Managing Disruption and Destabilisation
Managing Disruption and Destabilisation

Scientific editors:
Prof. Thomas Baaken, Ph.D.
Prof. Janusz Teczke, Ph.D.

Cracow – Muenster 2014
Scientific editors:
Prof. Thomas Baaken, Ph.D.
Professor in Technology Marketing and B-to-B Marketing at Muenster University of Applied Sciences
Prof. Janusz Teczke, Ph.D.
Head of Department of International Management, Cracow University of Economics

Scientific reviewers:
prof. Józef Machaczka, Ph.D.
Janusz Fudaliński, Ph.D.

Cover design:
Teresa Bubak-Mitela

Composition and typeset:
Studio Grafiki i DTP Grapfa
www.grapfa.pl

© Copyright by International Management Foundation,
Cracow University of Economics, Cracow 2014

Polish ISBN: 978-83-937642-3-5
German ISBN: 978-3-938137-49-9

Print:
Drukarnia GS sp. z o.o.
43 Zablocie Street
30-701 Cracow
Poland
Contents

PREFACE

Ute von Lojewski
25 Years of Partnership between Cracow University of Economics and University of Applied Sciences Muenster ........................................... 9

Andrzej Chochoł ................................................................. 11

Janusz Teczke, Thomas Baaken ............................................. 13

CHAPTER 1
TRANSITION

Mieczysław Dobija
Why developed economies are at risk of deflation? .................... 17

Kazimierz Górka
Policy instrument adjustment for green economy .......................... 29

Cornelia Scott
The role of change management in times of destabilization ............. 43

Joanna Wyrobek
The survey on the Polish corporate auditors’ procedures and the most commonly detected irregularities as measures of preventing creative accounting ........ 59

Grzegorz Strupczewski
Why enterprises buy insurance? Theoretical aspects of corporate demand for property insurance ......................................................... 69

Michał Teczke
Polish mining status after 1989 .................................................. 81

Bert Kiel
Companies’ Demand for Competencies to Overcome Disruptive Changes .... 91

Piotr Buła, Janusz Fudaliński
Risk in the activities of non-commercial organizations – a basis for discussion 109
CHAPTER 2
MANAGEMENT

THOMAS BAaken, JANUSZ TECZKE
Managing Disruptive Change by Partnering. .............................................. 129

WOLFGANG BUCHHOLZ
Borderless business – Bridging the gaps between fairly contrastive
management concepts ................................................................. 143

CZESŁAW MESJASZ
Determinants of designing corporate governance systems in Central Eastern Europe. . 157

RYSZARD BOROWIECKI, BARBARA SIUTA-TOKARSKA
Enterprise Management in a Critical Situation. An Analysis of the Research
Findings of Enterprises in Poland ..................................................... 169

MONIKA JEDYNAK, PIOTR JEDYNAK
Business interruption insurance in stabilization of company operations ............. 185

SEBASTIAN BRAŃKA, JAROSŁAW PlichTA
The role of city managers in managing networks in public space. ...................... 199

MICHAEL DIRCKSEN
Development of international distribution systems
and evaluation of countries from a logistics point of view ............................ 209

CARSTEN FELDMANN, ANDREAS PUMPE, FRANZ VALLÉE
Production Relocation in the Context of International Logistics ......................... 221

NEELE PETZOLD, CHRISTIAN JUNKER, FRANK RIEMENSCHNEIDER
Hybrid Value Creation as a strategic response to Disruptive Change.
The case of Amazon's Kindle .......................................................... 235

HALINA ŁYSZCZARZ
Postmodern paradigm and its impact on management in time of destabilization . 245
CHAPTER 3
EDUCATION AND SOCIETY

THOMAS BAAKEN, TODD DAVEY, VICTORIA GALÁN-MUROS,
ARNO MEERMAN, FRIEDERIKE VON HAGEN
A Comparison of the State of University-Business Cooperation in Germany and Poland ........................................ 261

ANDRZEJ SZROMNIK
Internationalization Strategy of Universities
– Conditions and Institutional Forms ........................................ 281

JANUSZ CZEKAJ, JANUSZ TECZKE, MIHAIŁ TECZKE
The Role of Theory and Practice in Managerial Education .................. 297

