

Learning and progressing in the 'new normal': Virtual leadership and team effectiveness among business students

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**Building Resilient Boards:
Facing Emerging Challenges
in Corporate Governance**

**BOOK OF
PROCEEDINGS**

Edited by:
Darko Tipurić & Lana Cindrić

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Conference on Governance,
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- Building Resilient Boards: Facing Emerging Challenges in
Corporate Governance •

BOOK OF PROCEEDINGS

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Darko Tipurić, Ph.D. & Lana Cindrić, Ph.D.

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From the Editors

We are delighted to welcome you to the 9th International OFEL Conference on Governance, Management and Entrepreneurship. This year's OFEL Conference featured theme is „Building Resilient Boards: Facing Emerging Challenges in Corporate Governance“.

Building on our eight previously successful International OFEL Conferences, we are constantly focused on improving the rigor, relevance, and credibility of presented knowledge. For the first time since our beginning, this year's conference featured a special track entitled „Post-pandemic corporate governance challenges in Southeast Europe“ that provided a forum for networking and establishing partnerships of those interested in envisioning and shaping the future of corporate governance practices in the SEE region.

We are of opinion that this OFEL Conference provided valuable and thought-provoking directions for subsequent research and enable further collaboration opportunities among scholars, educators, practitioners, and industry representatives for the progress in the fields of corporate governance, management, entrepreneurship, and education.

On behalf of the Scientific and Organizing Committee, we would like to express our deep gratitude to contributing authors, reviewers, and conference participants for their vested time and effort in finding answers to present challenges and fostering change. It is our hope that you will continue to be involved in our community for years to come.

Professor Darko Tipurić, Ph.D.

Lana Cindrić, Ph.D.

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DIGITAL TRANSFORMATION OF DOMESTIC AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTS SALES AS A RESULT OF THE COVID-19 PANDEMIC

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Abstract

The Covid-19 pandemic changed the world almost instantly. It has affected the lives of all the World's population, encouraged new ways of thinking, adapting and acting, and set new challenges in business. The most affected were education, catering and tourism, and trade. This paper seeks to mention one of the simplest digital transformations that has affected sellers and producers of domestic agricultural products. For them, the digital transformation is a big step. They are elderly population, which has always been based on the traditional way of producing and selling products, and which would probably remain the same. This paper seeks to emphasize the importance of digital transformation in terms of sales transformation through digital platforms that has helped farmers survive in lockdown times in the market by adapting and changing the current way of functioning, thus changing their standard "traditional" way of doing business, with "more modern". Digital technology has made it much easier for small sellers of domestic products to place their products on the market in these times. In order to gain a better insight into the thinking about the new way of selling primarily of manufacturers, and at the same time buyers, the primary research was conducted to highlight radical changes in communication, distribution and promotion driven by dynamic market changes and the need for digitization due to the Covid-19 pandemic. Sellers and buyers expressed their views, between which parallels were drawn, but differences in views on some topics were also seen, which was to be expected. The results speak in favor of the fact that digitalization has influenced more efficient communication, reduced sales and promotion costs, and that the reviews have helped highlight the quality of retailer products, while at the same time making products more accessible to a wider range of customers.

Keywords: Covid-19 pandemic, digitalization, domestic products, manufacturers, virtual market

Track: Entrepreneurship

1. Introduction

Covid-19 is a respiratory disease caused by a new coronavirus that appeared in late 2019 in China, and in a very short time developed into an epidemic and spread around the world. It appeared in Croatia at the end of February 2020 and caused numerous changes in the way everyday life functions. In order to prevent the spread of the infection, various restrictive measures were quickly introduced to reduce the gathering of more people in one place, but also travel from place to place. The most affected were education, catering and tourism, and trade.

Digital business refers to the conduct of business processes using digital technologies, computers, computer infrastructure, and increasingly mobile devices and related technologies. In this way, business entities, through the modernization of business processes, open up

opportunities for themselves to increase sales volume and consequently higher revenues. One of the distinguishing features of digital technologies is their accessibility (Ross *et al.*, 2016), which greatly facilitates the transition to new sales platforms. From the beginning, by development of Internet marketing, buyers have been able to receive, information in real-time and view them on the screens of their devices mobile phones or tablets. The competitive advantage of a company derives from mutually complementary resources that the partners have, which facilitates the creation of more new energies (Boonstra *et al.*, 2015). The exchange of complementary resources can spread risks, increase market influence, remove barriers to entry and increase economic sizes, Research and Development activities, and production activities, etc (Boonstra *et al.*, 2015). Seen from the perspective of resource dependence, complementary resources are the ones needed for survival and reducing environmental uncertainties (Haberli Junior *et al.*, 2019). Evaluating the complementary resources they need to conduct strategic alliances to ensure the availability of resources for survival and to reduce environmental uncertainties (Boonstra *et al.*, 2015). The interconnected business models need to harbour various forms of commercial, business value (for example, manifested in new, extended, revised revenues and/or efficiency improvements), as well as societal values (where the digital transformation might lead to improving people's quality of life, foster equitable growth, and protect the environment). Aligning policies, enhancing collaboration, and engaging the whole ecosystem of government, business, and civil society are some of the pre-requisites for making these digital transformations and broad service innovations actually happen. (Haberli. *et al.*, 2019).

Digital technologies are transforming the structure of social relations in both the consumer and business space with social networks (Bharadwaj *et al.*, 2013). New business technologies result in the transformation of the way businesses operate, which are conditioned by rapid changes in the way products are distributed to the market where new value is created, which results in new experiences for all market participants (Morakanyane, Grace, O'Reilly, 2017). Adapting the way we do business to the digital environment, using digital technologies and the benefits of e-business is called digital transformation. The role of IT strategy needs to be reconsidered at all levels, from the functional one that is subordinate to the business one, to the highest business level (Bharadwaj *et al.*, 2013). Answering to these changes, competitive companies bring knowledge, money, and technology for the purpose of creating competitive business models, co-creating new hierarchy paradigm on competitive marketplace using tools that make it available with no costs or low level costs. Due to this development, in time when the security as the prerequisite makes new hierarchy of priorities on the marketplace, new technologies and platforms are emerging. We are witnessing a new phenomenon, so-called app capitalism with transparency, interoperability, when companies compete even within themselves in virtual marketsphere with time and with information, for the purpose of earning on services and goods they do not own, but they own the information. Finding the new business models, e-commerce sector enable customer-to-customer models through the new algorithm or platform, based on 'technology' and how it facilitates new social and economic configurations. There are several definitions of digital transformation in the literature, and each author has tried to define in his own way. In order to qualitatively and simply define the concept of digital transformation, and to achieve a general, i.e. general structure of the definition, it is necessary to adequately search for keywords and various variables (Morakanyane *et al.*, 2017). There is no one generally accepted definition of digital transformation, but it can be generally described as the application of new digital technologies in business processes and organizational culture that results in increased value and competitive advantage. Since these are large and radical changes, their implementation may take longer than optimal, so businesses that adapt faster have a certain advantage over the

competition. There is a common belief that the beginning of the twenty-first century saw the beginning of a new industrial revolution, also called Industry 4.0 (Schwab, 2017; Liao *et al.*, 2017; Vaidya *et al.*, 2018), and that the main driving force of the fourth industrial revolution was digitalization. New technologies are an indicator of changes in living conditions, but also a catalyst for changes in the way of doing business, and have a significant impact on trends in product placement. Business entities are required to create a specific and positive user experience through efficient and innovative business, placement and product creation, which leads to a paradigm shift in manufacturing, as a response to the fourth industry revolution (Moavenzadeh, 2015; Baur and Wee, 2015; Geissbauer *et al.*, 2016).

This paper deals with the sale of domestic products in the markets, as one of the sale methods that is most affected by the new pandemic situation. Ways of selling domestic products in the Dubrovnik area were reduced to sales at markets in the old town, in Gruž and Lapad. With the advent of the pandemic and the introduction of epidemiological measures, the way of selling that existed in the markets until then was no longer possible, and the way of selling such, mostly agricultural, products from domestic production changed completely in a very short period. The specificity of selling such products is that most of the sellers in the markets are the elderly population, which is more oriented towards tradition, from the method of production, transport to the method of sale in the market. It is clear that such sellers do not follow the digitalization trends. This kind of change in the world very quickly prompted them to think about new ways of selling, because it was their very existence that was at stake. The previous way of selling agricultural producers was based on direct contact between producers and consumers, and this was simply no longer possible, so sellers were forced to turn to different ways of marketing their products, and younger generations come to the rescue, digitally more experienced with their ideas on product placement using digital technologies, primarily via the Internet and social platforms.

One of the best, simplest and most effective ways to place a product on the market that will have a great response is the most widespread and most famous social network Facebook. Very quickly, the producers managed and with the help of younger generations from their families, formed groups for the sale of domestic products, the so-called virtual marketplaces.

The process of selling in virtual markets is simple. The seller, as a member of the group, photographs the products and enters all the necessary information and price, and sends them to the administrator for verification. After checking, the administrator places an ad in the group, and potential customers report to the inbox for further agreement. The delivery of goods can be done in two ways, by direct delivery by the seller in his own vehicle to the buyer's home address, or by personal collection by the buyer at the seller's address, of course, subject to all epidemiological measures. Payment, of course, could not be easily digitized, as the introduction of online payments or contactless POS machines would be too expensive for sellers, and a possible option would be to transfer money directly from account to account via the Internet or mobile banking. However, buyers, as well as sellers, much preferred the traditional method of payment – cash.

Although it may deviate from the expected process of digitalization, i.e. digital transformation, as can be found in literature, for producers, i.e. sellers, this way of advertising and selling is a radical turn in the way of doing business. In the traditional way of selling in the market, sellers often could not differentiate, and for buyers they were all equal. By presenting in Facebook groups, sellers get an identity and customers the opportunity to communicate directly with specific sellers. In addition, customers can easily express their

satisfaction or dissatisfaction through comments, and any positive comment is a direct advertisement to the seller. In addition to that, what lies at the heart of Facebook is sharing and posting content on a user's profile, which is seen by all his friends, and which everyone on Facebook has a lot of, the benefits for sellers are even more numerous. It is noticed that the more a customer is content with the information he receives and with the services that are provided to him, the more he will want subsequently to acquire products and services online (Akhter, 2012). Sellers who adapted quickly gained a growing customer base, and those who were late or did not join made it much harder to market their products. Regardless of the way in which business transformation occurs, it opens up new opportunities for companies, namely: the possibility of creating new business models in terms of better distribution of products to wider areas; improving the process of operationalization of work, which would mean that in this case the products do not need to be physically transported to places of consumption; and improving the user experience with easier and simpler purchases with the possibility of product delivery to the doorstep (Morakanyane *et al.*, 2017).

2. Literature review

The year 2020 was marked by the Covid-19 epidemic, which had an enormous impact on people's lives, and especially on economic activities. Restricting movement and closing shops and stores has posed new challenges for businesses, which they have not encountered so far. Advances in online communications and e-commerce have allowed people to stay in touch, albeit virtually, and make their purchases online. Pejić-Bach found that the new situation forced the subjects to turn to e-commerce and thus enable them to survive in the market (Pejić-Bach, 2021).

Digital technologies are the foundation of digital transformation. We are witnessing that in the last few years, digital technologies have become more accessible and easier to use, so mobile phones and Internet social networks are becoming the main means of communication between private and business entities. According to Spremić (Spremić, 2017), wide availability means that businesses cannot use the use of digital technology as a comparative advantage, but integrating digital technologies into business can certainly help create added value, and improve the image of the market entity through faster and more efficient communication with customers and partners.

Digitalization as the driving force of the fourth industrial revolution will change the ways of production, marketing of products and services. Improving production in this way will lead to reduced costs and increased quality. Interaction between sellers and buyers will become personalized, as will marketing tools: pricing, distribution, customer management, etc. (Rekettye, Rekettye Jr. 2019).

Digital transformation has often been the subject of research lately, both in theory and in practice. Many experts from both fields have published articles and papers on the subject, and they show how their views on the concept of digital transformation differ, so that it is difficult to come up with a unified definition by studying the existing literature. For this reason, Morakanyane, Grace, and O'Reilly (Morakanyane *et al.*, 2017) put the existing concepts into a matrix to better describe what digital transformation is, what its characteristics are, what the drivers are, what it affects, and what areas it changes.

New business models created as a result of digital transformation using digital technologies together with products, services and new markets can be collectively called the digital

economy (Spremić, 2020). It is characterized by the use of information and communication technology in business, which adds new, digital resources to existing physical resources. In the digital economy, everything is subordinated to informatization, from the way of thinking, organizational structure and culture, to production processes and business analysis.

One of the final effects of the digital transformation addressed in this paper is digital commerce. In general, digital commerce as a result of digitalization and advances in information and communication technologies is of great importance in the process of globalization. Digital commerce refers to the sale of digital products and services, but also the sale of physical products and services using digital technologies (Franc, Dužević, 2020). A review of scientific articles using keywords yielded data that allowed for a simpler definition of the complex phenomenon of digitization. Also, a review of the literature clearly defined the current market situation under study, and the changes that followed due to the Covid-19 disease pandemic. Virtual marketplaces are where third-party sellers can do business transferring the burden of maintaining inventories, logistics, images, product descriptions, and pricing to the seller (Khurana, 2019). There is more than one operational model for marketplaces, but the most common method involves marketplaces providing a way for sellers to connect their goods to interested buyers (Khurana, 2019). Marketplaces display sellers' wares, collect orders and payments, forward orders to sellers, track deliveries, and release payment to sellers after deducting a fee (Khurana, 2019). By selling on own websites or using virtual marketplaces as well, benefits are recognized (Khurana, 2019):

- as higher traffic than individual business sites might
- can do away with the requirement of having a dedicated website, hosting, technology, payment gateway, accounting software, and other necessities for selling online
- time and resources can be focused on products instead of on designing and maintaining mobile apps of your own virtual store. The biggest virtual marketplaces have mobile apps as well, expanding their reach, and, again, you don't have to worry about designing or maintaining an app.
- visibility for your products and your business as a whole can improve when placed in front of the high traffic many virtual marketplaces attract. This increased visibility can help drive customers to your own website or your own brick-and-mortar location.
- small businesses can get off the ground with relatively low startup costs by using a virtual marketplace to promote and sell goods.

3. Methodology

The specificity of the current situation is reflected in all spheres of business, and in this paper the emphasis is placed on the business of producers and sellers of primary products, i.e. products that serve to meet the primary needs. To understand the new situation and the process of digitalization in business, it was necessary to choose the literature that describes the epidemiological situation, as well as the process of transition towards the use of digital technologies in the form of trade where they were in fact non-existent, nor would it happen if there wasn't for crisis caused by the Covid-19 disease pandemic. The sale of domestic products on the market is perhaps one of the last "backward" traditional ways of selling products that, we believe, as such would remain unchanged for many years to come.

For the selection of literature, scientific articles were searched using the Web of science database and the Google Scholar search engine, and scientific articles available from before were also used. The terms "Covid-19" and "Digital Transformation" were used for the search.

Such a search returned a large number of articles as results, and after reviewing the abstracts of some of them, a smaller number of articles relevant to the selected topic were chosen.

To obtain direct knowledge of the market situation, a survey method was used, which sought to answer questions that would give a closer picture of the attitudes of sellers, but also buyers about new ways of selling in the market. The Google Forms application was used to create the surveys, so the answers were collected exclusively by filling out surveys on the Internet. Since the subject of the research is closely related to Facebook, the survey was conducted by sharing a link to the Google Forms survey among Facebook users, but also in other ways. The attitudes of sellers were investigated separately, and the attitudes of buyers separately, so for this reason, two surveys were conducted for different groups of respondents.

4. Results

The survey on attitudes concerning changes in the ways agricultural products are sold and bought as a result of the Covid-19 pandemic, i.e. the transition from a physical to a virtual market, was conducted via online platforms in the period of 5 days. Different surveys were conducted for different market players, one for sellers, the other for buyers, because we wanted to investigate how sellers reacted to the changes, and how buyers adapted to the new form of offer.

The survey questionnaire was sent to 30 users of the Facebook group "Virtualna Placa" (Virtual Market) who had advertised the sale of products, with a request to forward the same to other colleagues. In five days of activity, 19 sellers completed the survey.

Most sellers are women, almost 4/5, and men are less represented, which is to be expected, and given that the survey was conducted among online sellers, the age of the respondents is younger than it would be if the survey was conducted in the physical market. It is obvious that younger members of households, who are more digitally literate, have engaged and taken over sales jobs.

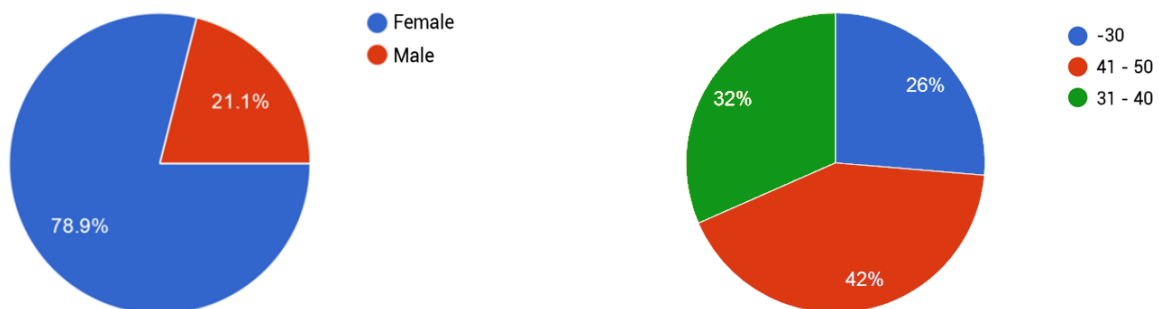


Figure 1: Gender and age of the seller

Source: Author's calculation

All sellers have a personal Facebook account, and use a computer every day or almost every day, which means that they were already familiar with the technology and that it was relatively easy for them to make the transition, i.e. get involved in the trend of internet business.

As for the previous habits of the sellers, as many as 42.1% of them did not go to the market regularly or even never, while the regular ones, who went every day or several times a week, were 31.6%.

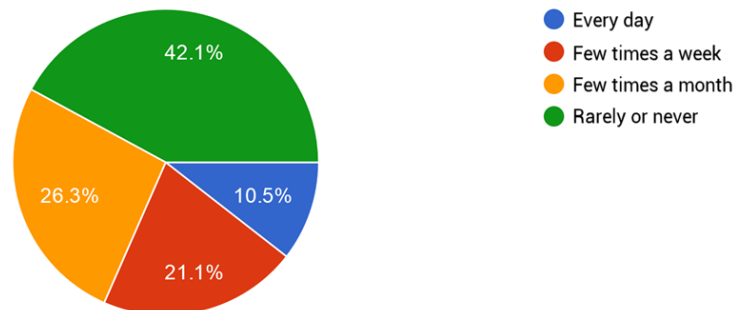


Figure 2: How often did the sellers go to the market before the pandemic

Source: Author's calculation

Unlike the previous answer, sellers put products on the "Virtual Market" a bit more often, although there are fewer who do it every day.

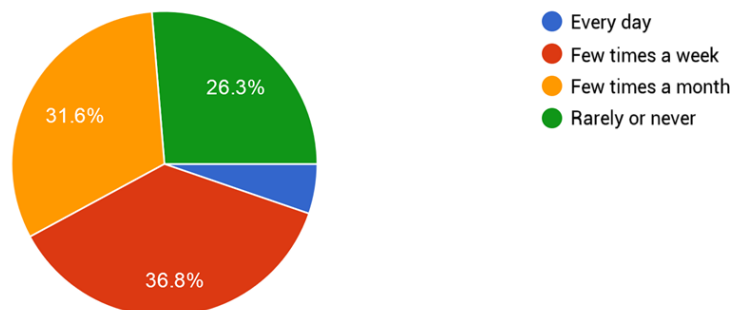


Figure 3: How often do sellers put products on the "Virtual Market"

Source: Author's calculation

Perhaps the most interesting question is about the impact of the transition from physical sales to online sales on sales volume. The majority of sellers, 63.2%, answered that their sales increased, while the others answered that sales were the same, and it is interesting that no one's sales decreased under these new conditions.

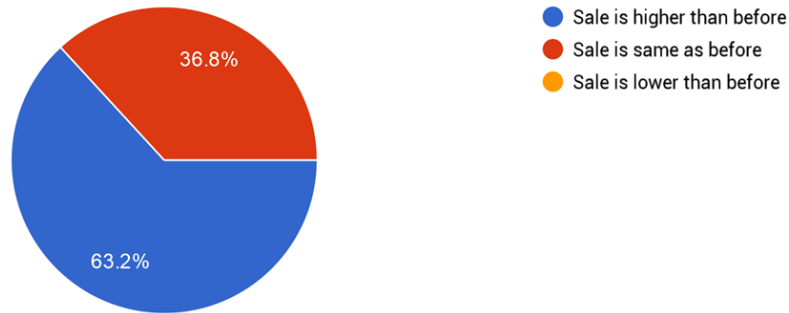


Figure 4: How much the encounter with the “Virtual Market” helped in the sale

Source: Author’s calculation

In the specific circumstances that emerged as a result of the pandemic, product delivery is a bigger problem for sellers than the sale itself. The sellers adjusted mainly by taking over the delivery, and some of them also allowed the customers to pick up the purchased products directly from the sellers. The sellers mostly, 90% of them, stated that they do not increase the price of the product with regard to delivery, so they take on the entire cost. Since they also had to use cars by physically going to the market, and selling products through the virtual market is mostly local, the cost is more or less the same, so there is no real need to change prices.

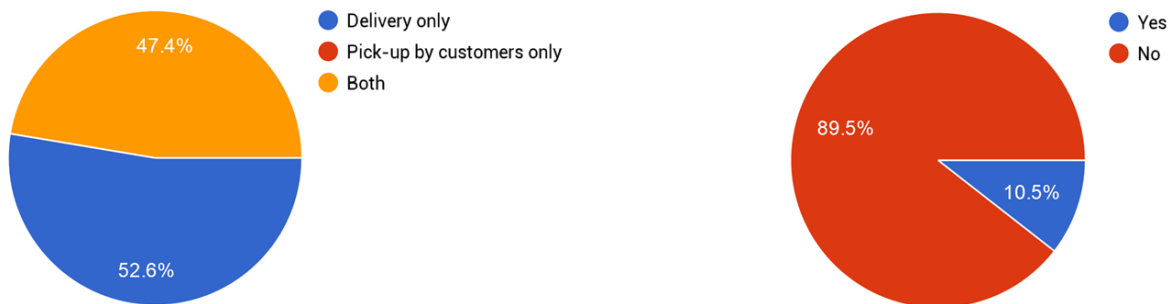


Figure 5: The method of delivery of products, and whether the price is higher due to delivery

Source: Author’s calculation

One of the peculiarities of selling via the Internet is the possibility of evaluating sellers and products, i.e. leaving reviews by customers. The vast majority of sellers get reviews, and everyone has a positive opinion about it.

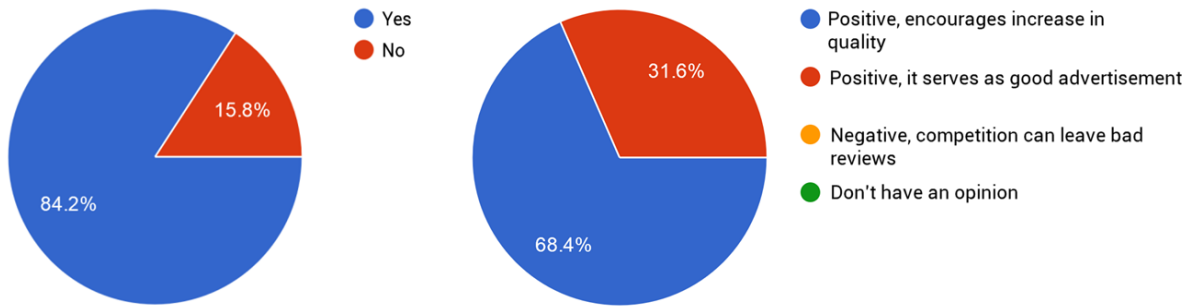


Figure 6: Do sellers get reviews and their opinion on it

Source: Author's calculation

Given the new experiences in sales, we were also interested in what are the plans for the future, after the end of the pandemic and life returning to normal. Slightly more than half of sellers will certainly continue with online sales, a good part of them probably will, and about 10 percent are undecided.

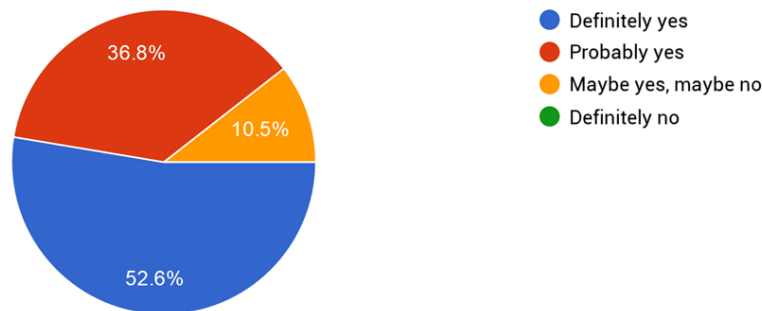


Figure 7: Will they continue to sell online after the end of the pandemic?

Source: Author's calculation

At the same time, the second survey was filled out by customers, and we needed it to see the other side of the story, that is, how successful this form of digital transformation has been. Originally, we wanted to conduct a survey with customers who are members of the group "Virtual Market", but as there are many members, we could not contact them individually, and for publication in the group we asked for the approval of the administrator. As she did not contact us with an answer, we sent the survey to acquaintances via Facebook, Viber and Whatsapp with a request to forward it to their acquaintances. Based on the feedback, the estimated sample size was 100 people, of which 52 people completed the survey.

Demographic data of customers differ significantly from sellers, the share of women who buy is even higher than that of saleswomen, and the age structure is more diverse and wider. This is probably due to the growing number of smart phones, which are replacing the classic ones, even in the elderly population, and Facebook is a standard option on them.

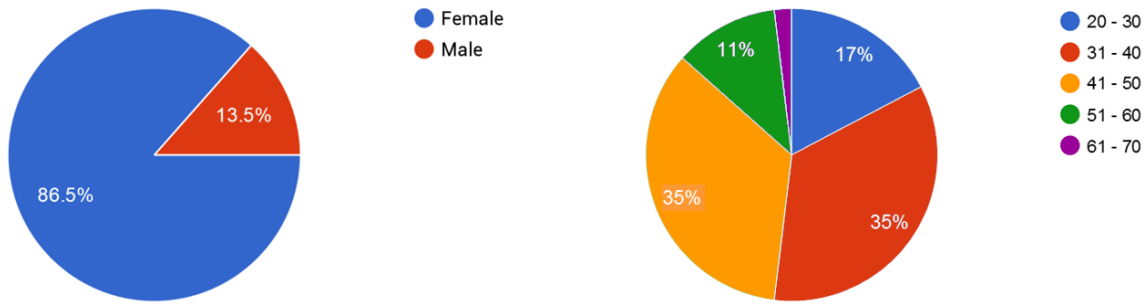


Figure 8: Gender and age of customers

Source: Author's calculation

When asked about shopping habits, a little more than half of customers regularly shopped at the market, of which 35.71% spend 15-30 €, 28.57% spend 30-45 €, 25% spend less than 15 €, and 10.71 % more than 45 €.

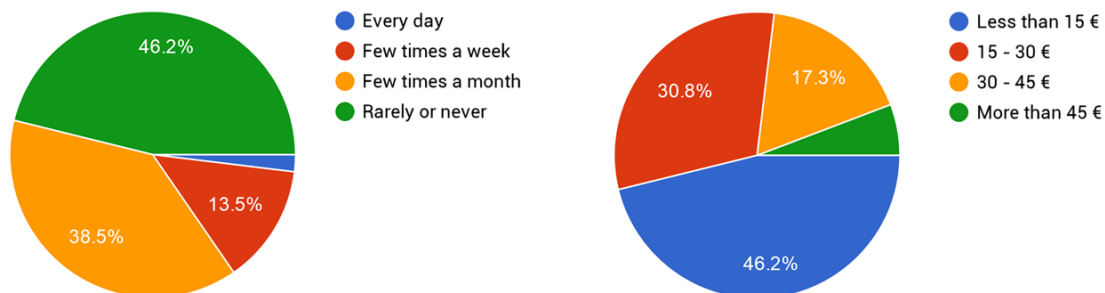


Figure 9: How often they buy at the market and how much they spend per week on the market

Source: Author's calculation

About 60% of respondents answered that they bought at the "Virtual Market", which means that customers have adapted to the new situation, so that number is slightly higher than at the traditional market.

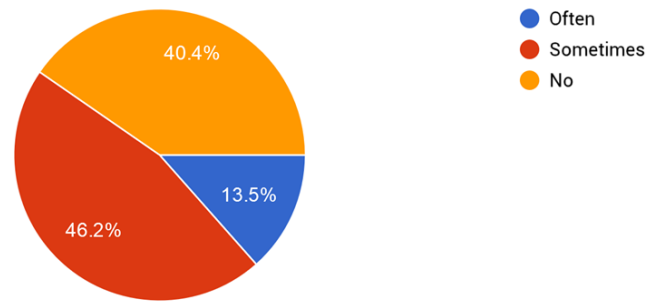


Figure 10: Do they buy on the "Virtual Market"

Source: Author's calculation

Two thirds of customers are satisfied with the "Virtual Market" service, while one third are neither satisfied nor dissatisfied, which means that the sellers have adapted well and have good service.

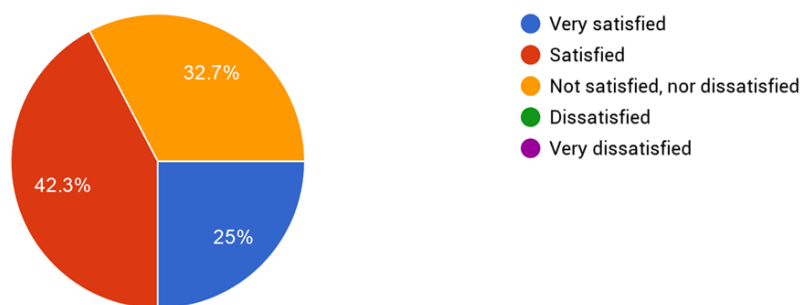


Figure 11: Satisfaction with the "Virtual Market" service

Source: Author's calculation

The ability to review sellers and their products has proven to be a useful option, but still not crucial in making purchasing decisions.

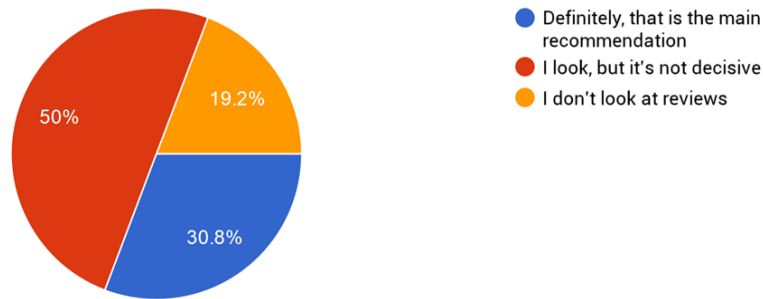


Figure 12: Looking at other customers' reviews before making a purchase decision

Source: Author's calculation

When asked about the prices of products on the "Virtual Market" compared to the standard, more than half of the respondents believe that prices are still slightly higher, which may have to do with the way of selling, but not necessarily, because business conditions and offers could affect the slightly higher price.

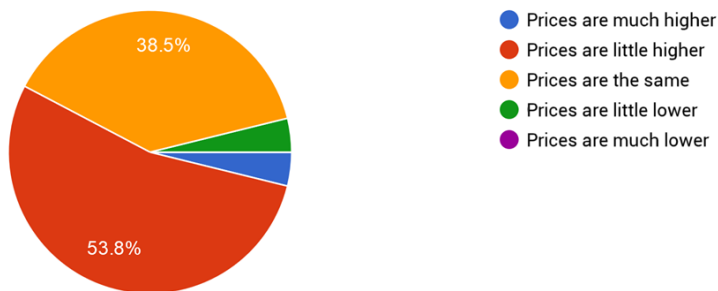


Figure 13: Do they think that the price of the product is higher in the "Virtual Market" than usual

Source: Author's calculation

And finally the question of the future "Virtual Market", for which the vast majority of respondents gave the answer that it will continue to exist, but perhaps with a different offer, and only a small number considered that after the end of the pandemic there will be no need for such a form of sale of domestic agricultural products.

