadnicze badania ilościowe zrealizowano techniką wywiadu CAWI (Computer Assisted Web Interview), w II kwartale 2014 r. Dla umożliwienia przeprowadzenia badania on-line poprzez stworzoną stronę internetową, opracowano wersję elektroniczną autorskiego kwestionariusza ankiety, obejmującej pytania potrzebne dla realizacji celów badawczych.

Do każdego z przedsiębiorstw należących do celowej próby badawczej (znajdujących się na stworzonej liście adresowej) wysłany został *e-mail*, skierowany do prezesa/ dyrektora/ właściciela firmy, z prośbą o osobiste wypełnienie ankiety. Po upływie tygodnia, tą samą drogą ponowiono prośbę. Respondentami były zatem osoby zarządzające badanymi przedsiębiorstwami: członkowie zarządu, dyrektorzy, właściciele firm.

#### 4.3. Struktura badanych przedsiębiorstw

W podrozdziale scharakteryzowano badaną grupę przedsiębiorstw, w świetle wyników przeprowadzonych ilościowych badań empirycznych. Przedstawiono aspekty działalności innowacyjnej firm, będących podmiotem własnych badań empirycznych.

W badanej grupie firm małe przedsiębiorstwa stanowiły 42,2%, a przedsiębiorstwa średnie – 57,8%

Tabela 5. Struktura badanych przedsiębiorstw według wielkości, N=180

Lp.	Wielkość firmy	Liczba firm	Udział procentowy
1	Firma mała	76	42,2
2	Firma średnia	104	57,8
Ogółem		180	100,0



## 5. Znaczenie strategiczne czynników wiedzy dla innowacyjności

Na potrzeby badania, w obszarze czynników wiedzy zdefiniowano szesnaście zmiennych pierwotnych, przedstawionych w tabeli 6. Zmienne te stanowiły sedno zasadniczego tematycznie pytania w autorskim narzędziu badawczym.

Tabela 6. Czynniki wiedzy wpływające na innowacyjność przedsiębiorstw (zmienne pierwotne)

Czynniki wiedzy – zmienne pierwotne	
W 1	Wiedza i kompetencje technologiczne właściciela (zarządu) firmy
W 2	Wysokie kwalifikacje kadry kierowniczej
W 3	Wysokie kompetencje technologiczne pracowników
W 4	Wysokie umiejętności i doświadczenie badawcze pracowników
W 5	Wysokie umiejętności produkcyjne pracowników
W 6	Dzielenie się pracownikami posiadaną wiedzą niejawną ( <i>tacit knowledge</i> )
W 7	Prowadzenie portalu umożliwiającego wymianę wiedzy pomiędzy pracownikami
W 8	Zarządzanie wiedzą w firmie (bazy wiedzy, portale wiedzy)
W 9	Dobra znajomość rynku i zachowań konkurentów
W 10	Uczenie się poprzez działanie ( <i>learning-by-doing</i> )
W 11	Zdobywanie umiejętności typu <i>know how</i>
W 12	Odbywanie przez pracowników staży i praktyk zawodowych poza firmą
W 13	System zachęt i wsparcie finansowe dla pracowników podnoszących swoje kwalifikacje (kursy, szkolenia, studia podyplomowe, studia doktoranckie)
W 14	Udział pracowników w konferencjach i sympozjach naukowych
W 15	Kapitał intelektualny traktowany jako najważniejszy zasób firmy
W 16	Korzystanie z mądrości użytkowników Internetu ( <i>crowdsourcing</i> )

Respondenci dokonali oceny strategicznego znaczenia wymienionych zmiennych pierwotnych dla innowacyjności firmy, w skali od 1 do 5 (tabela 7). Użyto SPSS Statistics.

Tabela 7. Ocena strategicznego znaczenia czynników wiedzy (zmiennych pierwotnych) dla innowacyjności firmy, N=180

Lp.	Czynniki wiedzy – zmienne pierwotne		Średnia ocen	Odchylenie standardowe
1	W 2	Wysokie kwalifikacje kadry kierowniczej	4,00	1,030
2	W 5	Wysokie umiejętności produkcyjne pracowników	3,99	1,019
3	W 11	Zdobywanie umiejętności typu <i>know how</i>	3,99	1,014
4	W 9	Dobra znajomość rynku i zachowań konkurentów	3,94	1,102
5	W 1	Wiedza i kompetencje technologiczne właściciela (zarządu)	3,89	1,162
6	W 3	Wysokie kompetencje technologiczne pracowników	3,88	0,959
7	W 10	Uczenie się poprzez działanie ( <i>learning-by-doing</i> )	3,76	1,016
8	W 15	Kapitał intelektualny traktowany jako najważniejszy zasób	3,68	0,983
9	W 8	Zarządzanie wiedzą w firmie (bazy wiedzy, portale wiedzy)	3,66	0,970
10	W 4	Wysokie umiejętności i doświadczenie badawcze pracowników	3,54	1,198
11	W 6	Dzielenie się pracownikami posiadaną wiedzą niejawną ( <i>tacit</i> )	3,50	1,096
12	W 13	System zachęt i wsparcie finansowe dla pracowników podnoszących swoje kwalifikacje (kursy, szkolenia, studia)	3,33	1,191
13	W 14	Udział pracowników w konferencjach i sympozjach naukowych	3,29	1,156
14	W 16	Korzystanie z mądrości użytkowników Internetu	3,01	1,170
15	W 12	Odbywanie przez pracowników staży i praktyk poza firmą	2,93	1,235
16	W 7	Prowadzenie portalu umożliwiającego wymianę wiedzy	2,62	1,188





Najwyższa średnia uzyskanych ocen odnosiła się do wysokich kwalifikacji kadry kierowniczej, wysokich umiejętności pracowników oraz zdobywania umiejętności typu *know-how*.

### 5.1. Analiza czynnikowa

Przeprowadzona na podstawie uzyskanych danych empirycznych eksploracyjna analiza czynnikowa, bazująca na metodzie głównych składowych (PCA – Principal Component Analysis), pozwoliła na wyodrębnienie **pięciu głównych składowych**, czyli nowych, nieskorelowanych czynników, które zachowują maksimum oryginalnej wariancji danych.

Według wyników analizy, główne składowe posiadają wartości własne wyższe od 1 oraz łącznie wyjaśniają prawie 56% zmienności czynnikowej (por. tabela 8).

Ilustracją istotności głównych składowych jest wykres ‘osypiska’ (Cattell, 1996, s. 245–276), przedstawiony na rysunku 6. Poprowadzona na tym wykresie pozioma linia odcięcia pokazuje, że dla kolejnych składowych poczynając od szóstej następują już minimalne spadki wartości własnych, tworzą one więc tzw. ‘osypisko czynników’, które nie mają znaczenia strategicznego.

Tabela 8. Macierz wartości własnych głównych składowych – wstępnych potencjalnych strategicznych czynników wiedzy,  $N=180$

Całkowita wyjaśniona wariancja									
Składowa	Początkowe wartości własne			Sumy kwadratów ładunków po wyodrębnieniu			Sumy kwadratów ładunków po rotacji		
	Ogółem	% wariancji	% skumulowany	Ogółem	% wariancji	% skumulowany	Ogółem	% wariancji	% skumulowany
1	2,964	18,526	18,526	2,964	18,526	18,526	2,474	15,462	15,462
2	2,286	14,288	32,814	2,286	14,288	32,814	1,942	12,136	27,598
3	1,347	8,421	41,235	1,347	8,421	41,235	1,678	10,487	38,086
4	1,252	7,827	49,062	1,252	7,827	49,062	1,462	9,141	47,226
5	1,106	6,909	55,972	1,106	6,909	55,972	1,399	8,745	55,972
6	1,033	6,459	62,430						
7	0,945	5,908	68,338						
8	0,881	5,505	73,843						
9	0,768	4,799	78,643						
10	0,714	4,460	83,102						
11	0,607	3,795	86,897						
12	0,527	3,296	90,193						
13	0,471	2,943	93,136						
14	0,415	2,592	95,728						
15	0,397	2,481	98,210						
16	0,286	1,790	100,000						

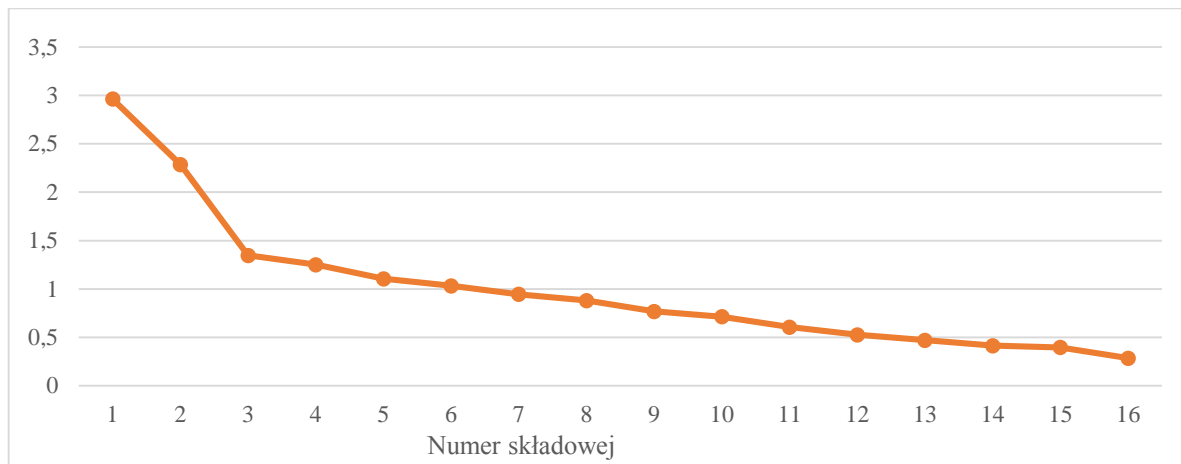
Metoda wyodrębniania czynników – głównych składowych.

W przypadku czynników wiedzy, wartość indeksu K-M-O wyniosła 0,630, co uzasadnia zastosowanie analizy czynnikowej. Wysoka wartość testu sferyczności Bartletta wynosząca 546,331 pozwala na odrzucenie hipotezy zerowej, na poziomie istotności 0,000. Test ten potwierdza zasadność stosowania analizy czynnikowej.

Wyniki eksploracyjnej analizy czynnikowej wskazują na występowanie struktury w zbiorze zmiennych, w ramach której wyróżniono pięć głównych składowych. Szczegółowe rezultaty eksploracyjnej analizy czynnikowej czynników wiedzy – analizy głównych składowych przedstawiono tabeli 9. Im większa jest wartość ładunku czynnikowego



(współczynnika korelacji), tym większy jest wpływ zmiennej pierwotnej na wyodrębniony wstępny potencjalny czynnik strategiczny innowacyjności firm.



Rysunek 6. Wykres osypiska – główne składowe w obszarze czynników wiedzy, N=180

Tabela 9. Macierz rotowanych składowych w eksploracyjnej analizie czynnikowej strategicznych czynników innowacyjności przedsiębiorstw – czynników wiedzy, N=180

Czynniki wiedzy – zmienne pierwotne	Strategiczne czynniki wiedzy				
	1	2	3	4	5
W 10. Uczenie się poprzez działanie ( <i>learning-by-doing</i> )	<b>0,741</b>	0,111	-0,205	0,287	-0,017
W 1. Wiedza i kompetencje technologiczne właściciela (zarządu) firmy	<b>0,734</b>	-0,094	0,037	-0,053	0,012
W 11. Zdobywanie umiejętności typu <i>know how</i>	<b>0,710</b>	0,049	0,178	0,185	-0,029
W 9. Dobra znajomość rynku i zachowań konkurentów	<b>0,668</b>	0,018	0,386	-0,196	-0,040
W 2. Wysokie kwalifikacje kadry kierowniczej	<b>0,388</b>	-0,248	0,347	0,320	0,129
W 12. Odbywanie przez pracowników staży i praktyk zawodowych poza firmą	-0,107	<b>0,692</b>	0,023	-0,095	0,043
W 13. System zachęt i wsparcie finansowe dla pracowników podnoszących swoje kwalifikacje (kursy, szkolenia, studia podyplomowe, studia doktoranckie)	0,004	<b>0,673</b>	0,171	0,184	0,117
W 6. Dzielenie się pracownikami posiadaną wiedzą niejawną ( <i>tacit knowledge</i> )	0,245	<b>0,585</b>	-0,163	0,020	0,104
W 14. Udział pracowników w konferencjach i sympozjach naukowych	0,000	<b>0,485</b>	0,111	0,470	-0,108
W 16. Korzystanie z mądrości użytkowników Internetu ( <i>crowdsourcing</i> )	0,034	0,028	<b>0,757</b>	0,118	0,065
W 15. Kapitał intelektualny traktowany jako najważniejszy zasób firmy	0,318	0,044	<b>0,597</b>	0,036	0,019
W 7. Prowadzenie portalu umożliwiającego wymianę wiedzy pomiędzy pracownikami	-0,172	0,506	<b>0,536</b>	-0,095	0,067
W 5. Wysokie umiejętności produkcyjne pracowników	0,083	0,022	0,038	<b>0,851</b>	0,005
W 8. Zarządzanie wiedzą w firmie (bazy wiedzy, portale wiedzy)	-0,003	-0,003	-0,054	-0,124	<b>0,760</b>
W 4. Wysokie umiejętności i doświadczenie badawcze pracowników	-0,182	0,297	0,192	0,004	<b>0,648</b>
W 3. Wysokie kompetencje technologiczne pracowników	0,205	0,021	0,081	0,417	<b>0,579</b>

Metoda wyodrębniania czynników – głównych składowych.  
Metoda rotacji – *Varimax* z normalizacją Kaisera. Rotacja osiągnęła zbieżność w 7 iteracjach.



Zmienne pierwotne zostały pogrupowane w czynniki – zmienne latentne, traktowane jako wstępne potencjalne strategiczne czynniki innowacyjności przedsiębiorstw – czynniki wiedzy. Zostały one przedstawione w tabeli 10, oznaczone jako CW1, CW2, CW3, CW4 i CW5.

W drugim etapie analizy czynnikowej przeprowadzona została confirmacyjna analiza czynnikowa w odniesieniu do wstępnych potencjalnych czynników strategicznych innowacyjności przedsiębiorstw – czynników wiedzy. Analiza confirmacyjna potwierdziła istotność czterech czynników: **CW1, CW2, CW3 i CW5**. Stanowią one istotne czynniki wpływające dodatnio na innowacyjność firm, a zatem są potencjalnymi strategicznymi czynnikami innowacyjności przedsiębiorstw w obszarze czynników wiedzy.

Tabela 10. Wstępne potencjalne strategiczne czynniki innowacyjności przedsiębiorstw – czynniki wiedzy, uzyskane na podstawie przeprowadzonej eksploracyjnej analizy czynnikowej, N=180

<b>Czynnik CW1. Uczenie się firmy w celu poniesienia jej wartości rynkowej</b>		
	W 10	Uczenie się poprzez działanie ( <i>learning-by-doing</i> )
	W 1	Wiedza i kompetencje technologiczne właściciela (zarządu) firmy
	W 11	Zdobywanie umiejętności typu <i>know how</i>
	W 9	Dobra znajomość rynku i zachowań konkurentów
	W 2	Wysokie kwalifikacje kadry kierowniczej
<b>Czynnik CW2. Umiejętne korzystanie z wiedzy zewnętrznej</b>		
	W 12	Odbywanie przez pracowników staży i praktyk zawodowych poza firmą
	W 13	System zachęt i wsparcie finansowe dla pracowników podnoszących swoje kwalifikacje (kursy, szkolenia, studia podyplomowe, studia doktoranckie)
	W 6	Dzielenie się pracownikami posiadaną wiedzą niejawną ( <i>tacit knowledge</i> )
	W 14	Udział pracowników w konferencjach i sympozjach naukowych
<b>Czynnik CW3. Umiejętne wykorzystanie zasobów kapitału intelektualnego</b>		
	W 16	Korzystanie z mądrości użytkowników Internetu ( <i>crowdsourcing</i> )
	W 15	Kapitał intelektualny traktowany jako najważniejszy zasób firmy
	W 7	Prowadzenie portalu umożliwiającego wymianę wiedzy pomiędzy pracownikami
<b>Czynnik CW4. Umiejętności produkcyjne</b>		
	W 5	Wysokie umiejętności produkcyjne pracowników
<b>Czynnik CW5. Wiedza oraz kompetencje technologiczne i badawcze pracowników</b>		
	W 8	Zarządzanie wiedzą w firmie (bazy wiedzy, portale wiedzy)
	W3	Wysokie umiejętności i doświadczenie badawcze pracowników
	W 4	Wysokie kompetencje technologiczne pracowników

W świetle wyników analizy czynnikowej, czynnik CW1 (uczenie się firmy w celu poniesienia jej wartości rynkowej) jest najbardziej powiązany z uczeniem się poprzez działanie (*learning-by-doing*), czynnik CW2 (umiejętne korzystanie z wiedzy zewnętrznej) ma najsilniejszy związek z odbywaniem przez pracowników staży i praktyk zawodowych poza firmą, czynnik CW3 (umiejętne wykorzystanie zasobów kapitału intelektualnego) jest najsilniej powiązany z korzystaniem z mądrości użytkowników Internetu (*crowdsourcing*), a czynnik CW5 (wiedza oraz kompetencje technologiczne i badawcze pracowników) wykazuje najsilniejszy związek z zarządzaniem wiedzą w firmie (bazami wiedzy, portalami wiedzy).

Wyznaczone na podstawie analizy confirmacyjnej czynników wiedzy cztery potencjalne czynniki strategiczne: (CW1) uczenie się firmy w celu poniesienia jej wartości rynkowej, (CW2) szerokie korzystanie z wiedzy zewnętrznej, (CW3) umiejętnie wykorzystanie zasobów kapitału intelektualnego, (CW5) wiedza oraz kompetencje technologiczne i badawcze pracowników.



## 5.2. Modelowanie równań strukturalnych

Podstawą do modelowania równań strukturalnych (SEM – Structural Equation Modelling) stały się wyniki badań empirycznych, jak i wyniki przeprowadzonej konfirmacyjnej analizy czynnikowej z podejściem eksploracyjnym.

W dalszych rozważaniach pojęcie czynnika będzie oznaczać zmienną latentną (nieobserwowalną) reprezentującą jedną lub więcej obserwowalnych zmiennych pierwotnych. Modelowanie równań strukturalnych jest jedną z metod statystycznych stosowanych do badania relacji między zmiennymi obserwowalnymi a czynnikami, obejmującymi przyczynowość nieobserwowalną czynnika. Metoda ta pozwala analizować **zależności przyczynowo-skutkowe** między zmiennymi. W modelu równań strukturalnych są wyznaczane i podlegają interpretacji niestandardyzowane i standardyzowane współczynniki regresji wielorakiej, nazywane **współczynnikami ścieżkowymi**, przy czym:

- Niestandardyzowane współczynniki ścieżkowe pokazują, o ile jednostek zmieni się wartość zmiennej objaśnianej, gdy o jedną jednostkę zmieni się wartość zmiennej objaśniającej;
- Standardyzowane współczynniki ścieżkowe informują, o ile swoich odchyłeń standardowych zmieni się wartość zmiennej objaśnianej, gdy o jedno odchylenie standardowe zmieni się wartość zmiennej objaśniającej.

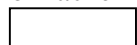
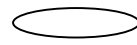

Im wyższa jest wartość współczynnika ścieżkowego, tym zmienna ma większy wpływ na badane zjawisko.

Model równań strukturalnych, przedstawiony w niniejszym podrozdziale, uwzględnia obserwowalne zmienne pierwotne oraz nieobserwowalne zmienne latentne. **Część pomiarowa** modelu opisuje relacje pomiędzy zmiennymi latentnymi i ich wskaźnikami cząstkowymi (zmiennymi pierwotnymi). **Część strukturalna** modelu prezentuje wynikające zależności przyczynowo-skutkowe między zmiennymi latentnymi.

Najważniejsze informacje z punktu widzenia celu niniejszej pracy dotyczą analizy wpływu potencjalnych czynników strategicznych innowacyjności firm, wyznaczonych w ramach analizy czynnikowej, na innowacyjność przedsiębiorstw. Stąd też zbudowany model powstał przy założeniu, że istnieje zależność przyczynowo-skutkowa pomiędzy potencjalnymi strategicznymi czynnikami w danym obszarze a innowacyjnością przedsiębiorstw. W modelu tym, z jednej strony – potencjalne czynniki strategiczne mają charakter egzogenicznych zmiennych latentnych, które są mierzone przez zestaw obserwowalnych zmiennych pierwotnych. Z drugiej strony, innowacyjność przedsiębiorstw jest endogeniczną zmienną latentną, mierzona przyjętymi miernikami, stanowiącymi zmienne obserwowalne.

### Oznaczenia zastosowane w modelu równań strukturalnych

Model równań strukturalnych może być przedstawiony w formie zestawu równań lub schematu graficznego. W niniejszym opracowaniu przyjęto prezentację graficzną, stosując oznaczenia:

-  – zmienna obserwowalna,
-  – zmienna nieobserwowalna (latentna),
-  – zależność przyczynowo-skutkowa,

- Wielkość nad strzałką oznacza współczynnik ścieżki;
- Wielkość obok zmiennej obserwowalnej oznacza współczynnik determinacji  $R^2$ ;
- INN oznacza INNOWACYJNOŚĆ przedsiębiorstwa;
- e – składnik losowy zmiennej;
- P15 W1 – P15W16 – zmienne pierwotne W1 –W16.

Innowacyjność przedsiębiorstw, jako ukryta zmienna endogeniczna, jest objaśniana przez trzy czynniki: **F1**, **F2** i **F3**, przy czym:



**zmienna F1** oznaczająca wyniki przedsiębiorstwa mierzone liczbą wdrożonych innowacji w latach 2011 – 2013 jest objaśniana przez:

- P1.1 – łączną liczbę innowacji produktowych w latach 2011 – 2013;
- P1.2 – łączną liczbę innowacji procesowych w latach 2011 – 2013;
- P1.3 – łączną liczbę innowacji organizacyjnych w latach 2011 – 2013;
- P1.4 – łączną liczbę innowacji marketingowych w latach 2011 – 2013.

**zmienna F2** oznaczająca aktywność finansową w zakresie innowacji mierzoną średnim udziałem nakładów na innowacje w przychodach firmy w latach 2011 – 2013 jest objaśniana przez:

- P2.1 – średni procentowy udział nakładów ogółem na działalność innowacyjną w przychodach firmy w latach 2011 – 2013;
- P2.2 – średni procentowy udział nakładów na działalność badawczo-rozwojową w nakładach na działalność innowacyjną w latach 2011 – 2013.

**zmienna F3** oznaczająca własność intelektualną mierzoną łączną liczbą uzyskanych w latach 2011 – 2013: patentów, praw z rejestracji wzoru przemysłowego, praw ochronnych na wzór użytkowy jest objaśniana przez:

- P3.1 – łączną liczbę uzyskanych patentów w latach 2011 – 2013;
- P3.2 – łączną liczbę uzyskanych praw z rejestracji wzoru przemysłowego w latach 2011 – 2013;
- P3.3 – łączną liczbę uzyskanych praw ochronnych na wzór użytkowy w latach 2011 – 2013.

Poniżej przedstawiono model równań strukturalnych, zbudowany dla potrzeb opracowania. W modelowaniu równań strukturalnych posłużono się programem IBM SPSS Statistics AMOS.

### **5.3. Model – czynniki wiedzy jako strategiczne czynniki innowacyjności przedsiębiorstw**

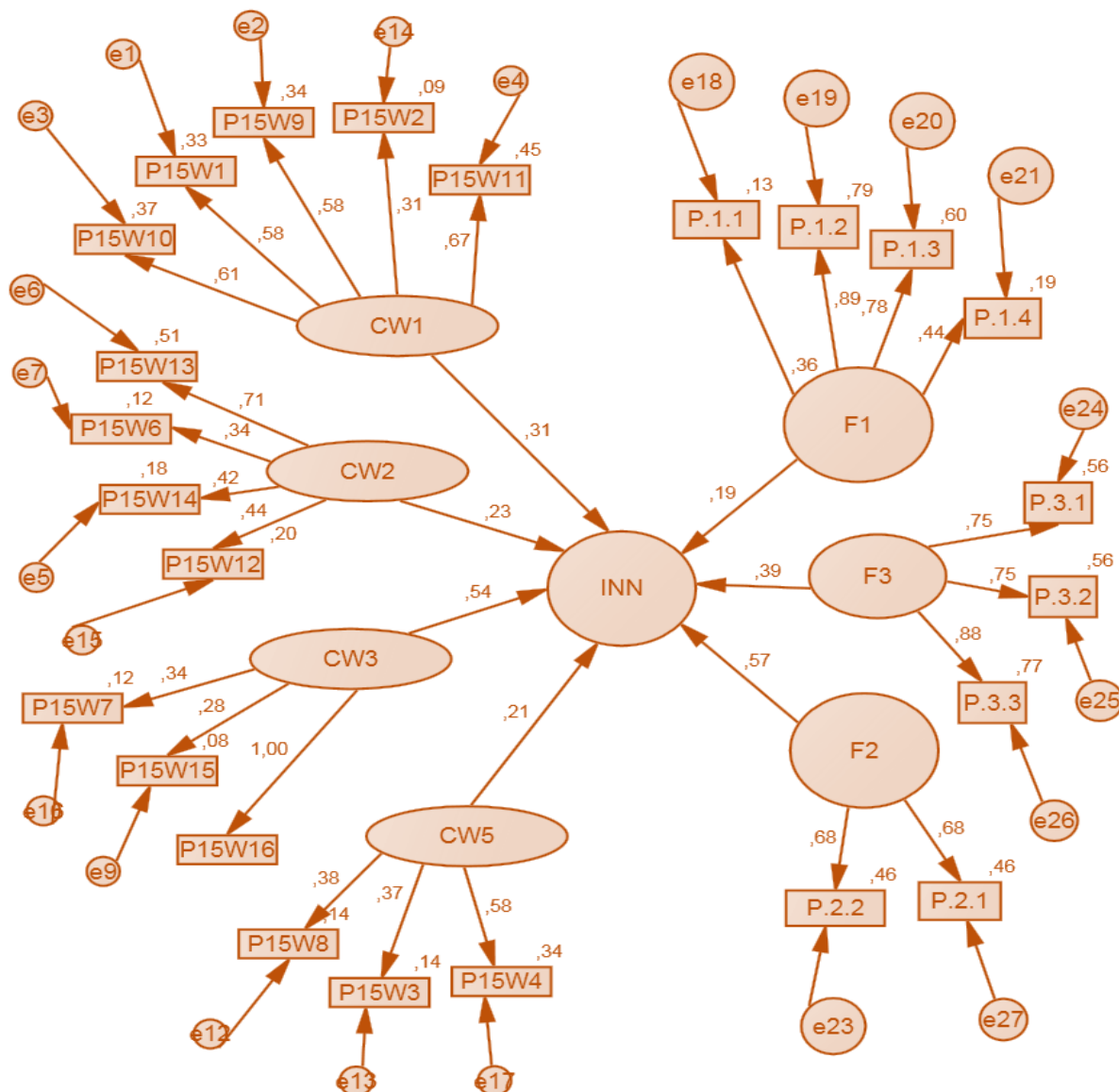
W modelu dotyczącym wpływu potencjalnych strategicznych czynników innowacyjności przedsiębiorstw – czynników wiedzy na innowacyjność przedsiębiorstw, przedstawionym na rysunku 7, uwzględniono jako latentne zmienne egzogeniczne następujące czynniki:

- CW1 – *Uczenie się firmy w celu poniesienia jej wartości rynkowej;*
- CW2 – *Umiejętne korzystanie z wiedzy zewnętrznej;*
- CW3 – *Umiejętne wykorzystanie zasobów kapitału intelektualnego;*
- CW5 – *Wiedza oraz kompetencje technologiczne i badawcze pracowników.*

Ukrytą zmienną endogeniczną jest innowacyjność przedsiębiorstwa, objaśniana przez trzy czynniki: F1, F2 i F3.