KRZYSZTOF BORODAKO, JADWIGA BERBEKA, MIHAIŁ RUDNICKI
Development of Knowledge Intensive Business Services in the context of business tourism changes in Krakow in a period of economic destabilisation .............. 307

MIHAIŁ THŁON
Cluster concept development – a case study from lubelskie voivodeship ...... 319

JANA KOERS, VANESSA LELLEK, TORBEN BERNHOLD, LAMIS YOUSSEF
Visualization of services – Closing expectations gaps and increasing service quality ........................................... 331

KRZYSZTOF MACHAČZKA
The Paradox of evolution and revolution as a business development determinant in conditions of environment destabilization ............................................. 341

RENATA OCZKOWSKA
Employee competences as a factor of development of business service centers in Poland ........................................... 355

AGNIESZKA ŻAK
Stakeholders' capital in theory and practice ........................................... 367

PIOTR SEDŁAK
The idea of Corporate Social Responsibility in understanding of professionals ... 379

Acknowledgements .......................................................... 388
The role of city managers in managing networks in public space

In the paper the authors show the city, a specific territorial unit, as a network that may and should be managed for the joint success of all the stakeholders involved. Furthermore the authors highlight the city as a complex system of network relations. In the following part the role of networks of cooperation in city development is highlighted. In the final part of the paper the idea of city manager is introduced – along with the different models of managing places, including especially city centre management schemes as a model of growing popularity in recent years.

1. Introduction

The cities and other territorial units are a space, in which distinctive allocation of public and private goods occurs. Its distinctiveness is a result of territorial unit’s history and functions and the economic, social and cultural role of the mentioned factors in local development. Certain institutional arrangements prevailing in territorial units are created by local social groups. These arrangements express the rules that regulate the occurrence of local exchange, resulting from competition and cooperation mechanisms. The city as an administrative unit is an institutional emanation of the entity managing social (public) resources and participating in creating rules of cooperation for all entities operating within the territorial unit. From the ownership perspective, these entities are public entities (controlled by central or local self-government), enterprises, associations, religious groups etc. Every one of them satisfies a complex set of needs from different target groups, including residents, entrepreneurs, employees or tourists.

The development of territorial units (including cities) may occur, above all, through value creation for the above mentioned clients. Such value creation results from activi-
ties of diverse entities offering their goods and services. The mentioned entities include, while creating their strategies, the location factor as one of the key success factors. Its value results from the value of goods and services and the value of entities offering goods and services. These strategies are therefore a set of adjustment processes complying the existence of other entities in the city’s space. Due to the mentioned, conditions are created for the emergence of relations characteristic for networks, where the bringing together and exchange of resources occur. The administrative representation of social control is a kind of a gatekeeper establishing rules of participation in the network. At the same time, the administration should play the role of network coordinator or conductor. Managing a network implies fulfillment of a series of requirements, including, among others, management knowledge, skills and competences present not only in the central point of the network but also in entities belonging to the network. This is one of the key success and efficiency requirements for a network. The flow of information and learning mechanism (increasing the value of the network and entities involved in it – so called “learning region” concept) (Ewa Łażniewska, Marian Gorynia, 2012, p. 107) play an important role in this processes. It seems that in the near future the management knowledge associated with coordination of exchange processes in network structures will be part of the key success factors and at the same time they will be a competitive advantage factor not only for (administrative) territorial units (like cities) but also for the networks oriented mainly on achievement of economical goals.

2. The city as a complex system of network relations

The concept of network in exchange processes has a long evolutionary tradition developed on the basis of sociology from which it was adapted to economics. Apart from other theories related to the network theory, like the social exchange theory, rational choice theory or the game theory, Richard M. Emerson is regarded as the creator of this trend in sociology. His concept was primarily based on behavioral approach including relations of both individual and collective actors in exchange processes, underlining the form of relations between them (Jonathan H. Turner, 2008, p. 325). According to this author, the exchange relations that shape the network structures are subject to the use of power (obtaining and possessing advantage) and balancing (pursuance in case of unbalanced relations). The resources that are possessed by the actors and the power specify the structural characteristics and appoint place of the actors in the network. Similarly as in the fundamental exchange mechanisms, valuable resources possessed by the actors are the basis of network operation. Simultaneously, Emerson indirectly points out on issues developed in other theories (e.g. transaction cost theory) including information asymmetry, communication problems between actors, or power and dominance in the network. The connection of resources and power reminds the Demsetz’s theory of property rights (developed in the same time), as one of the key trends in the New Institutional Economics, or the game theory. While analyzing mainly relations between actors Emerson suggested a set of social forms creating a network like: unilateral mo-
nopoly, division of labour, stratification, social circles (p. 328). Further studies of network systems were continued for example by Karen Cook, Edward J. Lawler czy Lindę D. Molm. The mentioned authors broadened Emerson's concept by issues related to centrality in the network, social capital based on trust, engagement of actors in network operations, conflicts and conflict solving as well as rewards and punishments in motivating the participants of the network. With regard to the mentioned above the significance of social networks for economic activity goes beyond the sociologists' scope of interest entering the fields of economics and scientific management (Wojciech Czakon, 2012, p. 15).