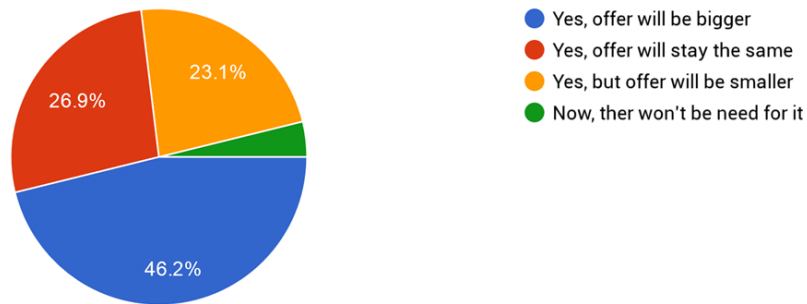


Figure 14: Do they think that after the end of the pandemic there will still be a "Virtual Market"

Source: Author's calculation

5. Digital business transformation case study - "Virtual Market"

The sale of domestic agricultural products on the market is a specific type of activity that has changed little or not at all over time. Due to the sellers themselves, who are mostly older, and due to the traditional approach in all the processes that sellers go through, from production and distribution to sales, this activity is "resistant" to new technologies. As the emergence of the Covid-19 pandemic led to a number of restrictions, and thus the closure of markets, sellers had to adapt to the new situation in order to receive a reward for their hard work, more precisely money. In the new, special circumstances, sellers turned to alternative ways of selling. The simplest and fastest way was to sell through advertising on the Internet, and in order to gather such an offer in one place, the Facebook group "Virtual Market" was formed.

In this case, there was no major business transformation, no new production methods or new technology which had to be introduced. Unlike some other sectors affected by Covid-19 in a way that fundamentally changed the way they do business, there has not been a major digital transformation here, but there has been a sudden and inevitable use of digital platforms. The change in business that has been introduced is not at all insignificant as it may seem at first. The introduction and use of Facebook as a good platform for product distribution, for sellers reluctant to digital technology is a very important and big change. The positive side of using Facebook as a sales platform is that most people have a smartphone on which again most use Facebook, so all product information is available to more people at any given time. Reliance on Facebook as a distribution channel has led to the digital transformation of three key areas according to Westerman (Westerman *et al.*, 2011), namely the business models, operational processes and customer experiences. Also, customer responses in the form of comments and reviews are available in real-time, which is one of the main advantages of using digital media as a marketing tool as opposed to traditional ways (Shkarlet *et al.*, 2020).

The survey conducted among the inhabitants of Dubrovnik and the surrounding area sought to find more about the changes and adjustments that sellers had to make in order to survive. The survey included several questions which were supposed to show the attitudes of buyers and sellers, and their satisfaction with this new way of selling.

The results of the research show that the age structure of sellers also differs from what was expected. Since household production is often a task undertaken by entire families, younger family members who are more digitally literate have taken on the role of advertisers and

online sellers. On the other hand, customers remained more or less the same, only adapting to the new way of shopping. Sellers who rarely went to the market before, in this way were given the opportunity to advertise the sale of their products more often and easily, and even some who have never been in this business before got their chance, and which certainly came in handy when there is less and less work. In addition to facilitating sales this way, it also facilitated the purchase of products, so most sellers recorded higher sales compared to classic sales. In addition, more customers decide to shop at the "Virtual Market", compared to those that had been going to the market, and delivery is certainly an additional incentive. The sellers mostly delivered the purchased products to the customers at their address, but some also had the option for the buyer to pick up the purchase in person, but for delivery they generally did not raise the price.

One of the peculiarities of online shopping in general is leaving reviews and ratings of sellers and products. This helps other customers to better navigate among the various options offered online. Such possibility does not exist in real life, or exists but in another form - word of mouth, when friends advise each other from which seller to buy which product. And in this case most sellers were getting reviews, and everyone agrees that the reviews are good because they encourage them to increase quality, and they think they are good advertising. However, most customers do not take reviews as a deciding factor when buying a product.

The final question that arises, and to which we all eagerly await the answer, is what will happen when the pandemic passes and the world returns to normal. Although the markets have opened after some time, there are still a number of restrictions, and there are fewer sellers and buyers, so the "Virtual Market" is still very active. Sellers are already accustomed to the new way of selling, so more than half of them will still safely continue with this way of selling, and the rest aren't sure, but no one is sure they won't. Buyers also overwhelmingly believe that the "Virtual Market" will remain, with perhaps a different, larger or smaller offer. It is evident that there are many benefits of internet sales, and that the new situation "opened the eyes" of sellers and offered new opportunities to place products on the market, but on the other hand it also made domestic products more accessible to customers.

6. Recommendations for further research

There were several limiting factors in conducting the research, primarily a small number of articles relevant to the topic, because the epidemiological situation is still current and there is no final data, the short time that was available, and the relatively small sample of respondents, and a geographical constraint, i.e. a focus on sellers and buyers in a relatively small area. Due to the lack of a unique list of sellers, it is not possible to determine the exact size of the sample, because some sellers who received the questionnaire passed it on to their acquaintances, so the sample size was estimated. This was even more difficult for customers, as there is also no list of "Virtual Market" users, so customers were contacted individually and by forwarding a request to complete a questionnaire.

Further research should await the end of the pandemic, or at least the lifting of greater restrictions on the movement and gathering of people, so that an analysis of the impact of the pandemic on seller behavior and new customer habits in the markets can be made. Also, then a larger number of papers will be available which would deal with the topics we touch on in the paper. The research should also include analyzes in a wider geographical area, e.g. whole country or in larger cities, in order to exclude the specifics of the geographical area that surrounds Dubrovnik.

7. Conclusion

The Covid-19 pandemic has irreversibly changed the world, touched all spheres of life, and disrupted the functioning of the world as we knew it. The largest non-medical consequences were felt in the economy. Due to the introduction of epidemiological measures, most business activities have experienced restrictions and changes in the form of business, and some activities have even been completely stopped for a shorter or longer period, leading to serious economic consequences, increasing unemployment and calling into question the financial existence of a large number of families. Quick adjustments were needed in all spheres of life, including business, and a more intensive use of digital technologies and the transition to business via the Internet proved to be a lifeline.

The aim of this paper was to see how the new conditions have changed the business of small, traditional businesses, which may not be important at the level of the entire economy, but are very important in their microenvironment for their loyal customers, but also for the existence of families dependent on production and sales of the basic product category. The aim of the research was to analyze and test the advantages for the supply and demand of online platforms in order to more efficiently transfer products and services from sellers to customers, not only through technical support, but also the consequent creation of new organizational forms.

On the supply side, sellers have adapted quickly and, being unable to enter the market in the traditional way, have embraced digital technologies as sales aids. Ubiquitous Facebook on computers and mobile devices has quickly replaced physical sales at stalls. It is evident that in this case it is a very rudimentary digital transformation, but taking into account the population that makes up the offer, very significant for them. On the demand side, this transformation was quickly accepted, which resulted in better sales, but also the engagement of new sellers on the supply side who had not previously engaged in this activity. Likewise, on the demand side, there were buyers who did not go to the markets, but quickly accepted digital sales.

Online platforms enable real-time data exchange with the aim of improving service quality and product transfer efficiency, thus creating added value. Almost instantaneous communication also results in the immediate execution of a purchase transaction, and the delivery or collection of goods is carried out in an optimal period of time. An important factor in the sustainability of such a sales system is the ease of application of the platform, which is manifested through the collective contribution of the system, with technical support for the application of the platform and modeling of new forms of mediation. The advantages of the system are decentralized access and easy sharing of B2C and C2C information in real time, and a greater and faster ability to compare different providers, while the main disadvantage is the inability to preserve the anonymity of users.

The results of the research indicate a good general acceptance of the new way of offering traditional domestic products, both by sellers and by buyers. The transformation of the business through the introduction and use of digital technology has resulted in even better sales as well as a wider offer. Manufacturers and sellers focus more on product quality, but also product transfer and distribution services to customers, which become an integral part of the final product and represent added value. Communicating and selling online in real time for providers in the virtual market generates savings, making them more competitive.

In the virtual marketplace, our "Virtual Market", it has been shown that the benefits of even such a rudimentary digital transformation are numerous and significant, and that despite the

gradual, and hopefully complete, abolition of epidemiological measures, a new "way" of selling continue to retain, and perhaps even expand, to the satisfaction of both buyers and sellers. The traditional way of direct sales at the market will not disappear, it is part of the tradition and is an indispensable part of everyday life in the city. The most probable outcome is that there will still be a parallel "physical" and "virtual" market, so that both sellers and buyers will have more opportunities, and choose for themselves the way of selling and buying that suits them best at a given time.

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THE INTERDEPENDENCE OF INTERNATIONAL EXPERIENCE AND THE CHOICE OF THE INTERNATIONALIZATION STRATEGY

Dino Giergia
Dea Flores d.o.o.

Abstract

Following the upper echelons theory, this paper focuses on the implications of international experience on strategic management decisions. The article condenses the most prominent articles on international experience in the upper echelon theory and seeks to draw new conclusions. The research aimed to determine the connection between international experience and internationalization strategy. In addition, the secondary objective was to determine whether strategic decisions, in addition to international experience, are influenced by additional moderating variables. A statistical research was conducted among top managers in Croatian companies by the primary survey. The survey is aimed at Croatian companies covered by the Register of Exporters with the Croatian Chamber of Commerce. Following the survey, we received 104 responses from companies whose export exceeded 50 percent of yearly turnover. Research results show that greater international experience de facto influences companies' greater international exposure - especially in fully controlled internationalization strategies. By identifying which independent and control variables have the greatest influence, we have defined this research's primary objective. However, it has also been discovered that the moderating variables that influence the decision to internationalize are at work. This also fulfilled the secondary objective of this research and further enriched the basic theory.

Keywords: *upper echelon theory, international experience, demographic characteristics, content analysis, top management team*

1. Introduction

In his work, the author has already reviewed the literature of international experience in upper echelon theory (Đerđa, 2017). What becomes the critical point of international experience is how managers perceive opportunities/risks. This is in line with the upper echelon theory (Hambrick and Mason, 1984), which states that managers perceive opportunities differently across a limited field of view, selective perception, interpretation, and strategic choices, as seen in Figure 1. In the original theory, it was demographic variables that influenced selective perception. However, there was no international experience among them. It is only recently (Sambharya, 1996) that international experience has moved into the arena of upper echelon theory. Therefore, this paper focuses on testing hypotheses that directly correlate with strategic decision making, such as more or less complex internationalization strategies. Also, another motivation for this work is to try to replicate the research results. Namely, previous research has been done on companies from the US and Europe. However, there is no research on transition countries. The contribution of this article is twofold:

First, we have directly correlated international experience, strategies, and strategic decisions to imply knowledge and moderating variables in complex decisions. Second, most research is focused on multinational corporations (e.g., Dauth and Tomczak, 2016; Schmid and Dauth,

2014; Kaczmarek and Ruigrok, 2013). In these studies, the authors use secondary sources to acquire manager data. Furthermore, our contribution is also reflected in the increase in research involving SME-s. Thus, a minimal number of surveys focused on SMEs (e.g., Hsu et al., 2013; Ruzzier et al., 2007). Our research takes in comparison SME companies as well as big ones. However, this is the first study conducted in a transition country. We consider it extremely important to repeat the same results in different countries because of the predictive power that theory possesses. We believe it extremely important to repeat the same results in other countries because of the predictive power that theory has.

2. Theory

2.1. International experience

The theory states that international experience and knowledge, and nationality are essential factors in making strategic decisions about internationalization (Nielsen, 2011).

International experience brings with its valuable knowledge of other markets and valuable contacts and acquaintances, which enables managers to feel secure in making critical strategic decisions, thus directly affecting risk perception. In the same vein, Herrmann and Datta (2002) link international knowledge and related learning to a global mindset, increased confidence and better processing of information, and an orientation towards fully controlled internationalization strategies.

According to Nielsen and Nielsen (2010), managers may acquire international experience through working or education abroad or may have different nationalities as sources of international experience. Both sources of experience will have different implications for the strategic decision-making model. Managers with extensive international experience will be more inclined to fully controlled internationalization strategies (Nielsen and Nielsen, 2010; Herrmann and Datta, 2002), such as acquisitions and greenfield investments, rather than managers with greater national diversification. Such managers will opt for partially controlled internationalization strategies (Nielsen and Nielsen, 2010). The reasoning for this distinction can be found in the deep-rooted psychological characteristics of managers. This is what Hambrick, and Mason (1984) call the black box of the upper echelon theory.

International experience is not something every manager possesses; it evolves and advances and represents a dynamic variable. Such an experience can be gained through education or work abroad (Sambharya, 1996). It is known that international experience serves as a proxy variable for reducing the international process's uncertainty (Sambharya, 1996). Alongside that, international experience implies better management of foreign operations (Black, 1997) and a more significant global presence (Gunz and Jalland, 1996; Herrmann and Datta, 2005).

International experience is one of the most essential factors in the development of a company's global competitiveness. Thus, Bartlett and Ghosal (1989) state that there are three types of enterprise - multinational, international, and global. The goal of each of these companies is to become transnational. Like almost every industry targets new growing

markets, more and more companies will seek international experience for their top positions (Lublin, 1996). Therefore, in manager's job of an international character, the most critical managerial tasks include (i) strategic planning, (ii) coordination and control of international operations, (iii) the flow and exchange of information on the parent-branch relationship (Black, Gregersen and Mendenhall, 1992).

The experience that top managers gain from working on foreign markets is a valuable resource for the company and the company's competitive advantage (Daily et al. 2000, Roth 1995). Such experience can be of utmost importance in foreign market entry, taking into account the challenges the company faces in the international market.

The literature emphasizes the importance of international experience on perception, decision making, and self-confidence (Herrmann and Datta, 2005). CEOs employed in small and medium-sized companies will influence greater international orientation than managers who do not have this experience (Hsu et al., 2013). When they come to the highest function in non-domicile companies, they will have a higher international effect than managers coming to that position from within the company (Lin and Liu, 2012).

A significant aspect of international experience is networking. It is a vital source of new jobs for service companies (O'Farrell, Wood, and Zheng, 1998) and an indispensable source of new information and contacts (Athanassiou and Nigh, 2002). Previous knowledge, expertise, and connections are vital resources for strategic decision-making that precedes entry into a foreign market, especially as these decisions are highly complex and unsafe and require a wide range of knowledge and careful consideration of other alternatives (Herrmann and Datta, 2005).

A manager's career affects how a manager perceives a problem and how he processes information. A team of top managers with higher experience will have a broader set of knowledge and solve complex international issues far more efficiently (Williams and O'Reilly, 1998). Walsh (1988) suggests that the team of top managers with more divergent experience has a different set of beliefs. To incorporate those different beliefs, which are the direct consequence of international experience, some measurement must be in order.

2.2. Internationalization strategy choice

The main issue many companies face is how to expand their business beyond the borders of the home market. According to Erramilli and Rao (1993) and Hill, Hwang, and Kim (1990), strategies are divided into fully controlled (merger and acquisition and greenfield) and partially controlled (e.g., license, joint venture).

There are several differences between fully and partially controlled strategies. In addition to the differences in the level of knowledge required for Implementation (Johanson and Wiedersheim-Paul, 1975), there is also risk exposure and the number of resources they bind to themselves. The resources used are usually higher for fully controlled ones. The latter requires assets that cannot be readily diverted without incurring significant costs (Hill et al., 1990).

The fully controlled foreign market entry model is more sensitive to market uncertainties, including greater exposure to political risks (Agarwal and Ramaswami, 1992) than partially controlled strategies. This is because they are less flexible and require more significant reversible investment (Hill, Hwang, & Kim, 1990). As market uncertainty grows, companies may opt for models with less control to limit risk exposure and increase operational flexibility (Gatignon & Anderson, 1988; Kim & Hwang, 1992; Luo, 2001).

There are several internationalization models in the literature; the most applicable is the process model of internationalization and born global.

During the 1970s, Uppsala researchers presented several empirical studies whose main focus was to shed light on and empirically substantiate the internationalization process undertaken by Swedish companies. Their main assumption was that the companies first develop in the domestic market and then focus their activities on countries with less "psychological distance." They define psychological distance as a set of factors that interfere with or change the flow of information between companies and the market. The psychological distance is physical or geographical distance and all the characteristics that relate to differences in language, education, business practice, culture, and industrial development (Johanson and Wiedersheim-Paul, 1975).

They considered that the biggest obstacle for companies in internationalization was the lack of knowledge and resources. These barriers would be reduced through learning about foreign markets and operations (Johanson and Wahlne, 1975). They assumed that companies would choose to export to countries that are physically closer to them to avoid uncertainties and lack of knowledge about specific countries, which are known and have similar business practices. They also assume that businesses start selling abroad through an outside agent because this business model requires fewer resources than opening a representative office (Johanson and Wiedersheim-Paul, 1977).

Uppsala's internationalization model is based on four phases:

1. No regular export activity,
2. Export through independent representatives,
3. Branches abroad,
4. Manufacturing plants abroad

These four phases mean a progressively greater investment of resources in foreign markets, leading to different market experiences and feedback. The first stage indicates that the company has not invested any resources in the foreign market, and they lack a feedback channel (Johanson and Wiedersheim-Paul, 1975). The second phase points out that the company has reached a channel through which it receives information on sales factors. It also

means a specific investment of resources in the foreign market. The third phase brings controlled feedback from the market, enabling the company to determine the quantity and quality of information. During this phase, the company gains experience on the factors that affect resources. The last phase means the even greater investment of resources in a foreign country (Johanson and Wiedersheim-Paul, 1975).

Johanson and Vahlne (1990) imply that incrementally small steps will make additional market commitment (Andersen, 1993). However, three exceptions depart from this rule. First, companies with high resources can take significant internationalization steps. Their commitment to a single market will not have as significant consequences as companies that do not possess equal strength (Johanson and Vahlne, 1990). Second, when market conditions are stable and homogeneous, relevant market knowledge can be obtained in a way other than experience. Third, when a company has significant experience in a market that is subject to similar conditions to the market in the pipeline, that experience will be able to generalize to any similar market (Johanson and Vahlne, 1990).

2.3. Measuring international experience of top managers team

We use three levels for the classification of international experience. First (1) a lower level of international experience - when a top manager has educated or worked abroad for less than one year. Second (2) The middle level of international experience - refers to the top manager who worked or was educated abroad between two and five years; (3) a higher level of international experience - when the top manager has worked or was educated abroad for more than five years.

The above methodology is supported by extensive literature, of which only the most eminent and most cited literature is listed. Sambharya (1996) used the same criteria to classify the manager's international experience in his research. Carpenter (2002), on the other hand, calculated international experience as a number of years spent on international tasks but measured as a percentage of the total number of years of work experience.

Gregersen et al. (1988) state that a manager has international experience when living or working in a foreign country for more than a year. Carpenter (2001) points out that international experience is not so often; only one of the five managers possesses it. Rauber and Fischer (2007) separate international experience in two distinct ways - international exposure of managers and international sales. Latter involves whether the manager has lived in a foreign country and can sell in foreign markets. They considered the latter very important to their research because they were based on small and medium-sized enterprises.

3. Hypothesis

3.1. International experience and acquisition/ greenfield investment

The top management team's national diversity and international experience are important sources of knowledge and expertise on foreign markets and conducting business abroad. Top managers with significant international experience and orientation have many acquaintances

and contacts, which makes it easier for them to evaluate the foreign market and gather relevant information for future strategic decisions (Nielsen, 2010).

Prior knowledge, expertise, and networking are crucial in a strategic decision before foreign market entry since such decisions are highly complex and uncertain and require cultural and strategic knowledge. The diversity in nationality and international experience of top management team (TMT) can greatly benefit the company in collecting and processing valuable information (Nielsen, 2010).

A divergent TMT will identify potential opportunities for foreign expansion, much better than convergent TMT. Through their contacts and a thorough understanding of the international environment, such managers will be faster in taking advantage of international opportunities. Such information serves as a valuable resource in making strategic decisions. Second, given bounded rationality and cognitive limits (Cyert and March, 1963), the international experience of a TMT helps decision-makers to reduce the complexity of information available by filtering the abundance of stimuli through selective perception and more straightforward interpretation (Hambrick and Mason, 1984).

Accordingly, TMTs with extensive international experience and diverse nationalities can, through their experience, broader knowledge, and cognitive capacities, simplify complex and uncertain strategic decisions that precede foreign market entry (Herrmann and Datta, 2006). Besides, Luo (2005) emphasizes that increasing national diversity in a TMT will facilitate the development and use of experience at the enterprise level, as emphasized by Uppsala's process model of internationalization (Johanson and Valhne, 1977). The strategic orientation of top managers will determine their preferences for specific strategic actions (Finkelstein et al., 2008; Geletkanycz, 1997), and top managers with greater international experience will tend to shape foreign direct investment, because they see foreign expansion as less risky than those managers who have no international experience (Herrmann and Datta, 2006).

These findings suggest the following hypothesis:

H1: "Top management team with higher international experience will be more inclined to create and implement more complex international strategies (e.g., acquisition and greenfield investment) compared to top managers with lower international experience."

3.2. International experience and direct/indirect export

When it comes to internationalization through export, a company has two choices: 1) export directly to customers abroad (direct export) and 2) export indirectly through intermediaries (indirect export) (Peng and York, 2001).

Fletcher (2004) defines indirect export as "small firms are involved in exporting, sourcing or distribution agreements with intermediary companies who manage, on their behalf, the transaction, sale or service with overseas companies."

According to Balabanis (2000), companies choose to export through intermediaries for several reasons: 1) to help them identify potential customers, 2) to help them finance, and 3) to provide distribution infrastructure. Also, export intermediaries make up for the lack of knowledge, reducing the uncertainty and risk associated with foreign market entry. Companies use intermediaries to perform certain export-related functions better or cheaper than the company itself could (Li, 2004).

As Johanson and Wiedersheim-Paul (1975) point out, knowledge is a central issue in choosing a model of internationalization. Concerning the latter, companies opt for equity (e.g., subsidiary, greenfield investment, M&A) or non-equity (direct/indirect export) internationalization strategy (Arndt & Kierzkowski, 2001). Between them, hybrid models nested, such as joint ventures or strategic alliances (Bašić et al., 2016).

Given the amount of knowledge and the amount of risk, there are several reasons why non-equity and partially controlled models are better for companies with less knowledge. For example, with joint ventures (JV), ownership is distributed among partners, significantly reducing risk exposure. Greenfield investment and acquisitions require a much greater commitment of resources to ensure full control as well as operational control. Fully controlled models provide higher returns, but they are accompanied by much higher risks (Agarawal & Ramaswami, 1992).

These findings suggest the following hypothesis:

H2: "Top management team with lower international experience will be more inclined to create and implement less complex international strategies (e.g., direct and indirect export) compared to top managers with higher international experience."

4. Methods

4.1. Research sample and methodology

A research sample is export companies included in the Register of Exporters of the Croatian Chamber of Commerce. According to the register and data of FINA in the Republic of Croatia, in 2017, there were 101.191 entrepreneurs, out of which 13.321 realized revenues in foreign markets in the total amount of HRK 97.2 billion. Our research included all businesses' sizes; there were micro, small, and large companies in the sample. Companies with more than 51% of foreign sales in the total revenue were included in the sample frame. We hypothesise that companies with high (> 51%) and very high (> 80%) levels of foreign sales employ managers who possess the required management skills.

The specified condition provided the final number of a sample frame of 1.031 companies. After the survey, we received 104 respondents, resulting in a response rate of 10.08%, comparable to similar research in economy and business.

A survey questionnaire was used for data collection. The main questionnaire was composed of five main topics that include:

International experience of managers.

Managerial work experience.

Level of internationalization.

1. Forms of foreign trade.
2. Business characteristics.

The total number of questions participants had to answer was 25. In Tables 1 and 2, we can see the characteristics of them.

Following previous work (e.g., Erramiili and Rao, 1993; Hill et al., 1990), we have classified internationalization strategies into two categories: fully controlled - greenfield investments and acquisitions and partially controlled - direct/indirect exports.

Along with export, partially controlled strategies include - licensing, franchising, and other non-equity arrangements. According to Arregle et al. (2006) and Brouthers, Brouthers, & Werner (2008), greenfield investments and acquisitions are defined as "full-control entry modes, where the investing company owns 95 percent or more of the equity in the host country entity ". The above classification is in line with previous research (e.g., Hill et al., 1990; Musteen, Datta & Herrmann, 2009; Nielsen and Nielsen, 2010).

Table 1. Characteristics of the companies

Characteristics of companies		No.	%
Number of employees	from 10 to 50	54	51,92
	from 101 to 500	24	23,08
Gross revenue	from 1 to 10 mil. kn	33	31,73
	from 10 to 50 mil. k	43	41,35
Sector of activity	Manufacturing	44	42,31
Percentage of export	Less than 80%	35	33,65
	More than 80%	69	66,35
Year established	From 1991. to 2000.	32	30,77
	From 2000. to 2010.	31	29,81
Ownership structure	100% domestic	75	72,12
	50% foreign	17	16,35

Source: Author's work, based on primary research, April-May, 2017

Table 2. Characteristics of the respondents

Characteristics of respondents		No.	%
Years of education abroad	Didn't educate	81	77,88
	More than 5 years	5	4,81
Years of work experience	Didn't work	60	57,69

abroad	More than 5 years	15	14,42
Years of work experience in an international affiliate	Didn't work	67	64,42
	More than 5 years	18	17,31
Years of work experience	More than 10 years	70	75,96
Management level	Top management	68	65,38

Source: Author's work, based on primary research, April-May, 2017

Measures

Dependent Variable. The first hypothesis dependent variable was defined as a more complex internationalization strategy (e.g., acquisition and greenfield investment). The modalities were: 0 - company is not implementing any of more complex strategies (74 companies), and 1 – the company is implementing at least one of the more complex internationalization strategies (29 companies). Information about the used strategies was obtained through a questionnaire, which was answered independently by the respondents. We divided the second hypothesis into two sub-hypotheses. First, the dependent variable was direct export, and the second was indirect export. Unlike the first hypothesis, in the second, we used the Lickert scale from 1 to 5 to determine in which amount do they generally use one of the possible strategies.

Independent Variables. The manager's work experience was measured on a two-point scale: 1 = work experience up to 5 years, 2 = work experience 5 to 10 years. To find out which functional experience has the biggest impact on the dependent variable, we split it into finance, accounting, marketing, sales, R&D, and production/service following Hambrick and Mason (1984). According to the theory (Sambharya, 1996), we measured managers' international experience through three variables: years of education abroad, years of working abroad, and years of work in the international subsidiary. For the international experience, we used a three-point scale: 1 = up to 1 year, 2 = from 2 to 5 years, 3 = more than 5 years.

Control Variables. We controlled for several factors known to influence the internationalization of businesses. As stated in the text, the sample includes micro, small, medium, and large Croatian companies. The size of the company was measured by the number of employees and also by gross revenue. The definition of company size was under Croatian regulations.

The number of employees is one of the commonly used variables in the research of this type (Guthrie and Olian, 1991). In addition, we also used the business sector to find out which sector hires the most experienced managers. Considering that many foreign companies are operating in Croatia, we measured the percentage of foreign ownership and whether the company was a multinational subsidiary, which was important to us since this is one way of measuring international experience. Finally, we measured the year of foundation. We used the latter given the transitional nature of the country in which the research was conducted.

5. Data analysis and results

To examine the relationships between international experience and choice of internationalization strategy (a binary dependent variable;), we used, logistic regression as it is well addressed in literature (e.g., Hosmer and Lemeshow, 2000; Pindyck and Rubinfeld, 1998) This approach has been widely used in the entry mode literature (e.g. Barkema and Vermulen, 1998; Herrmann and Datta, 2005). Because of the character of the dependent variable of the second hypothesis, we used multiple linear regression (numeric variable).

We first analyzed the relation between the company's characteristics and market with acquisition/greenfield investment and direct/indirect export (Table 3, 5, and 7). We used this approach because it has been shown in the literature that control variables significantly influence internationalization strategy choice (Herrmann and Datta, 2005). The relation analysis showed us that several control variables influence the dependent variable.

Parameter estimation, standard deviations, and p-values between observed variables are provided in the Appendix, and the results of logistic regression used to test hypothesis 1 are presented in Table 12. Multiple logistic regression models showed that lower work experience and shorter years of experience in an international subsidiary (up to 1 year) negatively impact the Implementation of acquisition or greenfield investment. This find is in line with theory (e.g., Johanson and Wiedersheim-Paul, 1975; Williams and O'Reilly, 1998; Herrmann and Datta, 2005) which stress out that team of top managers with higher experience will have a broader set of knowledge, and they will solve complex international issues far more efficiently. Also, managers that have been in their roles for more extended periods are more inclined to opt for full-control entry modes (Herrmann and Datta, 2005).

On the other hand, procurement experience has a positive impact on the use of acquisition and greenfield investment and direct export like it is stated in the hypothesis H1 and H2a. We stated that one of the international experience measurements is a number of years of work in an international subsidiary, which is confirmed through hypothesis h1. There is a high positive correlation between company status and choice of a more complex internationalization strategy.

Based on the statistical influence of the independent variables on the Implementation of acquisition strategies or greenfield investments, it can be concluded that the first hypothesis of this paper is accepted. With the second hypothesis, we have mixed conclusions. Although we accepted the h2a hypothesis, we only partially accepted the h2b hypothesis because r^2 is extremely low (0.9%).

6. Discussion and Conclusion

Aim of this research is to further supplement the upper echelons' literature and international experience. Although some research in the literature addresses the impact of international experience on foreign market entry (Herrmann and Datta, 2002; Dauth and Tomczak, 2016; Laufs et al., 2016) is an apparent deficiency of research involving micro, small and medium-sized companies. Considering that this research was conducted in a transitional country, it contributes to the literature.

In general, our research provides insight into how Croatian managers' international experience influences domestic companies' strategy. Consistently with the literature, we have proof that fewer years of work experience and less experience in an international branch negatively influence more complex strategies.

In addition, research reveals that, with the strategies that require coordination with foreign partners, work experience in procurement plays a statistically significant role. This is evident in hypotheses h1 and h2a. It should be noted that the third hypothesis is not fully accepted due to the low R². Specifically, international experience gained from longer education abroad may indicate that junior managers are prone to launch indirect exports due to a lack of market experience. Finkelstein and Hambrick (1996) stated that education does not have to play a large role in formulating strategies because managers are elected to the highest positions long after finishing education.

From the characteristics of companies and respondents, one can conclude that strategy choice is significantly influenced by moderating variables. Namely, such logic is supported by the fact that 60+ percentage of respondents did not have any formal education abroad nor any previous work experience. Yet, they led their companies to international endeavors. Since every third manager in a Croatian company had the experience, there must be some mediator variable present. The reasoning behind that is that 29 companies from the sample size have used one of those more complex strategies: acquisition/merger or greenfield investment.

From hypotheses H1 and H2a, one can see that the work experience in procurement is highly correlated with a) implementation of a more complicated strategy, and b) it is highly correlated with the Implementation of direct export. Considering that almost 70% of the manager did not possess any international experience, we can conclude that there are other variables at play. Those variables could be a) managerial attitude towards international strategies, unknown and highly risky strategic moves (managerial hazard), and b) the necessity of going international because of a small market. We can find a similar conclusion with Polish companies: a high degree of internationalization (DOI) and a low level of international experience with local managers (Dauth and Tomczak, 2016). The difference is market size – while there is a plausible explanation for the small Croatian market, there is none for Polish, which is several times larger (according to GDP – nearly ten times).

It is no coincidence that procurement had the highest correlation with all the functional units' dependent variables. Most companies from the sample size are from the manufacturing industry. Croatian companies are well known for the dependence on foreign raw materials. If the manager work in that surrounding for some time, it affects his ability to process information differently – for him, internationalization is not unknown and risky; it is quite the opposite.

The findings and conclusions of this research must be viewed in the context of research limitations. First, given that all of the above research was based on multinational corporations, it is questionable how much of that research applies to an economy that does not have a single multinational corporation but rather is run by, for the most part, small and medium-sized

enterprises. Second, although researchers (e.g., Hambrick and Mason, 1984; Carpenter, 2002; Herrmann and Datta, 2002; Rivas, 2012) emphasize the importance of managerial demographic characteristics case, this has proved insufficient due to the evident presence of moderating variables. Further research should focus on the underlying variable and the impact they have on decision-making. Also, what is still unexplored in Croatian companies is how top executives of different nationalities influence the business results of Croatian companies abroad. Although such correlation has been somewhat explored in the literature (Nielsen and Nielsen, 2010), the author believes that a theory's plausibility is defined by its repetitiveness in other and different markets, especially in transition markets.

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Appendix

Table 3: Summary of Anova Statistical Significance and T-Test for Linking Company and Market Characteristics with Acquisition Strategies and Greenfield Investment

Company/market characteristics	Method of analysis	P-value	
		Greenfield investment	Acquisition
E1. Number of employees	Anova analysis	0,052*	0,008***
E2. Gross revenue	Anova analysis	0,063*	0,013**
E3. Sector of activity	Anova analysis	0,615	0,594
E4. % of foreign ownership	Anova analysis	0,011**	0,000***
E5. Company's status	T-test	0,309	0,036**
E6. Year established	Anova analysis	0,765	0,686
F1. Customer Characteristics	T-test	0,166	0,222
F2. Market Competitiveness	Anova analysis	0,377	0,698

Source: Author's work, based on primary research, April-May, 2017.