W zaprezentowanym modelu – w ramach tzw. modeli pomiarowych występują relatywnie silne oraz statystycznie istotne związki – pomiędzy każdą ze zmiennych egzogenicznych (CW1, CW2, CW3, CZ5) a objaśniającymi ją zmiennymi pierwotnymi (por. rysunek 7). Pozytywnie należy również interpretować zależności pomiędzy innowacyjnością przedsiębiorstwa (ukrytą zmienną endogeniczną) a jej czynnikami F1, F2, F3 (przyjętymi miernikami innowacyjności), objaśnianymi przez przyjęte dla nich zmienne obserwowalne, opisujące innowacyjność przedsiębiorstwa.

Model strukturalny odnosi się do głównego problemu modelowania, tj. wpływu potencjalnych czynników strategicznych na innowacyjność przedsiębiorstw, odzwierciedlając związki przyczynowe pomiędzy każdym z czynników: CW1, CW2, CW3, CW5, a innowacyjnością przedsiębiorstwa. Analiza tych związków prowadzi do wniosku, że najistotniejszy dodatni wpływ na innowacyjność przedsiębiorstw ma czynnik **CW3** – „**Umiejętne wykorzystanie kapitału intelektualnego**” (współczynnik ścieżkowy 0,54).



Rysunek 7. Model 4 – Wpływ czynników wiedzy – czynników strategicznych na innowacyjność przedsiębiorstw (opracowanie własne na podstawie przeprowadzonych badań, N = 180)

Na podstawie uzyskanych wyników należy więc przyjąć, że w obszarze czynników wiedzy **strategicznym czynnikiem innowacyjności przedsiębiorstw**, czyli czynnikiem, który ma najistotniejszy dodatni wpływ na innowacyjność jest czynnik:

- **CW3 – „Umiejętne wykorzystanie zasobów kapitału intelektualnego”**, opisany przez zmienne objaśniające<sup>1</sup>: korzystanie z mądrości użytkowników Internetu (crowdsourcing), prowadzenie portalu umożliwiającego wymianę wiedzy pomiędzy pracownikami, kapitał intelektualny traktowany jako najważniejszy zasób firmy.

<sup>1</sup> Zmienne objaśniające wymieniono w kolejności od największego do najmniejszego współczynnika ścieżki.



Analiza związków między czynnikiem CW3 a zmiennymi objaśniającymi pokazuje, że największe znaczenie dla jego opisu, odzwierciedlone współczynnikiem ścieżkowym 1,00 ma zmienna W16 – *Korzystanie z mądrości użytkowników Internetu (crowdsourcing)*.

## 6. Podsumowanie

Wyniki przeprowadzonych badań i analiz empirycznych w obszarze czynników wiedzy wskazują na strategiczne znaczenie umiejętnego wykorzystania zasobów kapitału intelektualnego dla innowacyjności przedsiębiorstw. Potwierdzają potrzebę traktowania kapitału intelektualnego w kategoriach zasobu przedsiębiorstwa, i to zasobu najważniejszego dla przetrwania i rozwoju firmy.

Analiza empiryczna, przeprowadzona metodą confirmacyjnej analizy czynnikowej z podejściem eksploracyjnym oraz metodą modelowania równań strukturalnych, pozwala na sformułowanie następujących **rekomendacji dla praktyki zarządzania**:

1. Innowacyjność przedsiębiorstw jest zjawiskiem wielowymiarowym, wywołanym wpływem wielu czynników.
2. Menedżerowie przedsiębiorstw powinni zdawać sobie sprawę z tego, iż istnieje możliwość określenia istotności czynników determinujących innowacyjność firmy oraz wyodrębnienia tych, które mają znaczenie strategiczne. To te czynniki powinny być priorytetem w zarządzaniu rozwojem firmy zorientowanej na innowacje.
3. Małe i średnie przedsiębiorstwa przemysłowe powinny traktować kapitał intelektualny jako zasób strategiczny, najważniejszy zasób firmy. W jego rozwoju może pomóc prowadzenie portalu umożliwiającego wymianę wiedzy pomiędzy pracownikami. Należy także w coraz większym stopniu korzystać z mądrości użytkowników Internetu (crowdsourcing).

Przedstawione rekomendacje dla praktyki zarządzania, jakie płyną z uzyskanych analiz, wskazują na sposób, w jaki menedżerowie powinni stymulować wzrost innowacyjności zarządzanych przez nich przedsiębiorstw.

## Wnioski otwarte

Przeprowadzona analiza dotycząca strategicznego znaczenia czynników wiedzy dla innowacyjności przedsiębiorstw, jako najistotniejszych czynników pozytywnie wpływających na tworzenie i wdrażanie innowacji przy zaangażowaniu w procesy innowacyjne, nie wyczerpuje jednak zagadnienia. Jest ono bowiem złożone i wielowątkowe.

Uzyskane wyniki dają podstawę do sformułowania rekomendacji dla dalszych projektów badawczych w obszarze strategicznych czynników innowacyjności przedsiębiorstw. Tematyka strategicznych czynników innowacyjności przedsiębiorstw pozostaje zagadnieniem otwartym i wymaga dalszych badań, dla których wyniki projektu badawczego, zrealizowanego w ramach niniejszej pracy, mogą stanowić inspirację.

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## EFFECTIVE EVALUATION INTERVIEW – EXAMPLES OF GOOD PRACTICE IN THE SELECTED LOCAL GOVERNMENT UNITS

IZABELA RÓŻAŃSKA-BIŃCZYK

### Abstract

The paper points to the essence and the importance of evaluation interview, which is the key point of the system of periodic appraisals of employees. The aim of the paper is to present good practice in the field of employee assessment in the area of preparing and carrying out the evaluation interview in the selected local government units. Particular attention was paid to the proper preparation for the evaluation interview, the factors that determine the conducting of effective evaluation interview and the resulting advantages for the employee, the superior and the organisation. The theoretical part of the paper discusses the objectives and importance of evaluating employees as well as the rules for preparing and conducting the evaluation interview. The empirical part of the paper is based on the results of the author's own research devoted to evaluating employees in the purposefully selected local government units. The paper highlights the significant role played by the implementation of good business practices in the area of carrying out evaluation interviews in public administration and the desired directions of change in this area.

**Keywords:** personnel management, evaluation of employees, evaluation interview, local government units, public management.

**Classification JEL:** M12 – Personnel Management.

### 1. Introduction

The evaluation review is a very important point of the whole procedure of employee performance appraisals. The manner in which it is carried out largely determines the quality and reliability of employee assessment.

The inspiration for the paper is the author's participation in the project co-financed by the ESF in the framework of the HC OP: „Systemic Support for Management Processes in Local Government United”, in the specialist – coach – capacity. Another important reason is the observation that in the author's opinion the number of publications devoted to the issue of the desired changes in the area of HRM in public administration is insufficient, hence the desire to share the author's professional experience in this field (*Różańska-Bińczyk & Łuczak, 2015, p. 288*).

The main *aim of the paper* is to present good practices in conducting evaluation interviews of employees in the selected local government units. The transfer of those good practices from business sector into public administration is highlighted in particular.

### 2. The objectives and importance of employee performance appraisal

Assessments accompany each human activity, both in the private and professional sphere. Everybody evaluates and is evaluated. It is a very important tool to manage and, in particular, to motivate. No personnel-related decisions are taken without the evaluation of employees. It is important that the assessment should be objective and take into account those elements of employee engagement that are the most important when performing tasks at the given position (*Sidor-Rzqdkowska, 2003, pp. 11–20*).

Assessment of employees is an evaluative view of their personal characteristics, behaviour and work performance expressed in the oral or written form. Evaluation is a complex tool, occupying a central place in the system of human resources management and it can be used in virtually all areas of the personnel function (planning, hiring, managing, developing, remunerating, motivating, labour relations, employment reduction). In practice, evaluation of



employees is done on a regular basis (by their superiors, clients, co-workers), and periodically – with the use of formal periodic employee performance appraisal systems. Ongoing evaluation is one of the main regulatory tools used to instruct and correct the behaviour of employees as well as to provide them with feedback on their work performance. Systems of periodic appraisals provide a more comprehensive assessment of employees, which serves not only organisational purposes, but also strategic ones, for example, by identifying the growth potential of the assessed people (*Pocztowski, 2008, pp. 224–225*).

Contemporary research and analyses allow to say that the quality of evaluation system and its effectiveness are strongly related with the objective and intended use of evaluation. Through adequate use of evaluation system, managers set performance goals and development objectives and can also analyse the skills of employees to better utilize it in organization (*Boachie-Mensah & Seidu, 2012, p. 75*).

The primary aim of the evaluation interview is an objective appraisal of performance of the employees of the given organisation, along with the assessment of their attitudes and behaviour. Periodic evaluation allows to assess the effectiveness of actions taken since the last appraisal in terms of the goals set, as well as the development of knowledge and skills, to identify areas for improvement and to adapt trainings provided to the real individual needs of the employee.

Evaluation allows to learn about the professional plans and development needs of the employee. It is an opportunity to highlight the successes and to identify the difficulties that have arisen in carrying out the employee's duties, and to convey mutual expectations on the part of the manager and the employee. It allows to achieve the following effects (*Pisanko-Grabowska 2010, pp. 60–61*):

- Identifying the employee's strengths and areas for improvement, as well as ways to properly use the employee's potential;
- Defining the employee's professional development plans;
- Increasing the employee's motivation to take on new challenges and to improve quality and productivity at work;
- Achieving objective decision-making in the area of promotions, raises and bonuses.

Modern times call for a new approach to the employee evaluation system. Future organisations which rely on staff capable of continuous learning will assess the desired features, such as adaptability, innovativeness and creativity. Such an evaluation will be qualitative in nature, one will have to stop thinking about the organisation in terms of structures and positions in favour of thinking about it in terms of sets of skills and abilities. A departure from a one-sided opinion of the superior in favour of the opinion of the team, which can best determine the most desirable competencies of their colleagues as a result of jointly performed tasks, will also be an important direction to follow (*Ulrich D., 1998, p. 222*).

### **3. Evaluation interview preparation**

The employee performance evaluation interview should be carefully prepared. The basic principle is to develop a plan, i.e. to devise a method and issues that will be applicable to the objective set and the expected outcomes of the meeting.

The manager preparing to assess an employee should read carefully the employee's job description, know and understand the criteria according to which the employee is evaluated. The manager ought to have also knowledge about the employee's successes and failures in this period as well as analyse the employee's behaviour related to the daily work that took place during the period assessed. The manager should pay equal attention to the behaviours worthy of praise and those that require correction, as well as take into account the opinions concerning the employee's work performance and competencies which were conveyed in the period under review. In addition to using job descriptions in the evaluation, the evaluator makes use of such



sources of information as commendations, customer complaints, customer and co-workers' opinions as well as results achieved (*Pisanko-Grabowska, 210, p. 61*). The most valuable, however, will be insightful observations of the assessed employee's behaviour. The collection of as much information as possible allows to make a reliable assessment supported by specific facts. There are two ways of gathering information: ongoing observation and assessment of tasks performed repeatedly at short intervals. During the period under evaluation, the focus should be primarily on the appraisal of work performance of the evaluated person, which will help to make objective decisions based on facts, not opinions. It should be noted that the process of employee evaluation is a continuous activity and the information that will form the basis of assessment outcome should be collected throughout the period under review (*Ocenianie pracownika i prowadzenie rozmów oceniających w służbie cywilnej*). In the case of disagreement between the evaluator and the evaluated person as to the results of the assessment, a reference to many specific examples of events or behaviours that took place during the period assessed helps to maintain the atmosphere of constructive discussion and leads to a jointly agreed upon assessment. It is important that the evaluator should consider the causes of the evaluated employee's behaviour and the possible corrective measures as well as ways of maximising the employee's potential (*Pisanko-Grabowska, 210, p. 61*). Good preparation for the evaluation interview provides real benefits for the supervisor as well as the evaluated employee, though the superior plays the leading role in this process. In addition to these elements, the evaluator should take the following actions (*Gurba, 2014, p. 42*):

- Establish with the employee the time of the meeting convenient for both parties;
- Ensure the privacy of the conversation and a lack of distractions;
- Ensure that the employee knows and understands the objectives of the evaluation interview and the evaluation criteria;
- Give the employee time to prepare for the interview and identify strengths and areas for improvement as well as expectations towards the employer, the employee's professional development, etc.;
- Prepare in cooperation with the Personnel Department a manual to help the employee with the preparation for the interview;
- Collect sheets of previous evaluations and analyse the goals set and their implementation;
- Set the company's and the department's objectives, as well as review the tasks performed at the particular position;
- Fill in the form – the evaluation questionnaire – according to the applicable procedures of the organisation.

With the right preparation for the evaluation interview, the meeting has a good chance of yielding the expected benefits for both the employee and the supervisor according to the objectives set.

#### **4. Evaluation interview structure and course**

The manner in which the evaluation interview is conducted is an element as equally important as its proper preparation. The manager evaluating the employee is responsible for the proper manner of conducting such a conversation. It is, therefore, worth preparing a script of the interview, although the general plan should provide a flexible framework. It should contain the topics discussed during the interview, introductory questions, the order and the manner in which the necessary information is extracted, and guiding questions that facilitate the discussion of difficult topics.

The prepared script of the evaluation interview is to lay down a framework of this conversation, which will help in conducting it. One should remember, however, to maintain a balance between the excessive formalisation of the conversation and its transformation into



a friendly chi-chat. The duration of the interview should be planned and should take about 1 – 1.5 hour.

During the evaluation interview, the superior in particular (*Ocenianie pracownika i prowadzenie rozmów oceniających w służbie cywilnej*):

- Should avoid domination, as the conversation ought to be a partnership dialogue;
- Should not evaluate the employee's personality traits;
- Should not compare the employee to other people in the organisation;
- Should not generalise;
- Should not be influenced by inter-organisational ties and connections,
- Should formulate his/her thoughts clearly as any ambiguity hinders mutual understanding;
- Should use short, single sentences;
- Should adjust the style of speech to the interlocutor;
- Should formulate messages in the way which raises no doubts or opposition;
- Should avoid strong emotions during the interview, it is important to control one's behaviour and facial expressions.

A well-prepared evaluation interview includes the following elements: the summary of the scope of responsibilities, the expectations of the superiors and the employee, the assessment of tasks performed by the employee, the employee's self-evaluation, the appraisal provided by the superior, the employee's response, professional development conclusions drawn. In addition, due to the employee's fear of the superior's assessment, it is good to think about creating the right atmosphere during the interview. A friendly atmosphere will allow to have an open and constructive conversation. The substantive part of the meeting should begin with conveying positive information. J. Bobryk recommends the application of the basic and proven principles of interpersonal communication in the evaluation interview. These include (*Bobryk, 1995, pp. 81–84*):

- Showing genuine mutual interest in the interlocutor through eye contact and active listening;
- Presenting one's position openly, firmly, maintaining an appropriate level of properly understood assertiveness;
- Ensuring a casual, direct and natural atmosphere;
- Encouraging the employee's expression without restrictions or urging, without preaching or deepening the existing differences, in order to maintain the conversation;
- Showing the attitude of tolerance and respect for different opinions;
- Focusing on positive, creative, mutually acceptable and mutually beneficial conversation threads;
- Delivering criticism in a careful manner, as a kind indication of performance weaknesses, not a reference to personality defects;
- Confirming and checking the understanding of what is said, thought and felt by the interlocutor;
- Displaying restraint in expressing evaluations, generalisations and formulating advice or extreme conclusions;
- Preferring a partnership approach to the problems and providing social support when necessary;
- Taking unilateral and unequivocal decisions only when it is necessary for formal organisational reasons;
- Admitting to making mistakes, which not only does not affect the authority, but reinforces credibility, good will and trust.



During the evaluation interview, it should be remembered that the conversation ought to be a dialogue, not a monologue. The activity of both parties, involving the exchange of views and agreeing – through discussion – on a common position, is important. Therefore, it is crucial to engage the employee in the conversation in accordance with the above mentioned guidelines.

Providing appropriate feedback to the employee is an essential element of the evaluation interview. Usually there is positive and negative information to present. The information can be conveyed in a variety of ways, one of them is the three-layer sandwich model. It involves the presentation of information concerning the positive aspects of the employee's behaviour, then focus on the negative aspects, and at the end the provision of a positive summary (*Belludi, 2008*). While using this model, it is important to underline the information concerning the area in which the employee is expected to improve. Another way to provide feedback is through the use of the model encouraging the employee to generate ideas as it allows the employee to acknowledge the problem and become involved in the search for solutions, which will enable the evaluated person to subsequently identify with the said solutions.

It should be emphasised that the achievement of satisfactory final outcome depends on the adequate preparation for the evaluation interview and the selection of the conversation formula for the purposes to be achieved. Equally important are the evaluators' interpersonal skills as interpersonal skills of the management are the key to the desired behaviours in the process of evaluation (*Gurba, 2014, pp.45–46*).

## 5. Empirical research

The empirical part of the paper was based on the author's own research conducted in local government units in Poland in the period from 01. 2014 to 09. 2015. The study was of the interpretive nature. It was conducted by means of the case studies methodology (*Czakon 2013, pp. 92–112*), using various sources of information and research methods such as interviewing, document analysis, and observation.

### 5.1. Research methodology

In connection with the issues presented in the text, parts of the empirical material dedicated to the process of evaluation carried out in the surveyed enterprises were used, in particular those which allow the analysis of employee evaluation good practices occurring in the local government units. In addition, only some units were selected among all the surveyed ones. The criteria for selecting the organisations adopted by the author included: success in the implementation of the developed standards, the innovative nature of the developed tools, and access to full documentation of the evaluation of employees carried out by the local government unit. In particular, the analysis of rules and tools used in the evaluation process was conducted. Interviews were also carried out on the subject of employee assessment with mayors, secretaries and employees of human resources departments and organisational departments of the above-mentioned units. The presented research results are derived from three purposefully selected units and thus are not representative. However, on this basis, conclusions about the correctness of actions taken in the analysed area can be drawn (*Różańska-Bińczyk, 2016, in print*).

### 5.2. Good practices in conducting evaluation interviews in the selected local government units – the analysis of the research results

Personnel employed in clerical positions and managerial positions under the Act on Self-government Employees are subject to periodic evaluation of qualifications. The assessment is carried out at least once every two years, not more frequently than once every six months. The evaluation concerns the fulfilment by the employee of the duties within the scope of responsibilities related to the occupied position and the obligations set out in Article 24 and 25 Paragraph 1 of the Act of 21 November 2008 on Self-government Employees.



Issuing instructions, unit managers determine how periodic appraisals are carried out, the periods for which the assessment is made, the criteria by which the employees are assessed, and the scale of evaluation (*Art. 28 of the Act of 21 November 2008 on Self-government Employees*). This provision provides more flexibility for matching procedures of employee assessment to the real needs of the given unit.

The analysis of the tools developed, revised regulations and modifications applied in assessment of employees allowed to indicate the desired changes which could be adopted and prove successful in public administration (*Różańska-Bińczyk, 2016, under review*).

Regulations concerning periodic evaluations of employees in various public administration institutions determine the way evaluations are carried out in varying degrees of detail. Some units in their regulations refer mainly to the provisions of the Act, while others in a very precise manner determine the rules for conducting employee appraisals. The City Y Hall, employing 585 workers, belongs to the latter group. The human resources department staff introduced a script of evaluation interview. The authors of the designed tool introduced the change after interviews with the office employees, who pointed to a lack of skills on the part of evaluators to conduct an effective evaluation interview. The next step was organising by the human resources department meetings with the heads and managers who assess the employees. On the basis of the interviews with the management, they concluded that conducting the evaluation interview arouses resentment and fear not only among the evaluated, but also among the evaluators. The evaluators pointed out the following areas causing the most problems in this field: the inability to provide constructive feedback and the ignorance as to the stages and elements this conversation should consist of. The employees of the human resources department, realising that the evaluation interview is the key point of the whole process of assessing employees, drew up a scenario of evaluation interview. The developed tool makes it more orderly and draws attention to its most important elements. The standard scenario defines the following sequence of evaluation interview stages (at each point guidelines on how to proceed are provided), (Evaluation interview scenario, annex to the Rules of Employee Evaluation in the City Y Hall):

1. Creating an atmosphere of cooperation: ensure that only the evaluator and the evaluated person are in the room in which the evaluation interview will be held and that no-one from the outside interrupts the conversation; create a relaxed atmosphere, i.e. start with neutral and general topics.
2. Introduction: remind about the purpose of the conversation, outline the agenda for the meeting, the order of the issues raised, the sequence of statements made by both parties and the expectations towards the employee during the interview; inform that notes will be taken during the interview.
3. The employee's self-evaluation: clarify and sum up the employee's words on an ongoing basis, thus ensuring that he or she is well understood; ensure that the interview does not turn into a hearing; the employee should reflect on his/her strengths and weaknesses, as well as areas for improvement; it is worth asking for justification and providing examples.
4. The superior's evaluation (feedback): based on the evaluation score sheet, provide employee evaluation point by point justifying your decisions; express your opinion in the first person, assuming the responsibility for submitted observations and feelings; draw attention to the discrepancies and similarities with the employee's self-evaluation; note the differences between the situation desired and the actual state; remember that you evaluate the work of the employee; avoid generalisations and criticism of the employee's personality; provide examples of the employee's positive behaviour and the behaviour that requires correction; point to the employee's strengths and the areas that require improvement focusing on facts; in your comments do not go beyond the events occurring in the period since the last evaluation.



5. The employee's response: let (if the case may be) the employee disagree with your assessment and justify his or her point of view; listen to the employee, do not interrupt or become engaged in a discussion that can generate conflict.
6. The employee's expectations: encourage the employee to define his or her expectations towards the office; steer the conversation towards specifics; avoid an emotional discussion.
7. Action plan: the plan should include: the areas for improvement, the expected results, the measures that the employee will take to correct his or her actions, the deadline for their implementation; steer the conversation so that the evaluated person suggests corrective actions; during the conversation you have the role of the advisor, not the person imposing solutions.
8. Setting goals and tasks for the next period: summarise what was agreed on at the meeting; focus on opportunities rather than on problems; determine jointly a plan of the necessary actions to be taken to increase the efficiency of the employee's work and to follow the employee's path of further professional development; identify together the means and opportunities for improvement.
9. The summary of the meeting and motivating the employee to continue working.

The authors of the project assume that the developed tool will support managers in the difficult process of assessing employees, and thus increase the quality of the evaluation interview, which will allow to maximise the use of the time set for the interview. The main objective is to minimise the resistance towards employee evaluation and avoid repeating the previously existing errors in this area (*Róžańska-Bińczyk, 2015. pp. 225–226*).

The City X Hall has 99 employees. Deficiencies in the current practice of the process of employee assessment were identified. A bureaucratic management model, characterised by the fact that most of the employees work within the framework set out by regulations and procedures in which employee evaluation is based mainly on the assessment of compliance of the work performed with the procedures and regulations as well as timeliness of task completion, was identified. In addition, it was noted that the superiors conducting employee evaluation perceive it as a professional obligation arising from the regulations. Employee assessments were very similar or identical. After identifying the problems associated with carrying out evaluation interviews, the managers asked for the training in effective communication and feedback provision. The following significant changes were implemented:

- Trainings for all the office employees were conducted concerning the purpose of carrying out periodic evaluations and the benefits of this procedure for the employee, the manager and the organisation;
- The training 'Rules for the Provision of Effective Feedback' was prepared and carried out for the evaluators. The main objective of the training on feedback techniques was to gain detailed knowledge, and above all skills, in the following areas: the key principles of providing (positive and negative) feedback; using techniques of effective communication as a basis to provide constructive feedback (language of benefits, taking notes); techniques of active listening (verbal and non-verbal signs of active listening, asking questions, summarising, paraphrasing, clarification); communicative tuning as a tool to support the manager at providing feedback, the use of the right words, tone of voice and body language to effectively communicate feedback; awareness of the impact of one's own style of communication on the effective feedback provision; setting goals skilfully together with the employee; techniques for obtaining commitment on the part of the employee to the objectives set; building the atmosphere during the conversation with the employee; motivating employees to take action through providing skilful feedback; coping with difficult situations: aggression, withdrawal, or a strong emotional response on the part of the employee.





The employees of the personnel department also organised consultation meetings aimed to encourage all the employees to use their knowledge and experience in the proper preparation and conducting of evaluation interviews. After the changes introduced and the training sessions conducted, the human resources department again carried out interviews with the managers conducting employee evaluations and they assessed the changes as mostly positive and helpful in carrying out periodic appraisals.

The Municipality Office Z has 26 employees. This is the office that before the changes used no formal system of employee evaluations since the office management believed that with such a small number of employees, the employer must know their qualifications, capabilities and performance and that the employees were subject to ongoing, informal assessment. The participation in the project: ‘Systemic Support for Management Processes in Local Government Units’ and the knowledge in the field of human resources management gained by the representatives of the office meant that the managers recognised the previous approach to the evaluation procedure as irrational. It was accepted that the formal employee evaluation is a very good practice and encourages both sides, the evaluator as well as the evaluated person, to exchange opinions on issues related to work or professional development. The changes introduced were adapted to the expectations of the employees. Among the many changes in this field, the following changes were carried out: training for evaluators in the area of the most common errors in the assessment process along with their consequences and the determinants of effectiveness of evaluation interview. An instructional video of what the properly conducted evaluation interview should look like was presented during the training. In the opinion of the trainees, the conducted training minimised their resistance to the evaluation interview. The changes introduced in the office provide a chance to change behaviours and attitudes as well as eliminate bad habits.