From the management perspective, a network is an organizational form with certain characteristic features, of which the lack of hierarchy is the one attracting the most attention. The perspective of organizational form is aimed at defining the new object within scientific management and therefore at understanding its unique features and its impact on such key management issues like: development and prevalence, value creation, gaining competitive advantage, efficiency, learning or innovativeness. The network refers to a specific way of cooperation coordination through establishment of relations leading to a specific type of organization and control, that use market, bureaucratic and relation mechanisms. In this sense the network involves many organizations driven by individual and collective. Based on the achievements of Emerson and his successors there has been criticism regarding the classical assumptions in strategic management claiming that no enterprise is perfect in terms of its resources. Because of the fact that it is impossible to hierarchically control all the resources necessary for value creation, the managers are forced to seek access to the necessary resources through various forms of ownership rights transfer. Every organization operates surrounded by other entities with which it creates ties, being a basis for exchange of resources and creation of collective values. The distinguishing competences of the organization are created through interactions with partners. The form of cooperation and attitude towards others are distinguishers and not peripheral features (Wojciech Czakon, 2012 p. 26).

The territorial space, including a city or a region, is defined by a certain institutional system. Within this system, both individual and collective entities operate. The ownership of resources and their ownership rights differ between entities. In order to achieve certain goals, e.g. goals of residents, different network relations are established, with different levels of complexity, goals and operation effectiveness. It seems that the city space that forces the necessity of coexistence of many entities, creates a very complex system of network relations. A characteristic element of these network is the involvement of public entities representing common value and managing not only social resources but also influencing the operation of other entities to a large extent. Because of this fact, these entities assume a central position in the network creating repeatedly a unilateral monopoly structure. The institutional order created and evolving in many democratic countries is based on creation of a balance between the entities in the network. Therefore in practice, many institutions exist that limit the dominant position of
public entities not only referring to collective entities but also individual entities participating in legitimacy of its power in the system of elections (theory of public choice). This however does not exempt them from liability for execution of a broad spectrum of goals related to operation of all the entities functioning in the certain area or related to the area in social, culture, legal or economic context (e.g. the identity resulting from the place of birth or feeling of belonging). The specific interdependence of resources between entities forming territorial networks contributes to creation of value, that is a mix of values created by these entities within individual strategies of these entities. Touristic products are an example of such values delivered by the cities and regions. The mechanism of common value creation refers to the concept of system products – a concept that has recently been gaining much popularity. The system features of contemporary products and services results from the fact, that their consumer-perceived value depends on the fact that these products exist within a certain expanded system of products and / or services and within a network of its users (Leszek Żabiński, red., 2009, p. 16). The essence of system products, or at least part of them, is the fact these products are also network products. From the final customer point of view, these products may be purchased as part of a package with other separate products – forming together (through a final producer / service provider – so called coordinator) a system product.

3. **Networks of cooperation in city development – a European aspect**

The public sphere is a dominant area of management in territorial units. Nowadays, public management goes beyond a narrow subject-object approach in favor of problem solving and process coordination, while using both public and private resources. The social development is being created in three levels: operational level of social value creation, strategic level of building the potential to create value, normative level of shaping the capacity of social system’s independent existence (by contribution to the development of a larger social whole) (Frąckiewicz-Wronka Aldona, 2009, p. 28).