Remark: *** 1%

Table 4: Logistic Model Representation Indicators: Dependent Variable - Use of Acquisition Strategies and Greenfield Investment (0-No Strategies Implemented; 1-Implemented At least One Strategy)

Number of observations	101
LR chi ² (29)	62,910
Prob > chi ²	0,002
Log likelihood	-28,165
Pseudo R ²	0,527

Source: Author's work, based on primary research, April-May, 2017.

Remark: *** 1%

Table 5: Summary of Anova statistical significance and t-test for linking company and market characteristics with direct export use

Company/market characteristics	Method of Analysis	P-value
E1. Number of employees	Anova analysis	0,010**
E2. Gross revenue	Anova analysis	0,779
E3. Business sector	Anova analysis	0,122
E4. % of foreign ownership	Anova analysis	0,001***
E5. Company's status	T-test	0,012**
E6. Year established	Anova analysis	0,593
F1. Customer Characteristics	T-test	0,507
F2. Market Competitiveness	Anova analysis	0,403

Source: Author's work, based on primary research, April-May, 2017.

Remark: *** 1%; 5%

Table 6: Regression model representation indicators: Dependent variables - use of direct exports (1-not used at all; 5-used very often)

Number of observations	101
Coefficient of determination	0,4827
Adjusted coefficient of determination	0,3103

Source: Author's work, based on primary research, April-May, 2017.

Table 7: Summary of Anova statistical significance and t-test for linking company and market characteristics with indirect export use

Company/market characteristics	Method of Analysis	P-value
E1. Number of employees	Anova analysis	0,739
E2. Gross revenue	Anova analysis	0,569
E3. Business sector	Anova analysis	0,054*
E4. % of foreign ownership	Anova analysis	0,156
E5. Company's status	T-test	0,683
E6. Year established	Anova analysis	0,296
F1. Customer Characteristics	T-test	0,576
F2. Market Competitiveness	Anova analysis	0,713

Source: Author's work, based on primary research, April-May, 2017.

Remark: *10%

Table 8: Regression model representation indicators: Dependent variables - use of indirect exports (1-not used at all; 5-used very often)

Number of observations	103
Coefficient of determination	0,1888
Adjusted coefficient of determination	0,0091

Izvor: Autorski rad, temeljem primarnog istraživanja, travanj-svibanj, 2017.

Table 9: Assessment of Logistic Model Parameters: Dependent Variable - Use of Acquisition Strategies and Greenfield Investment (0-No Strategies Implemented; 1-Implemented At least One Strategy)

Variables		Para. Est.	Stand. dev.	z	P> z
B1. How many years of working experience do you generally have?	from 5 to 10 years	-5,336	2,529	-2,110	0,035* *
	over 10 years	-1,669	1,384	-1,210	0,228
B2. Functional units in which the respondent has experience	Finance	-0,724	1,199	-0,600	0,546
	Accounting	1,497	1,645	0,910	0,363
	Marketing	0,338	1,217	0,280	0,781
	Sales	-1,070	1,286	-0,830	0,405
	R&D	1,241	1,008	1,230	0,218
	Procurement	1,926	1,128	1,710	0,088*
	Production/service	-1,623	1,030	-1,570	0,115
A1. Years of education abroad	Up to 1 year	-0,855	1,447	-0,590	0,555
	from 2 to 5 years	3,151	1,996	1,580	0,114
	More than 5 years	2,518	2,772	0,910	0,364
A2. Years of work experience abroad	Up to 1 year	-3,131	2,264	-1,380	0,167
	from 2 to 5 years	-0,100	1,594	-0,060	0,950
	More than 5 years	0,023	1,672	0,010	0,989
A3. Work experience in an international affiliate	Up to 1 year	-4,794	-2,476	-1,940	0,053*
	from 2 to 5 years	1,394	1,760	0,790	0,428
	more than 5 years	1,512	1,838	0,820	0,411
E1. Number of employees	from 10 to 50	17,704	1535,849	0,010	0,991
	from 51 to 100	15,306	1535,851	0,010	0,992
	from 101 to 500	19,571	1535,851	0,010	0,990
	More than 500	21,425	1535,853	0,010	0,989
E2. Gross revenue	from 1 to 10 mil. kn	-20,588	1535,847	-0,010	0,989
	from 10 to 50 mil. kn	-19,957	1535,848	-0,010	0,990
	More than 50 mil. kn	-19,622	1535,849	-0,010	0,990
E4. Percentage of foreign ownership	Share of foreign ownership less than 50%	3,140	1,503	2,090	0,037* *
	Share of foreign	6,846	2,131	3,210	0,001*

	ownership more than 50%				**
E5. Company status	A subsidiary of a multinational corporation	6,688	2,711	2,470	0,014*
constant		-5,879	3,521	-1,670	0,095

Source: Author's work, based on primary research, April-May 2017.

Remark: *** 1%; ** 5%; *10%

Table 10: Estimation of the Regression Model Parameters: Dependent Variable - Use of Direct Export (1 - not used at all; 5 - used very often)

Variables		Para. Est.	Stand. dev.	z	P> z
B1. How many years of working experience do you generally have?	from 5 to 10 years	0,314	0,465	0,680	0,501
	over 10 years	0,344	0,402	0,860	0,394
B2. Functional units in which the respondent has experience	Finance	-0,530	0,259	-2,050	0,044* *
	Accounting	0,312	0,292	1,070	0,289
	Marketing	0,173	0,254	0,680	0,498
	Sales	-0,654	0,286	-2,290	0,025* *
	R&D	-0,247	0,264	-0,930	0,354
	Procurement	0,505	0,268	1,880	0,064* *
	Production/service	-0,384	0,238	-1,610	0,111
A1. Years of education abroad	Up to 1 year	-0,540	0,336	-1,610	0,112
	od 2 do 5 years	0,351	0,507	0,690	0,490
	More than 5 years	0,431	0,702	0,610	0,542
A2. Years of work experience abroad	Up to 1 year	0,468	0,365	1,280	0,203
	from 2 to 5 years	0,845	0,377	2,240	0,028* *
	More than 5 years	-0,216	0,369	-0,580	0,561
A3. Work experience in an international affiliate	Up to 1 year	-0,053	0,453	-0,120	0,907
	from 2 to 5 years	-0,437	0,393	-1,110	0,270
	more than 5 years	0,124	0,399	0,310	0,756
E1. Number of employees	from 10 to 50	1,801	0,414	4,350	0,000* **
	from 51 to 100	1,909	0,551	3,460	0,001* **
	from 101 to 500	1,851	0,503	3,680	0,000* **
	More than 500	1,196	0,632	1,890	0,062* *
E4. Percentage of foreign ownership	Share of foreign ownership less than 50%	0,220	0,386	0,570	0,570
	Share of foreign ownership more than 50%	-0,809	0,412	-1,970	0,053* *
E5. Company status	A subsidiary of a multinational corporation	1,134	0,460	2,470	0,016* *
constant		1,911	0,759	2,520	0,014* *

*

Source: Author's work, based on primary research, April-May 2017.

Remark: *** 1%; ** 5%; *10%

Table 11: Estimation of the Regression Model Parameters: Dependent Variable - Use of Indirect Export (1 - not used at all; 5 - used very often)

Variables		Para. Est.	Stand. dev.	z	P> z
B1. How many years of working experience do you generally have?	from 5 to 10 years	0,413	0,619	0,670	0,506
	over 10 years	-0,150	0,537	-0,280	0,781
B2. Functional units in which the respondent has experience	Finance	-0,564	0,345	-1,630	0,106
	Accounting	-0,030	0,394	-0,080	0,940
	Marketing	-0,289	0,334	-0,860	0,390
	Sales	0,008	0,376	0,020	0,984
	R&D	0,216	0,332	0,650	0,516
	Procurement	-0,083	0,361	-0,230	0,819
A1. Years of education abroad	Up to 1 year	-0,290	0,439	-0,660	0,511
	from 2 to 5 years	0,268	0,659	0,410	0,685
	More than 5 years	1,276	0,765	1,670	0,099*
A2. Years of work experience abroad	Up to 1 year	-0,145	0,475	-0,300	0,762
	from 2 to 5 years	0,052	0,437	0,120	0,905
	More than 5 years	0,298	0,466	0,640	0,524
A3. Work experience in an international affiliate	Up to 1 year	-0,248	0,557	-0,450	0,657
	from 2 to 5 years	-0,693	0,514	-1,350	0,182
	more than 5 years	-0,808	0,464	-1,740	0,085*
E3_kod. Business sector	Tertiary	0,498	0,438	1,140	0,259
	Quaternary	-0,514	0,328	-1,560	0,122
constant		0,638	4,530	0,000	2,895

Source: Author's work, based on primary research, April-May 2017.

Remark: *** 1%; ** 5%; *10%

Table 12: Estimates of model parameters summary

Hypothesis		H1	H2	
Dependent variable		Implementation of an acquisition or greenfield investment strategy (0- Not implemented; 1- Implemented at least one strategy)	Level of strategy implementation (1- direct exports are generally not used; 5-used very often)	Level of strategy implementation (1- indirect exports are generally not used; 5-used very often)
B1. How many years of working experience do you generally have?	from 5 to 10 years	-5,336**	0,314	0,413
	over 10 years	-1,669	0,344	-0,150
B2. Functional units in which the respondent has experience	Finance	-0,724	-0,530**	-0,564
	Accounting	1,497	0,312	-0,030
	Marketing	0,338	0,173	-0,289
	Sales	-1,070	-0,654**	0,008
	R&D	1,241	-0,247	0,216
	Procurement	1,926*	0,505*	-0,083
A1. Years of education abroad	Up to 1 year	-0,855	-0,540	-0,290
	from 2 to 5 years	3,151	0,351	0,268
	More than 5 years	2,518	0,431	1,276*
A2. Years of work experience abroad	Up to 1 year	-3,131	0,468	-0,145
	from 2 to 5 years	-0,100	0,845**	0,052
	More than 5 years	0,023	-0,216	0,298
A3. Work experience in an international affiliate	Up to 1 year	-4,794*	-0,053	-0,248
	from 2 to 5 years	1,394	-0,437	-0,693
	more than 5 years	1,512	0,124	-0,808*
E1. Number of employees	from 10 to 50	17,704	1,801***	-
	from 51 to 100	15,306	1,909***	-
	from 101 to 500	19,571	1,851***	-
	More than 500	21,425	1,196*	-

E2. Gross revenue	from 1 to 10 mil. ken	-20,588	-	-
	from 10 to 50 mil. ken	-19,957	-	-
	More than 50 mil. ken	-19,622	-	-
E3. Business sector	Tertiary	-	-	0,498
	Quaternary	-	-	-0,514
E4. % of foreign ownership	< than 50%	3,140**	0,386	-
	> 50%	6,846***	0,412	-
E5. Company's status	A subsidiary of a multinational corporation	6,688**	0,460	-
F1. Customer Characteristics	Other companies (B2B)	-	-	-
Adjusted coefficient of determination		0,5270	0,3103	0,0091

Source: Author's work, based on primary research, April-May 2017.

Remark: *** 1%; ** 5%; *10%

LEARNING AND PROGRESSING IN THE 'NEW NORMAL': VIRTUAL LEADERSHIP AND TEAM EFFECTIVENESS AMONG BUSINESS STUDENTS

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Abstract

COVID-19 global health crisis has radically changed our lives in almost all aspects. The social and economic norms have shifted so dramatically that some authors call this 'New normal' time the beginning of new human era. Tertiary education was no exception to this and had experienced profound changes due to the closures, restrictions on mass gathering and social distancing. For students used to predominantly classical way of learning and progressing through enrolled study programme, shifting almost entirely on distance learning has raised number of challenges. This is especially present on business study programmes and associated individual courses, due to their strong practical orientation and emphasis on close student collaboration and teamwork in forms of classroom assignments and student projects. In order to fulfil course requirements, students need to collaborate and function as a team, experience leadership behaviours from their team leader, and ultimately achieve desired level of effectiveness, all in virtual conditions of distance learning. The purpose of this paper is to examine demonstrated leadership behaviours and leadership competencies by leaders in student virtual teams, while working on student projects. In this sense, virtual leadership behaviours and competencies essential for student virtual team effectiveness will be identified. In order to achieve this aim, empirical research was conducted in the beginning of 2021. on the sample of 13 student virtual teams, from two business study programmes, working specific amount of time on preparing and executing student projects. Main findings of empirical research are presented in the paper in the form of descriptive and bivariate statistical analysis.

Keywords: *virtual leadership, virtual team effectiveness, business students, COVID-19*

1. Introduction

Over the past two decades, advances in information and communication technology have had a profound impact on the way members of organizations of all kind communicate, interact and collaborate in order to fulfill their team and organizational goals. These changes have enabled people to work on shared goals almost never having to meet physically and to communicate faster and with less cost for the organization. Information technologies effectively link people together, despite they are working at different times or in different locations, thus enabling them to communicate and share resources as needed (Lurey & Raisinghani, 2000: 2). However, despite all of their indisputable advantages, these advances in information and communication technology have never entirely replaced a real time social contact in person, due to its exceptional importance. Never, until now. Today, in times of the "New normal" when we are facing the unprecedented global health crisis, most of organizations predominantly rely sole to virtual communication, and organize their collective work in form of virtual teams. Namely, the current COVID-19 global health crisis is considered as one of the turning points in history where it is shuffling social and economic norms as we know them and is triggering a new human era (Dirani et al., 2020: 380).

The fight against the threats to COVID-19 pandemic suffered profound effects and impacts on almost all sectors in the human race (Tria, 2020: 1). Tertiary education was no exception to

this. Moreover, the COVID-19 pandemic has had such an extensive impact on the global higher education sector (Crawford et al, 2020: 10), it is certainly considered one of the most affected sectors (Tria, 2020: 1). Without question, the global spread of COVID-19 poses a challenge to the higher education landscape at a magnitude we have not seen since the emergence of technology supported and online instruction (Liguori & Winkler, 2020: 2). Due to closures, mass gathering restrictions and physical and social distancing measures, higher education institutions (HEI) were among the first to experience radical and profound changes in their everyday functioning. Literally, HEIs' functioning with emphasis on teaching processes needed to change overnight in their attempt to adjust their entire instructional system to online mode. This required a focused effort by university communities to change their behaviour to take advantage of the change to a digital learning environment. This has meant a coordinated effort was needed amongst all stakeholders in universities (Ratten, 2020: 754). Certainly, students are HEIs' most affected stakeholder throughout the pandemic and were at the forefront of HEIs' minds when designing and implementing responses (Brammer, & Clark, 2020: 453). This especially relates to those HEIs and study programmes that have strong practical orientation and that put an emphasis on close student collaboration and teamwork in forms of classroom assignments and student projects, such as business study programmes students.

The "New normal" circumstances posted a great challenge to business students in form of their quick adaptation to distance learning. These new distance-learning conditions require new learning modes that include online synchronous, asynchronous or blended learning, enabling an entirely online or a mixture of online and face-to-face content (Ratten, 2020: 757). In order to fulfil their course requirements and to obtain learning outcomes, business students often need to collaborate and function as a team and therefore experience leadership behaviours from their team leader, and ultimately achieve desired level of team effectiveness. Moreover, according to Daft (2016: 622) most people experience their first challenges of teamwork as students, where having to give up some of personal independence and rely on a team to perform well in order to earn a good grade. All of the above now needs to take place in virtual conditions, where students cannot experience benefits form conventional classroom socialization they are used to. They only communicate with their fellows digitally and never see fellow students in person, and thus the real-time sharing of ideas, knowledge and information, which is of key importance for teamwork, is partially missing from the digital learning world (Britt, 2006, in Adnan & Anwar, 2020: 46).

An absence of the direct face-to-face contact most directly effects the way students organize and coordinate their teamwork, the way they communicate and express leadership in order to accomplish their student projects' goals. Working in virtual teams requires students/team members to demonstrate specific set of competencies. This specifically applies to virtual team leaders, since leader's role is critical for the whole team's effectiveness. Although the majority of leaders' key responsibilities and roles do not differ significantly in conditions of virtual and traditional team surrounding, Zaccaro & Bader (2003: 381) pointed that the major difference refers to conditions of a limited and mediated communication characterising virtual conditions. According to these authors, the dispersion and impermanence that characterize most virtual teams represent significant challenges to virtual teams' leaders in attempting to fulfil key leaders' roles.

Given the fact that educational institutions per se represent focal points of social activities and interactions for students (Adnan & Anwar, 2020: 46), as well as that it is likely that even after the COVID-19 pandemic subsides there will be a lasting legacy of online learning (Kirk &

Rifkin, 2020, in Ratten, 2020: 757), it is of a key importance to research to what extent have business study programmes students adopted to new circumstances of the distance learning in practicing teamwork and leadership. More specifically, the purpose of this paper is to examine demonstrated leadership behaviours and leadership competencies essential for student virtual team effectiveness, while working on student projects. Thus, the research questions guiding this work are:

- 1) What are the essential leadership competencies required for virtual team effectiveness?
- 2) What are the characteristics of achieved student virtual team effectiveness?
- 3) Which factors play a role in demonstrating leadership competencies and behaviors and team effectiveness in virtual conditions?

To meet the research objectives, the following sections are structured as follows: First, we give a theoretical overview of the concepts of virtual leadership and team effectiveness, focusing on virtual teams. Then, we describe our methodological approach, as well as present and discuss our research findings. Finally, we conclude this paper with providing the most important research insights and conclusions and highlight the limitations of our research.

2. Theoretical background

2.1. Leading virtual team

2.1.1. Leadership

Leadership is a subject that has long excited interest among people. The widespread fascination with leadership may be because it is such a mysterious process, as well as one that touches everyone's life (Yukl, 2013: 17). Authors (Martin & Ernst, 2005, Birkinshaw, 2010, Antonakis & Day, 2017) usually refer to leadership as to one of the most researched phenomena in the field of social sciences. Accordingly, leadership certainly represents one of the most defined concepts in the theory of organization and management. One could say there are almost as many definitions of leadership as there are persons who have attempted to define the concept (Stogdill, 1974: 259). Yet, contrary to expectations, given the complex nature of leadership, a specific and widely accepted definition of leadership currently does not exist (Antonakis & Day, 2017: 5). For the purpose of this research, we follow Yukl (2013: 23) and his definition of leadership. According to this author 'leadership is the process of influencing others to understand and agree about what needs to be done and how to do it, and the process of facilitating individual and collective efforts to accomplish shared objectives'.

2.1.2. Virtual leadership

A leader is a person who influences individuals and groups within an organization, helps them in establishing goals, and guides them toward achievement of those goals, thereby allowing them to be effective (Nahavandi, 2009: 4). Fundamentally, leaders serve to promote effective team functioning. They help ensure that team members have the cognitive, social, and material resources to achieve their assigned tasks and goals (Zaccaro & Bader, 2003: 380). Good team leaders understand and manage stages of team development, cohesiveness, norms, and conflict to build an effective team. These processes are influenced by team and organizational characteristics and by the ability of members and leaders to direct these processes in a positive manner (Daft, 2016: 631). Therefore, it can be underlined that leadership is, at its core, about the development of relationships in teams (Avolio & Kahai, 2003: 331). All of the above applies primarily to traditional teams using face-to-face interaction. However, does that mean it also applies to virtual teams?

According to Zaccaro & Bader (2003: 381), majority of leaders' key responsibilities and roles do not differ significantly in conditions of virtual and traditional teams, but the authors also point out that most virtual teams represent significant challenges to virtual teams' leaders in attempting to fulfil key leaders' roles. Similarly, Avolio & Kahai (2003: 327) are confident that leadership mediated by information technology can exhibit exactly the same content and style as traditional face-to-face leadership, especially as virtual interactions become more visual. According to these authors (2003: 331), whether connected via information technology or not, leaders have to build relationships in order to lead effectively. Tyran, Tyran & Shepherd (2003: 183) also do not question the necessity and importance of leadership for both, traditional and virtual teams, but also indicate the need for more precise research of how the conditions of the virtual team environment may influence leadership practice. Therefore, these authors call for more precise research of leadership in the virtual teams.

Recently, the literature on virtual team leadership is growing as researchers from a myriad of fields including business, economics, communication and organizational science have dedicated copious amounts of time investigating leaders of geographically dispersed teams connected through information and computer technologies (Ziek & Smulowitz, 2014: 107). Studies are now being done to understand how leadership has or should evolve in order to meet the changing needs and demands of this new virtual environment. Some argue that leadership in the virtual environment is simpler as fewer tools are available to virtual leaders. Others may argue that access to fewer tools makes virtual leadership more complex and challenging than traditional leadership (Johnson, 2010: 39).

Virtual teams provide many advantages, but they also present new challenges for leaders, who must learn to build trusting relationships in a virtual environment (Daft, 2014: 634). That is why authors (Blackburn, Furnst & Rosen, 2003) claim the number one key success factor for virtual teams is precisely a strong leadership. Virtual leadership or e-leadership can be defined as a 'social influence process mediated by advanced information technology to produce a change in attitudes, feelings, thinking, behaviour, and/or performance with individuals, groups, and/or organizations' (Avolio, Kahai & Dodge, 2000: 617). Virtual or e-leaders need to act as liaisons, set and convey team direction, and coordinate team operations in an environment of limited communication. They need to devote more attention to developing effective interaction dynamics among virtual team members, which include establishing sufficient levels of cohesion, trust and motivation to accomplish the team's mission (Zaccaro & Bader, 2003: 381). Furthermore, literature suggest that virtual team leaders should create a flexible environment by incorporating principles of agile development. This helps to reduce risks related to communication, coordination, and control inherent in virtual teams, and helps teams to improve their communication (Paul et al., 2016; Yadav et al., 2009, in Zeuge et al., 2020).

Leadership style is considered an important factor for team effectiveness, whether or not it is about traditional teams' leaders, or virtual teams' leaders, also called e-leaders (Avolio, Kahai & Dodge, 2000; Zaccaro & Bader, 2003, Ayman & Lauritsen, 2017). The leadership style of the team leader is the key to minimize motivation and coordination losses and sustain the effectiveness of virtual teams (Hoch & Kozlowski, 2014; in Zeuge et al., 2020). And although majority of authors (Tyran, Tyran & Shepherd, 2003; Maduka et al., 2018; Zeuge et al., 2020) suggest that transformational and inspirational leadership style is more appropriate for virtual team leaders, Cascio & Shurygailo (2003: 362-363) think that no particular leadership style is necessarily best for a virtual team. They suggest that each manager needs to analyse the impact of the virtual work arrangements on his or her own leadership style, and adopt accordingly. Similarly, Ayman & Lauritsen (2017: 152) offer an overview of a number of

studies whose conclusions are ambiguous when it comes to a preferable leadership style in virtual teams. These authors also point out that while early research on e-leadership showed how technological structures or processes can moderate leadership effects on group process and outcomes (Avolio & Kahai, 2003), more recently, researchers are viewing the medium of communication as an organizational contextual factor relevant to e-leadership.

There are three main critical areas that should be addressed when leading virtual teams, according to Daft (2016: 631-633). First, in order to be effective, a virtual team leader should use virtual technology to build relationships for effective teamwork. Leaders first select people who have the right mix of technical, interpersonal, and communication skills to work in a virtual environment, and then make sure that they have opportunities to know one another and establish trusting relationships. Second, effective virtual team leader should shape culture through virtual technology. This involves creating a virtual environment in which people feel safe to express concerns, admit mistakes, share ideas, acknowledge fears, or ask for help. Finally, the third practice effective virtual team leader should do is to monitor progress and reward members to keep the team progressing toward its goals. It is important that leaders stay on top of the project's development and make sure that everyone knows how the team is progressing toward meeting its goals. Posting targets, measurements, milestones and providing regular feedback in the virtual workspace can make progress explicit.

2.1.3. Competencies of a virtual leader

For the past two or three decades, the focus of leadership research has shifted toward the study of leadership competencies. Recently, with the growing emergence of virtual teams, this has started to take place in terms of competencies of virtual (team) leaders. Ziek & Smulowitz (2014: 107) point out that even though there has been an increase in the literature on leadership in virtual teams, there has been little focus on leadership competencies and how these skills relate to virtual team effectiveness (Hajro and Pudelko, 2010). These authors especially refer to difference between formally appointed leaders and the informally appointed or emerging leaders.

Leader competencies represent a combination of knowledge, skills and abilities necessary for effective leadership. Therefore, an acronym KSAs (Knowledge, Skills and Abilities) is usually used in literature to refer to competencies, or KSAOs, which adds Other characteristics to aforementioned KSA. There are number of different conceptualizations of leadership competencies frameworks in the relevant literature. Still, majority of authors tend to classify competencies into three general meta-groups: cognitive, technical and social or interpersonal competencies.

Due to specific characteristics of virtual teams, one would expect that all competencies required to lead a face-to-face team represent necessary but not sufficient competencies for leading a virtual team. Besides other important responsibilities, leaders of all teams must be able to play a major role in defining the group's mission; setting high expectations; shaping the group's culture; coaching, counselling, and motivating team members; facilitating meetings; mediating conflicts; evaluating performance; and recognizing individual and group achievements. However, leading a virtual group frequently requires novel ways to enact these important KSAs (Blackburn, Furst & Rosen, 2003: 102). Moreover, according to Zeuge et al. (2020), besides well-known and established leadership competencies, leaders of virtual teams often need different or additional skills to effectively lead and guide virtual teams. Namely, virtual team leaders are confronted with complex and unique environments where change is constant and group challenges, process complications, and project setbacks might be more commonplace than for traditional teams. Therefore, these authors point out three most

important competencies for effective leadership of virtual teams. According to existing literature, without a doubt, the ability to communicate is the most important competency of virtual team leader. Leaders should make sure their communication is clear, timely, precise, and understandable by members of their teams. Second important competency virtual team leaders should possess is the ability to defuse frustrations and effectively manage conflicts that arise in their virtual team. The third must have competency for effective virtual team leader is emotional intelligence, which includes self-awareness, self-regulation and the ability to motivate team members, empathize with them and communicate in a skillful way.

Similarly, Johnson (2010) underlined communication, personal attributes and trust building as the most important categories of virtual team leader competencies. Maduka et al. (2018) offer a quite extensive classification of eleven competencies a virtual team leader should possess. They underline following virtual leader competencies: ability to build trust, ability to build team orientation and integration, effective communication, personal characteristics, goal direction, ability to provide constant feedback, operational coordinating and conflict resolution ability, technology skills/knowledge, awareness, quality decision making, ability to monitor changes in environmental conditions, and reliability.

2.2. Virtual team effectiveness

2.2.1. Team

People have always tend to organize in different kinds of groups in order to benefit from mutual connection and information sharing. A more sophisticated and intense way of bringing together two or more people supporting each other and collaborating in accomplishing their shared goals makes a team. According to Jones & George (2014: 358), the main two characteristics that distinguish teams from groups are precisely the intensity with which team members work together and the presence of a specific, overriding team goal or objective. As follows, Robbins, DeCenzo & Coulter (2013: 257) define working teams as ‘groups of people whose members work intensely on a specific, common goal using their positive synergy, individual and mutual accountability, and complementary skills’. Even though getting individuals with different personalities, qualifications and skills to work together on a common goal can be quite a big challenge, most of the authors underline a positive synergy as the most important benefit that arises from a teamwork. Individuals working in a group can produce more or higher-quality outputs than would have been produced if each person had worked separately and all their individual efforts were later combined (Jones & George, 2014: 359). Apart from synergy, other main benefits of teams are having more resources for problem solving, improved creativity and innovation, improved quality of decision making, greater member commitment to tasks, increased motivation of members, as well as increased satisfaction of members’ needs (Schermerhorn, 2012: 433).

2.2.2. Types of teams

There are many types of teams according to authors. The most prevalent types of teams that can be find in the literature are: *problem-solving teams*, *self-managed work teams*, *functional teams*, *cross-functional teams*, *special-purpose teams*, *project teams*, and *virtual teams*. *Problem-solving teams* are teams from the same department or functional area involved in efforts to improve work activities or to solve specific problems. Members share ideas or offer suggestions on how work processes and methods can be improved. However, these teams are rarely given the authority to implement any of their suggested actions (Robbins, DeCenzo & Coulter, 2013: 258). *Self-managed work teams* are teams in which members are empowered

and have the responsibility and autonomy to complete identifiable pieces of work (Jones & George, 2014: 364). A *functional team* is composed of a manager and his or her subordinates in the formal chain of command, and may include three or four levels of hierarchy within a functional department (Daft, 2016: 625). *Cross-functional teams* are made up of employees from about the same hierarchical level but different work areas who come together to accomplish a task. Cross-functional teams are an effective means of allowing people from diverse areas within or even between organizations to exchange information, develop new ideas, solve problems, and coordinate complex projects (Robbins & Judge, 2017: 354). *The special purpose team* is a type of cross-functional team that is created outside the formal organization structure to undertake a project of special importance or creativity. Sometimes called a project team, a special-purpose team still is part of the formal organization structure, but members perceive themselves as a separate entity (Daft, 2016: 627). *Project teams* or *task forces* are teams convened for a specific purpose that disband when their task is completed. These types of teams bring people together to work on common problems, but on a temporary rather than permanent basis (Schermerhorn, 2012: 436). Although every author has his or her own classification of different types of teams, which differ from each other to some extent, almost each classification includes *virtual teams*. As virtual teams represent the framework of this research, and they differ from other types of teams just described, they will be closely analysed in the next paragraph.

2.2.3. Virtual team

For the past two to three decades, authors have been paying a lot of attention to virtual teams, also called *e-teams* (Zaccaro & Bader, 2003) and *distributed teams* (Schermerhorn, 2012). This represents an exciting new approach to teamwork that has resulted from advances in information technology, shifting employee expectations, and the globalization of business (Daft, 2016: 631). Jones & George (2014: 367) define virtual teams as ‘teams whose members rarely or never meet face-to-face but, rather, interact by using various forms of information technology such as e-mail, text messaging, computer networks, telephone, fax, and videoconferences’.

The major difference between virtual and all other (traditional) types of teams is the predominant reliance on the information technology in connecting geographically dispersed team members working on common goal accomplishment. Although, the virtual characteristic of these teams can be applied to many other types of groups and teams (such as project teams). Despite mentioned difference, it is important to point out that virtual teams can do all the things other teams can - share information, make decisions, and complete tasks; however, they lack the normal give-and-take of face-to-face discussions. That is why virtual teams tend to be more task-oriented, especially if the team members have never personally met (Robbins, DeCenzo & Coulter, 2013: 259).

The current “New normal” circumstances, brought to us as a direct consequence of the unprecedented global health crisis, forced many organizations toward organizing their collective work in form of virtual teams. Namely, so far, despite the widespread use of mobile telephones, computers, and the Internet, truly virtual teams, in the sense that they only ever ‘meet’ together through technology, were relatively rare. A far more common scenario was one where team members continue to engage in face-to-face contact of one form or another throughout the life of the team (Kimble, 2011: 7). This enabled virtual team members to make the most of their teamwork – taking the advantages, while minimizing shortcomings of their virtual teams.

The potential advantages of virtual teams are numerous. According to Jones (2014: 367), the principal advantage of virtual teams is that they enable managers to disregard geographic distances and form teams whose members have the knowledge, expertise, and experience to tackle a particular problem or take advantage of a specific opportunity. Moreover, Daft (2016: 631) underlines that one of the primary advantage of virtual teams is the ability to assemble the most talented group of people to complete a complex project, solve a particular problem, or exploit a specific strategic opportunity. As for other advantages, it is certainly necessary to mention innovation and synergy, cost efficiencies (lower costs for offices, travels...) and time efficiencies (decisions are made much faster, members are less prone to stray off task, conversations can easily be recorded...) of virtual teams. When it comes to potential disadvantages, besides ones that characterize every other group or team, the major one arises from the fact that people are social beings and they may lack of face-to-face interaction and therefore might feel isolated, discouraged and less motivated. When the computer is the go-between, relationships and interactions among virtual team members are different from those of face-to-face settings. The lack of face-to-face interaction limits the role of emotions and nonverbal cues in the communication process, perhaps depersonalizing relations among team members (Schermerhorn et al., 2010: 438). In addition, besides potential technology failures and communication mishaps, virtual teams are more prone to suffer process loss because of low cohesion, low trust among members, lack of appropriate norms or standard operating procedures, or a lack of shared understanding among members about the tasks of the team (Zaccaro & Bader, 2003: 379).

2.2.4. Virtual team effectiveness

Effectiveness is quite an indeterminate concept. It is mostly used to evaluate the extent to which goals are attained - on individual, team or organizational level. When it comes to teams, they are both, rich in performance potential and very complex in the way they work; they can be great successes and they can also be colossal failures (Schermerhorn, 2012: 432). Just like individuals, teams should be held accountable for their performance. Moreover, teams exert a powerful influence on individuals by setting norms regarding appropriate work quantity and quality (Konopaske & Ivancevich, 2013: 38) in order to achieve team effectiveness.