The participation of the employees of the selected units in the project ‘Systemic Support for Management Processes in Local Government Units’ was a decisive factor in the introduction of changes in the area of conducting evaluation interviews since they obtained the expertise on the rules for preparing and conducting effective employee performance evaluation interviews. The participation in the project allowed them also to become familiar with the latest trends and solutions in conducting such interviews used in the business sector. In the opinion of the author, the officials made innovative changes, since previously the described local government units did not attach much importance to the manner of communication with their employees, or the use of different feedback techniques. The analysis of the developed and implemented tools as well as the trainings conducted in the selected local government units leads to the conclusion that those are very well developed standards. Deficiencies in the process of employee evaluation in the described local government units were identified by the management, which resulted in the introduction of changes in this area and adjustment to the needs of the units. Of particular note is the introduction of proprietary solutions by the office managers, which were preceded by a thorough analysis of the solutions currently used in those institutions, and changes tailored to the current needs of the units, modelled on the solutions used in business organisations.

## 6. Conclusions

The paper draws attention to a very important issue in the area of personnel management – the ability to carry out an effective evaluation interview. This ability is a great challenge for any organisation, regardless of whether it is a public or business one. The manner in which the evaluation interview is conducted determines to a large extent the quality and credibility of employee assessment. At the same time, evaluation of employees often arouses resentment and fear among the evaluated people, as well as the evaluators, and is seen as a difficult situation for both parties. However, one can build a positive approach to the process of periodic assessment if the person responsible for this process remembers about certain principles and



uses best practices of evaluation. The authorities responsible for the management of human resources of local government units determine whether employee performance evaluation is a comprehensive and objective process and whether it is used as a tool to motivate employees to work.

The above-presented changes concern three selected local government units. On this basis, the desired directions of change in this field can be noted as the issues related to conducting effective employee performance evaluation interviews frequently occur in any organisation.

One can formulate a general conclusion that employee assessments in public administration cannot be based only on compliance with formal rules. They must be accompanied by specialised trainings in the field of communication skills or feedback provision, the purpose of conducting periodic evaluations and the most common errors in this area.

As shown by the example of the described activities of the selected local government units, it is possible to transfer business models to office practice. The key to success is the acknowledgement on the part of the office management the need to introduce changes in this area and the resulting benefits that serve to improve the functioning of the institution. The change in awareness among the managers of the described offices and their belief in the need for modernisation and adaptation of procedures and tools in the area of employee evaluation is evident. Training in this field, participation in projects in the area of human resources management, self-education, exchange of experience between local government units and business organisations are the necessary steps to carry out effective changes in this field.

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## CREATIVE HUMAN CAPITAL AS SOURCE OF THE DEVELOPMENT OF INTELLECTUAL CAPITAL

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### Abstract

Creativity, beside knowledge and innovation, is a significant determinant of the growth of modern economies. It is the potential of non-materialistic resources on which depend economic successes of whole regions as well as of business entities functioning in them. Non-materialistic resources are difficult for diagnosis owing to their attributes and a difficulty appears among researchers of the presented phenomena in interpreting the applied methods and the analysis of obtained research results. In relation to the aforementioned an attempt was undertaken to study individual features of the university students as determinants responsible for creative attitudes among young people, so much required in the contemporary economy. The main research aim was to examine, by means of scientific procedures and using appropriate methodology, and to get acquainted with the actual state of the features of the university representatives and its influence on the development of students' creativity. The aim of the studies was to assess what is the percentage of the respondents who show the range of features which distinguish creative individuals constituting the core of human capital and which of them are responsible for the fact that there is a considerable growth of human capital in the province. These considerations were the basis to formulate the following research hypothesis: The higher the level of personality features favorable for creativity, the higher the level of creativity among students which, as an element of intellectual capital, constitutes the main development factor in the scale of micro and macro-region.

**Key words:** creativity, higher education, human capital.

**Classification JEL:** M12 – Personnel Management.

### 1. Etiology and typology of human capital in source literature

Human capital is an element of intellectual capital. This kind of capital makes it possible to provide the best modern solutions for the organization or a given regional area. It constitutes a source of innovation and regeneration. Thanks to its effective use it is possible to redefine processes, behavior and functioning (*Tapsell, 1998*).

An attempt to present the historical process of shaping the concept of human capital and its usefulness in the development of sciences is difficult and equivocal. However it cannot be stated explicitly that there has not been any. A large number of created definitions and their many-sided use cause that it is difficult to show definitely the moment to which the use of this term as a determinant of concrete economic values dates back. Economists dealt with the problem of a human being and his/her abilities considering different economic issues unfortunately often treating them as a marginal phenomenon. Reviewing source literature, it can be noticed that over a span of ages the terminology referring to the concept of human capital or its component elements has been slightly different. Thus, for example, the following terms have been used: 'labor force', 'human work', 'qualified work', 'spiritual capital', 'living capital', 'economic value of people', etc. (*Wronkowska, 2005*).

Considerations over the mentioned issues were, for example, carried out by Ksenofont (about 430 B.C. – about 355 B.C.) in his work devoted to the science about managing, entitled *Oikonomikos* (*Romanow, 1999*). He described the significance of benefits resulting from work specialization which afterwards transform into the quality of the manufactured product. Another thinker who also referred, to a slight extent, in his considerations to the significance of labor force was Katon (about 234 – about 149 B.C. In his times the labor force was constituted by slaves as the so-called 'talking tools'. It was the time when people in their prime, of high physical possibilities were used to the maximum to fulfil the needs of their owners. This way



of thinking about slaves was characteristic of those times as there was no lack of labor force. A change in the way of thinking as regards treating ‘the workers – the slaves’ can be observed in works by Warron (116–27 A.D.). In his work entitled ‘Principles of the science of agriculture’ he postulated that decent conditions for slaves were created and that would result in the quality of the work performed by them. This would enable the owners to achieve larger income. However it is worth showing that the aforesaid consideration refers to the time when the human being with his/her abilities was not regarded as capital and the values were not seen in him/her. People along with their abilities and predispositions constituted peculiar working tools (*Wronkowska, 2005*).

This brief review of the chosen opinions known from history enables to notice that earlier, views on human capital were not of a comprehensive form. These were loose opinions dealing with the place and the role of a human being with his/her potential in the economic system (*Wronkowska, 2005*).

In source literature the discussion on human capital as one of factors of the contemporary increase and development was started by T. Schultz in 1963, and then this idea was developed by G. Becker in 1964. Schultz paid attention to the qualitative aspect of human capital, which affects the possibility of performing useful work. Seeing a relationship between investments and the level of the workers’ income and focusing his attention on their macroeconomic significance, he undertakes criticism of the traditional depiction of work as a production factor ‘free of capital’, despite permanent changes undergoing within the range of its abilities. He believed that those changes, determining the level of the increase rate, result from the investments which increase the productive value of cumulated human’s abilities and lead to changes in quality, which can be measured. Whereas Becker thought that the investments improve abilities, knowledge or health, the measurable effect of which is income. However, there is a difference between invested sums and the obtained income, and the intensity of the relationship between investments and the achieved income. Becker showed tight relations of the effects of human factor expressed by the level of the human’s education and the level of his/her welfare. Critical remarks on the neoclassical model of the economic growth suggested by Solow in 1956 were expressed by P. Romer. It was him who for the first time in 1986 explained, on the basis the concept of the endogenic increase, phenomena in which the principal element is human capital, particularly the one concerning the scientific and technical sphere (*Schultz, 1961; Schultz, 1962; Becker, 1962; Niewiadomski, 2009*).

The tradition of perceiving some features of the workers as capital is much longer. It can be noticed that this phenomenon dates back not only to works by Adam Smith (1723–1790) from the 18th century, but also to earlier studies by William Petty from the 17th century, who emphasized the significance of capital stuck in the working factor, i.e. qualifications of the people. It was the factor which constituted the so-called national welfare, beside resources of the earth, work, tangible assets and materials (this way of these considerations was also used by, among others, W. N. Senior, J. R. McCulloch, L. Walras and V. Pareto, I. Fischer. The above mentioned representatives of this scientific trend dealt with the assessment of these resources).

Whereas Smith among the categories of capital enlisted abilities of the people, hence he emphasized the necessity of expenditure on people’s education and thus he underscored the importance of differentiating the level of remuneration. Moreover, in his opinion efficiency of work results from its quality, which was conditioned by education, abilities, qualifications and predispositions of the human being? A. Smith noticed that one of the ways of raising qualifications of people is the division of work reflecting technical and organizational division. Successive considerations on this issue were carried out among others by: D. Ricardo, J. B. Say, J. S. Mill, A. Marshall, A. H. Müller, S. G. Strumilin. The first one, D. Ricardo (1772–1823) was the creator of the economic increase model in which he showed an influence of the



qualifications on the results of work. Moreover, he noticed that there is a relationship between the quality of work and the level of the worker's education. It is worth noticing that, contrary to Smith, D. Ricardo recognizes education as the individual matter of a single person (*Ricardo, 1957*). Whereas J. B. Say (1767–1832) emphasizes benefits which result from the division of labor and intangible benefits which result from the work performed. It should be pointed out that it was him who first popularized the concept of the enterprise and defined an entrepreneur, in this way emphasizing a particular role of the initiative, organizational talent and other features of personality. In his opinion entrepreneurship should be associated with the ability to transfer resources from the area of lower efficiency to the area of higher efficiency or profits. He perceived an entrepreneur as a motor force of changes and a progress. According to him it is the progress that is the source of richness. It was J. B. Say who first assessed the value of human capital through the value of future income, whereas its source is education at a different level, together with upbringing in a family (*Say, 1960*). Then, J. S. Mill distinguished two components of human capital which were classified by him not only as an individual property of a concrete person but as national (net) wealth. According to him they included resources and abilities of people. What is more, he focused the attention on competition on the labor market underscoring the fact that better qualified workers are required on that market. He distinguished productive and non-productive work. To non-productive work he classified, among other things, education and bringing up children from the babyhood up to the productive age, noticing the significance and the costs connected with this education.

Whereas to the other category of work he classified the one which was related to education, including the work of researchers and inventors. Mill thought that education increases the level of possibilities of production entities and then it affects possibilities of achieving higher pay (*Jarecki, Kunasz, Mazur-Wierzbicka & Zwiech, 2010*). Moreover, he also distinguished general economic benefits in the form of a widely understood faster economic increase as well as individual ones such as: the increase in the level of intelligence and common sense, larger possibilities of understanding new kinds of work, quicker understanding of the employers' thoughts, a higher level of morality, honesty, culture, general knowledge, higher inclination to saving up and larger caution affecting a better financial situation of households (*Mill, 1860*). Summing up, it can be said that J. S. Mill emphasizes the fact that a rich country is a country the population of which is gifted in talents and abilities. A. Marshall (1842–1924) who, in a shrewd way, dealt with the problem of human capital, including its development through investments, e.g. in education. In his considerations he dealt with a social unit which is a family. He thought that human capital is built through upbringing and education, and its value is cumulated similarly to material capital. He devoted particular attention to issues concerning remuneration in relation to final productivity of work. In his opinion people of lower education also invest less frequently in education of their children, and this influences social effects negatively. A. H. Müller noticed that the wealth of nations should not be reduced only to material assets. According to him income capital should be taken into consideration in the form of knowledge, education, talents, culture and civilization. The last one of the aforementioned undertook first attempts to assess effectiveness of the education level on the efficiency of work. The carried out analysis gave a positive result, hence S. G. Strumilin postulated that expenditure on education was increased. However, it is worth emphasizing that in his research exposition he did not consider the effect of a technical progress on the results of work productivity.

Within the space of ages also in Poland precursors can be found, who focused their attention in their works on the significance of human capital in development of economies. We can include in this group: in the 19th century, S. Staszic (1755–1826), who thought that the largest welfare is acquired knowledge, when it can be used for the country's needs; similar views had W. Surowiecki (1769–1823) and F. Skarbek (1792–1866) although they mainly concentrated on the significance of qualifications as a factor determining the quality of work.



The former was a propagator of vocational education and training in particular, whereas the latter claimed that true welfare is cumulated in the school system. Then the 20th century was characterized by a lot of modern solutions used both in social and economic life and it forced the attention towards the process of education and acquisition of new skills. It can be said that as a result of these processes a new discipline was formed, the so-called economics of education, which was to study relationships between the expenditure and the effects emerging during the process of education. In some works from the 60-ies of the last year we can find considerations of the authors, dealing with education and its relations with economic development. And thus, for example, J. Górski wrote that „then we cannot determine what is the share of the qualified staff in particular achievements in many fields of our economy and national culture. Similarly we cannot determine to what degree the delay in the development of some fields of the economy or the country regions result from a shortage of the qualified staff” (*Górski, 1968*). It is worth emphasizing that also O. Lange turned his attention to the role of learning and education “(...) they participate in conscious, planned shaping of productive forces, they directly become a component factor of the development of productive forces of the society” (*Lange, 1960*). What is more, also M. Klimack and J. Kluczyński dealt with this issue.

At present competencies of individual people, who possess a proper ability to act in different situations, become more and more important (*Bounties, 1996*). It involves abilities, education, experience, social values and abilities: M. S. Malone; W. F. Cascio; M. Blaug; R. E. Lucas; S. Marciniak; S. R. Domański; A. Jarugowa, J. Fijałkowska; J. Czekaj, M. Jabłoński (*Tyrańska, 2007; Marciniak, 2002; Domański, 1993; Przybyszewski, 2007; Grodzicki, 2003*). It is people who create knowledge, new ideas, new products, enter interactions with others creating processes that, as a result, enable a system of mutual synergies resulting many a time in the growth processes of units or whole territorial areas (*Brenner, 1999*). Therefore, intellectual capital is set to a large extent in involvement and competencies of workers. The way in which each inhabitant of a given territorial area thinks, in which he/she imagines his/her future and what is his/her attitude towards his/her work is significant for the future effects.

In source literature different categories of this capital can be found i.e. human capital defined as ‘general’ and the so-called ‘specific’ human capital. The former refers to the elements connected with formal education (i.e. school education) and skills acquired at this time. Whereas the latter concerns knowledge acquired by a human being through his/her professional experience.

## **2. The author’s concept of creative human capital**

In relation to the aforementioned, human capital can be analyzed from the individual or group point of view. It is important to notice that there are differences between presented definitions. Some of them refer to knowledge, competencies or abilities, whereas others, to people who possess them. The same way of discussion can be carried out with reference to creative human capital which is understood according to the author’s concept, to individual people or in a social dimension, to people who possess predispositions, abilities and actively strive for creative behaviors (active creative capital) the result of which is a creative work. In order to make this work accepted as such one in accordance with source literature, it has to possess traits of novelty and usefulness (*Bessemmerová & Treffinger, 1981; Cropley, 1999, van Woerkum et al., 2007; Mayer, 2008; Brzeziński, 2009; Klijn & Tomic, 2010; Lipka 2012; Bartnicka, 2013, for: Sokół, 2015*).

It is worth noticing that undertaking considerations on creative human capital it should be taken into account that the contemporary science of psychology maintains that all people are creative (pankraton’s of the 20th century), however, they differ in the level of creativity. On the one pole there are people who possess a minute level of features predestining them for being



creative, whereas on the other pole there are people characterized by an outstanding intensity of these features (Sterlau, 2014, for: Sokół, 2015). These relationships were proved and were the subject of studies on the relations of intelligence, creativity and personality carried out by Eysenck (1993). In the present description the suggested concept involves all people's individuals who show the inclination towards creative behaviors, independently of the fact whether it is the result of their everyday or eminent activity.

The abundant source literature (this kind of studies were carried out by St. Popek, E. Czaja-Chudyba, St. Łuczak, (Csikszentmihalyi, 1996 et further; Popek, 2004; Czaja-Chudyba, 2013; Łuczak, 2006, for: Sokół, 2015) makes it possible to present the features which distinguish creative individuals, the core of human capital. And thus in the case of individual features, the following ones are distinguished (Žák, 2004):

- Tolerance and ambiguity;
- Freedom and openness;
- Inclination to risk;
- Preference of variety;
- Endurance;
- Courage;
- Resignation of stereotypes.

In the cases of the features distinguishing creative society the following ones should be mentioned (Žák, 2004):

- Access to culture resources;
- Openness, cultural stimulation;
- Free access to information;
- Freedom and democracy;
- Diversity of initiative;
- Interactivity;
- Proper stimuli and rewards.

### **3. The position of West Pomeranian Province in the dynamic of the development of creative human capital**

The aim of the article is to measure and assess the level of creative human capital of the INPUT and OUTPUT type of Polish regions over the years 2009 and 2014. The analysis was carried out on the basis of the data from the *Eurostat Regional Statistics*.

In the article, as variables determining creative potential of the INPUT and OUTPUT type within the range of creative human capital potential the following items were accepted:

X<sub>1</sub> – the share of working people with a higher education diploma in a general number of people in the age of 25–64;

X<sub>2</sub> – human capital in science and technology (HRST) as a percentage of professionally active people, the feature illustrating the number of people who graduated from a university scientific and technological department and who work in this profession;

X<sub>3</sub> – the share of people participating in continuous education in a general number of people in the age of 25–64.

While as the OUTPUT variables the following issues were classified:

X<sub>4</sub> – the share of people working in highly and medium technologically advanced industries in a general number of people in the region.

X<sub>5</sub> – the share of people working in *knowledge intensive services* in a general number of people in the region,

X<sub>6</sub> – the patent applications in the EPO per one million of labor force in the region.





The set of objects encompasses voivodships of Poland for which characteristics of innovativeness of the INPUT and OUTPUT types determined at two moments of the analysis – in 2009 (moment 1) and in 2014 (moment  $n$ ). The dynamic for each feature was determined:

$$Z_w = \frac{Z_{w,n}}{Z_{w,1}} \cdot 100\%$$

For each variable  $Z$  a median was calculated, and then groups of objects as regards the values in relation to the median of the variable was distinguished. Three characteristics of innovativeness of the INPUT type were taken into consideration:

- $Z_{X1}$  – the dynamic of the share of working people with high education in a general number of people in the region in 2014 in relation to 2009;
- $Z_{X2}$  – the dynamic of human capital in science and technology as a percentage of professionally active people in 2014 in relation to 2009;
- $Z_{X3}$  – the dynamic of the share of people in the age of 25–64 participating in continuous education in the region in 2014 in relation to 2009.

In the case of the development of INPUT human capital, three characteristics were taken into account:

- $Z_{X4}$  – the dynamic of the share of people working in highly and medium technologically advanced industries in a general number of people in the region;
- $Z_{X5}$  – the dynamic of the share of people working in *knowledge intensive services* in a general number of people in the region;
- $Z_{X6}$  – the dynamic of the number of patent applications in the EPO per one million of labor force in a region.

The result of the use of position classification with the median is the distinguishing of the following classes of the regions:

1 – the class of the regions for which  $X_1$ ,  $X_2$ ,  $X_3$  are higher than their median established for all Polish regions,

2 – the class of the regions for which  $X_1$ ,  $X_2$ ,  $X_3$  are lower than their median established for all Polish regions,

3 – the class of the regions for which  $X_1$ ,  $X_2$ ,  $X_3$  reach the value oscillating close to the median established for all Polish regions,

4 – the class of the regions for which  $X_4$ ,  $X_5$ ,  $X_6$  are higher than their median established for all Polish regions,

5 – the class of the regions for which  $X_4$ ,  $X_5$ ,  $X_6$  are lower than their median established for all Polish regions,

6 – the class of the regions for which  $X_4$ ,  $X_5$ ,  $X_6$  reach the value oscillating close to the median established for all Polish regions.

The median for the feature  $X_1$  amounted to 5.8%, the median of the feature  $X_2$  – 3.9%, whereas the median of  $X_3$  – 1.6%, the median of  $X_4$  – 2.9%, the median of the feature  $X_5$  – 4.8% and the median of  $X_6$  – 1.4%. It means that the value of the feature the dynamic of the share of people in the age of 25–64 participating in continuous education in the region in 2014 in relation to 2009, below or above which was a half of the studied individuals amounted to 1.6%, the value of the feature the dynamic of human capital in science and technology as a percentage of professionally active people in 2014 in relation to 2009, below or above which was a half of the studied individuals was 3.9%, and the value of the feature the dynamic of the share of working people with high education in a general number of people in the region in 2014 in relation to 2009, below or above which was a half of the studied individuals equal 5.8%, whereas the value of the feature the dynamic of the share of people working in highly and medium technologically advanced industries in a general number of people in the region in



2014 in relation to 2009, below or above which was a half of the studied individuals was 2.9%, the value of the feature the dynamic of the share people working in *knowledge intensive services* in a general number of people in the region in 2014 in relation to 2009, below or above which was a half of the studied individuals amounted to 4.8%, the value of the feature the dynamic of the number of patent applications in the EPO per one million of labor force in the region in 2014 in relation to 2009 below or above which was a half of the studied individuals equal 1.4%. For all the features – the value of the median was lower than the value of the arithmetic mean ( $Me < x$ ). It means that individuals of lower values of the observed features outnumber the remaining ones, which corresponds with right-side asymmetry (positive asymmetry). On the basis of the value of the median the regions were divided into two groups - the regions for which the value of the feature is higher than the median or is equal with the median, and the regions for which the value of the feature is lower than the median.

*Table 1. Classification of the Polish regions as regards the dynamic of the characteristics of human capital development of the INPUT and OUTPUT type in 2014 in relation to 2009 (+) value higher than the median (-) values lower than the median (own study)*

<b>Voivodeships</b>	<b>X<sub>1</sub></b>	<b>X<sub>2</sub></b>	<b>X<sub>3</sub></b>	<b>X<sub>4</sub></b>	<b>X<sub>5</sub></b>	<b>X<sub>6</sub></b>
Lower Silesian	-	+	+	+	-	-
Kuyavian-Pomeranian	-	+	-	+	-	-
Lubelskie	-	+	-	-	+	-
Lubuskie	+	+	-	+	-	-
Łódzkie	-	-	+	+	-	-
Małopolskie	-	-	-	+	+	-
Masovian	+	+	+	+	+	+
Opole	+	+	-	+	-	-
Podkarpackie	-	-	+	+	-	-
Podlaskie	-	-	+	+	-	-
Pomeranian	+	+	-	+	-	+
Silesian	+	+	+	+	+	+
Świętokrzyskie	-	+	-	-	+	-
Warmian-Masurian	-	+	-	+	-	-
Greater Poland	+	-	+	+	-	+
West Pomeranian	+	+	-	-	+	-

The analysis of the regions as regards the development of INPUT and OUTPUT showed that individual voivodeships can be segregated into groups. And thus, regions of high values of all the studied indices are Silesian Voivodeship and Masovian Voivodeship.

In successive places are Opole Voivodeship and Pomeranian Voivodeship, In this group it can be shown that values higher than the median were indicated by the following features: the share of working people with a higher education diploma in a general number of people in the age of 25–64, human capital in science and technology (HRST) as a percentage of professionally active people, the feature illustrating the number of people who graduated from a university scientific and technological department and who work in this profession, the share of people participating in continuous education in a general number of people in the age of 25–64 and the patent applications in the EPO per one million of labor force in the region. Similar tendencies are observed in the region of Greater Poland Voivodeships, however instead of the feature the share of people working in highly and medium technologically advanced industries in a general number of working people in the region, larger than the median, this value is shown



by the feature the share of people working in *knowledge intensive services* in a general number of working people in the region. In Lodz, Subcarpathian and Podlaskie Voivodeships the following features showed higher values than the median: the share of people participating in continuous education in a general number of people in the age of 25–64 and the share of people working in highly and medium technologically advanced industries in a general number of working people in the region. Whereas the Kuyavian-Pomeranian Voivodeship and the Warmian-Masurian Voivodeship show a high share of human capital in science and technology (HRST) as a percentage of professionally active people, the feature illustrating the number of people who graduated from a university scientific and technological department and who work in this profession, and a high share of people working in highly and medium technologically advanced industries in a general number of people in the region. In the carried out analysis the West Pomeranian Voivodeship does not constitute a group with any region, as it is characterized by a value higher than the median in the values of the following features: the share of working people with a higher education diploma in a general number of people in the age of 25–64, human capital in science and technology (HRST), as a percentage of professionally active people, the feature illustrating the number of people who graduated from a university scientific and technological department and who work in this profession, the share of people working in *knowledge intensive services* in a general number of working people in the region.

## 5. The empirical verification of the state of the creative development of human capital in the West Pomeranian and Masovian Voivodeships

Searching for the empirical verification of the presented assumptions the studies were carried out on a group of students from the West Pomeranian and Masovian Voivodeships. The choice of the above mentioned regions was not accidental, as it is just this region that lies at one of the lowest levels and the highest levels. In the survey 980 students have participated representing three institutions of higher education from West Pomeranian and Masovian Voivodeships, namely University of Szczecin (US), West Pomeranian University of Technology (WPUT), Art Academy of Szczecin (AS), Warsaw University of Life Sciences (WULS), Warsaw School of Economics (WSE). The aim of the studies was to assess what is the percentage of the respondents that shows the range of the features which distinguish creative individuals constituting the core of creative human capital and which of them are responsible for the fact that there is a considerable development of creative human capital in the province. The answers to these questions are included in Table 2, which defines the percentage of people qualified as representatives of creatively active human capital ( $C^{AHC}$ ) and the percentage of people classified as representatives of creatively passive human capital ( $C^{PHC}$ ). Additionally operationalization of the level of creativity among students was the result in the drawing Test of Creative Thinking TCT-DP Urbana and Jellen (Karwowski, 2009).

Table 2. Numbers of respondents (own study)

West Pomeranian Voivodeship						Masovian Voivodeship			
209 students – 100%						771 students – 100%			
US		WPUT		AS		WULS		WES	
98 students		102 students		9 students		398 students		373 students	
47%		49%		4%		52%		48%	
$C^{AHC}$	$C^{PHC}$	$C^{AHC}$	$C^{PHC}$	$C^{AHC}$	$C^{PHC}$	$C^{AHC}$	$C^{PHC}$	$C^{AHC}$	$C^{PHC}$
45%	65%	67%	33%	98%	2%	58%	42%	72%	28%

The main research area was concentrated on studying and finding out which features determine to the largest extent creative processes of the students from the selected universities



and then the influence of these features on the development of creatively active human capital was defined. The studies were carried out using, among other things, a register of features of creative people which was presented by Dombrowska (2005):

- Attitude towards reality: curiosity, inquisitiveness, sensibility, spontaneity, openness, flexibility, tolerance towards cognitive contradictions, preference for complex stimulation situations;
- Approach to the problem: courage and facility to experiment, accuracy, involvement, capability to make an intensive effort, endurance, objectivity, radicalism, selectivity, scepticism, constructive criticism, ability to postpone decisions, learning through mistakes;
- Self-feeling: high self-assessment, ambition, sense of mission, self-control, stubbornness;
- Approach to the outer world: introversion, specific associability, independence, ability of self-steering, non-conformism, wide but selective interests.

Among a lot of features assigned to people, the ones which condition creative processes and their effectiveness can be pointed out. Their significant advantage probably stimulates creative activities.