According to Porter regions, cities and clusters play a key role in understanding of the new competitiveness, where integration of regions–countries with other economies covering many geographical levels is an important factor helping to improve the competitiveness. (Ewa Łaźniewska, Marian Gorynia, 2012, p. 16). This direction of thinking has been supported institutionally by the EU countries and became a basis for execution of a set of actions within so called sustainable development strategy. The integration of development actions based on the exchange and diffusion of physical and intellectual resources resulted from a necessity of comparative advantage creation relative to the global exchange participants. It is combined with management decentralization processes not only in the commercial sphere but also in the public sphere (e.g. participatory budgeting). Along with the neoliberal wave and the change of traditional exchange structures a concept of “new regionalism” has been created. This concept dominated in the 1990’s referring to the studies on regional development aimed at policy making. The basing assumptions for the concept were:
• Region became a melting pot of economic development and wealth creation
• Region should become a crucial area (target) for the economic policies

The key driving force fuelling the comparative advantage in the global economy lies increasingly on the aspects of the regional business environment, knowledge, relations and motivation, i.e. resources that the remote rivals are not able to copy or meet (Gorynia, 21). Referring to the most popular theoretical trends related idea of regional competitiveness M. Laniewska cites (after Martin) a list of factors influencing the regions development. They have both endogenous and exogenous sources. They include:
• comparative advantages requiring the satisfaction of buyers’ needs in a better way comparing to the competitors (export theory)
• accumulation of physical and human resources as well as ability to use them (theory of endogenous growth, the Schumpeter new growth theory, culture theory, cluster theory)
• operation strategies and creation of conditions for development based on social structures and institutional environment as well as historically conditioned evolution (institutional theory, evolution theory, culture theory, cluster theory (Gorynia, 23).

The regional competitiveness concept has been synthesized as a pyramid connecting the resource, process and institutional approaches. Apart from the pyramid model, another model, a “competitiveness hat model” was created by Cambridge Econometrics and ECORYS-NEI company, as well as a economic competitiveness model – so called Porter’s diamond model. Furthermore it is worth to underline the actions taken by international institutions aimed at measuring the economic competitiveness level of countries and regions. The most renowned is the one used in the reports of the World Economic Forum including few hundred detailed factors. A similar indicator was created by the International Institute for Management Development in Lausanne, in a form of a model including 8 indicators, that has been reduced to 4 indicators in 2001. The most important thing is that, apart from the two factors like economic situation and infrastructure the remaining two refer to governing efficiency and management efficiency. It seems that from the micro- and meso-economical perspective these two indicators are the best to reflect the management quality and development potential. Nowadays all over the world there are tens of indices assessing country and region competitiveness.

One of the key decisive factors influencing the development is the human capital and related intellectual resources shaping the innovativeness and entrepreneurship. Referring to the concepts of knowledge based organization and knowledge based economy and related idea of higher adaptation capacity, the concept of the learning region has occurred due to the American author R. Florida. According to Florida a learning region is a warehouse of knowledge and ideas providing appropriate environment and infrastructure allowing the flow of knowledge. Defining a region as a learning one means that the actors of the system are engaged in a territorial learning process that allows the development of knowledge, skills and other competences necessary for creating inno-
vation and maintaining competitive position of the region (Gorynia, 110). Peter Ache defines the learning region as a model, in which actors are related in elastic structures, ideas emerging within one region are analyzed in an interdisciplinary fashion and the network is not related to commercial entities, but includes social and political actors as well. According to Arthur Benz and Dietrich Furst a learning region should meet new challenges and adjust its programmes, institutions and public goods allocation in order to improve the productivity of resources. Lumir Kulhanek's approach should be pointed as well. This author indicates that a decisive role in regional development depends on the human capital and support of network processes (building trust based on intensive relations in the network, its coordination and cooperation) in the regions and between the regions.

The learning regions develop the management structures based on relations of interdependence, networking, decentralized decision-taking process, flexibility, stakeholder-orientation. Apart from the existence of social capital based on mutual trust, an important factor allowing the idea of knowledge acceleration are the skills and organizational competences existing among entities participating in networks of cooperation on various levels. This requires working out of behavior patterns, routines allowing better adaptation and possibility of action coordinating. Increasingly this is executed by the scientific sector and entities providing professional services for business – creating platforms and frameworks for cooperation. Among examples of such actions one may indicate spin out and spin off models, as well as centres of technology transfer or entrepreneurship incubators.