We follow the work of the most prominent authors in this field, and underline three basic factors or criteria of team effectiveness that apply to both traditional and virtual teams: the team's productivity level, team members' satisfaction and team's capacity to adapt, learn and improve itself over time. From the above, it follows that an effective team can be defined as one that achieves high levels of task performance, member satisfaction, and team viability (Schermerhorn et al., 2010: 163). The first team effectiveness factor is team's productivity level, which pertains to performance and the quality and quantity of task outputs as defined by team goals (Daft, 2016: 630). It is a measure how effectively team transforms resource inputs (such as ideas, materials, and information) into product outputs (such as a report, decision, service, or commodity) (Schermerhorn et al., 2012: 439). The second factor, team members' satisfaction relates more directly to the individuals within the team. As a social network, the team has an additional responsibility beyond simply completing the assigned task: it must also care for its members and provide the right opportunities for personal development and growth (Lurey & Raisinghani, 2000: 4). Therefore, an effective team is one whose members believe that their participation and experiences are positive and meet important personal needs. They are satisfied with their tasks, accomplishments, and interpersonal relationships (Schermerhorn et al., 2010: 163). Finally, team's capacity to adapt, learn and improve itself over time refers to the ability of teams to bring greater knowledge and skills to job tasks and enhance the

potential of the organization to respond to new threats or opportunities in the environment (Daft, 2016: 630).

Without diminishing the importance of these team effectiveness factors or criteria, many authors (Gibson & Cohen, 2003; Robbins, DeCenzo & Coulter, 2013) point out that teams are more likely to be effective when certain enabling conditions exist, and therefore underline the importance of identifying the conditions that promote (virtual) team effectiveness. Teams in general and virtual teams more specifically, are complex social forms, and effectiveness is the result of multiple practices, often redundant with one another. Many factors working together determine effectiveness. For these reasons, trying to identify specific causal relationships between one factor and virtual team effectiveness may not be fruitful (Hackman, 1990, in Cohen & Gibson, 2003: 7).

According to Daft (2016: 629), in order to be effective, each team (traditional and virtual) needs to possess following characteristics: *trust, healthy conflict, commitment, accountability* and *results orientation*. Gibson & Cohen (2003) more precisely underline three enabling conditions for virtual team effectiveness, which cannot be commanded into place but rather must emerge from how virtual teams are designed and managed. These enabling conditions for virtual team effectiveness are *trust, shared understanding* and *integration*.

Trust is that condition or aspect the most authors (Avolio, & Kahai, 2003; Tyran, Tyran & Shepherd, 2003; Alsharo, Gregg, & Ramirez, 2017; Zeuge et al., 2020) find crucial for enabling virtual team effectiveness. It refers to a state when members trust one another on a deep emotional level, and feel comfortable being vulnerable with one another (Daft, 2016: 629). Trust is important in any type of team, but it is a critical enabling condition in virtual teams, which is challenged by the often prominent differences in culture and lack of face-to-face interaction in virtual teams. In addition, in virtual collaborations, trust is harder to identify and develop, yet may be even more critical, because the virtual context often renders other forms of social control and psychological safety less effective or feasible. Trust promotes open and influential information exchange, reduces negotiation costs and conflict, and is related to achieving performance goals (Gibson & Manuel, 2003: 59-87).

According to Hinds & Weisband (2003: 21-87) understanding is a collective way of organizing relevant knowledge that can have a significant impact on the ability of teams to coordinate work and perform well. Shared understanding contributes to virtual team performance through multiple mechanisms. Shared understanding aligns effort, increases member satisfaction and motivation, reduces implementation problems and errors, and reduces frustration and conflict. In virtual teams, separated by geographical distance, the process of developing a shared understanding is more challenging. Members of virtual teams rely heavily on mediating technologies for their day-to-day communications, do not share the same work context, and are not geographically proximate. All of these factors conspire to inhibit knowledge sharing and shared understanding on virtual teams.

Finally, the third enabling condition for virtual team effectiveness is integration. Integration is the process of establishing ways in which the parts of an organization can work together to create value. In organizations, virtual teams are likely to be highly differentiated in response to global competitive pressures and uncertain business environments. These differences can hinder effective collaboration in virtual teams both directly and indirectly. The greater the degree of differentiation in an organization, the greater is the need for integration. The

formation of virtual teams is one mechanism to encourage integration (Cohen & Gibson, 2003: 8).

3. Methodology

To provide answers to previously listed research questions, empirical research was conducted at the end of winter semester of academic year 2020-2021 at Faculty of Economics, Business and Tourism, University of Split. Research instrument was online questionnaire, sent to business students on undergraduate and graduate study programme. All students targeted by a questionnaire were included in virtual teams, working the entire semester on specific, course related project. The questionnaire was ultimately distributed to 60 business students who participated in 13 virtual teams. From 43 filled and returned questionnaire, two were discarded as a result of logical and factual check conducted by authors, forming the final sample of 41 students-respondents (68.3% response rate). Collected data was enrolled in and processed by *IBM SPSS Statistics 23.0*. Same software (*SPSS*), together with *Microsoft Visio*, was used for graphical and tabular presentation of obtained results in the paper.

Questionnaire was divided into three sections. Introduction section included questions related to background data on students, study programme and student virtual teams. Next section of questionnaire focused on virtual leadership competences and behaviours and, following Ziek and Smulowitz (2014), contained 15 Likert-scale type questions. Final section investigated virtual team effectiveness in terms of overall effectiveness, climate and member's satisfaction. Following Lurey & Raisinghani (2000) and Alsharo, Gregg, & Ramirez (2017), eight Likert-scale type questions were included in final section of the questionnaire, supplemented by two open-type questions related to main challenges in achieving desired virtual team effectiveness. Although research instruments used in this empirical research have been tested in number of previous researches, when using Likert-type scales, it is suggested that Cronbach alpha coefficient for internal consistency reliability is calculated and reported for any scales and subscales (Gliem & Gliem, 2008). In this sense, literature offers rule of thumb by which mentioned coefficient needs to be at least .7, whereas values very close to 1.0 may indicate item redundancy (George & Malery, 2003). Reliability statistics shown in Table 1 suggest that internal consistency reliability of items used in scales for leadership competencies and behaviours construct is excellent (.932), while internal consistency reliability of items used in scales for team effectiveness construct is acceptable/respectable (.779).

Table 1: Reliability statistics (Cronbach's Alpha) for measurement scales (N = 41)

Scale	Number of items	Cronbach's Alpha	Interpretation
Leadership competencies and behaviours	15	.932	Excellent
Team effectiveness	8	.779	Acceptable/Respectable

Female students (68.3%) dominated research sample (Figure 1). Large majority of students were between 21-25 years old (82.9%), which is understandable because authors have excluded newly/first year undergraduate students from the empirical research, due to their inexperience in working in student teams. Two thirds of students (65.9%) were on undergraduate study programme, predominantly on the third and the final year of this study programme, which, together with students from graduate study programme (34.1%), explains previously mentioned predominance of 21-25 years old students in the sample. Nevertheless, there are students in the sample that did not gain any experience of working in student projects (9.8%) in their previous studying efforts, whereas majority of them participated in several or smaller number of student projects. As for the virtual team's size, almost all

researched virtual teams were comprised of four to six team members, team leader included ($M = 5.17$; $SD = .834$). In this sense, around three quarters (78.1%) of research sample were respondents from virtual teams comprised of five or six members.

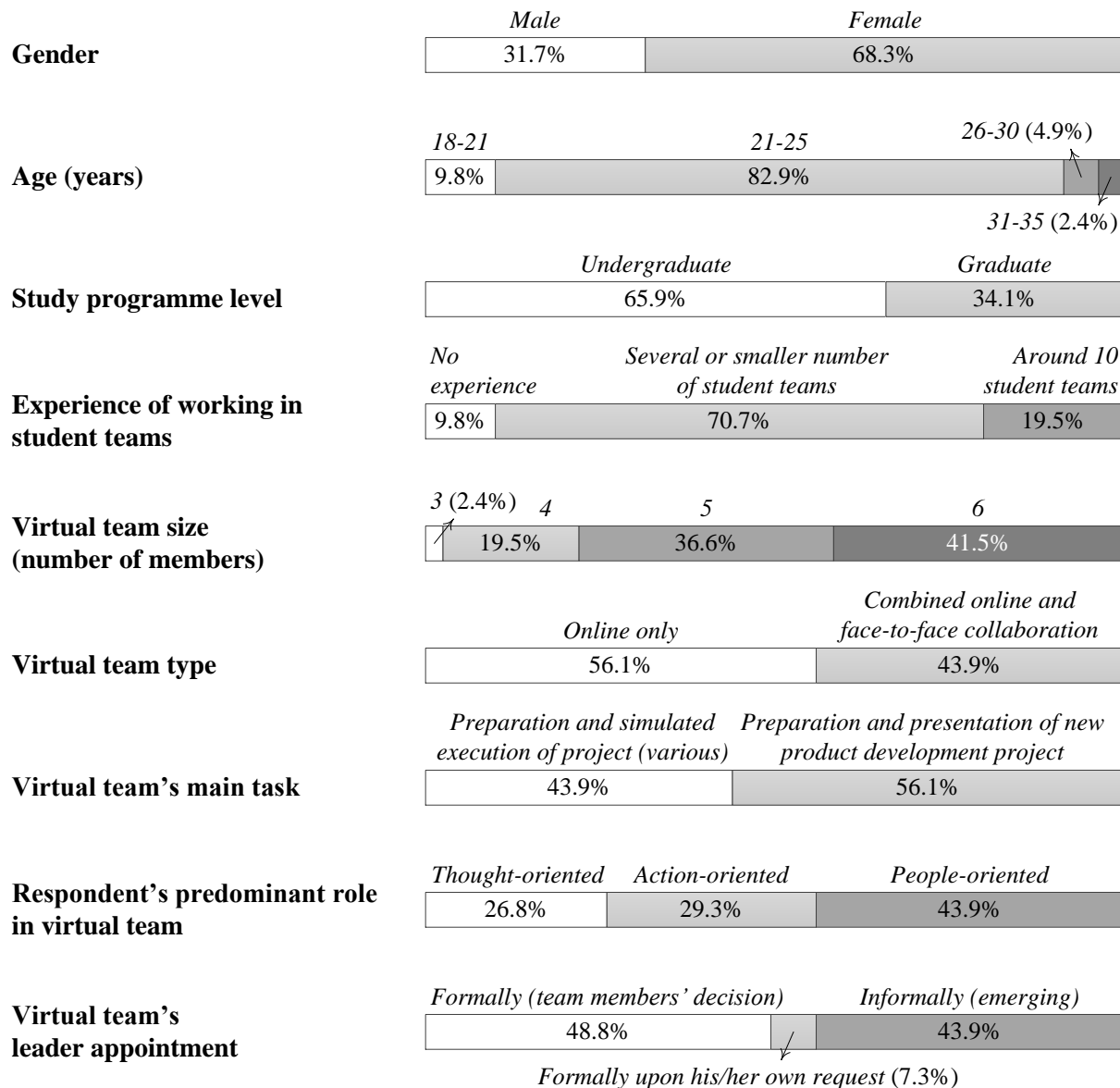


Figure 1: Research sample characteristics (N = 41)

In times of coronavirus pandemic (COVID-19), more than half of respondents (56.1%) that participated in virtual student teams that did not meet face-to-face once, while 43.9% of respondents were in virtual student teams which combined on-line meetings and communications (Zoom, Google Meet, E-mail, WhatsApp ...) with face-to-face meetings (outside faculty premises). All virtual student teams had a main task to develop and prepare a practical project (event, improvement or new product development). One group of teams had additional task to execute, in simulated conditions, prepared project (event, improvement, ...), whereas the other group of teams had the obligation to present and discuss/defend prepared new product idea/project in front of their colleagues and teachers.

Team members were playing various roles in virtual student team functioning, from those people oriented (team worker, coordinator...), action oriented (implementer, finisher...) to

thought oriented (thinker, evaluator...) (Belbin, 2012). In this sense, almost half of respondents were predominantly engaged in people oriented team activities (43.9%). In more than half of virtual student teams, one team member was formally appointed as team leader (56.1%), while in other teams (43.9%), one team member had informally emerged as team leader through the virtue of his/her competencies and demonstrated behaviour. Large majority of formally appointed leaders (48.8%) were appointed based on team's discussion and consensus who is the best candidate for the role of team leader. In few teams, one team member 'forced' his appointment on team by nominating him/herself for the role of team leader (7.3%).

4. Findings

Main findings of conducted empirical research are presented in the forms of descriptive and bivariate statistical analyses. In this sense, descriptive statistical analysis offered insights into characteristics of leadership demonstrated in student virtual teams and into levels of effectiveness of mentioned teams. Bivariate analysis provided additional insights regarding the role which team's background characteristics play in the nature of leadership and in the level of effectiveness realized in student virtual teams.

4.1. Leadership in student virtual teams

Results presented in Figure 2 suggest overall high level of leadership competencies and desired behaviours in student virtual teams ($M = 4.00$; $SD = .698$). Of 15 investigated leadership characteristics, more technical competencies such as problem definition ($M = 4.29$; $SD = .782$) and problem-solving approaches and techniques ($M = 4.22$; $SD = .791$) are the most developed and demonstrated. These results are somewhat fostered with teacher's instructions and guidelines during tasks' elaborations. Mentioned more technical competencies are accompanied with high level of enthusiasm which leaders have demonstrated in investigated student virtual teams ($M = 4.41$; $SD = .894$). On the other hand, more personality related characteristics and behaviours such as credibility and charisma ($M = 3.68$; $SD = 1.192$) and power of influence and persuasion ($M = 3.51$; $SD = 1.028$) are the least developed and demonstrated.

Overall leadership (competencies and behaviours) in student virtual teams is characterized with detailed and thoughtful approach to issues related to team's tasks, great enthusiasm, supportiveness of other team members, creativity and persistence. Competencies and behaviours which are more related to personality development and past experiences in leading people, such as charisma, influence, facilitation and negotiation, critical thinking (review and analysis of results) and vision setting, although on respectable levels, are to be more improved in the future for investigated virtual leaders. Having in mind that the investigated leaders were business students, predominantly in their early 20s, stated results are not surprising.

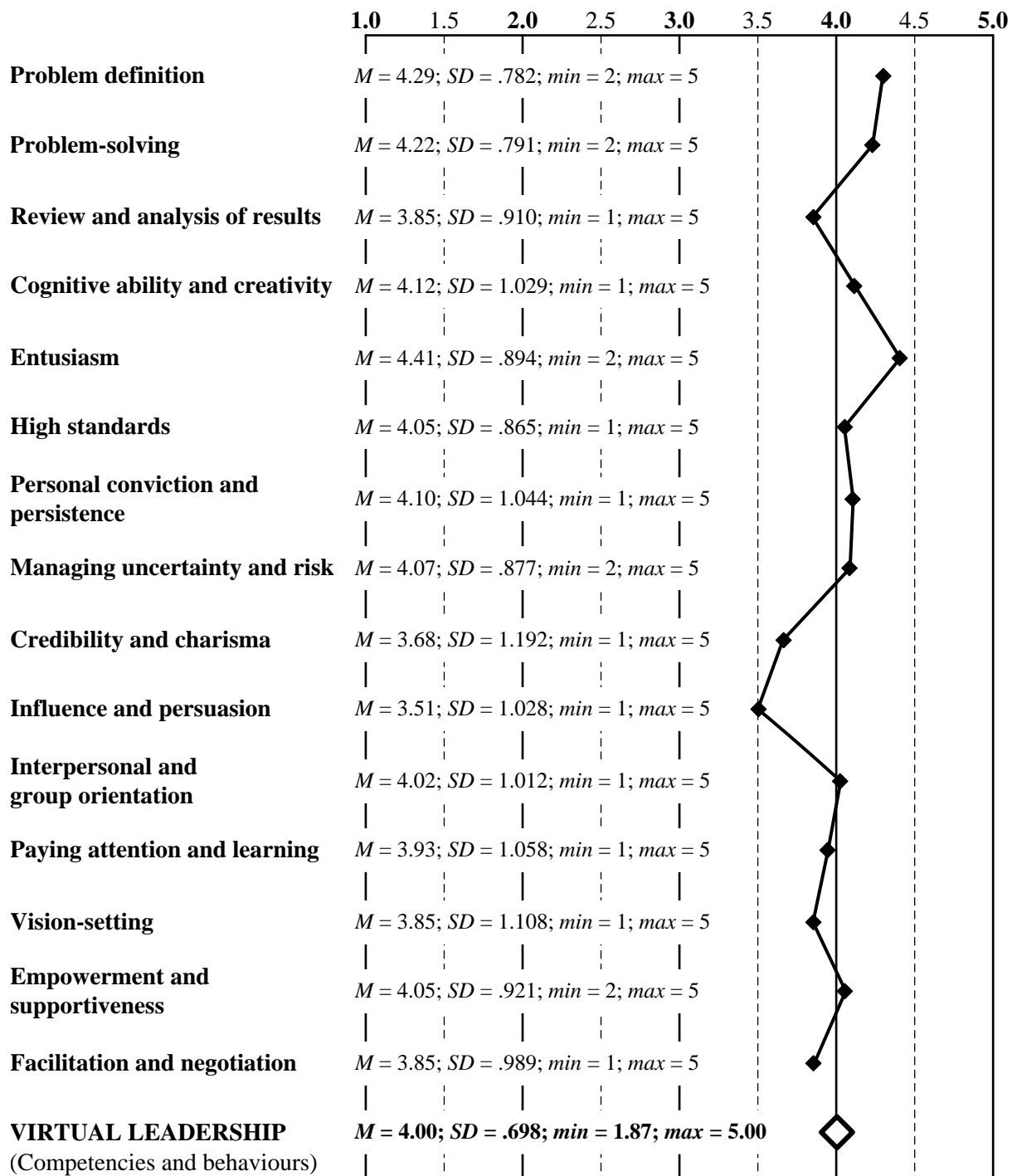


Figure 2: Profile of student virtual leaders (N = 41)

4.2. Student virtual team effectiveness

Student virtual team effectiveness was investigated through three domains: task related effectiveness, team's climate and member's satisfaction. Results related to student virtual team effectiveness, shown in Figure 3, indicate high level of mentioned effectiveness ($M = 4.14$; $SD = .647$). Task related effectiveness is the least achieved domain of virtual team's effectiveness ($M = 4.07$; $SD = .704$). In this sense, student virtual teams are very effective in reaching their goals ($M = 4.46$; $SD = .596$), they complete tasks generally on time ($M = 4.32$, $SD = 1.011$), but use available resources somewhat irrationally ($M = 3.41$; $SD = 1.284$).

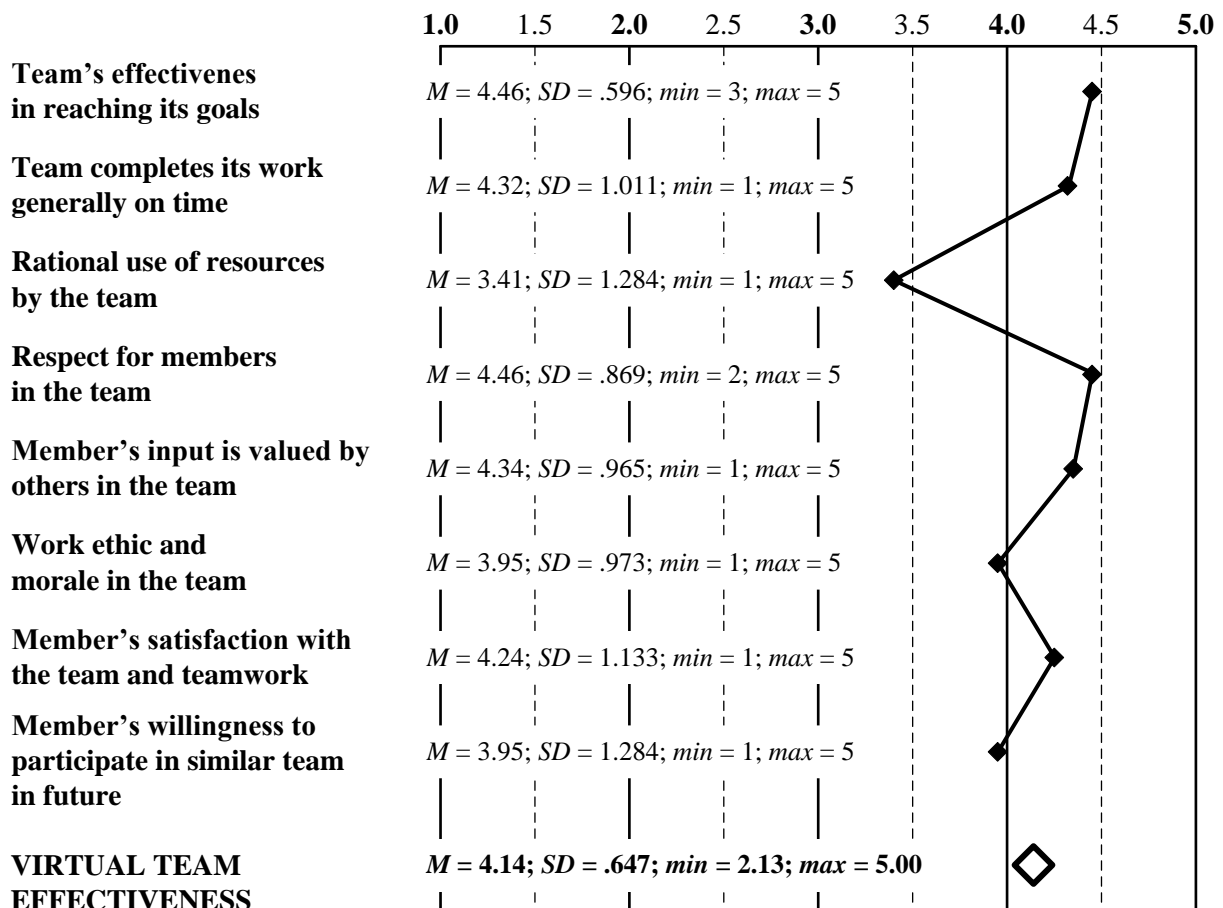


Figure 3: Virtual team effectiveness (N = 41)

Positive, developmental and learning climate in student virtual team is most achieved domain of team' effectiveness ($M = 4.25$; $SD = .741$). Members do feel that they are respected by ($M = 4.46$; $SD .869$) and that their inputs are valued by leader and other members of the student virtual team ($M = 4.34$; $SD = .965$). Work ethic and morale, as an element of virtual team's climate, can be improved ($M = 3.95$; $SD = .973$). Consequently, member's satisfaction, as the third domain of virtual team' effectiveness is on a high level also, but lower than the level of virtual team climate ($M = 4.10$; $SD = 1.085$). Although very satisfied with the virtual team overall and teamwork performed ($M = 4.24$; $SD = 1.133$), members are not completely enthusiastic to 'do it all over again' ($M = 3.95$; $SD = 1.284$), i.e. to participate in similar team and in similar conditions in the future. This hesitation can be reasoned by team members' perception of student virtual team existence and of virtual teamwork itself as a consequence of 'extraordinary conditions', for which they hope, will disappear as soon as possible. In this regard, students, although very satisfied with virtual teamwork and effectiveness, perceive physical, in classroom face-to-face teamwork, as a more effective way of performing students' teamwork (Figure 4).

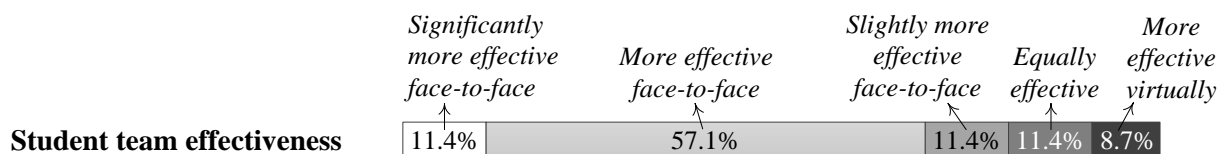
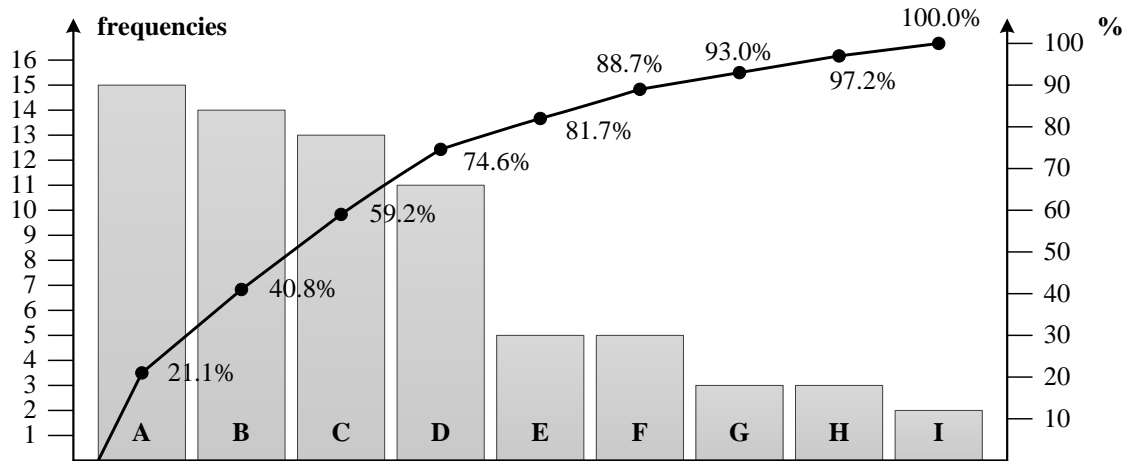


Figure 4: Student teamwork effectiveness – face-to-face vs. virtually (N = 41)

When asked to pinpoint the main challenges and problems that arose in student virtual teamwork, respondents offered diverse inputs, from respondents not offering any or just partial inputs (6 respondents) to those pinpointing up to five challenges and problems that occurred in their virtual teamwork. From overall 71 inputs in responses, 9 main challenges were identified in student virtual teamwork (Figure 5).



-
- A** - Reconciling members' private and study obligations – interrupted or partial virtual teamwork (15)
 - B** - Not dealing with problems related with individual members' commitment to work / non-openness in communication and denial of problems (14)
 - C** - Newness of online work itself (13)
 - D** - Poor online communication or misunderstanding (11)
 - E** - Not knowing your team members at all before online teamwork started (5)
 - F** - Leader's incompetence (5)
 - G** - Information technology related problems (3)
 - H** - Longer time needed to perform activities and tasks (3)
 - I** - Not having instant feedback on performed activities and tasks (2)
-

Figure 5: Challenges in student teamwork effectiveness (N = 35)

From the respondents' inputs, it is obvious that four main problems or challenges were present in student virtual teamwork (74.6% of inputs). Interruption and work with some members not being present, all because of students' conflicts in private and study obligations, received 15 inputs, followed by virtual team neglecting the problem of some of the members not giving their 100% in teamwork (14 inputs). Performing student teamwork in virtual environment by itself represented significant challenge for students (13), especially with colleague students that they just met online (5). Overall, poor online communication and misunderstanding in student virtual teams (11) is the main cause of majority of problems and challenges in teamwork. In this sense, non-openness in online communication between team members who just met each other led to denial and avoidance of problems. In addition, insufficient or non-adequate communication was responsible for members not having instant feedback on performed activities and tasks (3) and was a factor in longer time needed to perform activities and tasks (2). Finally, the task of arranging the time of online meetings, where private and study obligations of team members needed to be reconciled, was more challenging to perform via online communication tools, especially when some of the team members were not flexible with their schedules or generally not 'cooperative'.

4.3. The role of student virtual team's background characteristics in its effectiveness and demonstrated leadership

In order to gain additional insights into the nature of student virtual team effectiveness and leadership demonstrated by team's leader, bivariate analysis via significance tests, connecting mentioned student team effectiveness and demonstrated leadership to team's background characteristics, was performed. Obtained results, in summarized form, are presented in Table 2.

Table 2: Differences in virtual leadership and virtual team effectiveness in relation to variation in team's background characteristics (N = 41)

Background characteristics	Significance test	Virtual leadership	Virtual team effectiveness
Study programme level	Student T-test	$t(39) = 3.84;$ $p < .001$	$t(39) = 3.73;$ $p = .001$
Virtual team size	One-Way ANOVA	$F(3,37) = 2.39$ $p = .084$	$F(3,37) = 2.24$ $p = .10$
Virtual team type	One-Way ANOVA	$F(1,39) = .34$ $p = .565$	$F(1,39) = .58$ $p = .450$
Virtual team main task	Student T-test	$t(37) = -1.99;$ $p = .054$	$t(37) = -1.93;$ $p = .062$
Virtual team's leader appointment	One-Way ANOVA	$F(2,38) = 22.99$ $p < .001$	$F(2,38) = 2.03$ $p = .145$

* p value of .010 was used as significance criterion in tests.

According to the results shown in Table 2, level of study programme (undergraduate and graduate) of student virtual team is significant for virtual leadership competencies and behaviours as well as for virtual team effectiveness. Virtual team size is also influential factor of virtual leadership and virtual team effectiveness. In larger student virtual team, it was more difficult for leaders to demonstrate leadership competencies and style than in small virtual teams. Larger student virtual teams were also less effective than smaller ones, which is somewhat surprising having in mind more available members who can perform needed team's activities and tasks. On the other hand, better virtual leadership in smaller student virtual teams can be one of the factors for higher levels of effectiveness in smaller virtual teams. Results of significance test of differences in virtual team effectiveness in relation to variation in virtual leadership support this claim (Table 3).

Table 3: Differences in virtual team effectiveness in relation to variation in virtual leadership (N = 41)

Summary variable	Significance test	Virtual team effectiveness
Virtual leadership (competencies and behaviours)	One-Way ANOVA	$F(23,17) = 2.72$ $p = .019$

* p value of .010 was used as significance criterion in tests.

Having in mind that all investigated virtual teams were ‘online only’ or ‘combination of online and face-to-face collaboration’ (there were no ‘face-to-face only’ teams in the sample), it is not surprising that there is no statistically significant difference in team’ effectiveness in relation to virtual team type. Rare or periodical face-to-face meetings did not contribute to better virtual team effectiveness, compared with virtual teams who were functioning exclusively online. On the other hand, main task, which was given to virtual teams to perform in certain period, was significant factor for virtual leadership and virtual team effectiveness. Obviously, different nature of the task has been a differentiating factor between higher and lower levels of virtual leadership and team effectiveness in investigated student virtual teams. Finally, the manner in which team member has become team leader in student virtual team plays significant role in demonstrated virtual leadership. Leaders’ appointment upon their own request is related with lower values of virtual leadership and virtual team effectiveness, compared with two other types of leader’s appointment. In this sense, emergent leaders were related to slightly higher values of virtual leadership and virtual team effectiveness, compared to formally appointed leaders by team members’ decision. Surprisingly, obtained results did not show statistical significance of virtual team’s leader appointment for virtual team effectiveness ($p = .145$).

5. Conclusion

COVID-19 global health crisis presents a very challenging time for students all over the world, especially those whose study programmes have strong practical orientation. In this sense, business students are no exception, with their study programmes and courses heavily relying on students’ teamwork both on week-by-week basis and at the level of the entire semester (students’ projects). Latent lockdown conditions, apart from dramatically changing the way lectures and exercises are being held, has dramatically changed the way students collaborate on their weekly assignments and semester student projects.

Empirical research conducted and presented in this paper aimed to gain insights into student team dynamics in virtual conditions in terms of demonstrated leadership in virtual teams and achieved virtual team effectiveness. Leadership competencies and behaviours demonstrated in investigated virtual teams are on high/desirable level. Leaders of these teams tend to foster creativity in their teams, are supportive to other team members, show respectable level of enthusiasm and are taking detailed and thoughtful approach when tackling team’ tasks. Personality characteristics such as charisma, influence and persuasion are those areas where these leaders are still developing. Results also indicate that student virtual team effectiveness is on a high level, especially in terms of reaching set goals and providing positive, developmental and learning climate, which consequently led to high levels of team members’ satisfaction. On the other hand, rational use of resources is an area in which these teams show significant deficiencies, leading to predominant opinion of investigated students, although very satisfied with their virtual team effectiveness, that face-to-face collaboration is more effective way of performing student teamwork and projects. In this sense, main challenges that student virtual teams faced in teamwork are: (1) poor, insufficient or non-adequate communication and generally misunderstanding in online conditions, (2) the problem of having a meeting with all members being at disposal at the same time, (3) neglect or denial of ‘free riding’ problem in the team and conflicts associated with it, and (4) online way of performing teamwork itself.