Despite a common statement that creativity is assigned to all people, it would be naive to think that each person characterized by a creative attitude or creative abilities will become an outstanding creator in the future. There are obvious reasons, not only according to the definition, that brilliance is something exceptional, rare and therefore so attractive. The personality factors are a necessary condition, although unfortunately not sufficient for creative achievements. Thus even the most spectacular creative abilities will not suffice for the self-realization of actual creativity if the person lacks required features of personality. Hence, it can rightly be stated that creative activities are correlated with personality features of a creator and with the level of his/her creative intelligence. Also therefore the creative efficiency of individual people is affected by many different features which are responsible for an individual's inclination to act creatively. The author's studies carried out on a group of students (classified according to the results of the study on active human capital) from six Polish universities showed that the driving force of creativity is the attitude towards reality. Out of the features determining creativity to the largest degree among individual persons, the most important one is inquisitiveness (US – 42%, WPUT – 35%, AS – 3%, WSE – 55%, WULS – 46%) and openness was a particularly significant feature for the respondents from the West Pomeranian Voivodeship (US – 52%, WPUT – 42%, AS – 1%). They enable the performance of a task to a degree required by criteria of creativity. Whereas for the representatives of the students from Masovian Voivodeship the second most important feature is preference for complex stimulation situations WSE – 48%, WULS – 52%.

In the second group of the features described as '*Approach to the problem*' it was shown that for the effectiveness of an individual it is important for a human being to show an appropriate level of courage and a facility for experimentation (US – 45%, WPUT – 32%, AS – 1%). Whereas for the students of WSE, WULS, AS in the second group of distinguished features the most important was objectivity. Then, a significant feature of actively creative people is, according to the respondents from the West Pomeranian Voivodeship, constructive objectivism US – 18%, WPUT – 4%, AS – 1%. In the opinion of majority of the respondents, the last element in this group of features that affects the effectiveness of creative work is the ability to be selective. Among the respondents as many as 10% of them from the University of Szczecin 13% from Warsaw School of Economics recognized this factor as significant, so did 7% of the respondents from the technological University of Szczecin and 3% of the respondents from Academy of Art. The remaining answers of the students were not consistent, and thus for the representatives of the University of Szczecin and Warsaw School of Economics a significant



factor of a human being's creativity of work also were: ambition (US – 48%, WSE – 56%) and sense of mission (US – 45%, WSE – 52%). Whereas for the representatives of WPUT and WULS the most important were: self-control (WPUT – 56%, WULS – 52%) and stubbornness (WPUT – 35%, WULS – 44%).

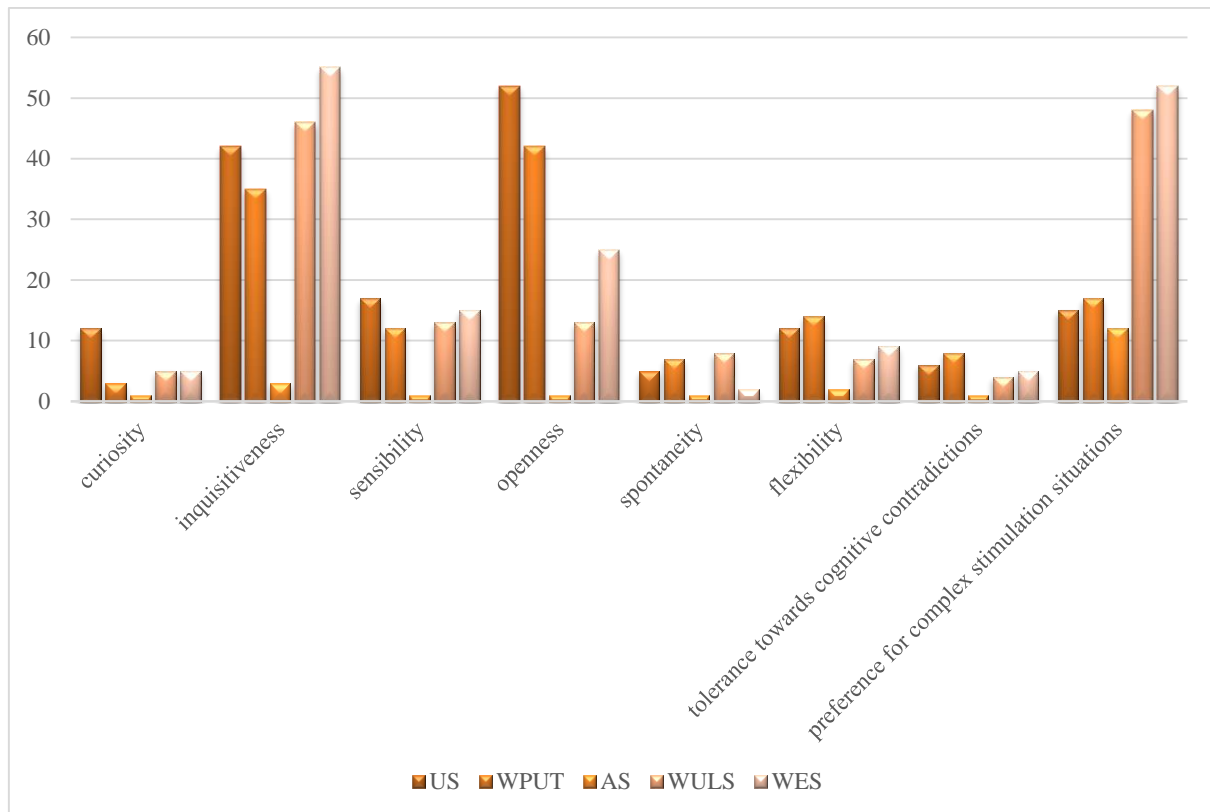


Figure 1. The responses of students in the subject 'Attitude towards reality' in % (own study)

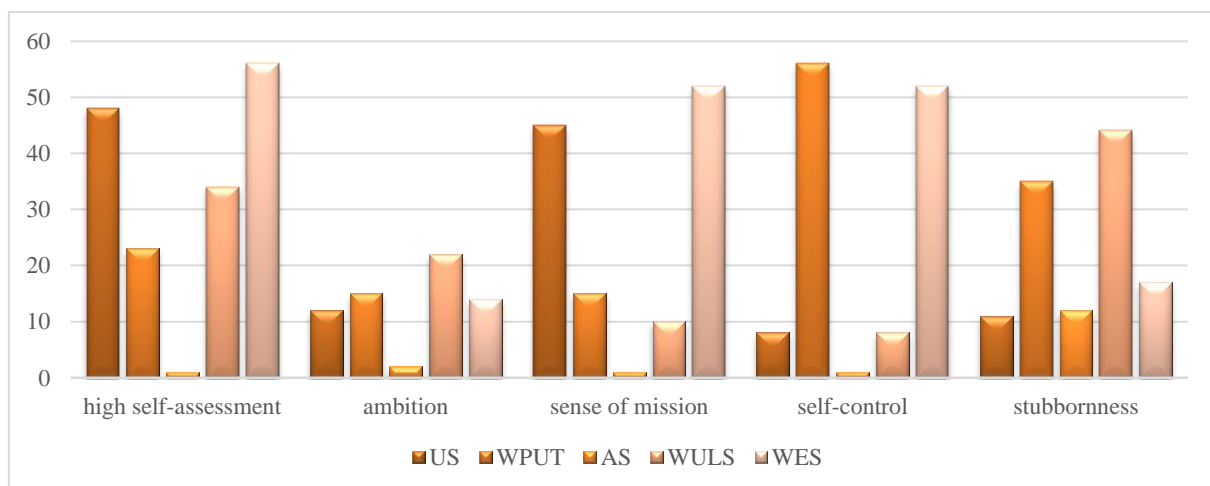


Figure 2. The responses of students in the subject 'Self-feeling' in % (own study)

Analyzing the obtained data in the form of the answers of the students from two universities, representing different kinds of creativity it can be seen that there are slight differences. For the technical sciences the following features determining creative activity are particularly significant: introversion and wide but selective interests, while for the humanities



the most important is independence. It should be noticed that for the representatives of sciences concerning artistic creativity, particularly significant, apart from the above mentioned features, is also the ability to postpone decisions.

The analysis of the features can also be carried out as regards the division of sexes and the background of the candidates. Then, the women pointed to the following features conditioning creative activities: inquisitiveness, constructive criticism, selectivity, ambition, sense of mission, self-control, stubbornness, introversion and wide but selective interests. While the men listed: inquisitiveness, openness, courage and a facility for experimentation, preference for complex stimulation situations, objectivism, selectivity, ambition, self-control, stubbornness, introversion and wide but selective interests, independence. Taking the background into account it can be stated that it was the representatives of villages and small localities that presented the following features favorable for creative activities: openness, selectivity, ambition, sense of mission, self-control, stubbornness, introversion and wide but selective interests. Whereas representatives of large towns pointed to the features conditioning creative activities: courage and a facility for experimentation, constructive criticism, inquisitiveness, preference for complex stimulation situations, objectivism, selectivity, ambition, wide but selective interests.

Dominating positive relationships between effectiveness and cooperation in creative teams and individual features confirm in the studied community the truthfulness of the hypothesis assuming the existence of such dependencies. There is also a clear influence of the degree of participation in creative works facilitating creative activities on the effectiveness of these activities. Thus the general hypothesis is confirmed in the studied group of respondents, assuming the existence of relationships between the level and the scale of the features characteristic of creativity and the level of effectiveness of creative activities.

## 6. Conclusion

It is worth noticing that the distinguished features characteristics of creative people are sometimes in cohesive in their classification. They show many a time, inner inconsistency. However, conclusions presented in numerous publications prove that creative people can combine inconsistent features. And thus summarizing, it can be noticed that for the respondents from the West Pomerania Province the features conditioning creative activities are: inquisitiveness, openness, courage and a facility to experiment, constructive criticism, selectivity, ambition, sense of mission, independence. Whereas for the representatives of the Masovian Voivodeship the most important features were: inquisitiveness, preference for complex stimulation situations, objectivism, selectivity, ambition, sense of mission, self-control, introversion and wide but selective interests. As it is seen, there are significant differences between the respondents from two regions of Poland. It is difficult to state unambiguously that the presented features affect the development of creativity in the regions, as the creative processes and their results are conditioned not only by the creators' features but also by environmental conditions (*Burke & Litwin, 1992; Schneider et al., 1996; Amabile et al., 1996; Amabile, 1988; Kuenzi & Schminke, 2009 for: Sokół, 2015*), which, as it was proved by many research workers, are correlated, to a significant extent, with the final effect, i.e. with creative activities.

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## WIARYGODNOŚĆ MENEDŻERÓW A ZAUFANIE W RELACJACH BANKÓW Z KLIENTAMI

### The Effect of Manager Credibility on the Bank's Customer Trust

ANDRZEJ SOŁOMA

#### Abstract

The last global banking crisis was due primarily to regulatory failures and the failure of both self-discipline and market discipline. The investment bankers and traders have designed structured products that have little or no relevance to the real economy. Yet, regulators did not recognize the risk structured products posed to customers and to the banking system. This study seeks to investigate the factors that affect the trust of customers in banks. Consumer trust in banks is multi-faceted and is most frequently associated with the risk of losing money and the stability of the institution in a complex environment. The paper focuses on the impact of bank manager credibility on the customer-bank trust level. The foundational cores of manager credibility are competence, capabilities, intent, character and integrity. The EY Global Consumer Banking survey results show that Polish customers trust their banks to a moderate degree. The results indicate that 26% of responders in Poland were less trustful in the past 12 months. The findings of this study suggest that, in order to develop trust in banks it is essential for bank managers to improve transparency of fees, problem resolution, communication and simplicity of offers that are trustworthy, for customers. The customer experience with bank is a key driver of trust.

**Key words:** trust, manager, trustworthiness, survey, bank, customers.

**Classification JEL:** M12 – Personnel Management.

## 1. Wprowadzenie

W wydarzenia na światowych rynkach finansowych w latach 2008 – 2012 wskazały na wagę problematyki zaufania i wiarygodności menedżerów banków. Skutki kryzysu finansowego spowodowały konieczności postawienia pytania, czy banki wraz z nadzorem finansowym w dalszym ciągu zasługują na określenie „instytucji zaufania publicznego”. Współczesne usługi finansowe proponowane przez banki stają się coraz bardziej kompleksowe, skomplikowane i obciążone dużym ryzykiem np. jak to miało miejsce w ostatnich latach w odniesieniu do walutowych kredytów hipotecyjnych w Polsce. Z punktu widzenia konsumenta, bez szczegółowej analizy i wiedzy finansowej trudno mieć do nich zaufanie, co przekłada się na poziom lojalności wobec instytucji finansowych.

*Głównym celem opracowania jest analiza wpływu wiarygodności menadżerów banków na poziom zaufania klientów. Wykorzystując metodę badań literaturowych podjęto próbę przeglądu źródeł, cech i wymiarów zaufania w kontekście relacji B2C (Business to Consumer). Do określania źródeł i poziomu zaufania polskich klientów banków wykorzystano dane z badań przeprowadzonych przez firmę doradcą EY (dawny Ernst & Young) w 2014, wśród 32 tysięcy klientów w 43 krajach.*

## 2. Wielowymiarowość pojęcia zaufanie

Zaufanie często określane jest jako pojęcie złożone, wielowymiarowe, które może być odnoszone do wielu obszarów ludzkiej działalności, co powoduje, że występują różne jego formy. Obiektem zaufania, oprócz konkretnych osób, są także instytucje i organizacje. Z perspektywy nauk o zarządzaniu warto zwrócić uwagę na definicję zaufania jako „przekonania, na podstawie którego jednostka A w konkretnej sytuacji godzi się na zależność od jednostki B (osoby, przedmiotu, organizacji), mając poczucie względnego bezpieczeństwa, mimo, że negatywne konsekwencje są możliwe“ (*Grudzewski i in., 2009, s. 19*). Na podstawie



przeglądu literatury można zidentyfikować takie źródła zaufania jak rachunek ekonomiczny, znajomości i wartości. Natomiast, do najważniejszych składników zaufania zalicza się: zdolność, uczciwość, życzliwość, wiarygodność, przewidywalność, szczerowość, kompetencja, troska o innych, wyniki (*Six & Sorge, 2008*). Warto podkreślić, że zaufanie zmienia się w czasie na podstawie interakcji. W środowisku naukowym w obszarze nauk o zarządzaniu, powszechnie wykorzystywany jest zintegrowany model zaufania Mayera, uwzględniający trzy wymiary zaufania sprowadzające się do kompetencji, uczciwości i życzliwości (*Mayer i in., 1995*).

F. Fukuyama zaufanie traktuje jako integralny element kapitału społecznego obejmującego zestaw nieformalnych wartości i norm etycznych wspólnych dla członków określonej grupy, które ułatwiają im skuteczne współdziałanie (*Fukuyama, 1997*). Podkreśla, że zaufanie jest mechanizmem opartym na założeniu, że innych członków danej społeczności cechuje uczciwe i kooperatywne zachowanie, oparte na wspólnie wyznawanych normach. P. Sztomka dodaje, że zaufanie jest zakładem podejmowanym w kontekście niepewnych, przyszłych działań innych ludzi, szczególną formą przekonania i opartym na nim działaniem (*Sztomka, 2007*). W literaturze, zaufanie uznaje się powszechnie za składnik aktywów niematerialnych, który wpływa na efektywność organizacji, powstające innowacje i kreatywność pracowników (*Casson & Giusta, 2006; McEvily & Zaheer, 2006; Grudzewski i in., 2009*). Zaufanie jest także elementem kapitału rynkowego odnoszącego się do relacji z klientami. Zaufanie pełni ważną funkcję przewyższania złożoności poznawczej związanej z decyzjami konsumentów na rynkach finansowych, które wynikają z produktów finansowych obciążonych ryzykiem oraz zdarzeń o charakterze makroekonomicznym. C. Ennew i H. Sekhon, proponują, aby mierzyć zaufanie do instytucji finansowych poprzez uwzględnienie zarówno czynnika jakim jest postrzegana wiarygodność organizacji, jak i indywidualnej skłonności do ufania drugiej stronie relacji (*Ennew & Sekhon, 2007*).

Na podstawie studiów literaturowych, w niniejszym opracowaniu przyjęto definicję zaufania klienta do banku jako gotowość do korzystania z usług bankowych w przekonaniu, że bank wywiąże się z podjętych zobowiązań i nie będzie działał na jego niekorzyść niezależnie od możliwości monitorowania lub kontrolowania działalności banku przez klienta.

### **3. Wiarygodność menedżerów w sektorze bankowym**

Jeżeli przyjąć, że obecnie najbardziej cennym składnikiem aktywów przedsiębiorstwa są jego pracownicy (*Blaskova, Blasko, Figurska & Sokół, 2015, s. 117*) to istnieje również przekonanie, że rolą menedżerów jest budowanie zaufania wewnątrz organizacji co pozwala stworzyć bardziej wiarygodną organizację, tzn. Taką, która nie oszukuje klientów, nie angażuje się w nieetyczne działania czy nie zarabia pieniędzy na podejrzanych transakcjach (*Bugdol 2010, s. 191*). Jedną z najważniejszych podstaw zaufania jest ocena wiarygodności drugiej strony – adresata zaufania w kontekście spełnienia oczekiwań (osoby lub instytucji), wywiązania się z zobowiązań, jego motywów i interesów, konsekwencji postępowania w godny zaufania sposób. R. Hardin przyjmuje, że zaufanie jest pojęciem kognitywnym ponieważ zależy od oceny wiarygodności na podstawie wiedzy na temat historii wcześniejszych interakcji (*Hardin, 2009, s. 46 – 47*). Reinhard K. Sprenger, niemiecki ekspert z dziedziny zarządzania, porównuje zaufanie do wiedzy tzn. kwalifikuje go do tego typu zasobów organizacji, które się nie wyczerpują ale „podlegają zmianom pod wpływem użytkowania; kurczy się ono, gdy jest ono zaniedbywane, ale zyskuje na mocy w miarę częstego korzystania z niego” (*Sprenger, 2009, s. 205*). Pisząc o budowaniu zaufania organizacji w relacjach z otoczeniem zewnętrznym w szczególności z klientami, nie można pominąć ważnego elementu, którym jest zaufanie do menedżera. Warto zastanowić się, od jakich czynników uzależniona jest wiarygodność menedżerów. W literaturze można znaleźć następujące przykłady wiarygodnych zachowań menedżerskich budujących zaufanie:



- Konsekwencja, spójność i przewidywalność zachowań menedżerów;
- Prawdopodobieństwo i dotrzymywanie obietnic;
- Komunikacja z pracownikami i klientami (otwartość, dzielenie się informacją, wyjaśnianie motywów decyzji);
- Delegowanie uprawnień i dzielenie się kontrolą ( *Whitener i in., 1998*).

Jak ważne jest zaufanie w relacjach B2C (przedsiębiorstwo – konsument) pokazał ostatni kryzys finansowy uwidaczniając liczne nieprawidłowości w sektorze bankowym, które przełożyły się na negatywne konsekwencje dla klientów tego sektora. Jak zauważa J. E. Stiglitz, „amerykańskie banki aktywnie wdały się w działania oszukańcze: usuwały ryzyko ze swoich bilansów po to, żeby nikt nie był w stanie właściwie go ocenić“, wytwarzały skomplikowane produkty na bazie toksycznych kredytów hipotecznych a menedżerowie banków mieli motywację i narzędzia do tego (włącznie z kreatywną księgowością), aby tworzyć pakiet wynagrodzeń (opcje na akcje), który przynosił im korzyści kosztem innych ( *Stiglitz, 2010, s. 179–183*).

K. Orlik zauważa, że decyzje finansowe uczestników rynków oparte na zaufaniu bardzo często są irracjonalne, szczególnie w okresach dobrej koniunktury gospodarczej, ludzie nie biorą pod uwagę niektórych informacji wykazując przesadny optymizm (zaufanie), że wartość ich inwestycji będzie cały czas rosła, lekceważąc np. możliwość pęknięcia banki spekulacyjnej ( *Orlik, 2012*). G. Akerlof i R. Shiller ((laureaci nagrody Nobla) podkreślają, że u źródeł kryzysu na rynku nieruchomości w USA była m.in. działalność instytucji udzielających kredytów wysokiego ryzyka, które nie podlegały wystarczającym regulacjom oraz ryzykowne instrumenty finansowe tworzone w ramach sekurytyzacji aktywów ( *Akerlof & Shiller, 2010*). W momencie, kiedy okazało się, że znaczna część kredytobiorców określanych jako NINJA (No Job No Income, No Assets) nie jest w stanie regulować zobowiązań kredytowych, nastąpił jednoczesny spadek zaufania pomiędzy uczestnikami i wartości tego rodzaju papierów wartościowych na rynku, prowadząc do bankructwa instytucje finansowe, które posiadały znaczny udział w swoich portfelach. Kryzys zaufania spowodował, że uczestnicy zaczęli podejrzliwie odnosić się do transakcji, co do których poprzednio nie mieli zastrzeżeń. Zdaniem P. H. Dembińskiego system finansowy np. w USA oparty na rynkach finansowych jest znacznie bardziej zależny od postrzegania, przewidywania, zachowań stadnych uczestników, zmian zaufania np. do wiarygodności ocen agencji ratingowych oraz paniki, niż niemiecko-japoński model systemu finansowego ( *Dembińskiego, 2012*). Jest bowiem tak, że menedżerowie funduszy inwestycyjnych i inni inwestorzy próbują przewidzieć wartość papierów wartościowych w kontekście zachowań innych uczestników rynku, obserwując, co robią inni, jak się zachowują, ulegając jednocześnie skłonności do kopiowania zachowań innych inwestorów, co prowadzi do dokonywania wyborów nie o wycenę fundamentalną a wartość postrzeganą przez rynki.

W ujęciu przedstawicieli reprezentujących ekonomię behawioralną takie zachowania uczestników rynków finansowych można wyjaśnić w oparciu o zasadę (haurystykę) dostępności, według której ludzie przypisują tym wyższe prawdopodobieństwo pojawienia się jakiegoś zdarzenia, im więcej podobnych przykładów znają i łatwiej sobie je przypominają, co powoduje, że informacje, które są bardziej wyraziste i powiązane z emocjami, mają także wpływ na kalkulację ryzyka finansowego i podejmowane decyzje ( *Zaleskiewicz, 2011*). P. H. Dembiński uważa, że dominującym zachowaniem we współczesnych instytucjach finansowych stała się koncepcja finansjalizacji opierająca się na etosie skuteczności i efektywności rozumianej jako dążenie do osiągnięcia ilościowego egoistycznego celu, w którym ludzie są „zasobami” a chęć i bezwzględność w jego realizacji sprawia, że „partnerów handlowych postrzega się jako naiwniaków, w najlepszym przypadku – jako narzędzia wykorzystywane do osiągnięcia własnych celów” ( *Dembiński, 2012, s. 93–94*). Wyniki badań K. Źródło dotyczące spółek giełdowych notowanych na GPW w Warszawie (w



tym także z indeksu branżowego WIG Banki) wskazują, że do głównych powodów utraty zaufania inwestorów do danej spółki należy zaliczyć takie praktyki jak:

„Koloryzowanie” wyników bądź udziału w rynku, niedotrzymywanie prognoz, składanie obietnic bez pokrycia;

- Zatajanie informacji zarówno tych negatywnych, jak i pozytywnych;
- Wykorzystywanie informacji poufnych do osiągnięcia korzyści dla właściciela lub podmiotów powiązanych;
- Nie ujawnianie wszystkich ryzyk towarzyszących działalności spółki, lub „zaciemnianie obrazu” rzeczywistego celu zawieranych kontraktów;
- Nagłe „zamknięcie się komunikacyjne, zmienność decyzji biznesowych i kreatywna księgowość (Żądło, 2014).

Dotychczasowe efekty funkcjonowania współczesnej bankowości skłaniają do refleksji, że unikanie podejmowania w/w rodzaju działań może wpłynąć na wiarygodność zarządu i większe zaufanie interesariuszy do spółki.

#### 4. Wyniki badań

Wyniki badań dotyczące klientów banków detalicznych przeprowadzone przez firmę doradczą EY (dawny Ernst & Young) w 2014, wśród 32 tysięcy klientów w 43 krajach wskazują, że w skali globalnej 33% ankietowanych deklaruje, że w ciągu ostatnich 12 miesięcy wzrosło ich zaufanie do sektora bankowego<sup>1</sup>.

Tabela 1. Zmiana poziomu zaufania klientów do banków w wybranych krajach w okresie 2013 – 2014 (opracowanie własne na podstawie: EY Global Consumer Banking Survey 2014)

Kraj	Odsetek klientów deklarujący zmianę zaufania do banków w ciągu ostatnich 12 miesięcy (%)		
	Wzrost	Spadek	Bez zmian
Czechy	13	11	76
Hiszpania	8	60	32
Niemcy	6	38	56
Polska	14	26	60
USA	16	24	60
Wielka Brytania	11	37	52

Jednakże w niektórych krajach jest inaczej np. w Polsce konsumenci mają umiarkowane zaufanie do instytucji finansowych bowiem wyniki cytowanych tu badań wskazują, że tylko 14% respondentów ufa swoim instytucjom finansowym w 2014 roku bardziej niż przed rokiem (Tabela 1). Warto podkreślić, że w polskim sektorze bankowym, który w niewielkim stopniu został dotknięty skutkami kryzysu finansowego, aż 26% ankietowanych straciło zaufanie do banków w analizowanym okresie. Częściowo można to wytłumaczyć sytuacją 550 tysięcy gospodarstw domowych posiadających kredyty hipoteczne zaciągnięte w walutach obcych głównie we frankach szwajcarskich, którego kurs, w analizowanym okresie, uległ znacznej aprecjacji w stosunku do złotówki. W konsekwencji aktualne zadłużenie części kredytobiorców przewyższa wartość nieruchomości. Problem komplikuje polityka niektórych banków komercyjnych prowadzących działalność w Polsce, które nie uwzględniają ujemnych stóp procentowych szwajcarskiego banku centralnego. Mimo to, odsetek klientów deklarujących spadek zaufania w Polsce i tak jest mniejszy w porównaniu do krajów Europy Zachodniej, np.

<sup>1</sup> EY Global Consumer Banking Survey 2014. *Winning through customer experience*.  
[<http://www.ey.com/globalconsumerbankingsurvey>, dostęp 21. 2. 2016]



Hiszpanii, w której 60% respondentów stwierdziło, że spadło ich zaufanie do branży bankowej (Tabela 1). Wyniki badań EY wskazują, że tylko 6% polskich klientów deklaruje całkowity brak zaufania do banku, 61% ma umiarkowane a 33% pełne zaufanie. W skali globalnej poziom zaufania do sektora bankowego jest uzależniony m.in. od segmentu klientów a zmiany w poziomach zaufania odzwierciedlają odczucia klientów w stosunku do ich głównego dostawcy usług finansowych. W przypadku Polski, kraju rozwijającego się, próbującego skrócić dystans do krajów starej UE, występuje specyficzna struktura konsumentów, co zmusza banki do elastyczności i zdolności przystosowywania się do szybkich zmian w zakresie obsługi różnych segmentów klientów, co nie zawsze jest przekłada się na wzrost zaufania pomiędzy stronami. Dla przykładu, segment klientów definiowany jako „tradycjoniści” preferuje wizyty w oddziałach, jest skłonny pogłębić relacje z bankiem np. poprzez zwiększenie wartości depozytów ale w przypadku ‘nagradzania za lojalność’.