4. City managers – idea, roles and adaptation models

The term city manager reflects the use of business perspective in managing a community. Depending upon the history and the legal system of a certain country the prevalence of this term varies. In the US city manager is a key element in one of the two most popular forms of local government: so-called “council-manager form of government”. “Originally known as the city manager plan, the council-manager form of government is composed of an elected governing board (i.e., the council) and a professional manager hired by the council. The council also selects, from among its members, a mayor to serve as a ceremonial figurehead for the city” (Carter, p. 4). According to the International City/County Management Association (ICMA) in a council-manager form of government a city manager “is appointed by and can be terminated by a majority of the council; has direct responsibility for policy formulation; prepares, presents, and administers the council-approved budget; and has full authority to hire and remove most department heads” (Carter, p. 4). Originally, at the turn of the 19th and 20th centuries, the scientific management has been an inspiration to underline the need to pursue city management efficiency through the use of business administration principles and separation of governing form politics. The role of a city-manager resembled the role of CEO’s in corporations allowing city council to focus on politics and policy making.
The concept started to become popular after 1918 and by 1972 “council-manager form overtook the mayor-council form as the most prevalent form” (Carter, p. 5). Although there has also been some political reasons, like “disproportionate strength of minority interests” (Carter, p.8), one must underline that business perspective and efficiency-orientation were a substantial reason to popularize the city-manager form of government in the US.

In the late 20th century, the idea of applying business know-how to managing specific places in the public space evolved into what we call today Town Centre Management (TCM). Nevertheless the term itself was created in 1980 by Spriddell, its first definition was published more than a decade later in 1991 (Coca-Stefaniak, 2014, p. 368). In this definition I. Wells stated that town centre management was “a comprehensive response to competitive pressures, which involves development, management and promotion of both public and private areas within town centres, for the benefit of all concerned” (I. Wells, after: Coca-Stefaniak, 2014, p. 368). The definition reflects that a town centre (as well as a high street alone, a district or a whole city) is a network of different stakeholders and efficient management should lead to satisfaction of all of them. However town centre management focuses on selected areas within the city, the know-how and competences of town centre managers are universal and may be an important lesson for all involved in managing public spaces (including whole municipalities). A broad review of town centre management definitions was presented by Coca-Stefaniak et al. (2009, pp. 74–80). Among the presented definitions it is worth to mention Guy (1993 after Coca-Stefaniak et al., 2009, p. 75), who pointed that TCM “implies a co-operative rather than confrontational relationship with the private sector”. TCM as a specific method allowing coordination of co-operation within the network should result in higher efficiency of all the stakeholders involved. The importance of co-operation between stakeholders is furthermore reflected in Warnaby et al’s definition (1998, after Coca Stefaniak et al., 2009, p. 75) suggesting that TCM initiatives should be established and executed by a mix of stakeholders including not only public and private but also the voluntary sector. The fundamental significance of co-operation between various public space users and necessity of network management may be found in Whyatt’s perspective of the town centre manager’s role, which is “gathering and sharing market information, enabling stakeholders to work together in the strategic planning process, setting up formal and informal communication and social networks between partners, training the town’s stakeholder employees to implement the regeneration strategy and maintain a marketing orientation, and evaluating success, in order to both motivate all involved and to assess progress” (2004, after: Coca-Stefaniak et al., 2009, p. 75). One must underline that TCM was initially a reactive concept that originated as a consequence of a significant retail transformation in the European cities in the 2nd half of the past century. The establishment of shopping centre or mall located outside the city caused outflow of consumers from the highstreets and town centres that had traditionally attracted customers. The fall of the footfall in the city centres was originally the main reason for the
retailers to look for new opportunities resulting from co-operation. The efficient management of the city centre involved creation of a specific network allowing the increase of the competitiveness of the local retailers. This was possible due to a strong customer orientation and efficient management.

The town centre management model has been developed not only in the UK, but also in North America, Belgium, France, Germany, Italy, Norway, Spain and Sweden (Coca-Stefaniak et al., 2009, p. 75, Coca-Stefaniak, 2014, p. 368). Analyzing the selected European definitions Coca-Stefaniak et al. (2009, p. 75) point out the difference between defining TCM in the UK and France, Italy and Spain. In the latter three countries town centre management’s main purpose is to foster co-operation of local retail and service businesses and their commercial success. In the UK the main goal of TCM models is “building of competitive advantage for town and city centres (e.g. through better quality of life for residents, diversity in the retail and leisure offer, attractions for visitors etc.)” (Coca-Stefaniak et al., 2009, p. 75).