Empirical research also revealed that levels of study programme within which student virtual teams are functioning, team size and the nature of given task to the teams, are important factors for leadership and effectiveness of those teams. Contrary, supplementing ‘online only’

way of team' functioning with occasional face-to-face meetings does not make any changes in student virtual team effectiveness. Finally, demonstrated virtual leadership competencies and behaviours play a significant role in student virtual team effectiveness, especially when team members formally appoint leaders or, even better, when leaders informally emerge as time and virtual teamwork progresses.

The main shortcoming of conducted empirical research is small sample size of 41 students who evaluated leaders in 13 student virtual teams. Expanding the sample size and geographical dispersion of respondents by including respondents from different business schools and faculties would be the first step in overcoming this drawback. Further limitations of conducted research are common method bias and only one source of feedback on leadership competencies and behaviours. Inclusion of students who are leaders in student virtual teams and teachers in empirical research would significantly increase the validity of empirical findings. Finally, introducing additional control variables and further deepening the measurement of the concepts involved would provide more robust empirical results.

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HOW CHINESE HIGH-TECH SMES ARE COPING WITH COVID-19 RELATED RISKS?

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Abstract

COVID-19 is the most serious pandemic in recent times to have severely affected the pace and development of the global economy. Almost all the industries in the world have had some form of impact from this pandemic. For most Small Medium Enterprises (SMEs), this crisis has resulted in an increased pressure to survive and sustain successfully. There is also a big change in the ways businesses operate today due to the impacts of COVID-19. There is now a need to understand these impacts and to find ways that could help facilitate the survival of different businesses and strengthen their operations. China being the first country to experience the major waves of COVID-19, many Chinese SMEs have already suffered its brunt. The Chinese government has now implemented a series of effective measures to control its potential spread and bring some form of normality to the country. This study explores some of the High-tech SMEs in China that have successfully withstood the impacts of COVID-19 so far. For any SME, surviving this pandemic is a big feat in itself and the objective of this study is to shed some light on how these SMEs have brought in changes that are effective and impactful in times of global crisis. Using case studies of 9 High-tech SMEs from China, this paper discusses the impacts of COVID-19 and the risk management strategies utilized by their founder-entrepreneurs during this pandemic. The findings from this study will help other businesses to understand how to manage COVID-19 related risks and facilitate their development in this difficult time of global crisis.

Keywords: Chinese High-tech SMEs, China, COVID-19, Founder-entrepreneur, Entrepreneurship

1. Introduction

As the backbone of economic growth, SMEs have a great impact on the performance of the national economy for most countries (Singh, Garg and Deshmukh, 2008). However, the outbreak of COVID-19 halted the pace and development of the global economy bringing a lot of uncertainties and challenges to the SMEs' day-to-day operations. As the overall market is highly unstable today due to the varying spikes of COVID-19 cases, unpredictable lockdowns and restrictions in movement, this brings a lot of added difficulties for SMEs to achieve growth or to maintain stable profitability for survival. There is also a big change in the ways businesses operate today due to the impacts of COVID-19. Compared with traditional industries, due to the characteristics of their business context, software SMEs seem to be relatively less affected by the epidemic. But founder-entrepreneurs of Chinese high-tech software SMEs still face several challenges such as the changes in life style and working mode of customers, impact on market characteristics, the reduction of market demand, and the increasing financial pressures. There is now a need to understand these impacts and to find ways that could help facilitate the survival of different businesses and strengthen their operations. China being the first country to experience the major waves of COVID-19, many Chinese SMEs have already suffered its brunt. The Chinese government has now implemented a series of effective measures to control its potential spread and bring some form of normality to the country. Due to these proactive measures, by July 2020, most people's

lives and work routine have almost returned to normal and the economy is slowly showing good promise in the second quarter. This study explores some of the High-tech SMEs in China that have successfully withstood the impacts of COVID-19 so far. Using semi-structured interviews, this paper discusses some of the risks faced by these SMEs and the strategies used by their founder-entrepreneurs to tackle these risks. Being one of the first studies to address the risk management associated with COVID-19, this paper makes an important contribution to the literature in further building our understanding of the impact of this global pandemic.

2. Research Background

2.1 General Situation of Covid-19

In December 2019, Wuhan Municipal Health Commission first reported a type of ‘unknown’ pneumonia (Wuhan Municipal Health Commission, 2019) leading the Chinese Government to take immediate measures. This situation was promptly highlighted to the World Health Organization (WHO) (Health Emergency Office of China, 2020; World Health Organization, 2020). This pneumonia was later labelled as Corona Virus Disease 2019 (COVID-19) by WHO in February (World Health Organization, 2020). It is a contagious respiratory and vascular (blood vessel) disease (Smith, 2020) caused by a specific type of coronavirus — Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2). Infected patients often exhibit symptoms such as fever, cough, fatigue, shortness of breath or difficulty in breathing, and loss of smell and taste (Ye, Wang and Mao, 2020).

Due to its highly contagious nature, COVID-19 rapidly exploded and spread across the entire world (Han *et al.*, 2020). Figure 1 shows the overall situation of COVID-19 worldwide based on WHO (2021) data. From the latest data as of January 2021, it can be noted that despite several measures worldwide, this global pandemic is still very serious. According to the weekly report from WHO, during the week of January 3 (2020) to January 10 (2021), more than 5 million new cases and 8,5000 new deaths were reported globally. By then, the total number of COVID-19 cases worldwide had exceeded 80 million, and more than 1.9 million people had already succumbed from the disease (WHO, 2021).

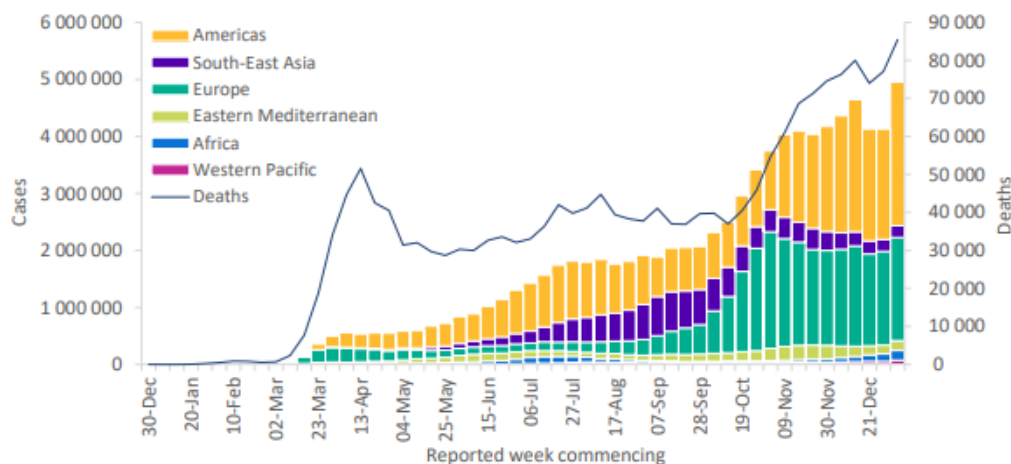


Figure 1: Number of COVID-19 cases reported weekly by WHO- 30 December 2019 – 10 January 2021(WHO, 2021)

In response to this global situation, Dr Tan Desai, the Director-General of WHO issued a warning in the media. He asked countries all over the world to take strong measures to slow down the spread of COVID-19. This included banning public gatherings, encouraging people

to work from home, temporarily closing schools, colleges and universities, requiring public to maintain adequate social distance, using face masks and increasing personal hygiene such as washing hands (World Health Organization, 2020).

China was the first country to experience the major waves of COVID-19 but the Chinese government was quick to implement a series of effective measures to control its potential spread and bring some form of normality to the country. Due to these proactive measures, by July 2020, most people's lives and work routine have almost returned to normal and the economy is slowly showing good promise in the second quarter. Figure 2 shows the first wave of COVID-19 in China. It started in January 2020 reaching its peak by February 2020 (Leung *et al.*, 2020). To control its growth, the Chinese government imposed strict lockdown across the entire country effectively controlling the route of transmission. In the meantime, the government provided all available medical resources for appropriate treatments to all affected patients (WHO, Aylward and Liang, 2020). Such timely measures resulted in successful control of this pandemic in China. While other countries are still struggling with COVID-19, China has taken a lead in almost achieving zero cases in some of the provinces and cities (Burki, 2020). Figure 3 shows the daily new cases of COVID-19 in China, from March 2020, the growth rate of COVID-19 in China has been fairly low, however, there are several medical experts and scholars who are still relatively cautious about this. Professor Li and his team (Li *et al.*, 2020) pointed that with the normalization of people's lives, the demand and frequency of travel will gradually increase, which may then lead to the spread of COVID-19. Coupled with the impact of the global pandemic, China still faces the risk of new cases due to travellers' transits. Many researchers believe that speeding up the development of a vaccine is the most fundamental and effective way to prevent and control this pandemic.

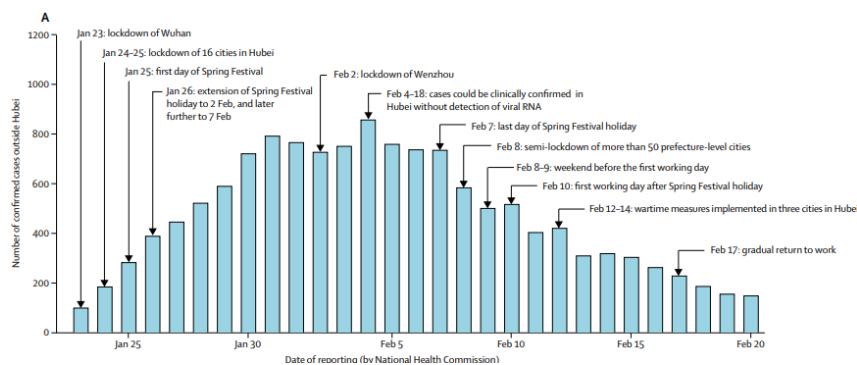


Figure 2: The first wave of COVID-19 in China (Leung *et al.*, 2020)

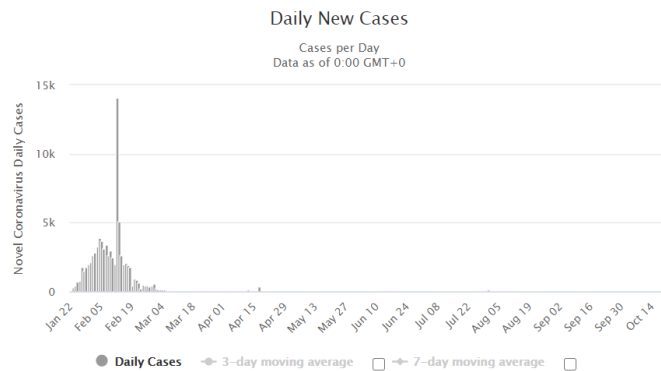


Figure 3: Daily New Cases of COVID-19 in China (Worldometer , 2020)

2.2 SMEs and Covid-19

Due to COVID-19, countries all over the world had to adopt measures such as border closure, travel restrictions and quarantine to slow down its spread. It's no doubt that these behaviours are necessary, however, they also significantly influence the development of the global economy (Nicola *et al.*, 2020). A recent report published by World Bank Group (2020) about the Global Economic Prospects describes the impact of COVID-19 on the global economic growth making reasonable predictions on its future. They pointed out that the international market has faced significant challenges this year, because of the impact of the COVID-19. The growth rate of global GDP appears negative for the first time since 1990 (A World Bank Group, 2020). In this challenging market environment, a large number of companies are either closing down or using extreme survival measures, such as laying off staff members and reducing expenditures wherever possible to decrease financial pressure. The increasing rate of unemployment is now becoming a big risk for the national economy of many countries (Chetty *et al.*, 2020).

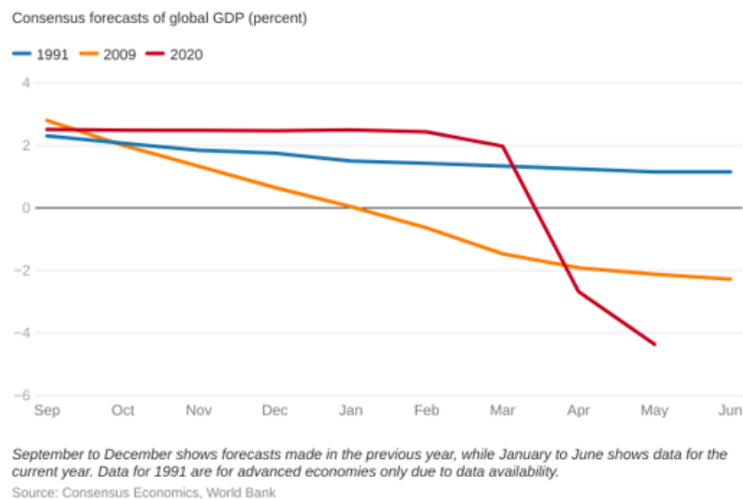


Figure 4: Global GDP growing speed (A World Bank Group, 2020)

Compared with large organizations with relatively higher risk tolerance and more resource accumulation, the impact of COVID-19 on SMEs is more serious. The International Monetary Fund estimated the impact of the COVID-19 crises on business failures among SMEs in seventeen countries based on the large representative firm-level database. Based on their research, if the government does not adopt a series of supportive measures to help SMEs' survival, the failure rate of SMEs will greatly increase by nearly 9% (Gourinchas *et al.*, 2020). Bartik *et al.* (2020) also highlighted how SMEs were struggling under COVID-19, they conducted a survey with more than 5,800 small businesses in the US. In their sample, 43% decided to temporarily close their business whereas many others chose to reduce their employee counts. Bartik *et al.* (2020) indicated that businesses on average had to cut down 40% of their employees to reduce the financial pressure. For SMEs the prospects of further expansion and development has taken a big setback.

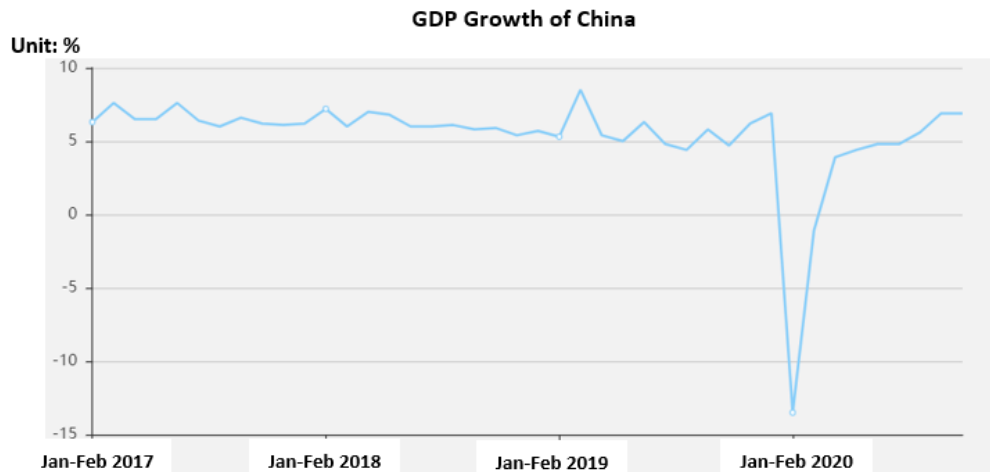


Figure 5: The GDP Growth of China (National Bureau of Statistics of China, 2020)

As the first country to face COVID-19, China has made several efforts and sacrifices in fighting this pandemic. Thanks for the effective and timely measures by the government, Chinese economy is on the verge of recovery as seen in the second and third quarters of 2020. Figure 5 shows the GDP growth in China and how it has changed from negative to positive since the second quarter. It has continued to grow in the third quarter. Consumer demand is gradually recovering, market vitality has increased, and the unemployment rate is gradually declining. Various indicators note that China's economy has begun to gradually warm-up (National Bureau of Statistics of China, 2020). For the Chinese SMEs, who are still surviving in the market, it seems that the most difficult phase might have potentially passed. However, there are economists and researchers asking Chinese SMEs to stay vigilant. Until the pandemic is effectively controlled, there are still possibilities of high risks for businesses in China. It must be noted that the occurrence of COVID-19 has brought major changes to the global market, which may bring uncertainty to the further development of Chinese SMEs, especially in certain high-tech industries (Lu *et al.*, 2020). Lu *et al.* (2020) summarized the impacts of COVID-19 of SMEs from three aspects: cash flow, supply chains and market demand. Based on their research, the outbreak of COVID-19 has forced many companies to suspend business for more than 30 days, which highly increase their financial pressures and cash flow crisis. The temporary closing of factories also threatened the production and operation of many companies. Lacking suppliers, many SMEs struggled to offer products and services to fulfil their clients' needs. Such situations led to many companies losing important clients. On the other hand, it is hard to attract new customers or co-operators in this uncertain and risky market environment. All of these impacts made survival much harder for SMEs in the first half of 2020.

For high-tech SMEs, because of their specific characteristics within the industry, they may relatively be less directly affected by the pandemic than other SMEs. Some researchers even believe that COVID-19 might potentially bring some opportunities to the software and internet market (Nicola *et al.*, 2020; Chang and Meyerhoefer, 2020; Donthu and Gustafsson, 2020). So, this study aims to explore the successful operation and management of software SMEs under COVID-19.

3. Research Methodology

This study utilizes a qualitative research approach using semi-structured interviews with founder-entrepreneurs from 9 High-tech software SMEs in China. Using a longitudinal approach, the researcher interviewed the participants in different phases of the year 2020 to

understand how they were coping under COVID-19 and their strategies towards risk management under such circumstances.

Table 1 shows the basic information about these SMEs. The cases for this study were selected according to the following criteria:

1. The main business of the company should mainly involve software design, development or operation. In other words, the company should be identified as a high-tech software company based on 'High-tech Industry (service) Classification Standard' of China (National Bureau of Statistics of China, 2018).
2. Based on the definition of SMEs in China (National Bureau of Statistics, 2018), the company should have less than 250 employees and their annual income should not exceed one billion RMB.
3. The company should have been operating in the market for over 3 years with relatively good financial and market performance. Their experience from the market competition and challenges will ensure rich data on risk management strategies to this study.

A specific interview guide was created to understand the impacts of COVID-19 and how the founder-entrepreneurs perceived the risks caused by COVID-19. This interview guide also had questions on risk strategies used under this situation and the developmental plans put forward by the founder-entrepreneurs for their SMEs.

The interviews were conducted in Chinese, following which the first step was to translate each interview recording into an English transcript. In order to avoid any potential bias that could have incurred during the translation process, the researcher commissioned another person for proofreading who was proficient in both Chinese and English and had no association with this research project. Following the translation, the researcher reviewed the interview transcripts using NVivo 12 which is a qualitative data analysis tool for thematic analysis. Each transcript was analysed on a case-by-case basis to identify key themes such as risks faced by the companies and their risk management strategies. After the thematic analysis, the 9 cases were compared in order to understand the overall picture of the management of High-tech software SMEs under COVID-19.

Table 1: The basic information of SMEs					
Case No.	Company Name	Reference code for participants	Company background	Year of establishment	Size
1	Hangzhou Shiran Network Technology Co., Ltd.	Participant 1	Online platform and application for human resources management	2015	0-49
2	Changsha Colorful Clouds Technology Co., Ltd.	Participant 2	Software and online platform for translation and weather forecast	2014	0-49
3	Hangzhou Zhupai Information Technology Co., Ltd	Participant 3	Software and online platform for capital management	2014	50-249
4	Hangzhou Feiba Network Technology Co., Ltd.	Participant 4	Online services and platform for business travel	2015	50-249
5	Zhejiang Wuliang Technology Co., Ltd.	Participant 5	Online services and platform for personal insurance	2016	50-249
6	Hangzhou Liangyichuangshe Information Technology Co., Ltd.	Participant 6	Mobile Application and online platform for Engineering cost management	2016	0-49
7	Zhejiang Muzhiji Network Technology Co., Ltd.	Participant 7	Mobile Application Designing	2016	0-49
8	Hangzhou Weihong Technology Co., Ltd.	Participant 8	Work collaborative software designing	2005	50-249
9	Hangzhou Wanjian Network Technology Co., Ltd.	Participant 9	Online platform and application for medical education	2015	0-49

4. Finding and Discussion

4.1 Impacts of Covid-19 on Chinese High-tech SMEs

For all SMEs, the COVID-19 crisis has undoubtedly created a major impact slowing down their speed of development and in some cases even threatening their survival. For instance, participant 2 mentioned that the first half of 2020 can be regarded as the darkest period since the foundation of their company. During the study, few participants showed a relatively more positive attitude and expressed that the spread of COVID-19 has further deepened Chinese people's dependence on digital and online services. This increased use of digital and online services in the market could potentially bring more opportunities for them as software SMEs.

During the interviews, all participants described the challenges and risks they encountered under the pandemic. It can be summarized under three categories:

- Market demand,
- Cash flow and financial pressure,
- Mode of operation

- **Market Demand**

One of the most frequently cited factors by the participants in this study is the decrease in market demand. The COVID-19 crisis has highly increased the uncertainty in the market making people become more conservative and cautious about the future. In such scenarios, people's desire to consume seems to have reduced. For High-tech SMEs, this kind of market environment is one of the major challenges they have ever faced. Participant 2 explained, *"I think the biggest trouble is the decrease in people's purchase and consumption intentions"*. He is the founder-entrepreneurs of Changsha Colourful Clouds Technology Co., Ltd., which runs an online platform to offer the weather forecast service. He discussed how in the first few months of 2020, the Chinese government adopted stringent closure measures requiring people to stay at home and reducing the probability of travel as much as possible. This reduction on people's travel habits had a direct impact on their business. The utilization rate of their company's products reduced over this period as the founder-entrepreneur noted, *"To be honest, that situation made me feel a lot of pressure. I don't know how to find the correct direction for my company's further growth."*

A similar situation was encountered by Participant 4 who runs a company named Hangzhou Feiba Network Technology Co., Ltd. The main aspect for this enterprise is to provide business travel services to other companies and organizations. Because of the nature of her business operation, out of all the participants in this study, her company seems to have suffered the most. She explained, *"To still survive in the market is a really big achievement for us"*. December to February is the peak period of travel on a usual year. For her company, this used to be an important stage of further development and expansion. However, COVID-19 has severely affected their usual expectations and plans for further development. *"It is conservatively estimated that at least one-third of the annual user demand disappeared because of the epidemic. In addition, we have to face numerous refund and change requests"*

Participant 4 said helplessly. So far, her company is working very hard to make up the loss they suffered this year and they are looking for better solutions that could pave ways for further development.

- **Cash Flow and Financial Pressure**

For any SME, a stable cash flow is very important for their day-to-day operation. However, due to COVID-19, the decline in market demand has led to a decline in a company's revenue thereby increasing financial pressure. The case of Participant 6 can demonstrate the impact of COVID-19 to a company financial performance. His company named Hangzhou Liangyichuangshe Information Technology Co., Ltd., mainly provide engineering cost software to construction companies. However, due to COVID-19, most of his clients couldn't work in the first few months of 2020, which greatly reduced their willingness to use and pay for the software. Participant 6 said *"In the first few months, our company's revenue was almost zero. It can be said that the company's business was completely stagnant at that time. I have to say, this kind of financial performance really increases the company operational pressure."*

Participant 9 also mentioned the challenges associated with cash flow, but compared to participant 6, he had a relatively calmer and more positive attitude. The name of his company is Hangzhou Wanjian Network Technology Co., Ltd. It runs an online platform and mobile applications which provide mainly professional technical training and internship resource integration services for medical students. It helps medical students to build a connection with the local hospital and help them to win better educational opportunities. However, during the COVID-19 crisis, many hospitals in China closed a lot of outpatient departments to concentrate all their medical resources and energy to fight the spread of the pandemic. In this emergency situation, all medical students' internships had to be suspended. For participant 9, it was no doubt a very big setback, the income declined significantly highly increasing the company's financial risks. But this founder-entrepreneur had a relaxed attitude when talking about these challenges. He explained, *"For every software SMEs, the financial problem is always a big challenge. As the entrepreneur of the company, I clearly understand this point and I think I should keep calm and be confident when my company is facing any problem"*. Compared with other industries, software companies need relatively higher initial investment and longer R&D process. In this case, having a certain amount of capital reserves is very important for survival for some of these software SMEs. In his company, participant 9 had reserved such a budget, which was meant for crisis like COVID-19 or to deal with unexpected risks and unknown situations. So, although the spread of COVID-19 highly impacted his company's income, they still managed to maintain a stable cash flow due to support from reserved budget and the company's resilience with continued operation during such scenarios.

- **Mode of operation**

During the covid-19 pandemic, the Chinese government implemented lockdown measures in the first few months of 2020. According to this regulation, most companies had to close their offices and use online working measures instead of traditional working methods (Pan, Cui and Qian, 2020). During the interviews, all the participants discussed their opinions on this new

mode of operation. Due to the characteristics of this industry, software SMEs compared with other industry sectors found it relatively easier to switch to an online working method without much impact on their business productivity. In this context, Participant 1 said *"As a software company, my employees all have a certain technical background. They all use some form of digital and online tools in their daily work"*. He is the founder-entrepreneur of Hangzhou Shiran Network Technology Co., Ltd. and the main product for his company is a human resource management software, which is dedicated to helping programmers to find better career opportunities. For his company, remote working was already an accepted and familiar route of working for a long time. However, before COVID-19, it was only regarded as a support method whereas most of the time, traditional working methods such as working from offices were still the mainstream or recommended method. But the outbreak of the pandemic highly facilitated the preference to remote working for most employees, Participant 1 noted *"To be honest, we haven't totally prepared for this change"*. For them, using online tools to complete all of their day-to-day tasks is a new attempt for their employees.

Participant 7 while talking about remote working emphasized *"I think the biggest problem with online work is the impact on the working atmosphere"*. His company is Zhejiang Muzhiji Network Technology Co., Ltd., their main business is mobile application design. From a technical perspective, their business does not necessarily require a defined workplace as most employees can work remotely and still complete their work. Under COVID-19, his employees are using laptops, and online meetings to meet regularly and discuss as a team. However, participant 7 still believes that online working is just a phased measure, it is a helpless choice under the pandemic. He feels that people's effective communication not only stems from language, but also from body expressions and face-to-face contact. In his opinion, face-to-face communication can help teams to build more trust. And only when employees trust each other, a company will be able to build its resilience and strengths to face market challenges.

4.2 Risk strategies be used under the COVID-19

In response to the impacts from the COVID-19 pandemic, Chinese high-tech SMEs have adopted a series of risk strategies to reduce any potential losses and to maintain stable operation of their organization. During the study, the following risk strategies were most commonly cited by the founder-entrepreneurs:

- Client maintenance,
- Improving competitiveness,
- Reducing costs

- **Client Maintenance**

For a lot of the SMEs, the pandemic made finding new clients much more difficult. For many, maintaining the original clients became one of the most important strategies to help keep a stable income. Participant 5 stated *"In the current situation, we will cherish the cooperative*

relationship more with our existing clients". He and his partner founded Zhejiang Wuliang Technology Co., Ltd. together, the main aspect of their company is to offer online insurance services. In the first half of 2020, their client numbers increased slowly but it was much lower than their expectations. For them, finding a suitable solution to reverse the current dilemma is a top priority. However, under current environment, opening new market or attracting new customers does not seem like a feasible strategy. In such circumstances, participant 5 explained, *"So, we decided to build deeper connections with our original clients"*. He asked his employees to make more contacts with their existing clients in order to deepen their understanding of their demands and individual requirements. They provided specific or bespoke services based on the requirements of their clients and their products and services. This strategy helped in achieving a good response and satisfaction rate from their clients. Participant 5 explained that although their client numbers declined during the COVID-19 crisis, the overall revenue was still stable due to their deeper bonding with some of their clients.

On a similar note, Participant 6 also acknowledged the importance of maintaining client relationship. Because of COVID-19, his company encountered a lot of trouble in marketing. *"We tried to contact with some potential clients online, but the result was not so good"*, he noted, *"In that situation, the only thing we can do is to maintain existing client relationships"*. For them, as a company, there weren't many choices other than to maintain and retain existing clients. This strategy may not facilitate rapid growth, but it can at least support a stable operation helping them survive until the crisis disappears. As he explained, most companies will have some loyal clients, they are the root of the company, and they can help the company stay stable during turbulent times such as this pandemic.

- **Improving Competitiveness**

For some participants, COVID-19 gave them an opportunity to discover some of the shortcomings within their company. Participant 8, who is the founder-entrepreneur of Hangzhou Weihong Technology Co., Ltd. shared his opinion, *"It is no doubt that the COVID-19's outbreak has slowed down our company's growing speed, but I still believe that as long as we can continually improve our market competitiveness, we will never fail by the changes in the external environment"*. Based on this opinion, participant 8 led his team to conduct a series of research and bring some adjustments to their company's software products during the pandemic. They moved their focus from some of their external works such as marketing to product improvement and research. Due to this effective strategy, they were able to finish a new product's design and its testing in the first season of 2020, which was a lot earlier than the initial plan they had set. *"From this aspect, the COVID-19 even brought some benefits to my company's long-term development"* he revealed.

Participant 1 had a similar opinion. As the founder-entrepreneur of a software SME, he attaches great importance to the company's R&D capabilities and believes that owning products that cannot be easily replaced is the main strategy to ensure the company's survival and success. For him, there are many strategies which can be used to improve the operational side of a company. But the most important thing for a software company is to have good

R&D capabilities. This will help in providing the most suitable services or products required by their clients. And only companies that can meet market demands on time will be able to retain customers and achieve long-term growth. So, during the COVID-19 crisis, his company has emphasized on research and software improvement. Participant 1 explained, *"In the past few months, the frequency of use of our software is much lower than before. It is an excellent opportunity to improve and upgrade the product"*. During the critical months of COVID outbreak, he encouraged his employees to undertake some online lectures and training, so as to further enhance their professional competences. He noted, *"Seizing any opportunity to improve the company's overall capabilities is the most important strategy. It can support us in facing any risks"*.

- **Reducing Cost**

Compared with large organizations, financial pressures seem to plague SMEs and hinder their development. As discussed earlier, the COVID-19 outbreak has greatly reduced the income of SMEs in the first half of 2020. For some companies without sufficient financial accumulation or reserved budget, this pandemic has been fatal in terms of their chances of survival in the market. For many, reducing cost has become a necessary measure to help sustain during the crisis.

From the analysis, two main cost-reducing methods were cited by the participants during the interview: layoffs and pay cuts. *"If we have any other choices, I would not make this decision"* Participant 4 said helplessly. In the first half of 2020, the financial performance of her company was really terrible. The travel needs of people decreased significantly because of the COVID-19 restrictions. Lot of people decided to cancel or change their original travel plans. In this case, as a business travel software company, participant 4's company hardly earned any income during that period. At the same time, they also had to deal with a large number of refunds. As the founder-entrepreneur, participant 4 clearly understand the importance of clients' trust. To maintain the trust of their clients, they had to process those refunds as quickly as possible, which further increased her company's financial gap. *"In that period, we had to cut down the internal cost as much as possible. So, we had to let some employees go and temporarily adjust salaries of others in order to reduce labour costs"* She explained.

Participant 6 also adopted similar measures in his company during COVID-19. But his perspectives are different from that of participant 4. He believed that streamlining the company's personnel structure can help in cutting some of the unnecessary internal costs. It can also bring some benefits to the company's further growth. In his opinion, COVID-19 is a big test for him and his employees. In the past few months, he realized some of the company's hidden problems, one of which was the overly complex personnel structure. In his company, some positions are repetitive or not as necessary, which might significantly influence the overall work efficiency. Participant 6 decided to minimize the expenditures that are wasted on unnecessary positions, so he decided to get rid of those positions. Participant 6 further explained *"Although from the perspective of the number of employees, the size of our company has been reduced to a certain extent. But I know that this is the right decision"*. As a

next step, he has decided to use any saved money to support new projects and to further facilitate the operation of his company in this uncertain market.

SMEs are more sensitive to market changes when compared with large organizations due to their relatively lower risk tolerances and limited resources. Therefore, any big change or crisis in the market might very likely threaten their survival (Asgary, Ozdemir and Özyürek, 2020). There is no doubt that the emergence of COVID-19 has been a major challenge for all SMEs in the world. There is now a need to understand the impacts of this pandemic on businesses and to find ways that could help facilitate their survival and strengthen their operations. For any SME, surviving this pandemic is a big feat in itself and this paper sheds some light on how some SMEs have successfully brought in changes and strategies that are effective and impactful in times of global crisis. This study focuses on case studies of 9 successful Chinese high-tech software SMEs and discusses how their founder-entrepreneurs are managing COVID related market challenges.

The analysis shows that all the SMEs in this study have faced the COVID related challenges such as declining market demand, increasing financial pressure and changing work patterns. In response to these risks, Founder-entrepreneurs have taken a series of measures. For instance, some of them have decided to increase the communication frequency with their existing clients to ensure a relatively stable income. Some changed the business model in the first half of 2020 by moving their focus from external marketing to product development in order to improve the company's competitiveness. However, to keep a stable cash flow, some of the companies had to make the difficult decision of laying off staff members. This helped in reducing organizational costs and expenditures. Some slowed down the company's pace of development in exchange for their chance of survival in this turbulent market environment.