Tabela 2. Najważniejsze czynniki wpływające na wysokie i niskie zaufania klientów do banków w Polsce (opracowanie własne na podstawie: EY Global Consumer Banking Survey 2014)

Czynniki wpływające na wysokie zaufanie (% wskazań)	Czynniki wpływające na niskie zaufanie (% wskazań)
1. Możliwość wycofania środków (65%)	1. Wysokość opłat (65%)
2. Stabilność finansowa banku (60%)	2. Wysokość odsetek od depozytów (50%)
3. Sposób, w jaki klient jest traktowany (48%)	3. Wysokość odsetek od kredytów (40%)

Do najważniejszych czynników wpływających na niskie zaufanie do banków wśród polskich klientów należy zaliczyć ponoszone przez nich koszty związane z korzystaniem z usług bankowych (Tabela 2). Wyniki badań wskazują, że menedżerowie banków powinni budować zaufanie do swoich instytucji poprzez dalszą poprawę jakości obsługi klientów, sposób komunikacji i politykę cenową swoich produktów a w szczególności bardziej transparentną informację o wszystkich kosztach związanych z proponowaną ofertą.

Kształtowaniu zaufania klientów do instytucji bankowej sprzyja wiarygodność zarządu, rzetelność, transparentność i wzajemna dwustronna komunikacja. Dla klienta szczególnie ważna jest umiejętność prowadzenia komunikacji w przypadku zaistniałych trudnych konfliktowych sytuacji, dotrzymywanie słowa co do szybkości rozwiązywania problemów, niezatajanie informacji, informowanie nie tylko o zaletach, ale i zagrożeniach związanych z oferowanymi instrumentami finansowymi. O wadze dwustronnej komunikacji świadczą wyniki w/w badań, które wskazują, że wśród tych polskich klientów, którzy zgłosili swój problem do banku (ok. 27% ogółu), aż 43% klientów nie było zadowolonych ze sposobu jego rozwiązania. Z jednej strony świadczy to o małej wiarygodności menedżerów i okazanego wsparcia w sytuacjach trudnych, a z drugiej stwarza szanse na poprawę relacji z klientami w przypadku zmiany strategii komunikacji organizacji zmierzającej do kreowania zaufania pomiędzy stronami.

## 5. Podsumowanie

W przedstawionym artykule dążono do poszerzenia wiedzy z zakresu wielowymiarowego ujęcia zaufania w organizacji i wykazania związku między wiarygodnością menedżerów banków przejawiających się w podejmowanych przez nich działaniach z zaufaniem klientów do tych instytucji. Obserwacja współczesnego sektora bankowego skłania do refleksji, że nie wszystkie banki zasługują na określenie ‘instytucji zaufania publicznego’, co w szczególności uwidocznili ostatni kryzys finansowy. Z punktu widzenia klienta, zaufanie do usługodawcy jest niezbędne wszędzie tam, gdzie występuje ryzyko i niepewność, m.in. na rynku coraz bardziej skomplikowanych produktów bankowych. Wyniki badań przeprowadzonych wśród klientów



indywidualnych banków przeprowadzone przez firmę doradczą EY wskazują, że z jednej strony 14% polskich respondentów ufa swoim instytucjom finansowym w 2014 roku bardziej niż przed rokiem, ale z drugiej aż 26% respondentów utraciło zaufanie. Do najważniejszych czynników wpływających na ograniczone zaufanie do banków wśród polskich klientów należy zaliczyć koszty usług bankowych, niska transparentność komunikacji i sposoby załatwiania reklamacji.

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## VYUŽITIE TALENT MANAŽMENTU AKO MOTIVÁCIE PRE ZAMESTNANCOV S VYSOKÝM PRACOVNÝM POTENCIÁLOM

### Implementation of Talent Management as Motivation for High-potential Employees

ZDENKO STACHO, KATARÍNA STACHOVÁ, KATARÍNA GUBÍNIOVÁ

#### Abstract

In the present-day increased turbulence, organisations with quality and talented employees have an advantage both in the competitive environment and on the labour market, where they become attractive employers. The issue of talent management has been paid an increased attention over the last years, which can be especially attributed to demographic changes related to general ageing of population, increased mobility of workforce as well as globalisation. The ability to sufficiently motivate talents to remain in a company is thus becoming key in the issue of the availability of high-potential human resources. For the purpose of finding out whether and to what extent talent management is dealt with by organisations operating in Slovakia, we conducted a research at School of Economics and Management in Public Administration in Bratislava, results whereof will be included in this paper along with measures to improve the present state.

**Key words:** talent management, motivation, talented employees, research, competitive environment.

**Classification JEL:** M12 – Personnel Management; J24 – Human capital; M24 – Labor Management.

#### 1. Úvod

Snahou manažmentu každej organizácie je zabezpečiť konkurencieschopný pracovný potenciál. Pracovný potenciál, ktorým organizácia disponuje, rozhoduje o jej úspešnosti. Je základným predpokladom plnenia aktuálnych a perspektívnych úloh organizácie v trhovej ekonomike.

Pričom pracovným potenciálom sa rozumie nielen počet zamestnancov, ale aj ich vedomosti, schopnosti, zručnosti, inteligencia, talent a osobné charakteristiky potrebné na splnenie vytýčených cieľov a poslania organizácie. Získať takýchto zamestnancov patrí preto k najdôležitejším a permanentným činnostiam personálneho manažmentu (*Kachaňáková a kol., 2008, s. 68*).

Dôležité však je uvedomiť si, že pri získavaní zamestnancov nejde len o využívanie externých zdrojov, ale často prioritne o využitie interných zdrojov. Práve využívanie interných zdrojov je zamestnancami hodnotené veľmi pozitívne a takéto konanie organizácie na nich pôsobí motivačne (*Blašková 2011; Stachová & Stacho, 2013*). Ideálnym nástrojom vhodným na identifikáciu získanie a následne využite zamestnancov s vysokým pracovným potenciálom je práve talent manažment. Egerová (*2013*) však upozorňuje na to, že talent management ako taký nie je prevratnou novinkou posledných rokov, ale činnosť, ktorá sa rozvíja už od 80. rokov 20. storočia. Riadenie talentov je teda síce relatívne novým prístupom, ktorý je však vybudovaný na zásadách a východiskách riadenia ľudských zdrojov, ktoré existujú už veľmi dlhú dobu. S tým súhlasí aj Armstrong (*2007*), ktorý uvádza, že je táto koncepcia odvodená od obratu „vojna o talenty“. Ten vznikol v 90. rokoch a bol určitým prostriedkom pre vysvetlenie problémov, ktoré mali spoločnosti so získaním a udržovaním talentovaných ľudí.

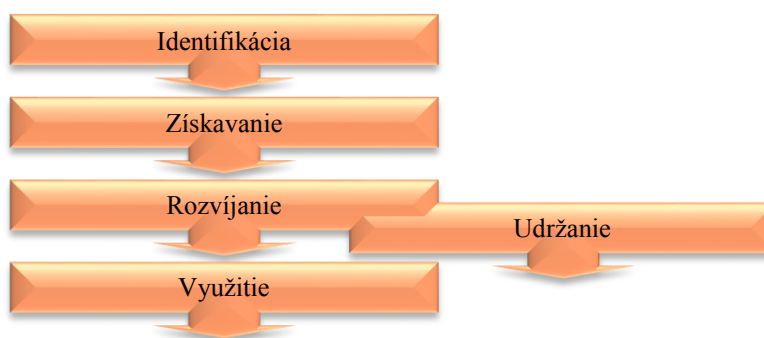
Koncepcia riadenia talentov sa podľa Gelens a kol. (*2014*) zaoberá zvýšením pracovného potenciálu zamestnancov vedúcim k dosahovaniu cieľov organizácie. Jedná sa o používanie vzájomne prepojeného súboru činností, ktoré majú zabezpečiť, aby organizácia priťahovala, udržovala, motivovala a rozvíjala talentovaných ľudí, ktorých potrebuje teraz aj v budúcnosti. (*Armstrong, 2007*).





Podľa Urena (2007) má talent manažment päť prvkov – ide o prilákanie talentov, ich identifikáciu, ďalší rozvoj, využívanie a v neposlednom rade tiež ich zapojenie. Naopak Balarin (2011) medzi kľúčové procesy talent manažmentu radí stanovenie kritérií pre výber talentovaných zamestnancov a zodpovedajúci spôsob komunikácie, ďalej identifikáciu talentov, ich rozvoj, plánovanie kariéry a nástupníctvo a udržanie talentov. Wellins, a kol. (2009) tvrdia, že proces talent manažmentu pokrýva všetky kľúčové aspekty životného cyklu zamestnanca, či sa už jedná o výber zamestnanca, jeho rozvoj, plánovanie následníctva alebo riadenie pracovného výkonu.

Naopak podľa Horváthovej (2011) je možné talent management rozčleniť do troch základných skupín procesov – získanie, rozvoj a udržanie talentov. Veľmi podobne charakterizuje kľúčové procesy talent manažmentu aj Eisel (2014), ktorý ich delí na identifikáciu, výber a rozvoj najlepších pracovníkov/talentov, rozpoznanie a obsadenie kľúčových pozícií kľúčovými pracovníkmi, vhodné dlhodobé rozdelenie zdrojov zamestnancom a to hlavne podľa ich reálneho a aktuálneho prínosu ku kvalite práce v organizácii. Proces talent manažmentu je možné podľa Hroníka (2007) popísať piatimi krokmi znázornenými v obrázku 1.



Obrázok 1. Proces talent manažmentu (Hroník, 2007)

Z uvedeného teda vyplýva, že proces talent manažmentu začína identifikovaním talentov z interných či externých zdrojov. Identifikácia talentovaného zamestnanca súvisí s hodnotením, poskytuje základňu na plnohodnotné rozvíjanie kariéry, t. j. na zabezpečenie toho, aby talentovaní ľudia mohli v danej organizácii rozvíjať svoje schopnosti, zručnosti a predpoklady na zastávanie náročnejších rolí (Marek, 2012).

Po identifikovaní talentu je potrebné vybraného človeka získať pre program (projekt). Po vstupe do programu nasleduje jeho intenzívny rozvoj. Rozvoj talentov sa týka zlepšovania výkonu na ich súčasných pozíciách a ich prípravy na vyššie funkcie a vyššiu mieru zodpovednosti v budúcnosti (Armstrong, 2007). Rozvoj talentov teda smeruje k štvrtému kroku a to využitiu talentu a jeho premenenie na výsledky. Súbežne s tretím a štvrtým krokom je dôležité zamerať sa už aj na udržanie si talentu v organizácii, pretože práve odchod talentovaných zamestnancov môže mať mimoriadne nepriaznivý dopad na ďalší chod a konkurencieschopnosť organizácie.

Keď z organizácie odchádza zamestnanec s kľúčovými vedomosťami, zručnosťami a schopnosťami potrebnými pre organizáciu teraz i v budúcnosti, stráca tak časť svojho intelektuálneho kapitálu, preto ak si chce organizácia týchto zamestnancov udržať musí sa s nimi vedieť dohodnúť a musí s nimi spolupracovať, ale je samozrejme, že je potrebné udržať sa v určitých hraniciach (Potkány & Hitka, 2009; Zavadský a kol., 2015; Šujanová a kol., 2012; Pilková a kol., 2013; Papula a kol., 2013).

Dôležité je, aby organizácia podnecovala talenty k čo najväčšiemu možnému prispievaniu k cieľom organizácie a podľa ich výkonu ich adekvátne ocenil. Okrem toho by sa organizácia



mala zameriavať aj na plnenie cieľov talentov (napr. postup v kariére, uspokojenie z práce či pocit istoty), čím sa upevní ich spolupatričnosť s organizáciou (Stacho & Stachová, 2013; Gubiniová, 2014; Gbírová, 2014). Pokiaľ má zamestnanec pocit, že je spravodlivo finančne ohodnotený a to i v porovnaní so zamestnancami konkurenčných organizácií, pokiaľ vníma svoju prácu ako zaujímavú a zmysluplnú, podporovanú dobrými manažérskymi metódami, má dobré vzťahy s priamym nadriadeným, cíti podporu so strany vrcholového vedenia a je mu poskytnutý dostatočný priestor na rozvoj a rast, potom ho nezláka ani zaujímavá ponuka inej organizácie, kde si nemôže byť istý tak dobrými pracovnými podmienkami (Branham, 2004; Majerčáková, 2015).

Je potrebné aby si organizácie uvedomili, že práve *talenty ktoré majú k dispozícii predstavujú ich budúcnosť*, pretože práve ony sú rezervami pre dosiahnutie kontinuity a ďalšou generáciou manažérov, na ktorých by malo plynúť riadenie organizácie.

## 2. Materiály a metódy

Prieskumy prezentované v príspevku boli realizované každoročne od roku 2010 do roku 2014 na Vysoké škole ekonómie a manažmentu verejnej správy v Bratislave. Ich cieľom bolo zistenie aktuálnej úrovne riadenia ľudských zdrojov a organizačnej kultúry v organizáciách pôsobiacich na Slovensku. Organizácie zapojené do prieskumu boli opytované formou dotazníka osobne doručeného, osobe zodpovednej za riadenie ľudských zdrojov v organizácii.

Pre stanovenie vhodnej výskumnej vzorky boli určené dve stratifikačné kritériá, prvým kritériom bol minimálny počet zamestnancov v organizácii a to 50 zamestnancov. Uvedeným stratifikačným kritériom sme z výskumu na jednej strane vylúčili mikro a malé podniky, avšak na druhej strane sme týmto kritériom sledovali a hlavne deklarovali opodstatnenosť a potrebu zamerať sa na formálny systém riadenia ľudských zdrojov v podnikoch na 50 zamestnancov. Druhým stratifikačným kritériom bol región pôsobenia organizácie, pričom pri štruktúrnom zložení výskumnej vzorky sme vychádzali z údajov ŠÚ SR (*Štatistický úrad Slovenskej republiky*).

Podľa ŠÚ SR v priebehu rokov 2010 až 2014 sa počet podnikov s počtom zamestnancov 50 a viac pohyboval medzi 3261 – 3359. Regionálna štruktúra podnikov nad 50 zamestnancov v uvedených rokoch je uvedená v tabuľke 1.

Tab. 1. Regionálna štruktúra podnikov nad 50 zamestnancov (údaje spracované podľa ŠÚ SR)

Región	Celé Slovensko	Západné Slovensko	Stredné Slovensko	Východné Slovensko
Kraje	Všetky kraje	BA, TT, TN, NR	BB, ZA	KE, PO
Počet podnikov 2010	3308	2031	655	622
Počet podnikov 2011	3359	2061	666	632
Počet podnikov 2012	3295	2025	652	618
Počet podnikov 2013	3268	2017	645	606
Počet podnikov 2014	3261	2005	644	612

Pri stanovovaní optimálnej výskumnej vzorky z uvedeného základného súboru podnikov bolo stanovené percento spoľahlivosti (Confidence Level) výskumu na 95 % a interval spoľahlivosti (Confidence Interval) výsledkov bol stanovený ( $H = +/- 0,10$ ). Na základe uvedených kritérií bola stanovená dostatočná, resp. relevantná výskumná vzorka pre jednotlivé regióny Slovenska, v analyzovaných rokoch, ktorá je uvedená v tabuľke 2.

Každoročne bolo do výskumu zapojených cca 500 organizácií, avšak z dôvodu veľkého rozsahu a formy zberu dát sa nám pravidelne vracalo len približne 65 % komplexne vyplnených



dotazníkov. Z týchto organizácií bolo následne vyselektovaných 259 podnikov zodpovedajúcich optimálnej výskumnej vzorke, stanovenej na základe stratifikačných kritérií.

Tab. 2. Veľkosť výskumnej vzorky pre jednotlivé regióny Slovenska (vlastné spracovanie)

Región	Západné Slovensko	Stredné Slovensko	Východné Slovensko
Kraje	BA, TT, TN, NR	BB, ZA	KE, PO
Počet podnikov 2010-2014	2005-2061	644-666	606-632
Veľkosť výskumnej vzorky	92	84	83

Do prieskumu boli každoročne zapojené podniky zo všetkých odvetví hospodárstva (tabuľka 3), pričom 7 % až 10 % analyzovaných podnikov bolo pôsobiacich v poľnohospodárstve a v lesnom hospodárstve, avšak výsledky výskumu nepreukázali významné rozdiely pri medziodvetvovom porovnávaní. Z uvedeného dôvodu boli výsledky prieskumu vyhodnotené kumulatívne, teda bez ohľadu na odvetvie, v ktorom podniky pôsobia.

Tab. 3. Percentuálny podiel podnikov pôsobiacich v jednotlivých odvetviach (vlastné spracovanie)

Odvetvie	% podiel podnikov				
	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014
Priemysel	40%	37%	40%	38%	39%
Poľnohospodárstvo, lesníctvo a rybolov	8%	9%	7%	10%	8%
Energetika a vodohospodárstvo	4%	3%	4%	2%	4%
Služby	25%	32%	34%	35%	33%
Bankovníctvo, finančníctvo, poisťovníctvo	9%	5%	3%	4%	5%
Stavebníctvo	10%	11%	10%	9%	10%
Iné	4%	3%	2%	2%	1%
SPOLU	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%

Medzi základné metódy realizovaného výskumu patria logické metódy využívajúce princípy logiky a logického myslenia. Z tejto skupiny metód boli aplikované najmä metódy analýzy, syntézy, dedukcie a komparácie. V článku boli uplatnené taktiež matematické a štatistické metódy. Zo softvérových produktov dostupných na trhu bol vo výskumnej práci použitý textový editor, tabuľkový procesor a štatistický softvér. Konkrétne sa jednalo o MS Word 2013, MS Excel 2013 a štatistický softvér SPSS 15.0 for Windows®.

### 3. Výsledky výskumu

V rámci prieskumu nás prioritne zaujímalo, či organizácie majú zadanú stratégiu organizácie a to z dôvodu, že práve ona má byť východiskom pri stanovení stratégie talent manažmentu. Z prieskumu vyplynulo že 69 % opytovaných organizácií malo zadanú organizačnú stratégiu, avšak len 25 % z nich malo na jej základe stanovenú stratégiu talent manažmentu. Na zistenie existencie, respektíve absencie stratégie talent manažmentu, sme sa zamerali z dôvodu, že ak je manažment do podpory talentov zaangažovaný, nevyhnutne musí byť v organizácii stratégia talent manažmentu zadaná a tiež musí vychádzať zo stratégie organizácie a práve na tvorbu oboch stratégií organizácie má manažment priamy vplyv. Z prieskumu nám však zaangažovanosť manažmentu v oblasti talent manažmentu nevyplynula.

Následne sme sa v prieskume zamerali na zistenie, či organizácie realizujú aktivity súvisiace s riadením talentov ako napr. identifikáciu, získavanie, riadenie, rozvoj talentovaných zamestnancov a to či už na základe vytvorenej stratégie talent manažmentu, alebo bez nej. Z výsledkov vyplynulo, že riadením talentov na základe stanovenej stratégie talent



manažmentu sa venuje, ako už bolo deklarované v predošlej odpovedi 25 % opytovaných organizácií. Na základe intuície realizuje aktivity súvisiace z riadením talentov 33 % organizácií a 42 % sa doposiaľ riadením talentov nezaoberalo.

Uvedené zistenie sme porovnali s výsledkami výskumu, ktorý uskutočnili Urbancová a kol. z Provozně-ekonomické fakulty ČZU v Prahe (prieskum sa realizoval v roku 2015 na výberovom súbore 100 organizácií zo všetkých ekonomických odvetví, pričom výber organizácií bol náhodný). V Českej republike je stále menej než polovica (36 %) organizácií, ktoré sa zaoberajú talent manažmentom. Uvedení výskum talent manažment uplatňujú predovšetkým veľké organizácie (nad 250 zamestnancov a často so zahraničným vlastníkom alebo vedením), kedy je tento princíp adoptovaní z materskej organizácie alebo sú adoptované trendy a postupy zo zahraničia. Rovnako je talent manažment často využívaní v malých, či mikro podnikoch. A to z toho dôvodu, že malé organizácie na to, aby prežili v konkurenčnom prostredí, potrebujú významný kvalitatívni skok oproti väčším konkurentom (*Urbancová a kol., 2016*).

Zaujímala nás príčina takéhoto veľkého nezaujmu organizácií o talent manažment. Pričom až 50 % organizácií nevenujúcich sa talent manažmentu uviedlo, že ho nepovažujú za dôležitý. Druhým najčastejším dôvodom u 44 % organizácií bolo, že pre ich organizáciu je talent manažment finančne náročný. Ostatných 6 % organizácií uvádzalo ako dôvod jeho časovú náročnosť, absenciu kompetentného človeka, ktorý by sa riadením talentov zaoberal a niekoľko respondentov uviedlo, že sa v ich organizácii takýto systém práve zavádza.

V Českej republike podľa výskumu Urbancovej a kol. uviedlo ako dôvod nezamerania sa na talent manažment jeho nevhodnosť resp. neznalosť tohto konceptu až 40 % organizácií, pričom finančnú náročnosť ako hlavnú prekážku uviedlo 22 % náročnosť jeho zavedenia 17 % a absenciu kompetentného človeka 21 % organizácií.

Význam talent manažment rastie aj z dôvodu, že talenty sú množstvom organizácií získavané len z vonkajších zdrojov a sú preťahované z iných organizácií (sama organizácia talent manažment nepraktikuje a talenty si nevie vychovať), (*Vnoučková a kol., 2015*). Talenty sú preberané z ostatných organizácií, čo je rizikom pro organizácie, ktoré talenty vychovávajú a využívajú talent program. Náš prieskum preukázal, že organizácie pôsobiace na Slovensku venujúce sa talent manažmentu až v 66 % využívajú na identifikáciu talentov kombináciu interných a externých zdrojov a ostatných 34 % organizácií uviedlo, že využíva takmer výhradne interné zdroje.

Medzi faktory, ktoré ovplyvňujú udržanie talentovaných zamestnancov v organizácii, patrí predovšetkým uspokojenie z práce, príležitosť postupu v kariére, možnosť zaujímavej práce a atmosféra v organizácii. Závisí od celej organizácie, jej stratégie a dlhodobého smerovania či upúta a udrží si talentovaných zamestnancov.

Na druhej strane samotné efektívne využívanie talent manažmentu je motivujúcim faktorom ktorý môže ovplyvniť talentovaného zamestnanca v rozhodovaní či organizáciu opustí, alebo v nej zotrva.

V rámci nášho prieskumu nás zaujímalo či a akým spôsobom organizácie motivujú talenty aby zotrvali v organizácii. Pričom 67 % organizácií venujúcich sa talent manažmentu používa rôzne metódy a nástroje hmotnej či nehmotnej motivácie, 8 % organizácií bráni odchodu talentu rôznymi zmluvami a 25 % organizácií vôbec nerieši prípadný odchod talentov.

#### 4. Záver

Pri budovaní a udržiavaní podniku s cieľom presadiť sa v konkurenčnom prostredí je dôležité zamerať sa na talent manažment. A to hlavne z dôvodu, že hľadanie a rozvíjanie talentov nie je možné začať až vo chvíli, keď je potrebné získať riešenie, resp. nájsť možnosť, ako veci robiť inak a efektívnejšie, ale je potrebné sa hľadaniu a rozvíjaniu talentov permanentne a dlhodobo venovať, aby organizácia takýmito ľuďmi disponovala ešte pred



vznikom problému, resp. aby práve tieto „talenty“ dokázali problém predpovedať a predchádzať jeho vzniku.

Organizáciám je možné odporučiť jasné nastavenie plánu rozvoja, zaviesť ponuku rozvojových programov či vzdelávacích aktivít, kariérne plánovanie, stanoviť podmienky zaradenia do talent programu a uverejnenie podpory poskytovanej talentom. Tak je možné docieľiť zlepšenie v oblasti udržania a rozvíjania talentovaných zamestnancov (*Urbancová a kol., 2016*).

Kľúčom k účinnému vzdelávaniu dospelých je vnútorná motivácia (*Knight, 2011; Colvin, 2010*). Zamestnanci v súčasnosti vnímajú moderný trend nevyhnutnosti flexibility a chcú preto využiť možnosť osobného rastu. Fairweather (2009) taktiež tvrdí, že nemá zmysel motivovať zamestnancov, ale vytvárať prostredie, v ktorom motivujú sami seba. Zamestnanci sú si zároveň vedomí, že na svojej pracovnej pozícii spravidla nestrávia celý život a chcú si preveriť svoje schopnosti a vedomosti, aby boli vo svojej profesii úspešní, či už na súčasnej pracovnej pozícii alebo na tej budúcej (*Linhartová, 2012*).

Zamestnanci veľmi citlivo vnímajú prostredie a možnosti svojho osobného rozvoja v ňom pričom nemusia ísť rovno o posun na vyššiu pracovnú pozíciu, často stačí rozvoj na tej aktuálnej. Ak takúto možnosť nemajú, zotrvanie predovšetkým tých najtalentovanejších v organizácii nebude príliš dlhé. Často sú aj pretiahnutí do inej organizácie, pretože trh práce mnoho talentov neobsahuje a množstvo organizácií po talentoch pátra a snaží sa ich získať a to aj za vyššiu cenu. Preto je nutné talenty ďalej rozvíjať a vytvoriť im podmienky, ktoré budú natoľko zaujímavé, že zamestnanci budú odmetať externé ponuky.

Na základe Horvátové (2011), Koubka (2015) môžeme skonštatovať, že talent management sa v súčasnej dobe v našich podmienkach zameriava len na kľúčových jednotlivcov, ktorí sú schopní a smerujú do vyšších funkcií, čo vyplýva aj zo záveru výsledkov výskumu Urbancovej a kol. (2016). Tento prístup však do budúcnosti, kedy konkurencia na trhu práce bude ďalej silnieť nemožno považovať za správny. Z rastúcou mierou globalizácie, zmenou demografickej štruktúry obyvateľstva, rýchlejšími zmenami, vysokou konkurenciou na trhu práce je nutné za talent považovať každého zamestnanca, ktorý je schopný pomôcť organizácii dosiahnuť stanovené ciele. Do akej miery však dokáže talentovaný jedinec prispieť k naplňovaniu cieľov organizácie, záleží predovšetkým na snahe vedenia organizácie, akú dôležitosť venuje rastu a rozvoju talentov, aké vytvára talentové programy a či sú atraktívne pre súčasných i potenciálnych zamestnancov.