Traditionally municipalities including cities have been administered or managed by the local governments. In places where a TCM scheme is implemented, a new body is created that focuses on managing a certain area within the city according to the goals set. As the TCM model has been developed in many countries for more than two decades many different forms of TCM schemes have been implemented so far.

As examples show in the UK local government is the entity giving most momentum during establishment of a new TCM scheme. Later ad-hoc partnership may manage the scheme, until “last stage, maturity, will see the creation of a formal partnership where the influence of the private sector may predominate” (Coca-Stefaniak et al., 2009, p. 76). On the contrary the Spanish and Italian TCM schemes frequently start from the co-operation of local retailers, and in Sweden they often start from “a strong formal public-private partnership” (Coca-Stefaniak et al., 2009, p. 76).

Across North America and Europe there is a variety of town centre management models. The models of co-operation vary in terms of funding (public or private; voluntary or obligatory) and level of formality. There are numerous other models targeted at efficient management and improvement of local areas, like “Business Improvement Districts, Community Business Centres, Neighbourhood Renewal Schemes, Suburban Centre Improvement Schemes, Mainstreet Programmes, Market Town Initiatives, Business Area Improvement schemes and Trade Improvement Zones” (Coca-Stefaniak et al., 2009, p. 79). The common part of the mentioned models is their goal i.e. improvement of a certain place. Cities are traditionally managed or administered by the local authorities. The growing popularity of various place management initiatives reflects the eagerness of the local stakeholders to assure local development. In some cases it may be business focused (i.e. higher footfall and sales of local retailers as a goal) but it may also bring other socio-economic benefits to the local society. Furthermore this trend reflects the eagerness of achieving an effective target-oriented local management that would meet expectations of local stakeholders. The know-how of business-management may
be of great importance in this aspect. One must remember that the above mentioned schemes are developed simultaneously with traditional local government (or local administration) in operation. Not as competition, but rather a new, more modern and effective solution to the traditional local government administration. Therefore a city manager or a city center manager is a goal-oriented professional (or a team of professionals) with own funds and instruments “improving” the place. In the case of the mentioned BID’s (i.e. Business Improvement Districts) – the BID’s are allowed to levy a local tax, allowing later to finance the local development. The above-mentioned ideas explicitly exceed simple administration and bureaucratic approach drawing heavily form strategic management and marketing. The awareness that marketing may be a useful instrument for the city administration was not widespread two decades ago, even in the free-market democratic countries. For example in the year 1989 a set of telephone interviews conducted with representatives of local administration in Western Germany by H. Meffert revealed that marketing was usually perceived as useless for city administration purposes. Furthermore many responses have shown incomprehension of the term marketing (Szromnik, 2010, p. 90). Today there are even professional organizations in German-speaking countries like BCSD – Bundesvereinigung City- und Stadtmarketing Deutschland in Germany or Stadtmarketing Austria in Austria – an explicit evidence of the understanding of the role of marketing and business instruments in city management. In Poland the use of marketing by the city administration has been growing in the recent years. The representatives of local governments in the Poland’s big cities clearly understand the need to treat all stakeholder groups as partners and clients in order to secure the future prosperity of the city. This perspective is also clearly visible in academic publications. However so-far the town centre management models have not been applied in Poland successfully, although there had been some single attempts.

References

Short bio of authors

Sebastian Brańka, M.Sc in economics, research and teaching assistant in the Cracow University of Economics (Faculty of Management, Department of Trade and Market Institutions). Coordinator of a research project financed by the state Polish National Science Centre on Marketing activity of Poland’s big cities. Scope of scientific interest: place marketing, marketing and promotion of cities, marketing in the retail sector, economics of underground natural gas storages.

Jarosław Plichta, Ph.D. in economics, assistant professor in the Cracow University of Economics (Faculty of Management, Department of Trade and Market Institutions), President of the board of the NGO: Foundation of the Cracow University of Economics. Experienced manager and business trainer. Partner in many European Union funded projects. Author of a number of research projects and reports on retail, marketing and management. Scope of scientific interest: Retail management and marketing (incl. Merchandising), place management and marketing, general management, institutional economics.