As the Chinese government has adopted a series of strict pandemic prevention and control measures, the overall situation in China is much better now as compared to the first half of 2020. People's lives and working routines are gradually returning back to some form of normality. For SMEs, the most difficult time appears to have passed. However, the uncertainty of further outbreak of COVID-19 still lingers until there is a clear-cut answer such as a vaccine. During the interviews, most participants generally showed a positive attitude towards the further development of their company. Some of them even believed that the outbreak of COVID-19 has made more people adapt an 'Internet lifestyle', which can potentially provide some good opportunity for the software industry. This is one of the first papers to discuss risk management strategies of Chinese High-tech SMEs during the turbulent times of pandemic. The findings from this study will help other businesses to understand how to manage COVID-19 related risks and facilitate their development. This paper is based on an ongoing PhD project and the researcher in follow-up studies will explore the connections between a company's successful risk management to the personal characteristics of their founder-entrepreneurs. The researcher will also analyse to what extent are these SMEs able to exploit any new opportunities following the aftermath of the pandemic? How will COVID-19 change a founder-entrepreneurs' risk attitude and risk management strategies?

5. Conclusion

SMEs are more sensitive to market changes when compared with large organizations due to their relatively lower risk tolerances and limited resources. Therefore, any big change or crisis in the market might very likely threaten their survival (Asgary, Ozdemir and Özyürek, 2020). There is no doubt that the emergence of COVID-19 has been a major challenge for all SMEs in the world. There is now a need to understand the impacts of this pandemic on businesses and to find ways that could help facilitate their survival and strengthen their operations. For any SME, surviving this pandemic is a big feat in itself and this paper sheds some light on how some SMEs have successfully brought in changes and strategies that are effective and impactful in times of global crisis. This study focuses on case studies of 9 successful Chinese high-tech software SMEs and discusses how their founder-entrepreneurs are managing COVID related market challenges.

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E – LEARNING AND INNOVATIVE EDUCATION

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Abstract

This paper is based on the analysis of real factual problems faced by higher education institutions, but also with the individual perception of students as the main participants and users of E - learning. Situation in the internal environment is conditioned with possibilities. Infrastructure possibilities, but also knowledge, lecturer skills and interest of students who are not in direct interpersonal relationship, without social contact, exponential speed of adoption of platforms that can even represent a barrier. A survey research was carried out on the role of new technology and transformation which radically changed the methods of knowledge acquisition and affected the results of the acquired knowledge, where student satisfaction is one of the main indicators. The modern age in which we find ourselves has improved the removal of barriers and boundaries between people and knowledge with the development of e-learning. Such a system could certainly become one of the most effective methods for acquiring knowledge. The paper will analyze the advantages and disadvantages of rapid transformation in the digital world, as well as the paradigm shift of knowledge acquisition in higher education institutions. Feedback from students is necessary, as they are co-creators in the teaching process. The paper proves the primary research of student populations at higher education institutions in the Republic of Croatia, the results of which are the feedback of a more systematic approach and more sophisticated adjustment of the system with a given parameter, but also the possibility of using digital tools in a selective way. Using a random selection method and a google form, a survey was conducted on a sample of 220 students. The research was carried out among undergraduate and graduate students on 27 different study programs in the Republic of Croatia.

Keywords: *E- learning, digital tools, students, advantages /disadvantages, education*

1. Introduction

Education must adapt to economic and technological developments which increasingly requires an e-learning process. Furthermore, skills and competencies should be in symbiosis with each other, where the lowest costs and the greatest flexibility of business will be achieved by following the latest trends and overcoming challenges. The most important trends linked to learning aspect includes: large numbers of people changing the field of work and learning during their lifetime. Technology affects the brain and changes it with various tools that shapes our thinking and technology that supports the learning process. (Siemens, G. 2004.) With the influence of information and communication technology, we encounter new tools that bring us ICT, which play an important role in the educational process. (Hutinski and Aurer, 2009.) E-learning is becoming a trend in modern teaching. Increased use of ICT and the application of new pedagogical methods are just some of the characteristics of today's

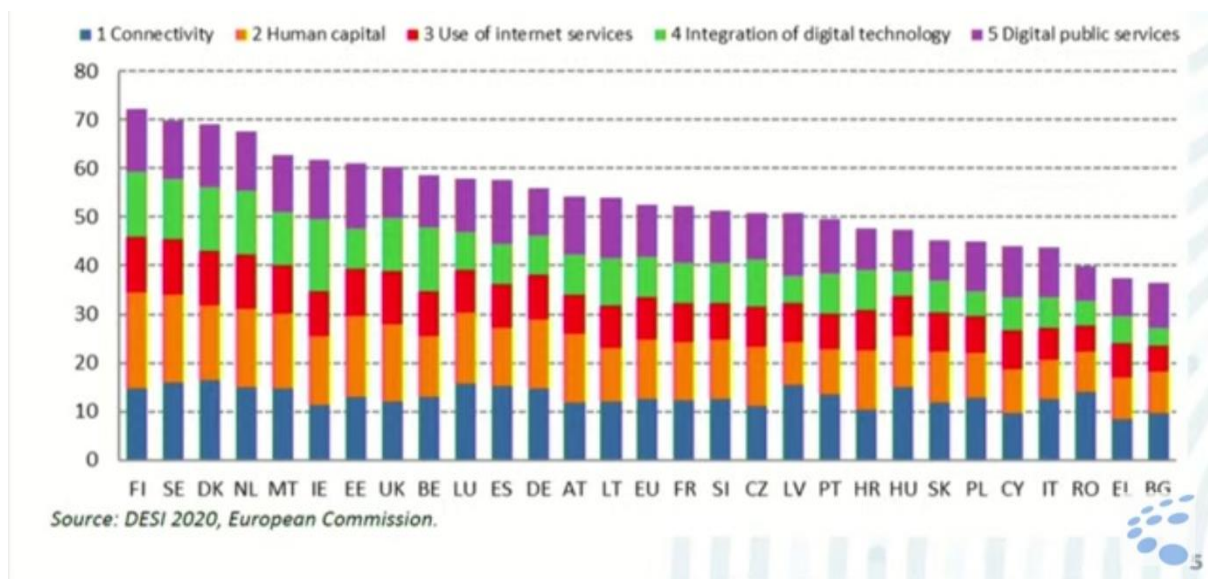
teaching methods. Modern methods of education, which imply e-learning programs as one of the results of the use of ICT in education, allow students to acquire knowledge from a remote location with or without a mentor. The most striking features of e-learning are sharing experiences and solutions to problems with other participants in e-learning, and online testing. (Mileusnić Škrtić, M., Horvatinčić, K., Pesarović, A., 2017.). This paper is based on the analysis of the advantages and disadvantages of e-learning in higher education institutions. The application and quality of information and communication technology in teaching processes at universities throughout Croatia due to the Covid-19 pandemic are analyzed. Given the many changes that have occurred, it is important to ensure continuity in the quality of teaching processes, i.e. to raise the quality to the appropriate level of study programs, to improve teaching processes, i.e. to raise the quality level of study programs, improve teaching processes and enable students and teachers to easily navigate the entire distance learning process. Teaching design is the art and science of creating a teaching environment and materials that will help the student accomplish certain tasks. It is based on theoretical and practical research in the field of cognition, educational psychology and problem creation. (Siemens, G., 2002.)

Covid-19 in a very short time developed into an epidemic and spread around the world. It appeared in Croatia at the end of February 2020 and caused numerous changes in the way everyday life functions. The most affected were service markets in transferring knowledge - education; or those that communicate services and experiences such as tourism.

2. Literature review

COVID-19 has resulted in the closure of schools around the world. Globally, over 1.2 billion children are leaving the classroom. As a result, education has changed dramatically, with the rise of e-learning, with teaching curricula being conducted remotely and on digital platforms. Thus, research suggests that online learning has been shown to increase information retention and consuming less time, however is accompanied by a number of disadvantages. Although countries are at varying percentages in the rate of COVID-19 infection, there are currently more than 1.2 billion children in 186 countries affected by school closures due to the pandemic. Learning continues and the consideration of a new paradigm emerging in the education system post-pandemic which questions the implication of such a shift on the global education market. (Tonković, A., Pongračić, L., Vrsalović, P.)

The Commission compares the digital performance of EU countries with 17 non-EU countries. The International DESI (I-DESI) evaluates the performance of both the individual EU countries and the EU as a whole in comparison to Australia, Brazil, Canada, Chile, China, Iceland, Israel, Japan, South Korea, Mexico, New Zealand, Norway, Russia, Serbia, Switzerland, Turkey and the United States. The top four EU countries (Finland, Sweden, the Netherlands and Denmark) are among the global leaders. They are just behind the US and have higher scores than Korea and Japan. At the same time, the comparison shows that the EU's average in digital performance is lower than the aforementioned three countries. [23.]



¹ https://ec.europa.eu/commission/presscorner/detail/en/qanda_20_1022

Figure 1. Digital economy & society indeks, 2020

The term e-learning was first used in 1999 at the Computer Based Training (CBT) seminar, but the idea of e-learning was conceived before. E-learning is thought to have evolved from distance learning, which was applied in correspondence schools in the 19th century. E-learning dates back at least to 1984, when computer courses appeared on floppy disks and later on CDs. From the beginning to the end of the 90's, the World Wide Web developed as a platform for mass communication, so most research related to e-learning began to focus on it. First, educational materials began to be distributed online to reduce printing and transmission costs, and the advent of Web 2.0 enabled the creation of virtual learning environments in which students and teachers could communicate. .(Mihaljević, J.)

There are different definitions of e-learning. In the professional literature, e-learning is defined in two groups: 1. technical definitions that emphasize technology. Such a definition would be: E-learning is any form of learning, teaching or education that is supported by the use of computer technologies, especially computer networks based on Internet technologies. (Aničić, O., Barlovac, B. 2010.) One of the most famous definitions of e-learning in higher education in the UK came from Turvey (2009): "E-learning is flexible learning as well as distance learning, and we can see it as the application of ICT to provide communication and support between individuals and groups, all in order to provide better support to students and better management of employee learning, e-learning should and can quickly, targeted and flexibly, at relatively low cost, provide knowledge workers with the necessary knowledge and develop their skills and competencies. (Ćukušić, M., Jadrić, M.,2012.)

An inevitable development is presented by the introduction of new technologies in the educational sector (Koustourakis and Panagiotakopoulos 2008). Supporting Time and Space Convergences , Digital tools support an efficient informatization, appropriate architecture

¹https://ec.europa.eu/commission/presscorner/detail/en/qanda_20_1022

considering the requests and possibilities to be understood from side of specific target users, pupils, professor, professionals. We are witnessing a new phenomenon, so-called app capitalism that introduce new digital tools that though digitalization but rather digital transformation of previous form of the techniques that change radically architectural changes components ,platforms or algorithms for changed transcriptions that share values and cocreate new measure of values and perceptions that transform our lives. For example towards efficencies, the augmented reality as an application of new technologies is inextricably linked to the constructivist, learning approach in schools, allowing learners to form roles and develop skills that they find useful in everyday life to enhance learning in real environment(Lave and Wenger, 1991).

E learning can be divided according to the extent to which the technologist i represented in the educational process. It can be combined with traditional learning so that one part of the teaching is conducted online and part in the traditional way. Interactivity is a major advantage of e-learning because it allows the student to interact with the content, with the teacher and with other students. (Mihaljević, J.) They bring several benefits of distance learning, which they state according to Cheong 2002. "E-learning removes geographical restrictions and participants (and teachers) of e-learning courses do not have to travel to the classroom to physically attend lectures. -learning can be studied in the comfort of their own homes or anywhere else where an internet connection is available.E-learning removes time constraints-compared to traditional (face-to-face) learning, e-learning allows students and teachers to organize their own schedule , i.e. learning and teaching time as long as the assumption is valid that the Internet is available 24 hours a day, seven days a week.The e-learning environment provides easy access to all available references on the Internet.Online discussions allow connecting students of different cultures and nationalities. (Ćukušić, M., Jadrić, M.,2012.) Digital materials can easily be published and maintained on the Internet and, modified and adapted to the individual student.

Considering the mentioned advantages, it is very important to point out the existing disadvantages. In order to be able to use this way of acquiring knowledge, the student must have some basics of computer literacy because otherwise he will not be able to cope with the whole process. As the student is alienated from others and does not meet physically with other colleagues, a lack of motivation can occur. In this case, a high degree of discipline and activity of the participants is required. (Bekavac, I., 2016.) When it comes to location, some spaces are not equipped enough to perform e-learning; Eg. there is no internet access, there are not enough computers. Looking at the time, if students / students are given the opportunity to freely plan their learning time, they can do something else instead of learning. The availability of sources is a problem because there is too much data on the Internet and it is difficult to find a reliable source. There is also a danger of unauthorized downloading of teaching materials and the possibility that the software is insufficient to run multimedia materials such as educational games. (Mihaljević, J.)

By the participant of the learning process itself can produce poor results in the acquisition of educational content. Feelings of isolation in an environment without human contact also present potential problems (Hunjak T., Begičević N., 2006). Due to the differences in cultures

and characters of the individual, we can distinguish several types and styles of learning. According to Smedescu if we consider the classical way of teaching and the importance of learning experiences, there are three types of e-learning: classic web education live with digital tools, pure e-learning (video conferencing, Skype, etc.) and hybrid e-learning; part of the teaching is done in physical form, and part through e-learning tools). (Smedescu D. 2014.) Also e-learning can be divided. The formal learning experience is achieved through online education and training that empowers the user with formal knowledge and specific skills that can be used on the exact problem and immediately after training. Informal learning experience implies the availability of content on policies and procedures in the organization, reports and presentations on previous experiences and lessons learned (Gaikwad A. and Randhir S.V., 2016.) Several learning styles can be characterized and the two most prominent are: approaches to learning based on McCarthy's personality typology: analytical and common sense type that processes data with the help of abstraction, ie focus on the essential, while common sense type focuses on the practical application of knowledge, then a dynamic type that processes data concretely and a creative type who likes to learn by listening and exchanging experiences. approaches to learning by type of motivation: focus on mastering the task as a result Students try to leave a better picture of themselves, so they learn to evaluate and focus on avoiding failure, or hiding ignorance that leads to procrastination and pessimism. (Čudina-Obradović, M., Brajković, S. 2009)

There are a number of learning management systems on the market that have developed in parallel with the growing popularity of e-learning. free open source systems and paid learning and service management systems [5.]

Open source systems are software programs over whose code anyone can access, learn from it, modify it or add new functionalities. It allows complete control over the user who adapts it to their needs and thus meets the specifics of use in your organization. [18.] Merlin is an e-learning system available for examples of e-learning projects for university courses, based on the Moodle open source system, which has been refined and adapted to the needs of users. The Merlin e-learning environment consists of the Merlin e-learning system, a webinar system and an e-portfolio system connected to the ISVU (Higher Education Information System) system, which is continuously developed and adapted to the needs of its users. [19.] Therefore, e-learning could prove to be the mean through which universities offer more flexible learning programs, while companies provide the former with real case studies, business games and instruments for a better understanding of business concepts and practices among students. (Pamfilije, R., Bumbac, R., Orindaru, A., 2013.)

The question is what is the future of the traditional educational process based on direct contact between teachers and students (face to face) or students? It turned out that this approach to education has shortcomings and some advantages over e-learning, so today it is generally held that the best is the so-called blended learning model (blended learning) which, among other things, takes advantage of both approaches. The mixed model of education is appropriate for the introduction of e-learning in colleges because it allows instead of a jumpy applied gradual transition from one state to another so that in the traditional system certain elements of the new are gradually introduced. This way, the quality of education can be

continuously increased while reducing the risk of failure as a result of inexperience in applying new methods. (Sinkovi,G.,Kalueri, A.)

In 2020, the pace of digital transformation began to accelerate due to the COVID-19 pandemic. As organizations and societies as a whole have had to use technology in almost every aspect of business, and even in our private lives, we have seen several - obvious - areas that have become more “digital” than before. During the first wave of the pandemic, we touched on some aspects of acceleration associated with COVID. Nicolas Windpassinger, author of IoT’s book “Digitize or Die” and Global Channel Program & Digital Platforms VP at Schneider Electric, wrote an article with his views on the “new normal” - with an emphasis on channel partners. [20.]

The introduction of e-learning in the process of education requires a great deal of commitment of the teaching staff, which ultimately must realize a large part of these tasks in parallel with the conduct of regular teaching and research activities. Namely, given the large scope of work, deadlines and the speed of changes in technology and science, the preparation of materials for e-learning will certainly become a permanent job. If we look long term, the performance of educational activities themselves using e-learning tools will be performed with a relatively smaller involvement of teaching staff. The Croatian government has adopted some significant strategic documents that encourage this process, but the work is not complete. It will be necessary to build appropriate infrastructure and institutional conditions at the level of the state itself that will enable and encourage the introduction of e-learning in educational processes. Appropriate financial resources should also be provided for the construction of the necessary infrastructure and appropriate professional services should be established at the level of universities and faculties to support the teaching staff in the preparation of appropriate didactic materials. It is necessary to further educate the teaching staff in order to understand the possibilities of e-learning and learn to use the tools for the preparation of the mentioned materials. The application of standards in e-learning should ensure the possibility of association and a common level of quality of teaching materials and establish a productive, competitive and stimulating environment for authors. Acceptance, development and application of standards can also lead to faster and cheaper production of e-learning materials and enable students to more easily find and use content that interests them. [16.]

3. Methodology

In order to examine the meaning, application and quality of information and communication technology in teaching processes at universities throughout Croatia due to the Covid-19 pandemic, as well as its impact on the entire education system, a primary study was conducted. In the implementation of the original empirical research by the survey method, the results were obtained in response to questions related to the importance of the introduction of modern information and communication technology (ICT) in education, the advantages and disadvantages of learning were noticed. Then the results gave us answers to the questions of whether the education system followed the evolution of young people or whether there were certain gaps between previous generations and generation "Z". The questions were formulated

in such a way as to meet the criteria of the highest possible concentration of quality answers according to the unit of time determined as the time frame of the research. Specially simplified to make the survey clearer to respondents, but while maintaining the required level of complexity that allows for an unambiguous understanding of the issue.

The characteristics of the analyzed sample will be shown below. An anonymous online survey questionnaire with closed and open-ended questions was used as a data collection tool. The survey was created using the GoogleForms application, and distributed via social networks. Given that the target population consists of students throughout Croatia, the distribution of the survey was conducted through Facebook groups of various fields of study and communication platforms WhatsApp and Instagram.

The questionnaire was divided into two groups of questions. The first group includes questions about demographic data - gender, age group, college attended, place of residence. The second group includes questions of the most relevant queries related to students' attitudes about the needs of lifelong learning and e-learning. The questions examined attitudes about the personal benefits of continuity of learning, attitudes about organizational culture, the quality of the curriculum, the impact of empathy for mastering and monitoring curriculum content due to the Covid pandemic19, the usefulness of using e-learning tools and the ease of distance learning. Encounter when participating in classes, and questions about the possibility of violating ethical postulates due to the transition to online teaching. The random sample consisted of 500 students from various study programs throughout Croatia. 220 feedback surveys from different Universities were collected, which makes an acceptable response rate for this type of research. Given the diverse views presented but also the consensus of views on key issues, we can conclude that this sample was representative and the results can be considered satisfactory for making relevant conclusions.

4.Results

The research included 220 people. The following are the results of this research as well as the interpretation of these results divided into two groups. The first group of questions relates to demographic data and study data.

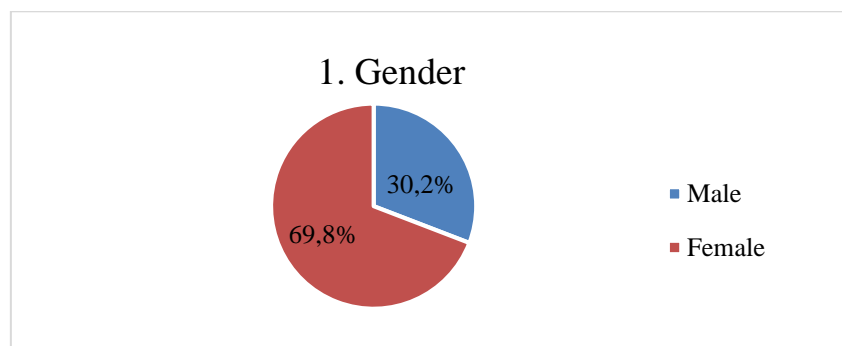


Figure 2. Respondents by gender

Source: Author's calculation

The first question referred to the gender of the respondents and to the 220 answers collected. 154 or 69.8% of respondents belong to the female sex, while 66 or 30.2% of the respondents belong to the male sex.

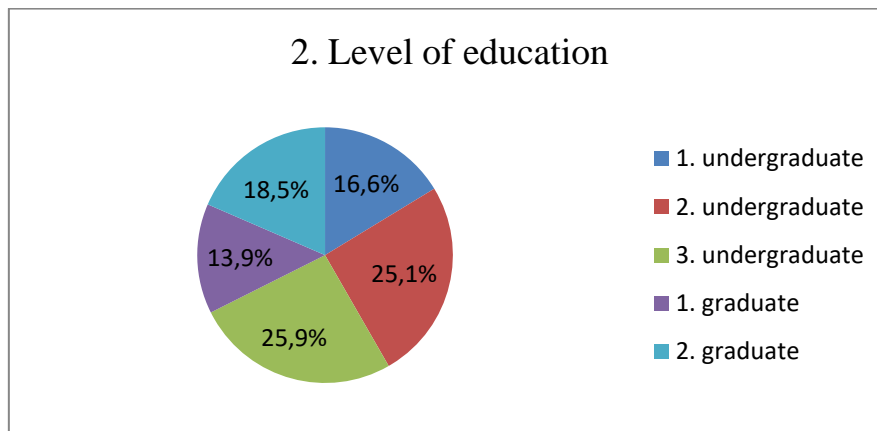


Figure 3. Respondents by level of education

Source: Author's calculation

The second issue related to the level of education in undergraduate and graduate studies. Out of the total number of respondents, 36 of them, ie 16.6%, attend the first year, 55 or 25.1% the second and 57, ie 25.9% of the respondents the third year of undergraduate study. In the first year of graduate study, there are 31 or 13.9% of respondents, while 41 or 18.5% of them attend the second year of graduate study.

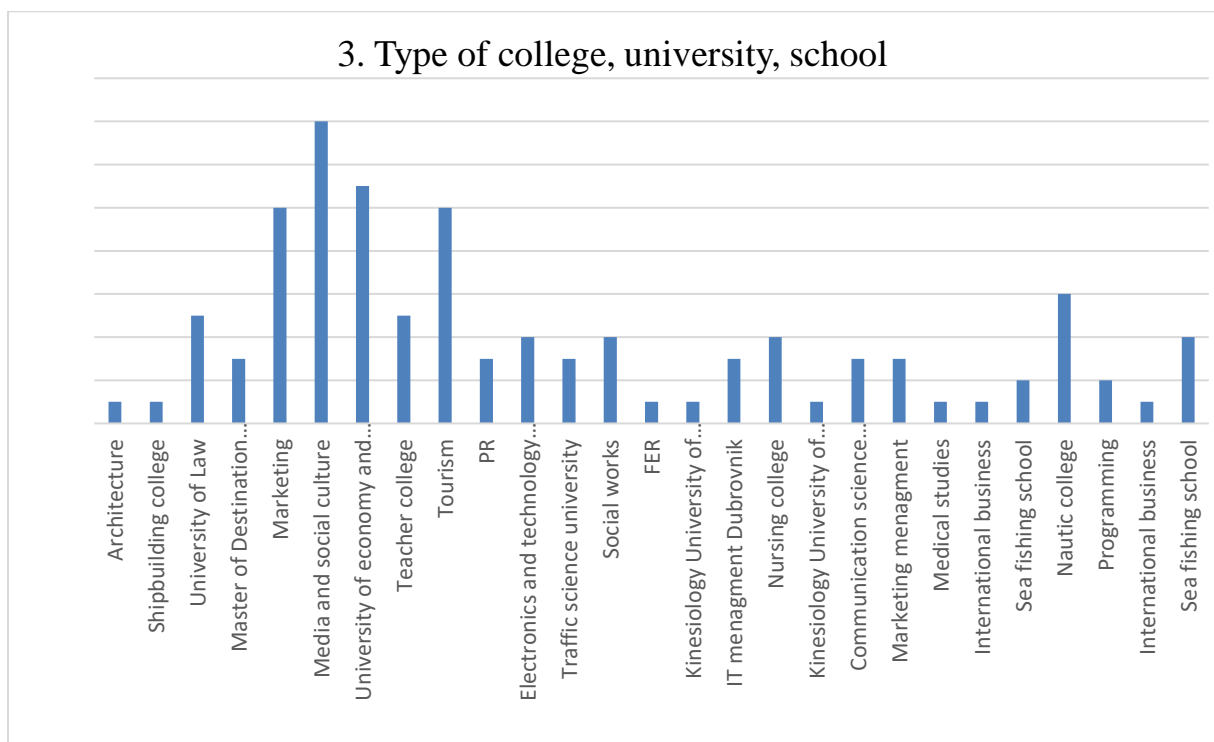


Figure 4. Respondents by type of study

Source: Author's calculation

The third question was focused on examining the student population according to the faculty they attend. The most significant share of answers is made up of students of Media and Culture of Society. They are followed by students of the Faculty of Economics with study fields of Business Economics. Other respondents are students of the Faculty of Architecture, Faculty of Teacher Education, Electrical Engineering, Social Work, Kinesiology, Marketing Management, Marine Fisheries, Psychology, Nursing, Sociology, Communication, Computer Science and the Faculty of Transport Sciences. Also, 187 or 85% of respondents have the status of full-time, while 33 or 15% of them have the status of part-time student.

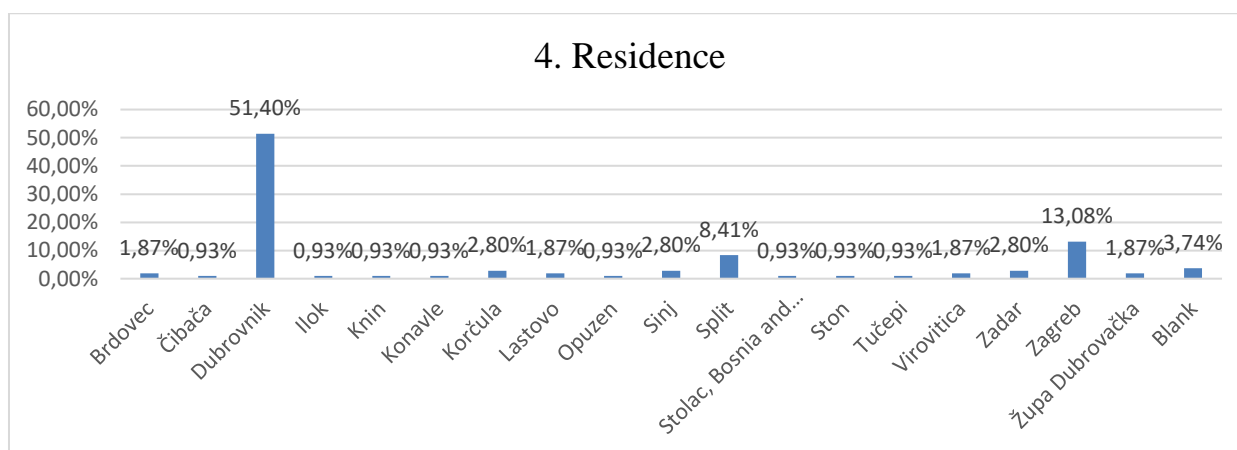


Figure 5. Respondents by place of residence

Source: Author's calculation

The fourth question referred to the place of residence of the respondents themselves. Of the total number of respondents, most of them come from Dubrovnik, 113 of them, or 51.40%, followed by Zagreb, with 30 or 13.08% and Split with 18 and 8.41%, respectively. Other residences include Brdovec, Čibača, Ilok, Knin, Konavle, Korčula, Lastovo, Opuzen, Sinj, Stolac, Ston, Tučepi, Virovitica, Zadar and Županja.

In this group of questions, answers were collected on the pleasures of distance learning, tools used in the educational process, engagement in the educational process due to the transition to e - learning, satisfaction in teaching processes, difficulties in attending e - learning. The necessity of more frequent access to consultative classes and additional inquiries from students was also examined. The possibility of conducting Online classes in the future was also examined, and whether it could really become a legitimate option for attending and conducting regular classes. We examined whether lock down affects students' lack of empathy, and lack of social skills and quality of communication. We were also interested in whether the home institution where the respondents study adequately ensured the monitoring of online classes.

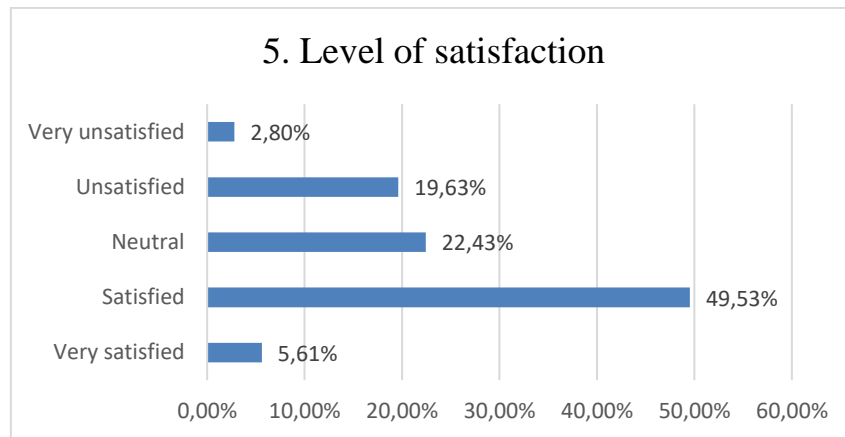


Figure 6. Degree of satisfaction with distance learning

Source: Author's calculation

The majority of respondents, as many as 109, or 49.53%, are satisfied with the general conditions and implementation of distance learning. Twice fewer respondents, 43 and 19.63% of them, expressed general dissatisfaction.

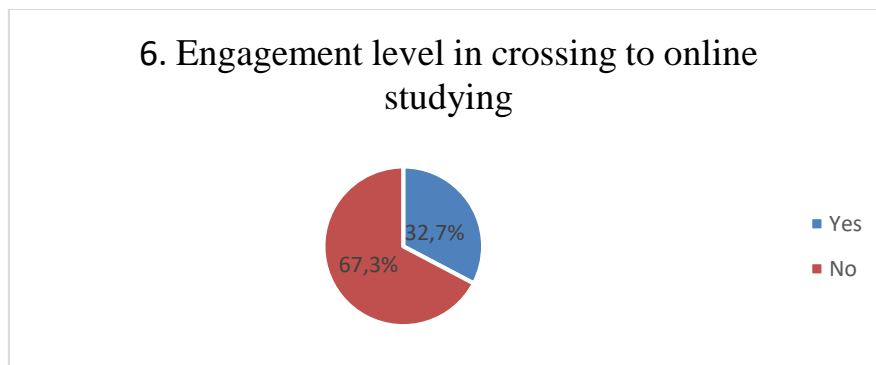


Figure 7. Degree of engagement in the educational process due to the transition to online teaching

Source: Author's calculation

The sixth question referred to the examination of attitudes about the degree of engagement in the educational process when attending distance learning. Of the total number of respondents, 148 and 67.3%, respectively, believe that their engagement has not changed significantly, while 72 or 32.7% of students believe that their engagement is higher due to greater availability of digital tools used in teaching processes.

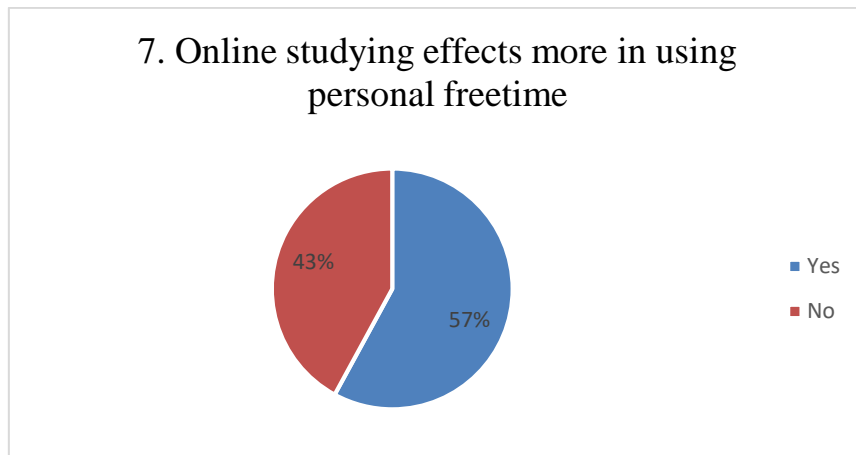


Figure 8. The impact of online teaching on more efficient use of time

Source: Author's calculation

Given the new situation with the COVID pandemic, 125 respondents, or 57% of them, believe that Online teaching has influenced the more efficient use of their time. 95 respondents have a different opinion, ie 43% of them, where the transition to Online teaching only opened new opportunities for attending classes, but not a more efficient use of time.