PodĎakovanie:

Článok má nadväznosť na riešený projekt VEGA č. 1/0890/14 Stochastické modelovanie rozhodovacích procesov v motivovaní ľudského potenciálu

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## HODNOTENIE ZAMESTNANCOV AKO KĹÚĎ K BUDOVANIU ŹIADUCEJ ORGANIZAĎNEJ KULTŮRY

### Employees Appraisal as Key to Building Desired Organisational Culture

KATARĪNA STACHOVĀ, ZDENKO STACHO, GABRIELA PAJTINKOVĀ  
BARTĀKOVĀ

#### Abstract

As one of the functions of human resource management, evaluation of employees significantly affects, supports and checks the level of identification of employees with organisational culture and at the same time, on the grounds of declared evaluation criteria, it clearly defines a required behaviour of employees, i.e. what behaviour and acting is observed and evaluated. The paper provides both a theoretical definition of the given function and subsequently, on the grounds of the results of research conducted over 2010 – 2014, the present focus of organisations operating in the Slovak Republic on the evaluation of performance of employees, applying the method of questionnaire survey and using statistical software SPSS 15.0 for Windows®. Based on the theoretical knowledge and results of the research, we framed possibilities of influencing organisational culture by the evaluation of performance, which can be implemented in organisations. They are described in the discussion in the conclusion of the paper.

**Key words:** organisational culture, human resource management, evaluation of employees, evaluation criteria.

**Classification JEL:** M12 – Personnel Management.

#### 1. Ŭvod

OrganizaĎnŮ kultŮru moŹno definovať ako spoločne zdieľané a ďalej odovzdávané predstavy, hodnoty, názory a normy, ktoré vznikli pri spoločnom riešení problémov, za ůcelom dosiahnutia stanovených cieľov podniku. Tento pohľad prezentuje vo svojich definĪciách vĀĎšina autorov zaoberajůcich sa organizaĎnou kultŮrou ako napríklad Schein (1999), Kachaňáková (2010), Ćambál (2007), CagáňovĀ (2012), Kotter (2008), Deal (1982), Armstrong (2009), Hofstede (2007). Z uvedeného teda vyplýva, Źe organizaĎnĀ kultŮra je nieĎo ako osobnosť podniku, vhodnĀ organizaĎnĀ kultŮra by mala byť sůhrnom spůsobov sprĀvania a konania tak podniku, ako celku, ako aj jeho jednotlivých zamestnancov na ceste za dosahovaním tak strategickůch cieľov podniku, ako aj osobnůch cieľov zamestnancov.

Vzhľadom na skutoĎnosť, Źe nositeľmi zmeny, resp. nositeľmi vhodnej organizaĎnej kultŮry by mali byť všetci zamestnanci podniku, od ktorůch sa oĎakĀva, Źe budů zdieľať a rozvíjať strategicky potrebné predstavy, prĪstupy a hodnoty, je nevyhnutné zamerať sa na organizaĎnŮ kultŮru a na ľudské zdroje simultĀnne. MoŹnosť pre takĕto simultĀnne zameranie je danĀ previazanosťou organizaĎnej kultŮry a riadenia ľudskůch zdrojov, ktorĀ je deklarovaná v ich spoločnej primĀrnej ůlohe, ktorou je, ako uvĀdza Kachaňáková (2010): „vytvĀrať podmienky na tzv. pozitĪvne sprĀvanie zamestnancov v zmysle strategickůch zĀmerov a cieľov podniku.“

Z uvedeného vyplýva, Źe je potrebné zabezpeĎiť v podniku zhodu, respektĪve, Ďo najvĀĎšĪ moŹnů prienik, medzi hodnotami deklarovanůmi v rámci konceptu udržateľného rozvoja, presadzovanůmi hodnotami podnikom a hodnotami zamestnancov. Na to, aby bolo moŹné dosiahnuť Ďo najvĀĎšĪu mieru zhody medzi ľudskůmi zdrojmi v podniku a podnikom deklarovanůmi Źiaducimi prvkami organizaĎnej kultŮry, je potrebné prepojiť Ďinnosť, v rámci jednotlivůch funkciĪ riadenia ľudskůch zdrojov, s poŹadovanůmi hodnotami, postojmi a pracovnům sprĀvaním. Takĕto prepojenie je kľůĎovům predpokladom pre pozitĪvne prijatie





vhodnej organizačnej kultúry zamestnancami podniku, jej ukotvenie v ich správaní a následné zdieľanie a rozširovanie organizačných hodnôt.

Hodnotenie zamestnancov ako jedna z funkcií riadenia ľudských zdrojov významne ovplyvňuje, podporuje a kontroluje jednak úroveň stotožnenia sa zamestnancov s organizačnou kultúrou a taktiež, na základe deklarovaných kritérií hodnotenia, jasne definuje aké správanie sa vyžaduje a teda aké správanie a konanie je sledované a bude hodnotené. Hodnotenie odкрýva reálny stav pracovného potenciálu podniku, ako aj možnosti jeho lepšieho využitia. Ak existuje v podniku efektívny a pre všetkých účastníkov prijateľný systém hodnotenia, môžu sa podporiť také postupy zamestnancov, ktoré sa kladne hodnotia z hľadiska organizačnej kultúry. Predpokladá to správny výber kritérií a metód hodnotenia, ktoré sa potom môžu stať nástrojom líniového manažéra na usmerňovanie správania a konania zamestnancov. Existencia silnej organizačnej kultúry znamená rozšírenie pravidiel, noriem a štandardov očakávaného správania zamestnancov, čím sa predchádza aj konfliktom pri ich hodnotení (*Kachaňáková, 2010*). Samotné hodnotenie zamestnancov, najmä v nadväznosti na odmeňovanie a motivovanie, majú podniky často zakomponované v jednotlivých prostriedkoch organizačnej kultúry (*Stachová & Stacho, 2013*).

Na základe uvedeného sa preto v príspevku zameriame jednak na teoretické vymedzenie funkcie hodnotenia pracovného výkonu zamestnancov, následne na základe výsledkov z prieskumov uskutočnených v rokoch 2010 – 2014 uvádzame súčasný stav zamerania sa organizácií pôsobiacich v Slovenskej republike na hodnotenie pracovného výkonu zamestnancov, pričom využívané metódy popisujeme v samostatnej časti príspevku. Na základe teoretických poznatkov a výsledkov prieskumu sme dospeli k možnostiam ovplyvňovania organizačnej kultúry hodnotením pracovného výkonu, ktoré je možné v organizáciách využiť a popisujeme ich v návrhovej časti príspevku.

## 2. Charakteristika hodnotenia pracovného výkonu

Hlavným cieľom hodnotenia pracovného výkonu je zaistiť maximálne využitie schopností, znalostí a záujmu každého zamestnanca (*Arthur, 2010*). Hodnotenie pracovného výkonu je veľmi dôležitou personálnou činnosťou, zameriavajúcou sa na zisťovanie toho, ako zamestnanec vykonáva svoju prácu, ako plní úlohy a požiadavky svojho pracovného miesta, aké je jeho pracovné správanie a aké sú jeho vzťahy k spolupracovníkom, zákazníkom a ďalším osobám, s ktorými v súvislosti s prácou prichádza do kontaktu (*Koubek, 2004*). V tejto súvislosti je veľmi dôležité hodnotiť pracovný výkon komplexne a to ako výsledok spojenia a vzájomného pomeru úsilia, schopností a vnímanej role, pričom *úsilie* je odrazom motivácie a týka sa množstva energie (fyzickej, alebo duševnej) vynaloženej zamestnancom pri plnení úloh. Ide o dosť premenlivú veličinu. Úsilie kolíše nielen v súvislosti so stavom, v ktorom sa zamestnanec momentálne nachádza (napr. nemoc, nálada a pod.), ale aj v súvislosti s povahou úloh. Prítomný pracovný výkon nemusí byť úmerný vynaloženému úsiliu, zvlášť ak nie sú prítomné schopnosti, alebo ak zamestnanec nepochopí svoju rolu, svoju úlohu. *Schopnosti* sú osobné charakteristiky zamestnanca, používané pri vykonávaní práce a potrebné k úspešnému vykonávaniu tejto práce. Spravidla sa v čase príliš nemenia a ich vývoj nebýva spravidla dynamický. K úspešnému, či prijateľnému vykonávaniu každej konkrétnej práce musí existovať určitá minimálna úroveň schopností, predovšetkým znalostí a zručností. Zvlášť teda úroveň znalostí a zručností určitého zamestnanca tvorí hornú hranicu jeho výkonu. *Chápanie role, či úlohu* sa vzťahuje k smerom, o ktorých sa zamestnanec domnieva, že by na ne mal orientovať svoje úsilie pri práci. Ide teda o mieru pochopenia role, či úlohu. K úspešnému pracovnému výkonu je nevyhnutné, aby boli prítomné všetky tri zložky a aby boli prítomné vo vhodnom vzájomnom pomere (*Koubek, 2006*).

Hodnotenie pracovného výkonu zamestnancov tiež vypovedá o tom, ako vie vedúci zamestnanec pracovať s ľuďmi a ako je schopný následne využívať poznatky, získané pri



hodnotení k dosahovaniu strategických cieľov (Toth, 2010). Súčasťou hodnotenia by tiež mala byť komunikácia, najčastejšie priameho nadriadeného s hodnoteným zamestnancom, zameraná na zhodnotenie informácií, získaných pri hodnotení. Jej súčasťou by malo byť vyzdvihnutie kladných stránok pracovného výkonu a sociálneho správania sa zamestnanca a upozornenie na zistené nedostatky. Vhodne vykonané hodnotenie pracovného výkonu by malo poskytnúť možnosť vyjasniť si postoj hodnoteného a hodnotiteľa, vzhľadom na skutočnosť, že každý môže mať iné vnímanie a teda i merítko dôležitosti v rámci hodnotenia jednotlivých činností (Wagnerová, 2005). Práve takýmto spôsobom je možné predchádzať vzniku nedorozumení a nejasností v rámci rozhodnutí nadriadeného zamestnanca a ich správne pochopenie a plnenie podriadenými. Je však veľmi dôležité, aby pri hodnotení zamestnanca neostalo len pri konštatovaní kladov a záporov pracovného výkonu a vzájomnom vysvetľovaní. Pri zistených pozitívach je potrebné zamestnanca motivovať v pokračovaní v danom konaní a pri odhalení nedostatkov je potrebné zabezpečiť zamestnancovi podporu na ich odstránenie (Stýblo, 2003). Najvhodnejšou formou podpory býva poskytnutie zamestnancovi možnosti vzdelávať sa.

Z uvedeného vyplýva, že cieľom hodnotenia pracovného výkonu z pohľadu zamestnanca, je získať informácie o hodnotení jeho práce, o svojej perspektíve v podniku, o možnostiach svojho osobného rozvoja a možnosť zdieľať tieto informácie (Kocianová, 2010).

### 3. Metódy prieskumu

Prieskumy prezentované v príspevku boli realizované každoročne od roku 2010 do roku 2014 na Vysoké škole ekonomickej a manažmentu verejnej správy v Bratislave. Ich cieľom bolo zistenie aktuálnej úrovne riadenia ľudských zdrojov a organizačnej kultúry v organizáciách pôsobiacich na Slovensku. Organizácie zapojené do prieskumu boli opytované formou dotazníka osobne doručeného, osobe zodpovednej za riadenie ľudských zdrojov v organizácii.

Pre stanovenie vhodnej výskumnej vzorky boli určené dve stratifikačné kritériá, prvým kritériom bol minimálny počet zamestnancov v organizácii a to 50 zamestnancov. Uvedeným stratifikačným kritériom sme z výskumu na jednej strane vylúčili mikro a malé podniky, avšak na druhej strane sme týmto kritériom sledovali a hlavne deklarovali opodstatnenosť a potrebu zamerať sa na formálny systém riadenia ľudských zdrojov v podnikoch na 50 zamestnancov. Druhým stratifikačným kritériom bol región pôsobenia organizácie, pričom pri štruktúrnom zložení výskumnej vzorky sme vychádzali z údajov ŠÚ SR (Štatistický úrad Slovenskej republiky).

Podľa ŠÚ SR v priebehu rokov 2010 až 2014 sa počet podnikov s počtom zamestnancov 50 a viac pohyboval medzi 3261 – 3359. Regionálna štruktúra podnikov nad 50 zamestnancov v uvedených rokoch je uvedená v tabuľke 1.

Tab. 1. Regionálna štruktúra podnikov nad 50 zamestnancov (údaje spracované podľa ŠÚ SR)

Región	Celé Slovensko	Západné Slovensko	Stredné Slovensko	Východné Slovensko
Kraje	Všetky kraje	BA, TT, TN, NR	BB, ZA	KE, PO
Počet podnikov 2010	3308	2031	655	622
Počet podnikov 2011	3359	2061	666	632
Počet podnikov 2012	3295	2025	652	618
Počet podnikov 2013	3268	2017	645	606
Počet podnikov 2014	3261	2005	644	612

Pri stanovovaní optimálnej výskumnej vzorky z uvedeného základného súboru podnikov bolo stanovené percento spoľahlivosti (Confidence Level) výskumu na 95 % a interval spoľahlivosti (Confidence Interval) výsledkov bol stanovený ( $H = \pm 0,10$ ). Na základe



uvedených kritérií bola stanovená dostatočná, resp. relevantná výskumná vzorka pre jednotlivé regióny Slovenska, v analyzovaných rokoch, ktorá je uvedená v tabuľke 2.

Tab. 2. Veľkosť výskumnej vzorky pre jednotlivé regióny Slovenska (vlastné spracovanie)

Región	Západné Slovensko	Stredné Slovensko	Východné Slovensko
Kraje	BA, TT, TN, NR	BB, ZA	KE, PO
Počet podnikov 2010 – 2014	2005 – 2061	644 – 666	606 – 632
Veľkosť výskumnej vzorky	92	84	83

Každoročne bolo do výskumu zapojených cca 500 organizácií, avšak z dôvodu veľkého rozsahu a formy zberu dát sa nám pravidelne vracalo len približne 65 % komplexne vyplnených dotazníkov. Z týchto organizácií bolo následne vyselektovaných 259 – 294 podnikov zodpovedajúcich optimálnej výskumnej vzorke, stanovenej na základe stratifikačných kritérií.

Medzi základné metódy realizovaného výskumu patria logické metódy využívajúce princípy logiky a logického myslenia. Z tejto skupiny metód boli aplikované najmä metódy analýzy, syntézy, dedukcie a komparácie. V článku boli uplatnené taktiež matematické a štatistické metódy. Zo softvérových produktov dostupných na trhu bol vo výskumnej práci použitý textový editor, tabuľkový procesor a štatistický softvér. Konkrétne sa jednalo o MS Word 2007, MS Excel 2007 a štatistický softvér SPSS 15.0 for Windows®.

#### 4. Výsledky prieskumu

V rámci prieskumu nás prioritne zaujímalo, či si vedenia opytovaných podnikov uvedomujú dôležitosť a opodstatnenosť zaoberať sa tvorbou a udržiavaním vhodnej organizačnej kultúry. Väčšina opytovaných sa zhodovala v kladnej odpovedi na túto otázku. V odpovediach na podotázku „Prečo?“ sa najčastejšie objavovali odpovede typu: pretože zvyšuje motiváciu a chuť pracovať, z čoho vyplýva aj zvyšovanie výkonnosti a efektívnosti, pričom vytvára priaznivé a produktívne prostredie, zvyšuje lojalitu zamestnancov, zlepšuje vzťahy a klímu na pracovisku, má významný vplyv na pohľad zákazníka a verejnosti na podnik, je vizitkou podniku. Z uvedených odpovedí je zjavné, že takmer všetci opýtaní považujú organizačnú kultúru za podstatnú a dôležitú súčasť úspechu podniku (Stachová, 2010; Majerčáková, 2015; Blašková 2015).

Odpovede na prvú otázku vyznievali veľmi pozitívne, avšak keď sme zisťovali, či majú podniky v rámci stratégie podniku písomne zadefinovanú stratégiu organizačnej kultúry, pozitívne odpovedalo už len 21 % až 43 %. Pričom, pokiaľ chýba jasne a zrozumiteľne definovaná stratégia podniku, je len veľmi obtiažne odvodzovať od nej konkrétne parametre a hodnoty organizačnej kultúry. Taktiež, práve písomné zadefinovanie organizačných hodnôt v rámci stratégie podniku je možné považovať za jednu z prvých možností, ako môže vedenie podniku deklarovať svoju zaangažovanosť v oblasti kultúry (Stachová, 2011). Tak, ako pri zavádzaní, rovnako tak aj pri udržiavaní žiaducej organizačnej kultúry je potrebné zabezpečiť, aby sa odborní promotéri mali možnosť oprieť o silnú mocenskú autoritu vo vnútri podniku, ktorý jednotlivé kroky dokáže skutočne presadiť. Úplná podpora zo strany vedenia je nevyhnutnou podmienkou úspechu zavedenia a následného udržania žiaducej organizačnej kultúry (Stachová & Kachaňáková, 2011).

Cieľom hodnotenia pracovného výkonu zamestnancov je trvalé zvyšovanie pracovného výkonu na základe zdokonaľovania celého systému riadenia ľudských zdrojov, prostredníctvom lepšieho poznania hodnotených zamestnancov, ich úloh a činností (Kachaňáková, a kol., 2011; Hitka, 2007, Zavadský, 2015; Papula, 2013; Gubíniová, 2014). V tejto súvislosti nás, v rámci nami uskutočnenom prieskume, prioritne zaujímalo, či sa opytované podniky venujú hodnoteniu pracovného výkonu zamestnancov, teda či majú



zavedený formálny systém hodnotenia. Na uvedenú otázku odpovedalo pozitívne v priemere 65 % podnikov, avšak tento stav nepovažujeme za ideálny, vzhľadom na dôležitosť funkcie hodnotenia.

Vzhľadom na uvedenú skutočnosť, sme následne analyzovali už len podniky, ktoré deklarujú, že sa hodnotením pracovného výkonu svojich zamestnancov aktívne zaoberajú. V rámci analýzy, či je systém hodnotenia pracovného výkonu komplexný, t. j., či je zameraný na všetky kategórie zamestnancov, alebo len na niektorých, nám vyplynulo, že v najväčšej miere sa vykonáva hodnotenie zamestnancov pre pozíciu manažér. Viac ako 70 % opytovaných podnikov uviedlo, že majú zavedený systém hodnotenia pracovného výkonu zamestnancov pre všetky kategórie. V súvislosti s informáciou, kto je hodnotený, nás taktiež zaujímalo, kto hodnotí. Teória a spravidla aj prax sa zhodujú, že najkompetentnejšou osobou pre hodnotenie pracovného výkonu zamestnanca je jeho bezprostredný nadriadený. On by mal taktiež uskutočňovať záverečné vyhodnocovanie všetkých podkladov pre hodnotenie, či ich už spracoval on, alebo predložil ktokoľvek iný. Taktiež by mal viesť záverečný rozhovor a navrhnúť opatrenia vyplývajúce z hodnotenia pracovného výkonu (Koubek, 2004). Zároveň tak nadriadený získa prehľad o výsledkoch všetkých svojich podriadených, čo je nevyhnutným predpokladom správnych rozhodnutí v takých oblastiach, ako odmeňovanie, vzdelávanie a kariéra. Hodnotenie zamestnanca však okrem priameho nadriadeného môžu vykonávať aj iné osoby z podniku, či mimo neho, ako napríklad vyšší nadriadený, podriadení, kolegovia na rovnakej pracovnej úrovni, alebo zákazníci. Z prieskumov nám vyplynulo, že v podnikoch pôsobiacich na Slovensku je v najväčšej miere na hodnotenie zamestnancov využívaný priamy nadriadený a to vo všetkých kategóriách zamestnancov.

Metódy hodnotenia pracovného výkonu sú nástrojom k presadzovaniu dôslednosti pri hodnotení zamestnancov a môžu prispieť tiež k obmedzeniu dvoch hlavných úskalí hodnotenia, ktorými sú subjektivita a formalizmus (Stýblo, a kol., 2009; Šujanová, 2012; Pilková, 2013). Zo získaných výsledkov vyplynulo, že pri hodnotení manažmentu, špecialistov a administratívy sa v najväčšej miere využíva hodnotenie na základe plnenia cieľov a následne hodnotiaci rozhovor. Pomerne často sa využívajú aj hodnotiace stupnice a hodnotenie na základe plnenia noriem a taktiež sebahodnotenie. Pri robotníkoch sa najviac využíva hodnotenie na základe plnenia noriem (štandardov), hodnotenie na základe plnenia cieľov a hodnotiace stupnice. Ostatné metódy sú používané výrazne v nižšej frekvencii.

Tab. 3. Metódy hodnotenia pracovného výkonu používané pri hodnotení manažmentu (vlastný prieskum)

Ktoré z metód hodnotenia pracovného výkonu používate pri hodnotení manažmentu:	Podiel podn. v %				
	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014
Hodnotenie podľa výkonu (plnenie cieľov)	48	52	51	47	55
Hodnotiace stupnice	27	25	24	23	25
Hodnotiace správy	24	20	25	13	15
Hodnotenie na základe plnenia noriem (štandardov)	20	22	13	23	29
Hodnotenie kľúčových udalostí	13	15	9	15	16
Hodnotiaci dotazník	22	16	22	22	18
Hodnotenie porovnávaním	9	6	3	5	8
Hodnotiaci pohovor	34	31	38	32	38
Sebahodnotenie	28	22	25	18	22
Manažérsky audit	13	10	11	17	11
Assessment centrum		5	10	5	6



Tab. 4. Metódy hodnotenia pracovného výkonu používané pri hodnotení špecialistov a technikov (vlastný prieskum)

Ktoré z metód hodnotenia pracovného výkonu používate pri hodnotení špecialistov a technikov:	Podiel podn. v %				
	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014
Hodnotenie podľa výkonu (plnenie cieľov)	44	51	48	46	52
Hodnotiace stupnice	29	29	25	24	25
Hodnotiace správy	21	24	16	15	16
Hodnotenie na základe plnenia noriem (štandardov)	23	26	22	28	28
Hodnotenie kľúčových udalostí	12	11	9	10	17
Hodnotiaci dotazník	21	19	25	24	21
Hodnotenie porovnávaním	9	8	5	9	13
Hodnotiaci pohovor	36	38	49	39	38
Sebahodnotenie	22	20	24	17	19
Manažérsky audit	6	4	5	7	6
Assessment centrum	<del>X</del>	3	3	5	4

Tab. 5. Metódy hodnotenia pracovného výkonu používané pri hodnotení administratívy (vlastný prieskum)

Ktoré z metód hodnotenia pracovného výkonu používate pri hodnotení administratívy:	Podiel podn. v %				
	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014
Hodnotenie podľa výkonu (plnenie cieľov)	35	40	42	37	44
Hodnotiace stupnice	29	27	33	27	27
Hodnotiace správy	18	17	20	10	11
Hodnotenie na základe plnenia noriem (štandardov)	27	22	16	21	36
Hodnotenie kľúčových udalostí	10	10	10	8	9
Hodnotiaci dotazník	21	17	25	24	18
Hodnotenie porovnávaním	12	10	9	7	10
Hodnotiaci pohovor	31	39	40	36	34
Sebahodnotenie	22	15	21	16	15
Manažérsky audit	2	3	1	2	3
Assessment centrum	<del>X</del>	1	0	2	1

Tab. 6. Metódy hodnotenia pracovného výkonu používané pri hodnotení robotníkov (vlastný prieskum)

Ktoré z metód hodnotenia pracovného výkonu používate pri hodnotení administratívy:	Podiel podn. v %				
	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014
Hodnotenie podľa výkonu (plnenie cieľov)	35	32	32	35	34
Hodnotiace stupnice	25	27	32	26	27
Hodnotiace správy	11	13	13	7	11
Hodnotenie na základe plnenia noriem (štandardov)	46	47	52	40	46
Hodnotenie kľúčových udalostí	9	6	1	5	9
Hodnotiaci dotazník	15	19	27	15	19
Hodnotenie porovnávaním	11	8	5	10	9
Hodnotiaci pohovor	23	21	25	25	24
Sebahodnotenie	12	10	9	7	13
Manažérsky audit	2	1	1	2	2
Assessment centrum	<del>X</del>	0	0	1	1



Vzhľadom na skutočnosť, že hodnotenie sa vykonáva za účelom dosahovania trvalého zlepšovania pracovného výkonu na základe nepretržitého rozvoja zručností a celkovej kompetencie zamestnancov, ako aj ich vhodného pracovného správania, je veľmi dôležité, aby nebolo chápané ako niečo nežiaduce. Preto je dôležité, aby boli jeho výsledky prediskutované s hodnoteným zamestnancom a na základe nich boli stanovené individuálne ciele zamestnanca. Za týmto účelom by malo nevyhnutne, po vykonaní hodnotenia, nasledovať aj jeho zhodnotenie, ktorého by sa mal bezpodmienečne zúčastniť aj hodnotený zamestnanec, ktorý má právo byť so získanými výsledkami oboznámený a taktiež má dostať priestor, aby sa k nim vyjadril. Či majú takúto možnosť zamestnanci analyzovaných podnikov, sme zistovali taktiež. Z odpovedí na túto otázku vyplynulo, že každoročne len približne polovica opytovaných podnikov uviedla, že zamestnanci majú možnosť vyjadriť sa k výsledkom hodnotenia pracovného výkonu. Hodnotení zamestnanci v ostatných podnikoch nemajú možnosť vyjadriť sa k týmto výsledkom, pričom ich buď ani nepoznajú, alebo sú s výsledkami hodnotenia oboznámení, avšak nemajú možnosť sa k nim vyjadriť. Z uvedeného vyplýva, že každoročne je viac ako 50% zamestnancov síce hodnotených, ale samotné hodnotenie s nimi nie je prediskutované. Avšak, ako už bolo uvedené, ak má byť systém hodnotenia v podniku efektívny, jeho súčasťou musí byť realizácia hodnotiaceho rozhovoru, pričom v jeho priebehu by mali byť výsledky hodnotenia so zamestnancami prejednané. Z výsledku hodnotenia má byť jasný ďalší smer, ktorý prinesie úžitok a zmysel všetkým zainteresovaným stranám.

V poslednej otázke nášho prieskumu zameranej na hodnotenie pracovného výkonu zamestnancov sme sa zamerali na zistenie, v ktorých oblastiach sú získané informácie využívané. Z prieskumu vyplynulo, že v najväčšej miere sú získané informácie využívané pri odmeňovaní zamestnancov. Vo výrazne nižšom percente sú využívané pri plánovaní kariérneho rastu, pri plánovaní vzdelávania a rozvoja zamestnancov a taktiež pri personálnom plánovaní.