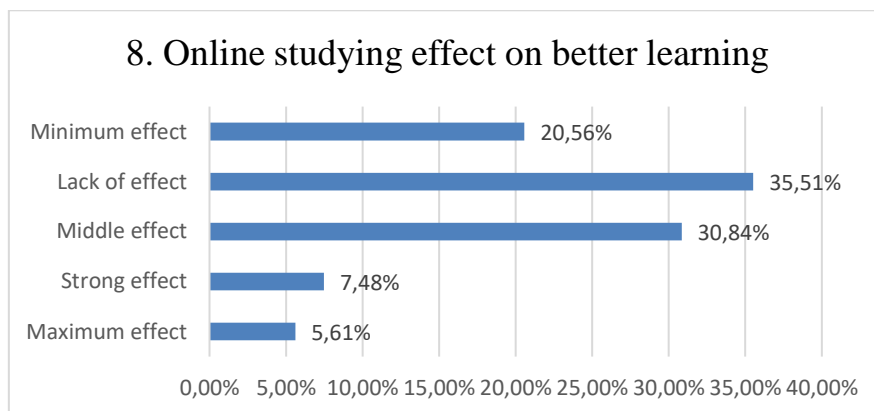


Figure 9. The impact of online teaching on the ease of acquiring knowledge

Source: Author's calculation

One of the most important items for every student during their studies is certainly the degree of ease of adoption of the intended material. When we talk about the symbiosis between the degree of satisfaction and the ease of acquiring knowledge, Online teaching does not take precedence over the traditional approach. Seventy-eight, ie 35.51% of respondents are of the opinion that Online teaching has a minimal effect on the ease of acquiring knowledge, while 68 and 30.84% of them say that it had positive effects.

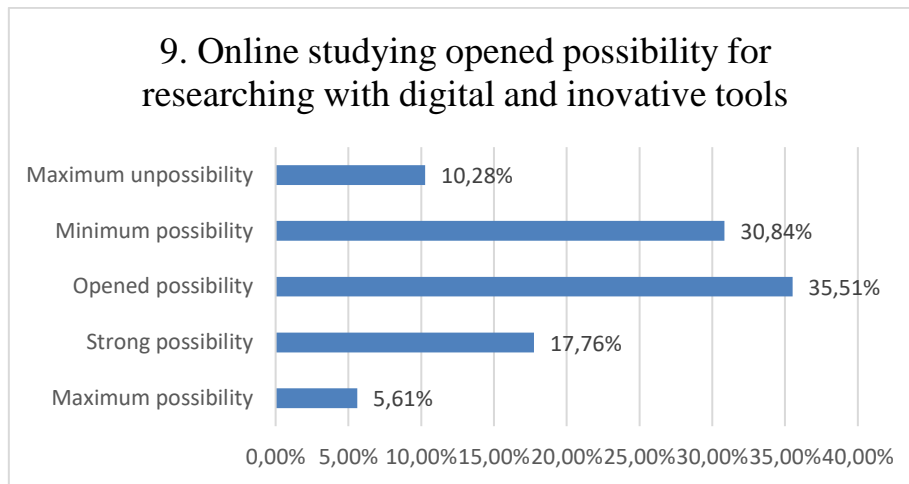


Figure 10. Degree of possibility of new research spaces with the support of digital tools

Source: Author's calculation

We are witnessing a rapid transformation in the digital world, as well as various changes in the acquisition of knowledge in higher education institutions. Therefore, 78 and 35.51% of respondents believe that online teaching has opened up the possibility of new spaces for research supported by digitalization and knowledge in the use of innovative tools, and even 38, and 17.16% believe that this possibility is quite large. Sixty-seven of them, or 30.84%, believe that there is no significant change compared to the traditional way of conducting teaching processes.

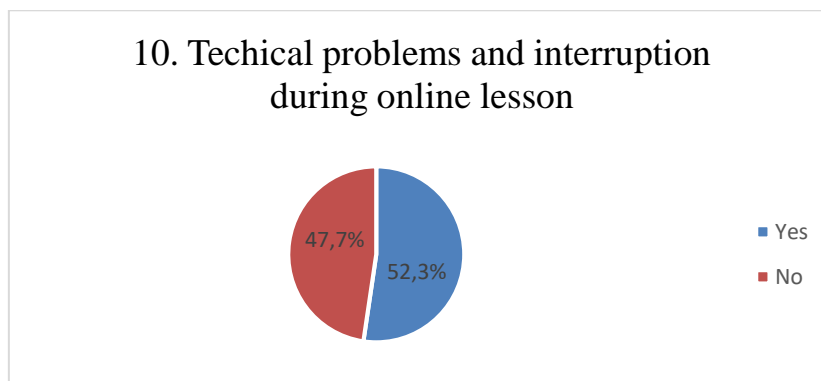


Figure 11. Degree of representation of technical difficulties during online teaching

Source: Author's calculation

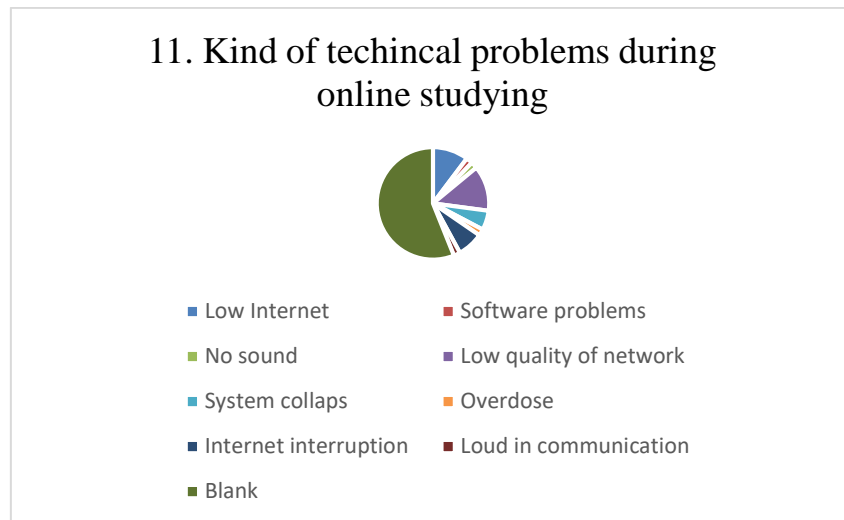


Figure 12. Types of technical problems during online teaching

Source: Author’s calculation

The tenth and eleventh questions referred to the examination of possible technological difficulties in the transition to online teaching, and specifically what difficulties were in question. 115 respondents, ie 52.3% of them had technical difficulties, while 105 or 47.7% had no difficulties. The difficulty most encountered by the students was certainly the sound problem. It is followed by poor connection quality, camera problem, overall system crash, communication noise.

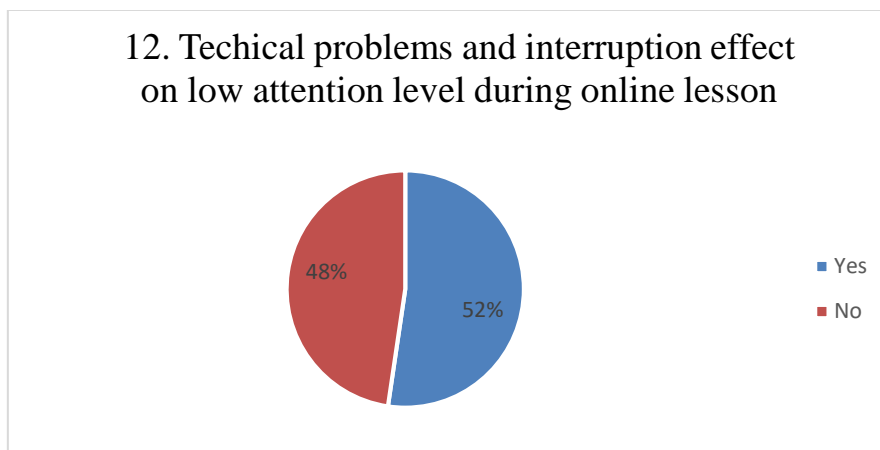


Figure 13. Influence of technical barriers on the decline of motivation and interest during online teaching

Source: Author’s calculation

Graph 12 shows us that due to technical difficulties in 114 respondents, ie 52% of them, there was a decline in interest and demotivation in mastering the prescribed material. One hundred and six respondents, ie 48% of them, still attend classes with equal interest.

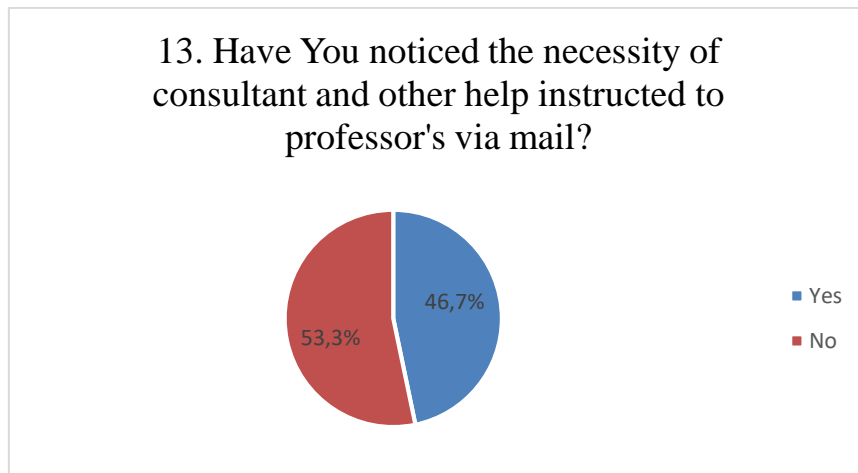


Figure 14. Necessity of more frequent use of consultative teaching

Source: Author's calculation

Considering the degree of frequency of reaching for consultative classes via e-mail, which were sent to professors of teaching courses, 103 respondents, ie 46.7%, said that they needed more frequent consultations, while 117 and 53.3%, respectively. there was no need for additional inquiries after class.

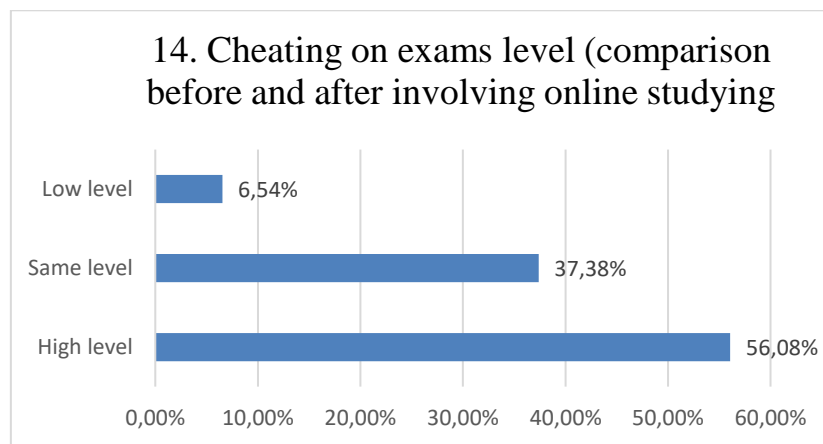


Figure 15. Level of possibility of violating ethical postulates (cheating on exams)

Source: Author's calculation

Imagine future young professionals who will base their thinking decisions on “copy-paste” information and will not think critically. Even in the classroom, it is difficult to conduct evaluations due to the possibilities offered by modern technologies, and students use them successfully for the purpose of copying. Carrying out the evaluation of what has been learned is extremely difficult in this situation due to the unavailability of good digital tools with which it could be implemented. The majority of respondents, 124 or 56.08%, agree that the level of possibility of cheating on exams is significantly higher compared to the traditional approach to conducting exams. Eighty-two of them, ie 37.38% of students believe that this level has

remained the same, while only 14 of them (6.54%) believe that there is a very small possibility of violating ethical postulates.

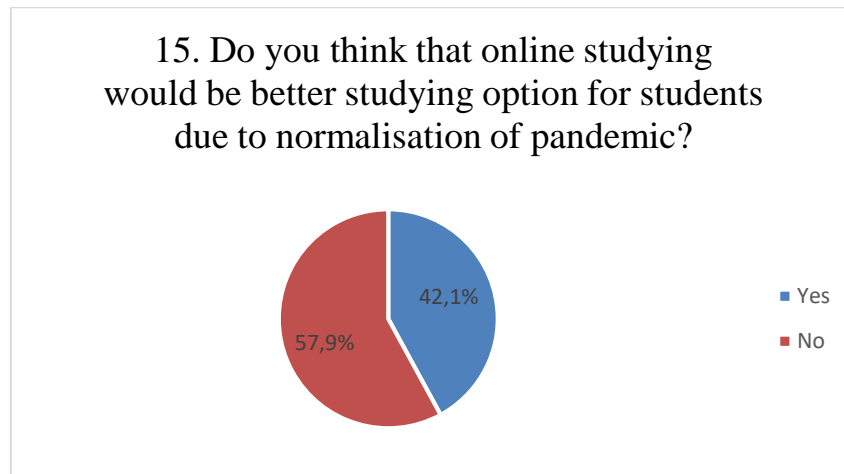


Figure 16. Students' attitudes about Online teaching as a legitimate option

Source: Author's calculation

In the last few months, learning processes have completely shifted to distance learning through various e-learning tools due to the pandemic of a new virus that has affected not only Croatia, but the whole world. Therefore, it is precisely students who are the ideal population for examining attitudes about whether this new form of learning is simpler than classical teaching in physical classrooms. Here, however, disagreement prevailed. One hundred and twenty-seven of them, or 57.9%, believe that Online teaching should not be offered as a legitimate option in the future. A slightly smaller share of respondents, 93 and 42.1% of them, believe that online teaching should be offered to students after the end of the global pandemic.

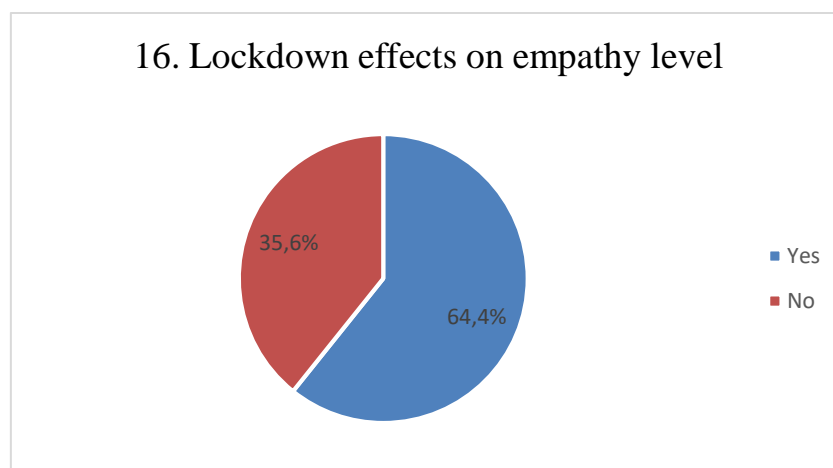


Figure 17. Influence of "lockdown" on students' lack of empathy

Source: Author's calculation

In the sixteenth question, we wanted to examine students' attitudes about a possible lack of empathy due to the emerging situation with the global pandemic. By using various digital

systems and tools in teaching processes without prior adequate education of teaching staff and students, and due to various technical barriers, 142 or 64.4% of respondents believe that "lockdown" affects the lack of empathy in teaching processes. A smaller share of respondents, 78 or 35.6%, believe that the level of empathy is the same.

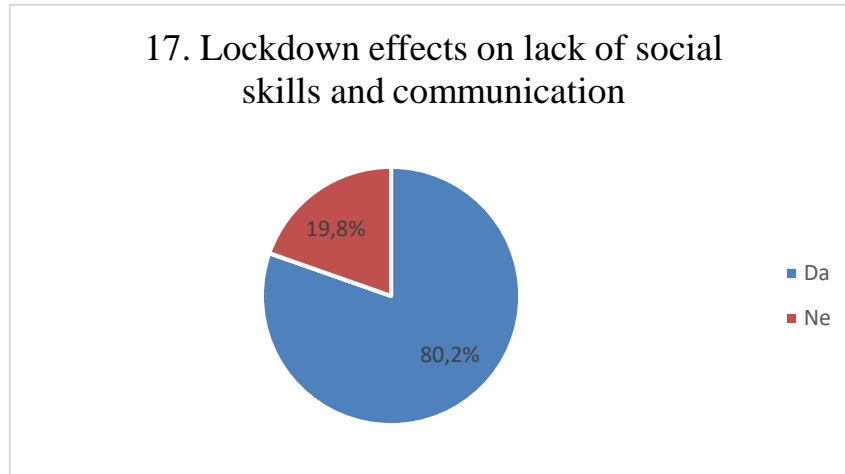


Figure 18. The impact of lockdown on the quality of communication and lack of social skills

Source: Author's calculation

Observing the attitudes of respondents to the previous question, to conclude that insufficient unexplored digital tools and inadequate training with their handling, significantly affected the quality of communication between students and professors, and thus the lack of social skills. Eighty percent, 176 students believe that these statements are true, while 44 and 19.8%, respectively, do not agree with these statements.

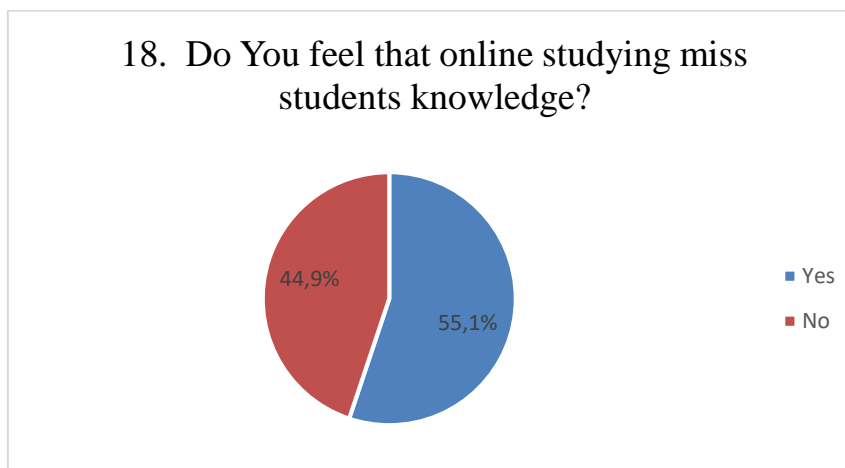


Figure 19. Attitudes about students' deprivation due to the transition to online teaching

Source: Author's calculation

Some learning processes may require a physical presence to make information exchange easier and faster, and for some students this is not an important item in class attendance. A

larger share of students, 121 of them, ie 55.1%, are considered to have missed attending online classes, while 99 and 44.9% of them do not share such an opinion.

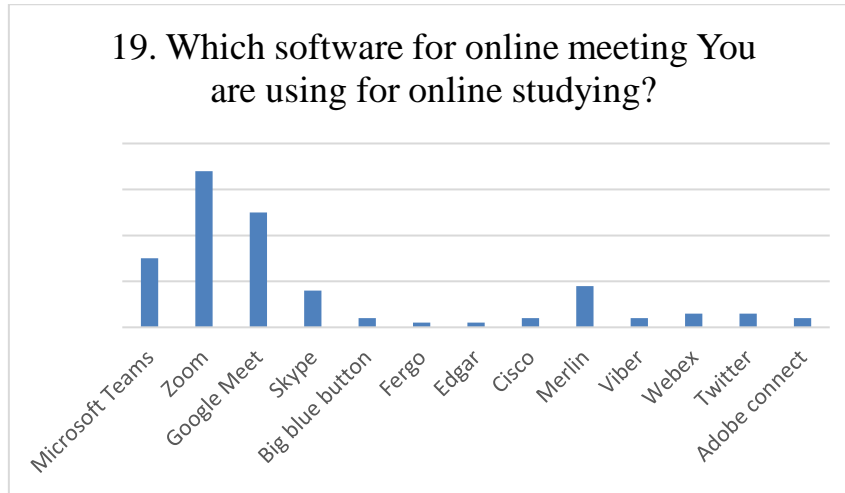


Figure 20. Online platforms for monitoring teaching

Source: Author's calculation

In their formal education, most students have already encountered a range of e-learning tools. The digital tools most commonly used in distance learning are Zoom, Google Meet, Microsoft Teams, followed by Skype, Merlin, Twitter and others shown in the chart.

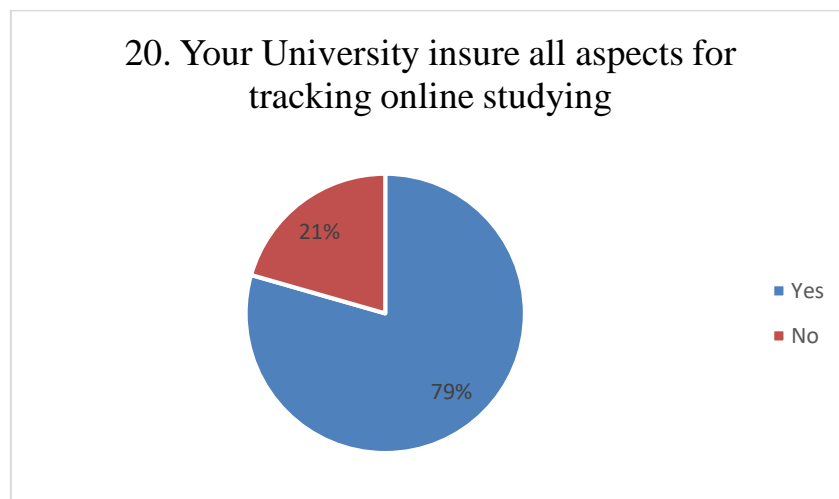


Figure 21. Attitudes of respondents about the adequate way of organizing online classes

Source: Author's calculation

In this question, we wanted to examine whether the home institutions adequately ensured the monitoring and attendance of online classes. Considering lockdown and conducting online teaching as the only legitimate option in these times, a larger share of respondents, 174 and

79%, respectively, believe that the quality in the teaching process is satisfactory. Fourty six of them, i.e. 21% of respondents have the opposite opinion.

5. Conclusion

The survey, conducted on a sample of 220 respondents from all over Croatia, led to worrying results. According to all analyzed parameters, a negative trend is observed. In addition to the subjective dissatisfaction of the surveyed students, there are also objectively observed problems and obstacles to online teaching, which, in addition to resulting in student dissatisfaction, also raise issues in the learning outcomes. Although this paper covers different fields of study, no comparative study has been conducted between individual scientific branches, ie within specific areas of education. It would certainly be interesting and scientifically relevant to see how online teaching has affected the learning outcomes of individual professions.

Apart from the objectively observed problems caused by online teaching, one should not neglect the observed subjective emotional elements. There are a lot of resigned and discouraged students among the respondents. It was investigated that Lock down greatly affects the lack of empathy, as well as the lack of social skills and the quality of communication among the respondents. The level of cheating on exams is extremely high, which is certainly a devastating indicator of the degree of interest and follow-up of classes. Unfortunately, we do not have relevant data on the level of cheating in regulatory teaching so that we can compare the difference in the violation of ethical postulates. The majority of respondents, 56.07%, agree that the level of possibility of cheating on exams is significantly higher compared to the regulatory conduct of exams. It is a devastating indicator that tells us what is happening due to a lack of interaction and a sense of empathy in students.

One of the main advantages of the online learning model, which students state in this research, is the more efficient use of their time. As many as 57% of them claim that their time is better used and organized compared to attending regulatory classes. Since the research dealt exclusively with current indicators, there remains room for in-depth analysis of complex parameters, in order to obtain insights at different stages. Although the general conclusion after this research is not particularly affirmed in favor of online learning. Nevertheless this research can serve as a guide to what a particular university should pay attention to, how a distance learning strategy must be planned.

Also, the question itself arises; What is the future of the traditional educational process based on direct contact between teachers and students? It has been shown that the traditional approach to education has disadvantages but also great advantages over e-learning, so we can subjectively conclude that the so-called blended learning model is currently the best. Society as a whole is on the verge of full digitalization. In this sense, our universities must not lag behind. There is a lot of room for improvement. It is necessary to further educate the teaching staff in order to better understand the possibilities of e-learning and learn to use the tools for the preparation of the mentioned material. The dramatic and intensive experience we have gained by moving contact learning to online teaching can certainly serve as a “pilot project”

for a new age in which all participants in the educational process will; both teaching staff and students develop their competencies in line with technological progress.

Accordingly, the application meets the standards in e-learning should ensure the possibility of association and a common level of quality of teaching materials, to establish a productive, competitive and stimulating environment for authors. Also, the acceptance, development and application of standards can lead to faster and cheaper development of e-learning materials to enable students easily find and use content that is of relevance to them.

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AGILE GOVERNANCE CAPABILITY

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Abstract

Agile philosophy has recently started to attract the attention of corporate governance scholars, who have mostly used it under the umbrella term of agile governance. Agile governance is an emerging phenomenon particularly occurring in the VUCA business environment, which demands agile boards and agile governance systems, in order to support organizational responsiveness, adaptability and flexibility. Despite this fact, the concept itself still lacks a clear definition, theoretical framework and discussion on its boundary conditions. To address these issues, by building on the literature of dynamic capabilities and corporate governance, in this paper we develop the concept of agile governance capability. By agile governance capability we refer to the capacity of boards to renew corporate governance practices, in particular decision making processes, with an aim to balance, as well as further strengthen business needs for agility, dynamics, and stability. In order to discuss their implications, we sculpt a conceptual model that includes ostensive and performative aspects of this new capability breed, along with a set of propositions related to their potential, power, effectiveness and practical applications.

Keywords: *agile governance capability, dynamic capabilities, agile boards, agile corporate governance practice, corporate effectiveness*

1. Introduction

The agile philosophy is an emerging phenomenon that is embedding in the corporate governance discipline, changing it rapidly. Though agile governance may sounds like an oxymoron, volatile, uncertain, complex, and ambiguous (acr. VUCA) business reality requires agile boards and agile governance system to support firm's responsiveness, adaptability and flexibility. The concept of agile governance is in its nascent phase, still lacking its theoretical framework, definition and boundaries. From an evolutionary perspective, agility is likely to be a critical determinant of a firm's long-run success and survival, yet the relation between governance and agility is largely unexplored in the literature (Lehn, 2019). On the other hand, the business calls for renewed corporate governance practice that will promote, not impede corporate agility, and enhance corporate speed, performance and competitiveness. Besides, capability building on all levels, organizational and personal, is becoming an imperative in the new normality, composed of blended mode of operating, real and virtual at the same time, aiming at hyper-capable and skillful organizations.

Hence, the main challenge of this work is to reconcile that drawback by shaping an agile governance capability. A new breed of capability is aimed at acquiring effectiveness of both the board and corporate governance practice. Moreover, the new capability is integrated

within the conceptual dynamic capabilities and corporate governance system framework, performing as the balancing corporate governance mechanism for business agility, dynamics and stability. The ostensive and performative aspects of the agile governance capability are designed, explained, and proposed, as well as their potential, power and use value, in order to reveal its effectiveness. In the context of this research, the agile philosophy is positioned as one potential means for improving corporate and board agility. In the subsequent sections, we explicate the agility phenomena and its emerging impact on business and governance. Then we briefly introduce the broader foundation of corporate governance and dynamic capabilities disciplines, as well as ongoing changes in those fields. We wrap the new insights of theoretical and practical origin into conceptual model, and bring certification to the proposed framework and the functionality of the new capability breed on both the firm's governance and board level. The paper concludes with the propositions and findings and highlights some potentially useful governance implications. We deem that our study contributes to the emerging challenges in corporate governance for building effective and resilient boards.

2. Agile organization

The agile organization is dawning as the new dominant organizational paradigm. Rather than organization as machine, the agile organization is a living organism (Aghina *et al.*, 2017). Today's agile organizations enjoy the best of both worlds: the benefits of size and scale typically realized in large organizations, as well as the benefits of speed and nimbleness often associated with small entrepreneurial start-ups (De Smet, 2018). Under the umbrella term *The agile revolution*, McKinsey agile tribe spelled out the nature of ongoing changes - both the overall paradigm shift, as well as five critical shifts that "traditional" organizations must encourage in the mindsets of their people. The five trademarks of agile organizations include a network of teams within a people-centered culture that operates in rapid learning and fast decision cycles, which are enabled by technology, and a common purpose that co-creates value for all stakeholders.

The agile way of working is provoking a revolution in business and a fundamentally different way of running organizations (Denning, 2018), while the pandemic COVID-19 has accelerated the transition into the age of the Fourth industrial revolution. Even before the coming of COVID-19, business and technological forces already required organizations to manage change and make decisions more quickly than ever before. The pandemic has vastly intensified those needs. Never have companies of all sizes felt so much pressure to make their business models fit changing requirements. And the need for speed won't be temporary - digitization, globalization, automation, analytics, and the other forces of change will go on accelerating, too. To survive and thrive companies are reaping significant benefits by embracing agility at scale (Aghina *et al.*, 2020), which in turn puts pressure on leadership and governance priorities. To ensure that the adoption of emerging digital technologies, data and analytics unlocks opportunities for performance growth, while serving customer changed behaviour, both managing and governance mode need to adopt agile philosophy.

Agile, meaning to move quickly and easily (Oxford University Press, 2019) is a phenomenon that has evolved over decades to improve production and development processes. The agile philosophy is an approach underpinned by a common set of four values and twelve principles derived from the numerous methods and ways of working that emphasise people and communication, collaboration, response to change and facilitation of adaptability (Agilemanifesto.org, 2001 a,b). Born in the software industry, the agile philosophy quickly moved beyond it, laying the foundation for a revolutionary approach to project management and product development. In agile organisations, self-organising cross-functional teams experiment, learn and adapt by rapid iterations, in lockstep with evolving customer needs.

In its metaphorical usages, agility is applied at both group and individual levels. It can thus be a collective or personal description. At the collective level, it typically refers to a company, or a discrete part of a company, with respect to its mode of operation (Gillies, 2011). In recent years it has become a highly prevalent concept in corporate discourse, and ever more so in relation to the seemingly continuous disruption and VUCA environment. Although some suggest that this drew on the notion of flexibility in economic discourse, agility seems to be distinguished from flexibility in relation to this idea of unpredictability, deep uncertainty or “unknown unknowns” (Teece *et al.*, 2016:18). While flexibility is a prerequisite for agility, the agile company is one that has the capacity not simply to cope with known factors but is one that can thrive in an environment of continuous and unanticipated change (Gillies, 2011).

Enterprise agility reimagines an organization as a collection of high-performing teams, each with a clear purpose and the skills it needs (Aghina *et al.*, 2020). The agile company is robust, resilient, responsive, flexible, innovative, and adaptable, this being most starkly demonstrated by ‘edge’ organizations, ones where power for informed decision-making and competent action is not retained at the centre but pushed to the ‘edges’, the points where they interact with their environment and their market (Alberts and Hayes, 2003). Examples of the new way of running organizations are apparent everywhere. It’s not just the five biggest firms by market capitalization: Amazon, Apple, Facebook, Google and Microsoft (Dennig, 2018), but also firms like Airbnb, Netflix, Spotify, Tesla, Uber, Rimac, Infobip and many others.

Organizations going agile must reimage themselves around customer journeys, products, and other axes of value creation. This implies changes across the operating model – strategy, structure, process, people, and technology (Aghina *et al.*, 2020). The operating mode becomes even more complex, when teams work remotely, since communication takes place less frequently than it does when people work together in the same physical space. And inevitably, agile transformation calls for new capabilities and skills (Garcia *et al.*, 2020; de Oliveira Luna *et al.*, 2014) to envision, develop, and support future operating model, as well as to possibly sense disrupting changes to come, and seize risks timely.

2.1. Dynamic capabilities and organizational agility

Teece *et al.* (2016) explored agility at a more fundamental level and related it more specifically to dynamic capabilities. They concluded that strong dynamic capabilities are

essential when firms face deep uncertainty, which they frequently do in interdependent economies experiencing rapid technological change and financial disruption. Teece *et al.* (2016: 21-22) refer to *agility* as the capacity of an organization to efficiently and effectively redeploy/redirect its resources to value creating and value protecting (and capturing) higher-yield activities as internal and external circumstances warrant. In addition to managing, agile organizations must manage supply-side uncertainty and adjust strategy as necessary and desirable. Those authors deem that organizational agility as a stand-alone concept is limited in terms of the managerial guidance it provides, since the role of managers is implicit. Moreover, they warn that the agility is not a one-size-fits-all solution, which is costly to develop and maintain and sometimes even more costly if it is nonexistent. Costs vary according to the structures and systems in place. Issues arise as to how it is best achieved. However, when there is a deep uncertainty, agility is likely to be a valuable organizational attribute. So, understanding agility requires an overall framework.