## 5. Zhodnotenie prieskumu

Z prieskumu zameraného na organizácie pôsobiace v Slovenskej republike nám vyplynulo, že hoci 100 % podnikov deklaruje, že si opodstatnenosť organizačnej kultúry uvedomuje, len 21 – 33 % má v rámci stratégie podniku písomne zadefinovanú stratégiu organizačnej kultúry. Z prieskumu taktiež vyplynulo, že v priemere len 65 % podnikov deklaruje, že sa na hodnotenie pracovného výkonu zamestnancov zameriava. Ešte negatívnejšie však vyznieva skutočnosť, že každoročne až 50 % z organizácií uskutočňujúcich hodnotenie, neposkytne zamestnancom priestor na diskusiu, resp. nevyčlení si čas na hodnotiaci rozhovor, ktorý má však pre zamestnanca najväčší význam z celého procesu hodnotenia, keďže na jeho základe sa zamestnanec dozvie, ako jeho výkon vníma jeho nadriadený a kde v rámci neho pociťuje silné a slabé stránky a zároveň aj nadriadený má priestor na ozrejmienie si skutočností, spojených s úrovňou výkonu zamestnanca. V kontexte prepojenia hodnotenia pracovného výkonu zamestnanca a úrovne jeho stotožnenia sa so žiadúcou organizačnou kultúrou, vnímame práve v priebehu osobného rozhovoru za najvýznamnejší, pretože práve hodnotiaci rozhovor má osobitné miesto v rámci metód hodnotenia pracovného výkonu. Tvorí nielen základňu na sledovanie a hodnotenie pracovného výkonu, ale čo je vzhľadom na kontext s organizačnou kultúrou najpodstatnejšie, poskytuje interaktívnu spätnú väzbu hodnotenému, čím umožňuje výmenu názorov hodnoteného a hodnotiteľa a poskytuje možnosť spoločne nájsť riešenie, ako zlepšiť, resp. zmeniť výkon, správanie sa a konanie, taktiež umožňuje pozitívne vplývanie na zmenu postojov zamestnanca.

Vzhľadom na jednotlivé ciele hodnotiaceho rozhovoru (zhodnotiť, motivovať, rozvíjať a komunikovať), ktoré priamo, alebo nepriamo vplývajú na tvorbu, udržanie, resp. zmenu obsahu organizačnej kultúry, je kvalitné a kultúrne vedomé uskutočňovanie hodnotiaceho rozhovoru pre podnik dôležité, naopak formálne a nekvalifikované uskutočňovanie hodnotiacich rozhovorov môže, ako uvádza *Lukášová (2010)*, v podniku spôsobiť tzv. kultúrne



škody. Aj na základe uvedeného je preto potrebné komplexne sa zameriavať na funkciu hodnotenia pracovného výkonu v kontexte s jej vplyvom na organizačnú kultúru. Možnosti a jednotlivé činnosti vykonávané za účelom ovplyvňovania, je možné zhrnúť nasledovne:

- Hodnotenie zhody medzi správaním sa zamestnancov a požadovaným správaním deklarovaným prvkami organizačnej kultúry;
- Potreba zamerať sa na diagnostiku príčin existujúceho stavu, resp. organizačná kultúra ako determinant a prejav zlého výkonu;
- Na základe orientácie podniku stanoviť kritériá hodnotenia pracovného výkonu zamestnancov v previazanosti na prvky organizačnej kultúry;
- Komplexné informovanie zamestnancov o kritériách hodnotenia;
- Potreba stanoviť vhodnú metódu hodnotenia úrovne zdieľania prvkov organizačnej kultúry v kontexte s cieľom využitia získaných informácií;
- Potreba stanoviť vhodnú metódu hodnotenia pracovného výkonu zamestnancov v kontexte so zisťovaním zhody, resp. potrebou zmeny, či už jednotlivých prvkov, alebo celého obsahu organizačnej kultúry;
- Hodnotiaci rozhovor ako prvok deklarovania, podporovania a utvárania organizačnej kultúry.

## 6. Záver

Previazanosť jednotlivých funkcií riadenia ľudských zdrojov a organizačnej kultúry prioritne súvisí s tým, že ich primárna úloha, ako uvádza Kachaňáková, je v podstate rovnaká a to vytvárať podmienky na tzv. pozitívne správanie zamestnancov v zmysle strategických zámerov a cieľov podniku (*Kachaňáková, 2010*). Stimulovanie zamestnancov vymedzené len smernicami, nariadeniami a normami a ich vnímanie z pohľadu podniku, resp. vedenia len ako prostriedok, má za následok, že zamestnanci tak skutočne začnú vnímať aj sami seba a následne sa tak aj správajú a teda sú pasívni a vykonávajú striktne len to, čo im vyplýva z pracovnej zmluvy.

Z uvedeného je teda zrejmé, že takéto správanie sa zamestnancov nie je pre podnik žiaduce a už vôbec nie je jej konkurenčnou výhodou. Je preto potrebné aktívne budovať a deklarovať pozitívny vzťah podniku k zamestnancom a taktiež zamestnancov k podniku. Za týmto účelom je potrebné mať stanovenú žiaducu organizačnú kultúru, na ktorej presadzovanie je vhodné využiť jednotlivé funkcie riadenia ľudských zdrojov, pričom práve funkcia hodnotenia prepojená na odmeňovanie a vzdelávanie zamestnancov môže byť považovaná za kľúčovú pre budovanie a presadzovanie obsahu žiaducej organizačnej kultúry. Je to prioritne z dôvodu že práve hodnotenie pracovného výkonu zamestnancov má významný vplyv na organizačnú kultúru tak pri upevňovaní žiaducej organizačnej kultúry, tak aj ako nástroj zmeny organizačnej kultúry.

Tento význam vyplýva z podstaty a cieľa samotnej funkcie hodnotenia pracovného výkonu, pri ktorej ide o to, aby zamestnanci vedeli čo je správne a následne bolo hodnotené do akej miery sa ich správanie a konanie stotožňuje, resp. rozchádza s požadovaným, výsledkom. Následkom je, že zamestnanci sú podnecovaní správať sa v súlade s tak pracovnými, ako aj hodnotovými požiadavkami podniku, aby bol výstup hodnotenia pozitívny. Takéto na prvý pohľad kontrované a hodnotené správanie má z dlhodobého hľadiska pozitívny vplyv na fixovanie a stotožňovanie sa s postupmi a spôsobmi správania sa zamestnancov.

### PodĎakovanie

Článok má nadväznosť na riešený projekt VEGA č. 1/0890/14 Stochastické modelovanie rozhodovacích procesov v motivovaní ľudského potenciálu.



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## INNOVATION BEHAVIOUR AND CREATIVITY AS THE WAY TO ORGANIZATIONAL EFFECTIVITY

JIŘÍ STÝBLO

### Abstract

This contributing article deals with innovative behaviour, acting and creativity as tools for organizational prosperity and economic effectivity. It is based on concepts of innovation behaviour and acting as necessary premises for efficiency of economic entities in the world of global changes management, where human capital plays ever increasing role. The main objective is to highlight conditions of the origin, continuity of the development, consequences, potential barriers and risks of innovative behaviour and acting in economic practice. Author also wants to clarify the role of innovative thinking, learning and creativity of both individuals and teams during the change management process. This contributing article also considers reasoning of the identification of mental mechanisms as an inspiration for innovative behaviour and actions (getting inspired by future). Attention is also focused on organizational concepts applicable towards the creation and development of innovative behaviour and actions. Outcome of author's contribution aims at integrating the context of this problematics into the environment of business climate and culture as a necessity for the activation of innovative behaviour and organizational prosperity.

**Key words:** innovative thinking, actions and behaviour, creativity, prosperity, change.

**Classification JEL:** M12 – Personnel Management.

### 1. Introduction

The most dynamic factor in the development of the contemporary economy is innovation. Management crosses the threshold of presence into the future. The key lies in the power of knowledge. Innovation is either understood as 'sustainable', merging with the existing reality, or as 'disruptive' when it forms a turning point, is of major importance or fundamentally changes development. A world without innovation would a fatal mistake.

Innovation is, in a way, also a business with facts and emotions. Media love 'success stories' of successful entrepreneurs whose triumph stems from innovation of their companies, while failures are hated and dire. The world is flat (almost everyone has equal chance to succeed thanks to internet) but at the same time it is also painfully spiky thanks to unique (excellent knowledge) of the most competitive players who shape the world to a sharp innovation pyramid. Investment in knowledge (digital technologies) and innovation generate new jobs. Innovative behaviour is a practical necessity to induce climate of change towards organizational prosperity. Intellectual capital development is a project of the Third Millennium. Dreams of the future are getting their shape. Ideas develop in the brain and bring discoveries. Innovative behaviour and thinking are a transfer towards competitiveness and prosperity.

### 2. Sustainable development and innovation

The basic idea of a global vision (VISION 2050) as formulated by the World Forum for Sustainable Development (WBCSD) is a balanced approach to financial, human and natural capital. The main pillars of Czech Vision 2050, formulated by Czech Business Council for Sustainable Development (CBCSD, [www.cbcsd.cz](http://www.cbcsd.cz)) are primarily socio-social capital (based on the acceptance of the principles of sustainable development), human resources in competitive innovative economy and sustainable economic development. The motto of the socio-social capital is „seeing the world in context“. Its key elements are education, social solidarity and stability, greater environmental responsibility (in the broader sense of



understanding the environment as environment of effective life) and social impacts of individual people's behaviour.

The motto of the human resources pillar is 'luck favours the flexible'. The key elements here are research, development leading to eco-innovation, adaptation to demographic changes, support for the needs of the labour market including computer literacy, which in turn leads to global competitiveness and structural changes of the economy.

Innovation is, by nature, an entrepreneurial phenomenon. It brings about change in the economic behaviour of organisations which must practically (and if possible also effectively) respond to changes in their surroundings, regardless whether these changes create opportunities or threats to their further development and prosperity. In order to be successful, the innovation today must be attractive not only for its target users but also for other interest groups that influence the character and strength of the infrastructure. A modern implementation of innovative solutions therefore tends to be designed as a set of comprehensive systematic commercial, organisational, investment related, operational, technological, and personnel measures which must take place in a coordinated manner throughout the entire distribution chain.

No organization can be competitive in the long-term without regular innovations.

### **3. Intellectual capital, innovation and knowledge and transfer in new business**

If innovation is described as a universal phenomenon, then knowledge is seen as an intangible phenomenon which enables the understanding of behaviour, actions and processes necessary for orientation, successful overcoming of obstacles and achievement of goals. Knowledge is a factor which makes orientation in the turbulent global world easier and enables sustainable development of society. Knowledge is an integral part of innovation; it influences management of business performance and its ability to quickly and timely react to changes.

If innovation is considered to be the engine which drives business performance and efficiency development of organisations, then intellectual capital is the fuel that drives this engine and creativity is the ignition spark which enables the combustion of this fuel on the way to growing prosperity of the organisation. Intellectual capital is a potential effect which shows in connection with material (tangible) assets, especially in the form of added value, increasing the competitiveness and organisation of the offered innovative solutions.

The need to ensure proper transfer of knowledge into the field of innovative entrepreneurship is not an unsolvable problem. It is seemingly simpler than many think. All it takes are three answers to *three basic questions*:

1. What knowledge do we need and what are the innovations needed for?
2. Where and how can we get this knowledge and how shall we use it in the innovative policy?
3. Why do we need precisely this knowledge and what will happen if we fail to get it?

Management of knowledge transfer represents a process of influencing the change of initial ideas into desired outcomes within the organisation. It is basically a process of applying individual (and team) creativity of the organisation's employees at work with the existing internal environment and shared knowledge. The success of innovation activities depends on how much creative potential and intellectual capital is involved in the implementation of the innovation projects.

An example of a successful approach to this issue in Czech Republic are (among many others) two organisations: Rieter CZ and WEBCOM a. s. Both companies include innovation as the main pillar for their medium term strategies, whether in the form of product innovation, expansion into foreign markets or building of additional distribution channels.



### **3.1. Organisation's innovation behaviour and risk management**

Entrepreneurial success of innovative behaviour and conduct can be judged only by the market. It is the market who thus establishes the verdict of the organization's prosperity. Intelligent organization characterized by a high degree of innovative behaviour has a high adaptive capacity, quick response and the ability to create a climate and culture which leads towards prosperity. There are, however, considerable institutional risks connected to innovative behaviour.

The first type of hazard stems from the fact, that organization is often convinced that the planned innovation is attractive to the customer, but in reality it is just a wish which is not supported by any evidence. The second type of danger is associated with the notion, that innovation, which was successful in one type of environment or under certain circumstances, will be successful also elsewhere and at other times.

The risks of innovative behaviour and actions should be applied to whole value chain, not to a single, albeit very important link. While examining the validity of innovation decisions, managers must also take into account numerous social and psychological factors. It is useful to examine the following questions:

- With regards to motivation and attitudes of individual subjects (i.e. is there a chance that one of the decision makers promotes his own interests? Are attitudes of all decision-makers the same? Etc.);
- With regards to quality of the decisions made (i.e. have all the possible alternative decisions been taken into account? What resources were used to compile background information for the current decision-making? Etc.);
- With regards to validity check of the decision made (i.e. is the decision based on overoptimistic expectations of the future development? Is a pessimistic alternative really the worst possible one? Etc.).

Substantial changes in organizations' behaviour and conduct require significant changes in their 'genetic code'. They must learn new behaviour as a whole. This, however, can happen only through targeted, managed and coordinated change of individual behaviour and actions of each and every employee.

Organisations must thus build their internal structures of knowledge sharing and learning of their staff as part of their routine daily activities. It is due to the fact, that organisational environment often does not support community, creativity and adequate discussion about possible obstacles and risks to the innovation, that many innovative ideas cannot be fully materialised. Organisational behaviour and actions can lead to positive results only if it can create pro-innovative corporate climate and culture.

### **3.2. Inner innovative behaviour and conduct and its associated risks**

Innovative behaviour and actions are closely linked with the idea of understanding goals. However, even those, who do understand the goals, may not always achieve them. Most importantly, they must be able to clearly perceive them. Only the right perception fills people with determination. It enters into the core of their actions and behaviour. It invokes inspiration to achieve the chosen goals and, at the same time, helps to discover the correct ways to reach them. That is the essence of innovative behaviour and actions.

At the core of innovative behaviour and actions is a state of mind (innovative thinking). It expresses inner creative power which unleashes the potential of the brain and 'breaks' it to the atoms of innovation challenges and ideas. Innovative behaviour and conduct is supposed to bring a man to the position of a winner. It should give him the vision of the future. Weak desire and shallow enthusiasm lead to poor results.



Innovator's visualisation of dreams and plans and their subsequent materialisation cannot be done without other people. They must be in real contact, especially with their closest colleagues. They share the same social networks, present each other and communicate their ideas. In practice it is useful to create so-called 'Vision board'. Through it the innovators can awaken a healthy and powerful sub-consciousness of the people who surround them, which is both urgent and necessary for innovative behaviour.

The determining sources of innovative behaviour and action are often considered to be the following:

- Dispositions of personality (mental disposition and readiness);
- A state of the mind and its maturity;
- Non-physiological energy (latent energy, what we do not know about ourselves and what we cannot accurately define).

Strong personalities are always the driving forces in the world of innovations. Innovative personalities are often people with high informal authority who are able to cast away the stereotypes and who tend to behave more like coaches than mentors. These people have considerable talent to recognise new opportunities and challenges. They are able to share experiences and knowledge and are willing to invest their potential and energy to solving seemingly impossible problems. These people crave meaningful work in a favourable dynamic organisational climate and culture. Their modus operandi is creativity, which is defined as the ability (sometimes extraordinary ability) to analyse problem, identify solution and verify its accuracy.

To become carriers of innovation (innovation creators, co-authors, supporters and even better – the owners) people must meet the following criteria (based on practical business experience):

- They must understand the important goals of their organisation;
- They must have the ability to create and implement action plan for innovation;
- They have to have a consistent and committed-working personality;
- They must be able to withstand setbacks, stress, demanding work and life situations, the have to be able to 'stay on course';
- They have to be able to achieve results and to present them;
- They should be able to gain knowledge and experience from the use of creative thinking techniques and creative work and problem solving methods.

Innovative behaviour and conduct is, from the perspective of practical management, closely associated with the potential for leading a high performance organization towards prosperity. To illustrate this point, we can use the example of innovation project manager personality traits (as defined in a survey conducted by the Council of Experts of the Czech Management Association, Czech Technical University in Prague, Technical University in Brno and DTO in Ostrava. The survey was a part of a project in the Operational Programme 'Education for Competitiveness').

Innovation project manager can thus be defined as higher or middle ranking manager who is able to consistently apply business (entrepreneurial) thinking when leading a team of workers (various specialists and managers) who provide knowledge transfer during the creation of innovative solutions. The entrepreneurial thinking is understood as the ability to strategically formulate ideas and conditions under which the selected innovation targets can be achieved, a systemic approach to step-by-step execution of defined measures and the ability to focus on the final solution and on the profitability (organisational prosperity) of the resources invested in the final implementation of the innovative measures.

Innovative behaviour and actions, including the innovative thinking, should thus be understood primarily as time-dependent factors (in this context we can sometimes speak about time-management, or more accurately, speed-management). To be the carrier or author of



innovation often requires time which must be invested into the business decision making. Innovative behaviour and conduct is often viewed as excellence of knowledge gained and released in time.

Lack of available time stalls the innovation in a certain point (the innovation becomes dead). This can even happen at the very beginning of the innovation process. When this happens both the innovation development and the desired organisational prosperity get threatened.

Management of inner energy becomes a driving force of innovative behaviour and supports the achievement of personal and team goals. It also facilitates finding of the optimal point between work and leisure (wellness). From this perspective, we should note that innovators make quite often the mistake of giving in to catastrophic visions or scenarios (i.e. admitting and even exaggerating the scenarios of what could happen if the innovation failed). This is especially dangerous for the mental hygiene of the innovators because such behaviour does not promote effective decision making and actions. Instead, it increases stress level. The only proven effective solution is not to allow your past patterns of behaviour to invade your present mind (not to repeat the past mistakes). This contributes to dissolution of so-called stress enzymes and helps mental revitalization of the organism.

To support and nurture innovative behaviour of people, entrepreneurs and managers must eliminate potential risks of failure. Not even the innovation bearers can afford to view potential failure as a pre-set barrier. In innovative businesses, risk management affects the entire integrated management system. This applies particularly to information technologies, total quality management, competitive intelligence etc. In this approach, the risk management mainly relates to so-called Freedforward links, where risks may exist in a latent form, to extrapolation of future events and their development (in-ante) and to online knowledge and the scope of its application including possible consequence (ex-post). Guaranteed negative factors (obstacles, barriers) to innovative behaviour are:

- Pessimistic way of thinking, speaking, behaviour and conduct;
- Low self-esteem, for example when someone believes, he/she is going to fail, his/her ideas are useless etc.;
- Social environment hampering the possibility of implementing new ideas;
- Isolation from other people due to, for example, low levels of communication, inability to share thoughts and ideas;
- Too low or too high emotionality, lack of positive emotions which stimulate inspired and innovative thinking;
- Stereotype syndrome (burnout). On the other hand, diverse activity evokes thoughts and courage to set and to achieve new goals and to change things. It initiates the 'spawning of innovation'.

### **3.3. Innovative behaviour and conduct in teamwork**

Innovators' work is especially important for the prosperity of companies organised in network configurations, even if these companies act as leaders of such networks. Mutual coordination of innovative behaviour, for example between individual links of the team organisational structures and between them and other businesses, such as suppliers, project participants, members of technological companies clusters etc., leads to effective commercialization of this effort and, consequently, to increased competitiveness.

It is a common practice to entrust the task of finding solutions to especially challenging, complex or innovative problems to special innovation teams. These could be project teams with several innovatively focused members, or sometimes, especially in fields such as electronics, nuclear medicine etc. these could even be teams composed exclusively of innovators (though this is quite rare).



Another, apparently also successful option, is having autonomous teams (independently controlled units) where virtually all members are innovators. The team is ‘self-managed’ and has a clearly defined mission or a task to be solved. People in such teams show strongly innovative behaviour and they also bear direct responsibility for results (in American companies, people have a specific name for such teams – ‘the skunk workers’). Autonomous innovation teams become especially important contributors to their company’s prosperity in cases where problems have to be solved under the pressure of time, of competitors, production costs associated with degree of specialisation, the need for quick economic turnover of the company (dramatic cost cutting), radical, typically more complex innovations etc.

A well-known global company Lockheed Martin Corporation, one of the largest suppliers of sophisticated military equipment and advanced space systems, can serve as a prime example of good practice of utilising the autonomous teams. Innovation teams in this company always work on solutions to specifically defined tasks; they concentrate the enthusiasm and energy of individual members on the assigned projects. They also evade bureaucratic influence of mechanistic formal corporate structures and insist on their autonomy and sovereignty. They view problems as challenges and tirelessly look for creative solutions.

Innovation teams are usually characterised by the following behaviour and actions:

- High mutual trust and emotional intensity of members’ involvement backed by huge investment of inner energy;
- Readiness, flexibility and willingness to change whatever suits new goals and objectives;
- Exclusive concentration and focus on the given task combined with fierce determination and effort to prove that the previous solution can be improved;
- High intellectual integrity and mature communication;
- Dispute of ideas, proposals and possible solutions is desirable, constructive, productive, and focused on organisational team goals.

Members of innovation teams require considerable independence and inspiration to continuous innovation. Managers, in this case it is more appropriate to speak about leaders, of creative teams must be able to delegate management of tasks and entire projects.

Leadership of innovation teams pays off particularly in periods of change and supports great flexibility in dealing with mainly new original tasks. An indicator of the team’s innovative behaviour is performance.

### **3.3. Organisational prosperity as a result of innovative behaviour and actions**

In essence, organisation can choose one of four basic types of innovations. Three of these are referred to as intermediate while the fourth one is essential. The complexity of the context of innovative behaviour and conduct (and also the solutions) gradually increases from the first to the fourth type of innovations.

Product innovation – a continuous improvement of functional and end-user characteristics of the product aimed at retention of existing customers and acquiring new ones.

Process innovation – an ongoing implementation of marketing measures aimed at simplifying distribution, increasing availability and achieving better prices of the offered products and services.

Management methods innovation – changes to solutions of production related problems, implementation of new production processes, addressing of new markets, building of new distribution channels and changes to pricing policy.

Business model innovation – change of business, new technologies, new target markets, combined products, electronic distribution, different pricing policy.



Business model innovation brings the highest organisational prosperity in the long term. It must focus on creating qualitatively new level of value for the customer through complex innovation. But changing the business model does not necessarily mean that the organisation completely distances itself from its past and begins again with a “clean slate”. The business model must go in a different direction. It must begin with searching and finding what should be preserved from the past and what should be changed radically.

With increasing degree of complexity of the innovative behaviour and actions, organisations must open ever wider to new innovation partners in a strategic alliance to achieve not only organisational prosperity but also corporate social responsibility (CSR).

#### 4. Conclusion

The reality in Czech Republic does not justify excessive optimism. For example, the results of analytical study prepared in 2013 and presented in 2014 on the webpages of the Czech Management Association, Czech Republic occupies 36<sup>th</sup> rank (out of 37 so called ‘rich countries’) in the list of world’s most innovative countries.

The proof of uniqueness of the subject and of its timeless importance, lies in the existence of international and national conferences, workshops, symposiums, journals and research projects, from which the author either drew information or on which he personally participated. Materials from the major ones are listed as literature at the end of this post.

Closer examination of this topic by means of literature and document study, analysis and comparison, research studies, direct participation in research surveys, workshop and think tank methods justifies the formulation of ideas (possible ‘gaps’) which deserve further attention and refinement (apart from the ideas already stated and thoughts quoted by the author):

- The role of human factor as the key factor of innovation (with a special focus on the specifics of innovative thinking and its neuropsychiatric influences and factors);
- The context of competitiveness and innovative organisational behaviour and conduct as contributing factors to both, the corporate prosperity and general social welfare (CSR).

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## LEADERSHIP AND MOTIVATION OF HUMAN POTENTIAL AS VITAL PART OF STRATEGIC MANAGEMENT OF COOPERATION IN COMPANY

KRISTÍNA TRŠKOVÁ, MARTIN HOLUBČÍK

### Abstract

This paper talks about importance of strategic management and development of human resources with motivational accent for supporting the internal cooperation between employees and divisions of the company in order to produce desirable synergies among all employees. For analysing and solution of this issue we inspired by opinions of domestic and foreign authors. Than we defined critical success factors for the formation of desirable synergies in the human potential management and development. Implementation and success of these factors was observed inside three Slovak companies through long-term covert observation. The main findings are that especially creative management and motivation can transform and support not only values of ourselves and other employees but also the very processes and results of the company.

The most fundamental critical success factors which we concluded, say about mutual active communication and coherent relationships; about quality decision making in motivating; about the involvement of employees in management processes; about common problem solving; active and continued employees motivating; about sharing the skills and knowledge and the need of comfortable working place.

**Key words:** cooperation, motivation, strategy, employees, synergy effects.

**Classification JEL:** M12 – Personnel Management.

### 1. Introduction

Impact of employees' potential just as managers' ability to lead and motivate the employees is the issue of current management. Strategic business management focuses on measuring the performance and its improvement what consequently begins and ends with employees themselves.

At present several significant authors argue that the tune of organization itself is the basement not only for measuring and improving but also the key to stimulate and motivate employees using multiple tactics such as alignment of individual and corporate objectives, linking the elements of measurement and motivation, plans like incentives for employees, clarity and handover strategy to employees, employees involvement and other tactics (*Kaplan & Norton, 2006; Blašková, 2011; Vodáček & Vodáčková, 2009*).

Our aim is to suggest model solution of strategic management of employees in the company consisting of interacting elements: leadership, motivation, strategic leadership and decision-making in motivation, while we estimate the synergic effect formation right within these defined links and elements.

Blašková (2011) emphasizes the idea that human resources are the most important factor of strategic success of the company which is created by skills, abilities, experiences and knowledge of their holders.

We can only add that right level of employees' and managers' human potential of the company has the impact on the quantity and quality of the developed synergies within the cooperation of people, managerial and motivational tools for higher purposes of company and business. Just because of the weight and importance of previous ideas it is needed to constantly observe and create appropriate management approaches for employees and managers as well as for whole company or a group of cooperative companies overall.



As stated by Slávik (2009): „Strategic management is a modern and rapidly developing discipline which was created as a reaction to the new features of business environment in conditions of market economy.” It is important for today’s managers to understand this idea as a strategic management approach in the current global game and turbulent conditions on the opened market. One and now often used strategic business thrust is just an act of cooperation in forms such as: acquisitions, mergers, alliances, consortiums, networks, clusters and other joint programs and projects. As the confirmation we are stating the basis of Soviar et al. (2013) regarding: current dynamic arrangement of the market environment is characteristic by the fact that there is no subject existing alone but it is the part of a wider system. He also states the idea: „The elements in these systems less or more impact each other and their interaction determines the possibility of their survival on the market.” From our perspective is one of those elements also internal environment of the company itself.

Previous assumptions of the several authors and interconnection with our thoughts create the theory, in which the common dynamic of processes and subjects of internal and external business environment as well as their interactions build synergic effect. At present this issue is reviewed by aspect of complex content analysis, of which the basic positions we will examine in practice in business conditions through the primary tools of data collection. It means the *aim of paper* is to focus attention on the area of synergy in work performance and strategic management.

## 2. Strategic management: tools, relation to performance and synergy

Currently, strategic management tools such as BSC, BOC, MBO and other are moving our attention not only to performance, improving and providing the values, but in huge also to analyse human resources of company.

Next three tools of strategic management indicate the power and elements of interconnection of human resources in the company which is one of the main basics of the creation of required performance and observed synergies inside the business environment.

### Balanced Scorecard

Due to Kaplan & Norton (2006) in the BSC method, more particularly in perspective of learning and growing they are dedicated to human resources system tune which is achieved through all employees, their preparation and training, and also through various incentive and motivational programs. Authors Kaplan and Norton (2006) talk about improving the systems, culture and intangible assets, which in this case represent the people and their potential. Based on their findings we have formulated a summary of their ideas and inspirations in this area:

- Instigating, encouraging and strengthening internal motivation;
- Combination of internal and external motivational elements;
- Managers’ communication skills;
- Constant communication through all company directions;
- Constant communication in the field of vision, mission and illustration of company strategy;
- Constant transfer of the strategy to employees. Employees not only contribute to organization success, but in addition they can also realize their own personality goals;
- Demonstration and clarification the location in overall strategy and how it is possible to create value in own units, but also with cooperation with other units;
- Effort of employees so the company is able to reach its objectives;
- Involvement of employees themselves (gaining the employees support; the success of the company is their own);



- Strengthening the plans in the field of personal performance measures, teamwork, knowledge sharing and encourage the creation of ideas for improvement;
- Increment of the organization success divide between active employees. (stimulative rewarding based on measurements).

### **Blue Ocean Strategy**

According to the Blue Ocean Strategy, this market represents red (actual market and its competitive struggle) and blue oceans (yet unformed new markets, new opportunities), (*Kim & Mauborgne, 2012*). New key value for market segment of company can provide by the right strategic strokes. Creating a jump increase needs harmonization not only the benefits, costs and prices, but also the internal environment of the company what means employees who are able to strengthen (they are basement for the implementation) actual company strategy.

BOC talks about particular critical factors, which should be limited, lifted, evident and created in terms of customer value. However in the background of innovations and value which is generated for customer in the company stands also employees and managers themselves. They can also affect the outputs. Therefore it is important for acquirement the objects and strategies of BOC to pass through between employees so it will provide them better possibility to understand and even adopt the newly created environment.

Previous idea draws attention to one of the problems of implementation the BOC. According to Kim & Mauborgne (*2012*) barriers represent employees, limited resources, motivation to change, company policy and desire to succeed in practice. In the end these authors express the idea in which: involvement of individuals in decisions; their critical expressions and opinions; explanation of strategy; clear rules and expectations of 'game', but also engagement, trust and voluntary cooperation support the creation of blue oceans.

### **Management by Objectives**

Management by Objectives Drucker (*1954*) designed this method as determination, mutual approval and controlling achieving objective. This means delegation of responsibilities and competencies of determined object to its implementer. This method is often associated with setting goals using SMART criteria, performance evaluation and cooperation on common objectives of the company.

Critical areas in MBO is effective communication, feedback, evaluation process and assessment of objectives in the context of organization's own objectives and employees' own objectives, the value of work, by which manager can achieve working responsibilities with employees (*Seevers, 1979*). Important is that Seevers confirmed Kellogg's idea (*1975*): contribution to the excellent performance is in daily interaction between employees and their managers.

At present, authors like Rodgers & Hunter (*1991*); Kellogg (*1975*); Vliet (*2014*) confirm that in MBO it is a double-sided planning, where employees with their sub-objectives support managers' higher objectives, but there are set their own aims and plans which fulfil and motivate them. At the same time managers carry out the performance control on particular objectives and possibly their correction. Employees participate in determining the objectives what is also their active involvement in the management of the organization. This brings several benefits like: strengthening of relationships between employees and managers; creating comfortable working place; closer understanding of the problems and their solutions; improvement of decision-making quality and problem solving; employees are evaluated according to their performance and objectives, which were created together with management; it serves also as a summary of overall performance.

On the other side there if often lack of support from senior management; moving the objectives and plans throughout organization; review of quantitative objectives; reluctance on



the managers' part to cooperate with employees. From previous strategic management methods, as well as from other methods related to the issue, is necessary to select elements of human resource management in order to create synergies. Concerns in particular these elements (common features):

- Harmonization of the internal environment of the company;
- Effective communication and feedback;
- The value is created by cooperation between employees and managers;
- Acquisition of company environment (strengthening relationships, convenient workplace);
- Explanation and presentation of the strategy – relation with company values;
- Common objectives, which support both personal and company objectives (both-sided planning with comprehensive view);
- Employee involvement in decision-making and planning processes;
- Clearly set rules and expectations, responsibilities and competences;
- Monitoring and evaluation of performance (performance benchmarks), internal and external motivation;
- Involvement, trust, active participation and voluntary cooperation of employees and managers (teamwork);
- Deeper understanding of problems and their solution.

Company affects a number of other important factors, which characterize the company in general and these are: type of company (line of business); company resources; company abilities; primary and supporting activities of the company and functional areas of the company. In this conditions the manager makes decisions, manages and directs not only employees but also the company as a whole.

Drucker (2012) argues, that from all of the decisions, none are as important as the decisions about people because they determine the performance capability of the organization. Therefore it is necessary to make these decisions responsibly, correctly and efficiently. „Managers, who do not make efforts to ensure that their decisions about people are right, risk more than just poor performance. They risk loss of authority of their organization.” To the decision steps for managers due Drucker (2012) can be included:

- Consider about assigning tasks;
- Consider about more potential candidates for the task (view on their advantages, what opinion have others about each candidate);
- The selected candidate has to understand his function (different behaviour, focus, relationships);
- In case of wrong choice of candidate to find him a new allocation.

From another perspective, the authors Kaplan and Norton (2006) express the opinion that in the centre of organization stands strategy, which allocates resources, monitors the results and helps to accomplish the objectives. However implementation of the strategy in terms of human resources through integrated planning system requires tuning of the overall organization strategy. Next determine their three main points: determination of intangible assets; readiness of those assets (their utility); determination of measures and essential tasks for an effective implementation of strategy.

Also Collins (2015) put attention to the importance of having the power with others, not above them. He pointed to the linked structures of the company, integration of best abilities, support of teamwork and creating collective intelligence. According to this system business success depends on employees.

M. Porter's idea which is confirmed by several authors such as Souček (2005) and Magretta (2012) is that sustained competitive advantages can be only achieved through the strategy.



Human resources leadership and management is applied during daily activities of managers in various fields. Ability to plan, decide and observe the environment is just as important for manager as for employee. All of these skills such as knowledge and experiences of all people in the company contribute to the advancement of entire environment in which they operate. In this evolution can be seen synergic effect right in application of knowledge and skills of all people in the organization and its activities.

Substantial thing in our issue is the focus on CSF as synergy effects (of human potential within interconnections to activities and company managers as well as of very functioning of internal company environment) of delegation and communication of internal company environment.

*By leading and motivating people it is possible to transform not only others and ourselves but also processes and results in the company. This is the cycle that has historical background in evolution in business and continues.*

### **3. Human potential strategic management and development**

The human potential is composed of skills, knowledge, experiences, inspirations, thoughts and ideas, own personalities – all of these as a component of human potential is creating value for company which they form.

Management of human resources is used particularly to the company performance and ongoing improvements (*Koubek, 2007, p. 61*). Human potential as capital or resource of company is important wealth of company. The people, employees and managers, create values for company – their skills, talent, wisdom (knowledge), experiences, willingness and solidarity among themselves and company.

Armstrong defined management of human resources as strategical and logical management approach of valuable potential – peoples, who work and individual and collectively contribute to the achievement of company goals (*Armstrong, 2002, p. 211*). If company would mine maximal effect from human potential, it is necessary to manage people strategically and logically towards integration of employees and company goals. Human resources management is constantly changing and improving thereby abandoning traditional management models, giving way to more modern, more flexible, more practical and more humane forms of management that characterize humanization of the relations of production expressed through increased motivation, satisfaction and adequate stimulation (*Torrington et al., 2004*).

Foot & Hook (2005) developed five characteristic (rules), which define management and development of human potential:

1. The importance of acceptance a strategic approach.
2. Line managers play very important role.
3. Organizational policies must be integrated and they must show consistency. It must be clarify to support and design the main values and goals of organization better. With this statement play vital role the communication.
4. It adopted fundamental philosophy which emphasize competitive advantage through human effort. It can be interpreted in many ways into form of human resource management of activities.
5. In the relationships between managers and employees prevails ‘unitaristic’ rather than ‘pluralistic’ approach.

Management of human resources has an important place in each company. This is because human resources are for company valuable and precious. Management of company lies in connection and encouraging performances of employees within vision, philosophy, goals and strategy. At workplace must be created an open atmosphere in which employees and managers will gladly provide their potential. If company is created atmosphere by trust and openness then employees are willing to cooperate. The same idea is relevant for work teams in the



meaning that if they work together they bring company value from connections between their skills, experiences, knowledge and talent.

Effective leadership makes employees like their job better and, as a consequence, they work harder and perform in ways that benefit the organization (*Kvaloy & Schottner, 2015*). Authors Kachaňáková and Nachtmannová (2007) talk about what knowledge, habits and behaviour must have manager for knowhow manage and develop potential of their subordinated employees. Based on primary knowledge of these authors we summarize following topics:

- Have a knowledge of how to become the effective manager;
- Use suitable process of career development of manager;
- Make competently decisions;
- Manage their time rationally;
- Learn how to present their thoughts;
- Learn how to cooperate with superiors and subordinates colleagues;
- Find your inner motivation (your drivers);
- Develop the will of people to work more efficient and in better quality (increase their motivation);
- Offer opportunities to progress for people (develop their personalities and skills);
- Use and valuation of thoughts and inspiration of people for growth productivity of company;
- Delegation of responsibilities to subordinate colleagues in order to they have the feeling that they are important and also they have decision making power;
- Development of communication with employees across the company (communication must be two-sided and motivation oriented).

Calhoun and Lederer (1990) found that a lack of communication of top management's objectives could account for the business function's dissatisfaction with strategic information systems planning. Communication is one of dynamic processes, without which the strategy management and management of human potential could not work. If company want to operate and develop (proceed) as complex system, than all of employees, managers, work teams, division and individual as same as whole company must involve open communication in their life.

In this period of the systematic human resource management, its individual key activities as we know them today, was gradually shaped: human resource planning; human resources acquisition (recruitment, selection and acceptance); development of human potential; development of employee loyalty (*Marasová & Vallušová, 2010*). Under the management of human resources it is implied policies and activities in the process or the process of planning, recruiting, selection, socialization, training and development, evaluation of performances, rewarding, motivating, protection of employees and implementing the work regulations, undertaken by the management of the organization, in order to provide the staff with necessary abilities, qualities, and potentials and their adequate training and motivation to achieve the expected results and acquire organizational and personal goals (*Jovanovic et al., 2004*). Blašková and Blaško (2011) agree with this statement: the decision-taking presents an inevitable part of every single one of functions of the human potential management, i.e. strategic management of human potential, human potential planning, recruitment, selection, profiling, orientation and placement, leading, appraisal of work performance, motivating, training and development, etc. All of these activities should be carried out with a motivation accent which mean that in every one activity in management of human resource is necessary make decision in management within motivation. Strategic management of human resources include decisions and activities which are relate to management employees on all levels of company hierarchy and they are focus to create and establish his competitive advantages,



(Vodák & Kucharčíková, 2011, p. 32). If company want this competitive advantage (synergy effects as added value for whole company) obtain and keep then every manager must understand that their decisions are related to people (employees). If managers want keep this advantage from human potential then they must accept right and quality decisions in motivation process. This process is fundamental for whole strategy management and development of human potential. The effort to build healthy working relationships within company is associated with an emphasis on creating a desirable company culture, then people accept value of company and they start contribute positively to value and develop it (Koubek, 2007). An important role of strategic human resource management is about focusing the management in employees as a tool to gain competitive advantage. Now, organizations are made aware that successful human resources policies and practices of appropriate can increase performance in various areas such as productivity, quality and financial performance (Cania, 2014).

Strategic development of human resources should be seen as decommissioning, modifying and managing of process which all of individuals and teams equips by skills, knowledge and abilities which their need to able to meet current and future objectives and goals of company, (Armstrong, 2007, p. 443). By development of strategy of human potential company must recognize that development of employees is important for achieve goals and it should be focused primarily on improving performance of employees, because their performance constitute overall performance of company. In processes of company should be thinking about people at the beginning of development (defining) vision and mission of company. „A strategy as a plan or course of action which is vital, pervasive, or continuing importance to the organization as whole is starting point of enterprise planning process, implied from vision and mission“ (Sharplin, 1985, p. 8). Strategic management of human resource is related to strategic management of company through vertical integration between human resources strategy and strategy of company that is created and implemented in consistent way with each other (Šikýř, 2012, p. 36).

The degree to which the organization can act intelligently depends on the competencies of its people and its operational capabilities, such as structure, systems, and policies and on driving forces, such as motivation (Figurska, 2010). Using of strategic motivation on workplace is based on good knowledge of motivation behaviour. It is priceless tool for increase performance on workplace. Motivated employees are in many cases those who are the most productive and efficient. If people are properly motivated it is likely that they will be more ingenious in their work and will be less likely that they will need constant supervision. It is based on that they want to meet established goals. These goals serve as motivation tools. The strategic plan is impossible to realize without motivation strategy, without company enthusiasm and without involvement of inspired people.

The motivation is one of the basis for management of human potential and it affect to majority of employees development roles which draw on achievement and implementation of company objectives within respecting interests of employees. The alignment of these interests is one of the most important task of managers. Motivation is willingness to make substantial efforts to achieve company goals. It is conditioned by that individual satisfy own needs at same time (Robbins & Coulter, 2004). Motivation is drive force because it drive human behaviour, activities and has intensity and direction. Management and development of human potential manager must be able to estimate right direction which can be motivation move and also must assess amount of motivation. He must estimate proper measure of motivation for employees in order to it has an optimal level (employees cannot be over motivated or under motivated). „In the level of organization success, it is necessary to consider high and inevitably systematically reinforced motivation not only of some selected individuals but employees and managers of all categories, specialist segments and levels of organization management. In case of motivated and evolved employees and managers there will definitely be higher tendency to remain in an





organization, fluctuation will decrease and long-lasting employment will retroactively promote productivity growth of human potential specific for particular organization“ (Blašková, 2007).

#### 4. Methodology of paper

In broad knowledge about synergy is important to note that not all authors and his researches regarded synergy as one effect. In theoretical research we find various categorizations, e.g.: Corning (1995) divided synergy in thirteen categories; Martin and Eisenhart (2002) list four sources of ‘cross-business’ synergies; Goold and Campbell (1998) defined six areas of formation synergy; Vodáček and Vodáčková (2009) characterized two type of resulting synergy; Kaplan and Norton (2006) classified synergy based on four perspectives of BSC.

Definition from sociology point out that society or company is environment for synergy of individualities, where common goal are achieve by achieving individual objectives (Hewstone & Stroebe, 2006). This idea is also applied in strategy management as tool within management by objectives, MBO.

According to Griffin (1990); Kotabe (2010); Kaplan and Norton (2006) synergy is managerial concept based on *coordinated cooperation*. The existence of a common synergy effect indicated that *common strategy* play important role in whole company performances (Martin & Eisenhardt, 2002; Kotler, 2013; Wandersman, 1997). The result of the interaction and cooperation existence between sub-business units lead to creation of added value, synergy effect (Vodáček & Vodáčková, 2009; Goold & Campbell, 1998; Ivanička, 1997). Previous findings from authors confirm the importance of above methods of strategy management: BSC, BOC and MBO. Application of these methods or their parts is important for formation of synergy effects.

Synergy effects of internal environment of company are creating particularly with effective strategy management which meet the following selected elements.

These elements are derived from theoretical and practical examination of concern area. We starting from previous selected strategy management tools (in Chapter 2), continuous with exploring synergy in management (in Chapter 3) and decision making in motivation (in Chapter 2). Our focus is on the idea: Creative leadership, motivation and human potential are one of the basic (vital) parts of strategy management through cooperation in company. Development of all employees, involvement in management, mutual trust, also control are creating basis for concretization various critical success factors of company (in terms of internal environment). We suggest these element as basis for formation synergy effects through company environment:

- Two-sides and active *communication* and strengthening relationships between managers and employees (not only in the context of strategy of company and their goals but also personal life);
- Correct, responsible and quality *decision making in motivation*;
- *Involving employees* into decision making, planning, evaluating processes of company (realization ideas and inspiration of employees);
- Resulted and anticipated *problems* are examined, explained and collectively solved as soon as possible (even minor problems cannot put aside);
- The application of motivation tools and *motivation accent* within active cooperation of the internal environment of the company;
- *Sharing* of skills, knowledge, abilities and wisdom within cooperation between employees, teams, departments themselves and among all management levels in company;
- Comfortable *working environment* in which they can work creatively and inspiring.



#### 4.1. Critical success factors for formation synergy effects within human potential management in company

The synergy effects arising from cooperation of individual elements of environment, in our case it is internal environment of company in which employees and managers actively work. Previous selected CSF are basis for formation synergy effects in company. This base is characterized by motivation and leadership of human potential within strategic management of company in defined area of business and established goals. The Table 1 presents practical verification of selected factors in chosen three companies. The first company (Sipe, s.r.o.) is engage in production and sale of construction of concrete floors. The second company (Lusien Trans, s.r.o.) is selling archery good, hunting accessories and army accessories. The third company (GoodRequest, s.r.o.) is engage in development of mobile applications and websites. In these companies were took place hidden observation (6 months) and valuation previous CSF. Performance in CSF are assessed on scale from 1 to 10, where 1 is absence of factor and 10 is practised at high level which positive effect on company and create synergy effect. The value of CSF are assign by in view of importance within occurrence and emphasis us and others authors in theoretical and practical research.

Table 1. Comparison of CSF in chosen companies (own study)

CSF (Critical success factors)	value	Sipe, s.r.o.		Lusien Trans, s.r.o.		GoodRequest s.r.o.	
		performance	factor score	performance	factor score	performance	factor score
Two-sides and active communication and coherent relationships	0.18	6	1.08	4	0.72	8	1.44
Correct and quality decision making in motivation	0.18	6	1.08	2	0.36	8	1.44
Involving employees into process of decision making	0.16	7	1.12	7	1.12	10	1.60
Problems solved collectively as soon as possible	0.14	6	0.84	6	0.84	8	1.12
The application of motivation tools and motivation accent	0.14	6	0.84	5	0.75	7	0.98
Sharing of skills, knowledge, abilities and wisdom across company	0.12	7	0.84	5	0.60	10	1.20
Comfortable working environment	0.08	5	0.40	7	0.56	9	0.72
<b>Overall score</b>	<b>1.00</b>		<b>6.20</b>		<b>4.95</b>		<b>8.50</b>

*Lusien Trans* (second company in Table 1) is one of those companies, where managers does not understand the strength of motivation and work with people. On one side company want to be market leader in its field of business, but on the other hand company not fully aware of where the strength of its vision lies. Company is from inside slightly unstable because managers require from employees autonomy, creative ideas and solutions not only within operational problems but also in long-term strategy and for these requirements they absolutely not apply motivation decision and tools. Many of manager's decision had negatively impact on company in terms of demotivation of their employees. Communication of company is say mainly in negative ways to employees and positive communication remains only at the management of company. This behaviour caused enormous fluctuation of employees in 2015, which represents financial losses from constant recruitment and spreading bad awareness about company.



*Sipe* (first company in Table 1) is in some way better in these criteria in front of *Lusien Trans* but the problem is inconsistency between employees and managers. It was reflected mainly within own preferential of individual staff of company. Although company is trying to apply motivation tools but they cannot always be used effectively and estimate motivation of their employees. The employees are in management and decision making process involving only partially. The company planning is based on routine customary process in which employees can contribute their skills. Company realized that sharing skills of employees is important aspects of performance in future but between employees still exist competitiveness. If company will seek to eliminate competition in sharing skills and knowledge, it getting started strong value in term of inner cooperation.

*GoodRequest* (third company in Table 1) is in all factors at high score. Company setting active two-side communication between managers and employees and employees to each other and other individuals or teams. Feedback interviews are conducted in motivation way and guide staff in which direction they have to go. It is also an opportunity for employees to participate in decision-making processes within the meaning of evaluation process. Company strives to ensure that employees share their ideas, thoughts, inspirations, as well as skills and knowledge between each other. Company hold an idea that it give sense only it give sense to everyone. In this way all of staffs have opportunity to contribute their opinions. Benefit from application this CSF seen also in fact that employees share their skills between their colleagues themselves. Employees who have some know better or know more about something, they prepare training to enrich this skill with other colleagues. Company is focused not only on product but also on those who produce this product and these are its employees.

From survey we may conclude that if companies will apply proposed CSF for strategic management and development of human potential, they gain *very loyal and highly motivated employees*. These employees bring to company *high value and competitiveness* in business. It also shows that the application of these CSF in company formulate mutual *natural cooperation* between employees, work teams which is create synergy effects in way of use human potential all of employees from. This synergy effect is great added value and wealth for company in terms of that employees are creators of company. We can argue that such a synergy effect causes into company transfer traditional family values as trust, solidarity, loyalty, common overcoming obstacles, and support to each other, mutual friendship and build shared values and goals.

#### 4.2. Simply qualitative model

Figure 1 show importance of inside-company cooperation between individual divisions (departments, work teams, etc.) which are in the figure designated as D1 to Dn. This is cooperation environment and this is about sharing knowledge, skills, wisdom, motivation, and talent not only between divisions but through individuals and whole company – in this way it is produced synergy effect (synergy effect is on Figure indicated as mutually facing arrows). In company, employees are *mutually interconnected* and related in many different bonds and relations, which also means that lack of skills or knowledge is learn, handed over from talent of others members.

Inspiration and wisdom of individuals *motivate others members* to develop their potential and increase their own performance, which create new added value for company and increase efficiency of individuals, teams, departments and whole company. The all complex system of this cooperating, learning and sharing environment is dynamic and is influenced by right and quality motivation decision making of manager, and which is affected by opinions and inspirations of employees through feedback. This complex process is also influenced by external environment, in way that company can shape or adapt.

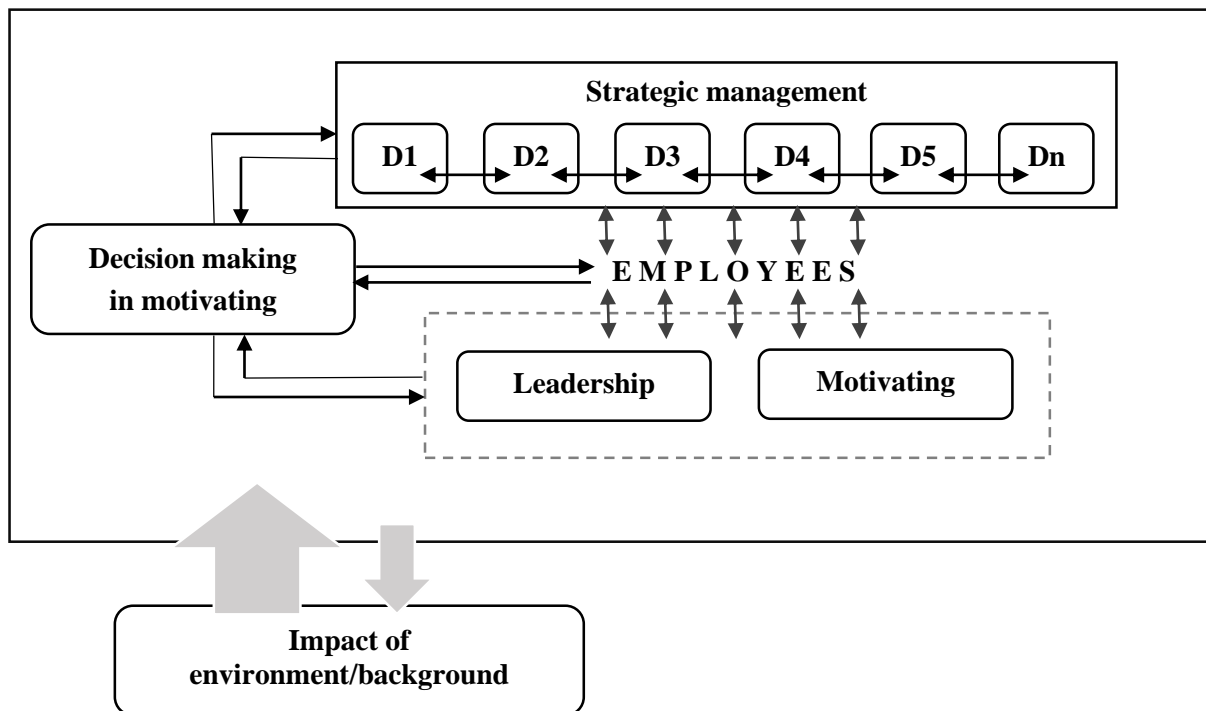


Figure 1. Synergetic bonds in internal company environment (own study)

## 5. Conclusion

Creative leadership and continuous, intense motivation of human potential are the basics of the strategic management of cooperation inside the company that elicit positive synergies which foster mutual sharing of employees skills, their mutual cooperation and support. Within the strategic management and development of human potential we examined the Balanced Scorecard method which talks about system tuning through employees and their potential; Blue Ocean Strategy method which says that the key value for the company should be employees, and Management by Objectives method which says that employees should be involved in the creation of strategic objectives of the company. For effective use of these methods it is necessary to use continuous, both-ways communication, to create a friendly atmosphere of trust, to unite the objectives of employees with the company objectives, to involve employees in decision-making and planning in all of the processes and to continuously use the motivation accent in all activities made in company.

Based on the examination of knowledge in this field we suggested *critical success factors* which will ensure achievement of desired synergy effect in the company. It is these seven factors:

- Both-sided active communication and coherent relationships;
- Correct and high-quality decision-making in motivation;
- Involvement of employees in the management processes;
- Mutually solving of the problems in the shortest possible time;
- Application of motivation tools and motivation accent;
- Sharing skills, knowledge and talent across the company;
- Comfortable and pleasant working environment.

Next, we verified these factors in practice in three companies, Sipe s.r.o., Lusien Trans s.r.o., and GoodRequest s.r.o., through long term secret observation and subsequent interviews with employees of the company. Based on this survey we managed to confirm that right in the



company, where are applied suggested critical factors, are formed required intra-company synergies in the form of potentials interoperation of all employees.

If the companies start to focus on their employees actively (respectively on these factors) and not only on products, profits and customers, they will be on the best way to gain lasting success, because it is essential to understand that employees are not only means of creating success of the company, but they themselves are the creators of the whole company.

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