Teece *et al.* (2016) offered the dynamic capabilities framework for this purpose. Dynamic capabilities (Teece 2007; Teece *et al.*, 1997) stand for the capacity of intended and purposeful transformation, as well as the development of the firm's resources and capabilities. Dynamic capabilities can be thought of as falling into three primary clusters: (1) identification, development, co-development, and assessment of technological opportunities (and threats) in relationship to customer needs (the "sensing" of unknown futures); (2) mobilization of resources to address needs and opportunities and capture value from doing so ("seizing"); and (3) continued renewal ("transforming" or "shifting"). Engagement is continuous or semi-continuous (but not necessarily sequential). Sensing, seizing, and transforming are essential if the firm is to sustain itself in the longer term as customers, competitors, and technologies change. A firm's dynamic capabilities govern how it integrates, builds, and reconfigures internal and external competences to address changing business environments. This class of capabilities is underpinned by organizational and managerial competences for "reading" the environment and developing business models that address new threats and opportunities. Dynamic capabilities thus define the firm's capacity to innovate, adapt to change, and create change that is favorable to customers and unfavorable to competitors. They deem that the strong dynamic capabilities are essential for fostering the organizational agility necessary to address deep uncertainty, such as that generated by innovation and the associated dynamic competition (Teece *et al.*, 2016).

We assume that considering agility within dynamic capabilities framework might be of help for board members to make higher-quality and timely decisions, sensing and reading the environment cues proactively and more accurately, assess properly regular risk or deep uncertainty in an environment, and consequently better calibrate the required level of organizational agility, deliver it cost-effectively, and relate it to strategy.

2.2. Agile governance, corporate governance, and corporate agility

According to Weforum¹, demands for agile governance have never been greater, amid a pandemic, an ongoing crisis of multilateralism, and the persistent weakness of many national governance systems. Its application is perhaps needed most in fast-changing, impactful areas like technology, health, sustainability, and economic development. Although Dennig (2018:3) highlights that "...Agile management thinking that spreads to every part and every kind of organization, including their competitors, requires from corporate leaders to take steps and ensure they get and keep a good seat at the Agile table", the relation between governance and agility seems to remain largely unexplored in the corporate governance literature so far.

De Oliveira Luna *et al.* (2015) have developed a conceptual framework of the agile governance theory, encompassing its constructs, laws of interaction, boundaries and system states. The theory is aimed at providing a better understanding of the nature of agile governance. By mapping of its constructs, mediators, moderators and disturbing factors, in order to help organizations reach better results, the authors have made important conceptual development foundation for further research in the phenomena (see also de Oliveira Luna *et al.*, 2014 for review). Moreover, Weforum communicate that agile governance means more than just coordinating effective, efficient, and reliable public and private institutions to effectively manage problems - the term implies a forward-looking approach that seeks to anticipate problems before they materialize. They state that the main dimensions of agile governance are: managing uncertainty, managing technology's impact, making multilateralism more effective, governing communication chaos, governing for the environment, multi-stakeholder collaboration and the importance of values in governing.

Corporate governance in effect, defines how decision rights are allocated among various stakeholders of the firm, while corporate system and boards, by governing mode and performance, affect the firm's posture, behaviour and consequently, its performance. The most common approaches to the corporate governance topic were from the perspective of agency theory (Jensen and Meckling, 1976), stakeholder theory (Freeman, 1994), and stewardship theory (Davis *et al.*, 1997). Despite of agency theory's longevity and still salient assumptions, the stakeholder and the stewardship theories of corporate governance offer a more comprehensive approach to contemporary acceptable mode of governing the corporation, since in a existing business reality, the firm is seen as a nexus of relationships and contracts. Such an understanding highlights the business interconnectedness with and embeddedness into surrounding and global ecosystem (Tipurić and Tomšić, 2015).

Research adopting a behavioral perspective on corporate governance (Westphal and Zajac, 2013) that examines general board behavior, has provided important insights into the social processes that underlie board-management relationships and the practices boards use to strategize. Klarner *et al.* (2020) advanced the behavioral theory of corporate governance by introducing and providing an in-depth insights into the concept of board behavioral diversity, that comprise different types of board involvement. By showing that board involvement in innovation is a process during which different directors focus sequentially on different

¹ World Economic Forum

contents and interact with distinct organizational members at varied levels, their study helps pave the way for a new research stream on board behavioral diversity in the context of strategic actions, enhancing our understanding of corporate governance.

Taking an evolutionary perspective to corporate governance, where the agility is likely to be a critical determinant and predictor of a firm's performance, long-run success and survival, Lehn (2019, 2018) discusses the potential role that governance plays in promoting or impeding corporate agility, and highlights corporate agility as a specific dimension of governance. He defines corporate agility as the speed with which firms adapt to changes in their environments.

In sum, the disrupting changes in technology, consumer preferences and behaviour during the past decade, and especially during pandemic, have likely increased the value of corporate agility for firms in a wide range of industries. Agility requirements are context sensitive (Teece *et al.*, 2016). In stable markets, for example, it may be profitable to optimize basic operations and achieve efficiency at the expense of agility because the cost of protecting against possible future disruption may be too lame to justify sacrificing current profits. The value of agility is likely to be greater for companies facing rapidly changing technologies, than it is for firms operating in more stable environments. Likewise, the value of agility is likely to change over time as the business environment changes. So, in line with Lehn (2019), assuming that corporate agility is valuable, especially during periods of rapid changes in the business environment, the real challenge is to determine what dimensions of governance and board behaviors are likely to promote or hinder agility.

2.3. Agile board

The board work assumes three roles: (1) control role, (2) strategic role and (3) service or resource provision role. While the service or resource provision role is primarily concerned with maintaining the formal and informal relationships with firm's stakeholders, the strategic role implies leading, support and sometimes engaging in realizing the firm's mission and its goals. The control role implies monitoring and supervising the company's operations, current as well as preventive, i.e. the monitoring of business decisions and company's plans (Tipurić and Mešin, 2013; Tomšić, 2013). In practice, the board of directors creates a framework for executive action, guiding the CEO and other managers who run the business on a daily basis. The board appoints senior executives, defines their pay and evaluates their performance. It approves business strategy and major investments, as well as oversees risk management and compliance. It also keeps stakeholders informed about significant developments (Zagieva and Shekshnia, 2018).

On the other hand, the board is not a team of full-time members, and focuses on a limited number of important decisions and strives for effectiveness, and is to ensure harmony. In an era of constant change, stakeholders are poorly served by boards that provide "wait and see" approach. Therefore, boards must reduce uncertainty for stakeholders by making sure that the company has a crystal clear vision for its future and actionable plan to achieve it. Certainly, the vision and the plan will evolve, but the board must have the courage and wisdom to be

proactive instead of reactive (Zagieva and Shekshnia, 2018). So, when introducing the agile mode in board behaviour, we are facing a paradox, that we have named here a board balancing paradox (hereandafter BBP). There's no doubt that the traditional governance practices are no longer a viable option for today's firms, operating in a reality where speed and decentralization of decision making strategy should be considered as a barrier to disruption, and a prerequisite for effectiveness or survival. The drift towards agility has brought the need for changes in board governing mode: a more engaged, proactive and effective board behavior is needed. Consequently, a development of new capabilities, able to provide and maintain corporate fitness in a fast-changing business reality is required. That opens the opportunity for the agile philosophy principles and values to possibly be of use in the transformation of corporate boards' behaviour to become (more) agile.

3. Conceptualization

According to Dailey and Koblenz (2018), agility is the capability that board leadership is pursuing as a foundation for governance fitness and value creation. Agile boards should be more capable of changing the rules of the game ahead of their competitors and bring "first mover" advantages to their companies and shareholders. An agile board's role is increasingly one of anticipation and building capability for the future. Companies' CEOs have the critical role in navigating the company through board agility towards a strategic direction.

Though agility is not in the core nature of board behaviour and performance, agile values could be aligned with the board duties, and consequently, respected. The prerequisite for this revolution in board behaviour is a mindset shift, and a pragmatic and proactive attitude towards board level requirements, along common consensus what agile meaning represents in a corporate governance context. Zagieva and Shekshnia (2018) argue that some agile principles can be counterproductive, and even risky in the boardroom, while others can help and enhance directors' effectiveness, so we introduce the board dynamic capabilities framework (Tipurić *et al.*, 2014) as a basis to possibly solve BBP, and build on the board dynamic capabilities functionality (hereandafter BDC), so as to sculpt a new breed of governance capability that we have labeled: agile governance capability (hereandafter AGC).

Our conceptualization is in line with de Oliveira Luna *et al.* (2014) insights that agility at the business level demands capabilities, such as flexibility, responsiveness and adaptability, which should be applied in combination with governance capabilities, such as strategic alignment ability, steering skills and dexterity to perform control; in order to achieve effective and responsive sense of coordination across multiple business units. Under this context, information, communication and communication technologies are the link between the decision-making ability and the competence to put into practice these decisions concretely. We also build on Luna *et al.* (2015) standpoint that governance could be understood as a cluster of steering capabilities, and on Aghina *et al.* (2017) insights that an agile organization is guided by a powerful common purpose to co-create value for all stakeholders.

In this study, we are adopting the agility definition proposed originally by Kruchten (in de Oliveira Luna *et al.*, 2014), and followed by de Oliveira Luna *et al.* (2014:122) as: "*the ability*

of an organization to react to changes in its environment faster than the rate of these changes”.

3.1. Board dynamic capability

Tipurić *et al.* (2014) defined board dynamic capability “as the board’s capacity to purposefully create, extend, or modify corporate resource base to address the changing ecosystem. Board dynamic capability is composed of sensing, seizing and transforming capacity by which the board: (1) monitors and directs company’s operations; (2) controls, evaluates and enhances managerial performance; and (3) eases the external information, resources and networks access and inflow, thus contributing to the corporate performance and fitness (Tipurić *et al.*, 2014:24).

To extend dynamic capabilities perspective from the strategic to governance framework, they stated that the board dynamic capability scope is to deal “with the corporate level change, i.e. it engages corporate governing processes and tangible and intangible assets that shape corporate resource base. The complexity of mentioned activities implies internal organizational perspective as well as external, and related capabilities calibrating. Therefore, following Ambrosini *et al.* (2009) suggestion that there are three levels of DC: incremental, renewing, and regenerative, the board dynamic capability refers to the regenerative DC level. Incremental and renewing capabilities utilize and leverage the current resource base, but regenerative dynamic capabilities evaluate and adapt the overall portfolio” (Tipurić *et al.*, 2014:23-24).

As furtherly explained in Tipurić *et al.* (2014), dynamic capabilities are processes that impact upon resources, and proposed that the board governance control, direction and provisioning processes lie in the heart of board dynamic capability, where directing and provisioning processes are predominantly knowledge based and relational in nature. Resource base, upon board dynamic capability, includes: (1) management team and (2) corporation strategic and behavioral positions, paths and processes. Thus, BDC theoretically and pragmatically operates as meta-managerial dynamic capability, aimed at empowering and regulating corporate, as well as managerial performance. By mastering dynamic capabilities, board could improve its control and directing aspects of decision-making in a timely manner, and in line with long-term oriented corporate goals, as well as calibrate the level of the risk-taking, in order to seize opportunities and deter threats.

The corporation’s strategic and behavioral postures are the board’s duty, inherent to its directing role, and are emerging as the output of board strategic decision-making, risk taking and stakeholder principals’ goals and expectations alignment. Hence, fundamental board roles: control, directing and provisioning, taken from the capability perspective, require farsighted and calibrating abilities, i.e. its dynamic capacity. To be able to act timely in the VUCA environment, the board needs to become more proactive and elevate its governance capacity towards a more agile level.

3.2. Agile governance capability

De Oliveira Luna *et al.* (2015:9) defined agile capabilities as "the ability to acquire, develop, apply and evolve competencies related to principles, values and practices, from agile and lean philosophy on organizational context", governance capabilities as "the ability to acquire, develop, apply and evolve competencies related to the way as an organizational context is conducted, administered or controlled, including the relationships between the distinct parties involved and the aims for which a society is governed", and agile governance as: "the ability to deliver value faster, better, and cheaper to the core business" (de Oliveira Luna *et al.*, 2014:135).

With respect to de Oliveira Luna *et al.* (2015, 2014) definitions of constructs, and based on Tipurić *et al.* (2014) definition of BDC, we propose the definition of the agile governance capability. By agile governance capability we refer to the capacity of boards to renew corporate governance practices, in particular decision making processes, with an aim to balance, as well as further strengthen business needs for agility, dynamics, and stability. In more detail explanation, an agile governance capability could be understand as the board's capacity to purposefully balance with the creation, extension, or transformation of the corporate resource base, by faster and effective desicion-making and proactive governing. Moreover, agile governance capability aimed at building up strategic resilience, and provides the board with the opportunity to improve decision-making that includes rapid learning cycles too, by intensifying the communication with stakeholder, sustained by the use of technology.

By proactive governing we understand acting to prevent threats by using sensing and seizing capacity to make timely decision. We consider control, direction and provisioning processes, their functioning and underlying capabilities interplay, as the focal constituencies of corporate governance system flexibility. Along with board member's capabilities and commitment, we hold those processes the most impacting to the board's performance, which consequently, mediate and moderate corporate performance.

According to Kerstetter (2018) reactive governance means acting to address an issue or resolve a problem before it becomes a crisis. Proactive governance means acting to avoid ever having problems in the first place. The difference between the two often comes down to when a board is made aware of the magnitude of a risk, the probability of its occurrence, and the best course of action to pursue when trying to evade it. The mayor benefits of proactive governance are: (1) successfully evading risks, (2) seizing on untapped opportunities, and (3) avoiding the consequences of reactive governance. Proactive governance can best be achieved by streamlining the collection, curation, and interpretation of market and competitive intelligence. Figure1. depicts the conceptual ACG framework.

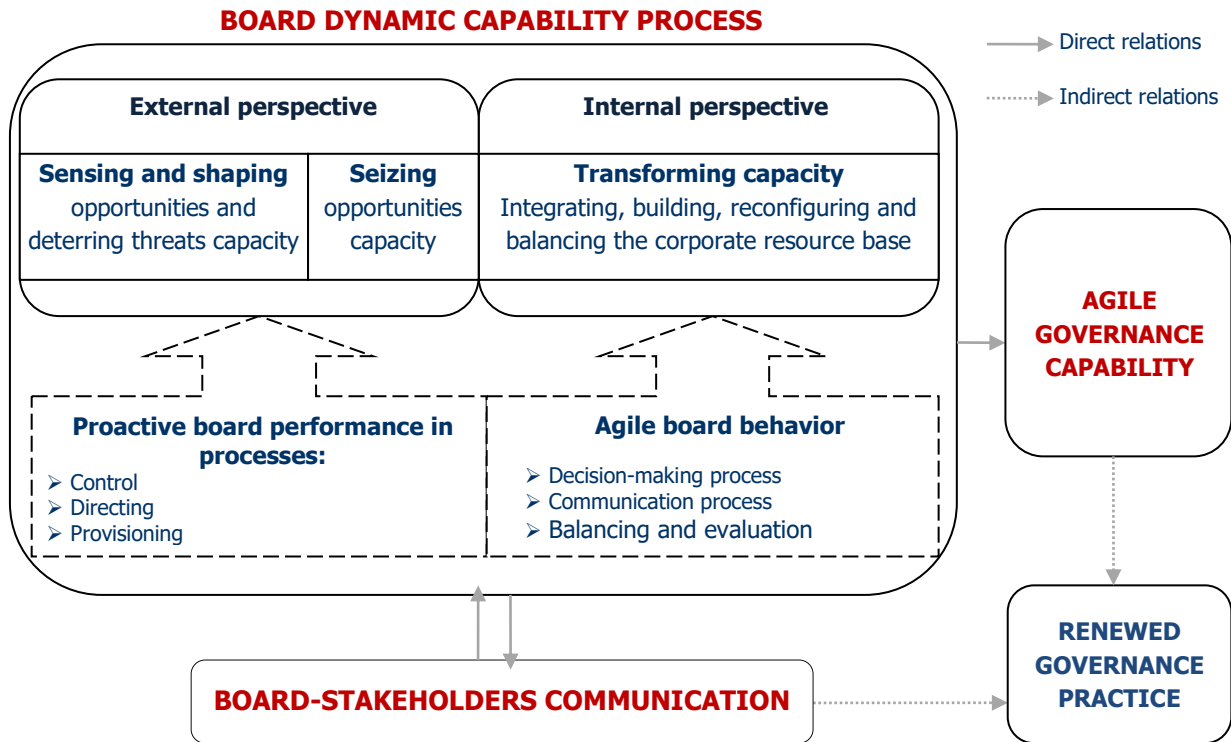


Figure 1. Agile governance capability framework

4. Discussion

The ability to sense valuable strategic options and then to organize effectively and efficiently to embrace them is at the core of a company's dynamic capabilities. In our dynamic and agile governing model, an agile governance capability has the ability to quickly and efficiently reconfigure strategy, structure, processes, people, and technology toward value-creating and value-protecting opportunities. Moreover, as previously explained in the conceptualization section, and highlighted as well in Teece *et al.* (2016), strong dynamic capabilities are important for fostering the organizational agility, necessary to address deep uncertainty.

By taking the attitude that the board could be asserted as empowering or weakening corporate resource and competitive potential, the board capacity could be evaluated through capability perspective as the vital driver of corporate success, and consequently as a determinant of corporate performance. The board capable of mastering the organizational level dynamic capabilities essentially demonstrates the self-regulating capacity as the distinguishing, corporate governance specific facet (Tipurić *et al.*, 2014). Within our model, we have used the power of dynamic capabilities framework, so as to provide opportunity for board members to improve the decision-making process, as well as to highlight the balancing mode for board members to make higher-quality and timely decisions, sensing and reading the environment cues proactively and more accurately, properly assess the regular risk or a deep uncertainty in an environment, and consequently better calibrate the required level of organizational agility,

deliver it cost effectively, and relate it to strategy, and consequently to sustain corporate endeavors in achieving fitness.

Dynamic capabilities are composed of routines, processes and paths (Teece *et al.*, 1997), and are considered as high-level organizational routines or meta-capabilities. As highlighted in Ambrosini and Bowman (2009), based on Feldman and Pentland's (2003) insights, we can distinguish between ostensive and performative aspects of capability. The ostensive aspect of the routine is the structure or abstract understanding of the routine, and the performative aspect is the actual performance of the routine. "The ostensive routine, i.e. the abstract description of the agile governance capability, might be very similar across competing firms. However, we should expect that the performative aspect of the routine, the agile governance capability, would display in practice as a subtle, but important difference between firms. In addition, even where the performative capability was identical across firms, the supporting and complementary processes and assets would be most likely to be differentiated, thus the effect of the common capability would be variable (Ambrosini and Bowman, 2009:44)".

Analysing the offered definition of agile governance capability, the ostensive aspect of the routine is the structure or abstract understanding of the routine: sensing, seizing and transforming capacity, underpinned by proactive board performance and agile board behavior. On the other hand, the performative aspect of the routine springs from the capacity of the board to renew corporate governance practice, in particular the decision-making process in terms of decentralization and urgency, with an aim to balance, as well as further strengthen business needs for agility, dynamics, and stability. If we consider a more detailed explanation, the performative aspect of the agile governance capability is the board's capacity to purposefully balance the creation, extension, or transformation of the corporate resource base, by faster and effective decision-making and proactive governing. Thus, with its performative aspect, the agile governance capability contributes to the emerging challenges in corporate governance for building effective and resilient boards.

However, in our opinion, there are some structural and personal concerns that have to be resolved, for the agile governance capability to work effectively. Birshan *et al.* (2020) stated that investors' demands relating to structural concerns focus on the five areas: board composition and independence; remuneration; transparency and accountability; voting rights and other bylaws. Demands focusing on personnel-related concerns are oriented toward the performance of individuals or teams, and target: board representation and leadership change. We add to that: understanding the role of digital shift and its impact on the customer journey, and consequently, the need of decentralization in decision making, as well as the mind-set shift as the crucial ingredients of performative aspect of the new breed of capability. Besides, board members in agile governance mode have to understand that an upgrade of digital and e-commerce capabilities is permanently required, as well as the awareness of companies' need to become omnipotent in omnichannel value generation.

We find the above mentioned competences and attitudes of the agile board the prerequisite to align board behaviour with agile values. The agile value most often applied to boards is adaptability, a concept developed to address the characteristic turbulence and disruption of

the software industry. Regarding the values stated in Agile manifesto: individuals and interactions over processes and tools; working software over comprehensive documentation; customer collaboration over contract negotiation; and responding to change over following a plan, in our opinion, are not universally applicable to board roles. Hence, they bring dynamism in board performance, and might support board proactive behavior mode.

Regarding Agile manifesto principles, we agree with Zagieva and Shekshnia (2018) that some of them can be counterproductive and even risky in the boardroom, while others can help and enhance directors' effectiveness. For example, customer-centricity is in contradiction with the board role: board should tend to avoid serving any narrowly defined group of stakeholders, and pursuit a holistic approach to the scope of its activities, take into account the interests of all stakeholders, and strive to ensure harmony.

On the other hand, some Agile manifesto principles fit to board agile behaviour and enhance its effectiveness. The agile principle "to build projects around motivated individuals, support their need, and trust them to get the job done" is exactly what an effective board should do: select a capable and motivated CEO and create a productive frame for her or his actions. Another applicable principle is the one about "maximising the amount of work not done", with the goal to limit the efforts, costs and time teams spend on creating products. The same idea could help boards focus on truly strategic issues. Effective boards should always check if anyone else in the company is qualified and empowered to make the non-strategic decisions that often creep onto their agenda. Agile philosophy also praises self-organising teams. Although the board is not a traditional team, directors do have to work collaboratively, not only rely on the chair to orchestrate everything. Lastly, numerous boards already follow the principle of team reflection and are constantly improving their performance.

5. Conclusion

Competing in a world of sectors without borders means to face other companies and industries never previously regarded as competitors, as well as to deal with the emerging ecosystems, comprised of a variety of businesses, while at the same time coping with the peers. Together, these forces are reshaping customer expectations, creating new markets, disrupting conventional business models and fundamentally shifting established ways of governing the business. Disruptive trends are challenging the old paradigm of traditional organization, designed primarily for stability, siloed, and with structural hierarchy, where goals and decisions rights flow downwards the hierarchy, with the most powerful governance bodies at the top, and the skeletal structure that is strong, but often rigid and slow moving (Aghina *et al.*, 2017). In contrast, an agile organization, designed for both stability and dynamism, is guided by a powerful common purpose to co-create value for all stakeholders. Such an agile operating model has the ability to quickly and efficiently reconfigure strategy, structure, processes, people, and technology toward value-creating and value-protecting opportunities.

An agile organization thus adds velocity and adaptability to stability, and therefore needs an agile board, capable of balancing those paradoxal requirements in pursuit of its surviving and thriving in VUCA conditions. While the agile company is configured in a particular way, it is the agility of its boardroom, as well as board efficient performance that highly contributes to the success or failure of its performance.

The drift towards agility has brought the need for changes in board governing mode: a more engaged, proactive and effective board behavior is needed. We deem that the agile governance is related much more to behavior and practice, than to governance processes. For that reason we have embedded the agile governance capability into the dynamic capabilities framework. When introducing the agile mode in board behaviour, we have highlighted the board balancing paradox, as well. There's no doubt that the traditional governance practices are no longer a viable option for today's firms, operating in a reality where speed and decentralization of decision-making should be considered as a barrier to disruption, nevertheless a prerequisite for effectiveness or survival.

Our endeavour to dynamise corporate governance practice with agility is shading some new light on it. The main shortcoming of our work is that the conceptual framework needs a robust empirical testing, but we find our newly revealed agile approach a fruitful and challenging starting point for future research in the field. We do hope that our work offers some answers, and thus contributes to the emerging challenges in corporate governance aimed at building effective and resilient boards.

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GREEN MARKETING IN THE AREA OF DUBROVNIK- THE EMPIRICAL RESEACH

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Abstract

It is doubtless that there is an increasing number of environmentally responsible segments of consumers in the market. However, with the increasing number of suppliers entering the green market, there is a more and more need for introducing strategies of targeting, and motivating customers to be green. The aim of this paper was to provide a theoretical framework for understanding green marketing and green consumer segment, as well as to as to find out the attitudes of the customers in the area of Dubrovnik towards the "green marketing". Primary research was conducted in 2019. in Dubrovnik including the sample of 180 respondents. For the purpose of the research the structured questionnaire has been used. The market of "green consumers" in the area of Dubrovnik has not been not satisfactory developed and there is a small percentage of residents who decide to allocate a monthly income on the purchasing the organic products and services, so it is necessary to initiate its development and progress. It is visible that the inhabitants of Dubrovnik are to some extent ecologically aware, although it is necessary to increase the level of consumer awareness referring environmental protection and waste recycling. According to the results of the research it is visible that there is a need of improving green marketing activities in Dubrovnik.

Keywords: *green marketing, Dubrovnik, primary research*

1. Introduction

The consequences of human behavior greatly affect the environment. The growing environmental problems are becoming aslo an increasing challenge for the companies. The new ecological paradigm has stated the challenge referring not only on concentration how to satisfy consumers' desires but also how to fit to the the long-term interests of society and the environment. This question has led to the concept of social marketing in which social welfare is added as the principle of the marketing concept. Therefore the subject of the research is to find out the attitudes of the customers in the area of Dubrovnik towards the "green marketing". Due to the lack of researches in the area of green marketing we find it important from theoretical and practical point of viewes. The paper has been based on the secondary data and on the results of primary research which has been carried out in Dubrovnik in 2019 including the sample of 180 local residents. For the pupose oft his paper the following scientific hypothesis have been stated:

H₁. Green marekting segments have not been developed enough in Dubrovnik

H₂. The attitudes referring to the concern towards the environment are correlated with clients' intention to buy the ecological products.

H₃. There is a need of improving promotional activites, especially referring to the young market segments.

2. Green marketing and green customers

The growth of green marketing research dates back to 1980s when there was emergence of concept of green marketing. Early literature indicates green marketing to be an approach which indicated signs of shift in consumer attention to green product. At that time green marketing research concentrated on the shift in consumer consumption of green products. From a corporate point of view green marketing approach was researched in 1990s (Vandermerwe, Oliff, 1990). In the last decade the researches have confirmed that consumers are aware of willing to pay more to „go green“ (Lee, 2009). In the third phase (since 2000), green marketing emphasis sustainability (sustainable marketing) including covering the full environmental costs of production and consumption, in order to create a sustainable economy (Dangelico, Vocalelli, 2017). Furthermore, in the third phase, green consumerism leads to an even broader concept of ethical consumerism, which implies concern for human rights and children's rights, animal testing, etc and stricter government regulations (for example in the area of misleading eco-messages) and the influence of NGOs and the media have increased the quality of green products (Lee, 2008).

(The American Marketing Association (AMA) has provided the first green marketing definition. According to the American Marketing Association green marketing is marketing of products that are presumed to be environmentally safe. The AMA defined it as the study of the positive and negative aspects of marketing activities on pollution, energy depletion, and depletion of non-energy resources (www.ama.org). The instruments of the green marketing mix are: green product / services (production of environmentally friendly products / services); green packaging (recycled, returnable); green price (although customers are sometimes willing to pay more for an environmentally friendly product and the environmental characteristics of the product it must not be the basis for setting product prices at a higher level); green communication (consumer deception in terms of promoting non-existent “green” features is not allowed). Recognizable and protected labels of organic products must be a guarantee of quality and production methods. Green “product” is a relative term because there is no completely green product referring to that all products use energy and resources and create by-products and emissions over the life cycle. Also, some products are different in their characteristics from others. The term "green product" is intended to denote products and services with reduced impact on the environment, ie products that have a reduced impact on the environment and human health throughout the life cycle compared to other products for the same purpose and use (Nefat, 2015). Polonsky (2011) defined the green marketing as the effort by a company to design, promote, price and distribute products in a manner which promotes environmental protection.

Ham and Forjan (2009) state that the green marketing is based on the unaccepted 3R formula (reduce-reuse-recycle), and thus contributes to the preservation of the environment through three steps:

1. Reduce - reduce the use of natural resources and reduce energy consumption in the production process and other business processes
2. Reuse - reuse of packaging or its parts.
3. Recycle - manufacturers on the organized manner collect used products or their packaging for the process of recycling

Researchers have always tried to understand the behavior of green consumers from three different perspectives:

1. Studing consumers through demographic and socioeconomic variables
2. Taking into account the amount of information and knowledge that people possess about environmental problems and issues
3. Including values, lifestyles, traits, and attitude

Ottman (1998) expressed concern for the environment in different ways, and stated that the green consumers can recognize a universal set of needs from which this behavior arises. According Ottman's point of view the needs are: the need for control, the need for change, the need for information, the need to maintain a lifestyle.

The main three components that influence consumer behavior and attitudes can be identified, as: affective, cognitive, conative. The cognitive component consists of what an individual thinks about someone or something (whether right or wrong). The emotional component consists of his/her feelings towards someone or something, while the third component (intentional) represents the intention to act in a certain way and is sometimes called the behavioral component.

The motivation towards an ecologically oriented pattern of behavior could be observed based on individual cost-benefit analysis, which is involved into the decision-making process. Taking into the account that the particular behavior can bring costs as well as benefits, the consumer will behave in an environmentally friendly manner, if it is likely to receive sufficient benefits. Therefore, one of the important directions of research should be to determine the individual perceived benefits arising from the ecologically oriented behavior. (Hartmann, Apaolaza-Ibanez, 2006)

Eco-labeling has a significant effect on the behavior of consumers towards products as it conveys information pertaining to the environmental concerns of consumers and characteristics of the product It addresses both business users and the range of consumers while providing them with product information related to the environment. Eco-labeling plays a major role in the development of environmental policy and in promoting behavior related to the use of environmentally friendly products and services. In addition, this fits within the multi-stakeholder policy and related frameworks. Eco-labeling has a significant effect on the behavior of consumers towards products as it conveys information pertaining to the environmental concerns of consumers and characteristics of the product It addresses both business users and the range of consumers while providing them with product information related to the environment (Brecard, 2017).

The personal interest of consumers is one of the essential motives for choosing and buying a green product. The customers want a product whose core function will be fulfilled or will contribute to savings. Also, consumers will be willing to buy a green product if they fit to the personal interest of consumers. They prefer the brand name, because of trust habits. The price should be as flexible as with other products, an they also prefer to have some added benefit, such as lasting longer, looking better, etc. Consumers themselves often do not have enough knowledge and information about the green products. Lack of communication is considered to be a major reason for commercial failures of environmentally sustainable products mainly because communication is a major step in the development of a positive behaviour towards consumer's consumption patterns (Cherrian, Jacob, 2012).

The concept of green marketing has evolved over time with the growth of environmental sustainability and the segmentation of the consumers. So, there are different attempts to classify consumers according to different criteria. The best known and most accepted classification is the one offered by Roper Starch Worldwide. According to Roper Organization (www.ukessays.com) consumers can be divided into five consumer segments according to their interest in the environment and the activities they undertake. The consumer segments are:

1. True –BlueGreens
2. Greenback Greens
3. Sprouts
4. Grouzers
5. Basic Browns

True-blue greens are the most active pro-environmental group; they are most likely to avoid buying products from a company with a questionable environmental reputation. They are passionate about buying green and ecologically-friendly products. They believe that they can make a difference in solving environmental ills. As recyclers, composters and green volunteers, they give their time and resources for environmental causes. Greenback greens are people who support environmentalism by giving their money. They are most willing to spend more for green products. They are the best educated in the group, they are also the youngest. Although too busy to change their lifestyle, they express their environmental concern through their wallets. The sprouts want pro-environmental laws but they do not believe that they can do much to preserve the environment. They are on average, for green products. They are active in environmental causes but they embrace green consumerism slowly. The grouzers take few environmental actions. They believe that business should be fixing environmental ills and that green products cost more versus non-green products. With below-average education and incomes, they feel that somebody else should fix environmental problems. Basic Browns are involved in environment and comprise the largest group. They are the least educated among all consumer segments. They believe that there is nothing that individuals can do about the environment (www.ukessays.com).

3. The results of the empirical research carried out in Dubrovnik

3.1. The methodology of the research

In the empirical part of this paper the results of the primary research will be presented. The primary research was conducted using a survey method via Googleforms. An appropriate sample of 180 subjects was involved in the primary research. The survey questionnaire consisted of 22 questions, included closed type of questions. The survey was conducted during 2019 in the area of Dubrovnik. The most measuring values has been based on five point Likert scale (1 = mostly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neither agree nor disagree, 4 = agree, 5 = completely agree).

3.2. The results of the research and discussion

The respondents have had mostly secondary education (55%), followed by university education (40%) and the rest have had only elementary school (2%) and postgraduate university education (3%). According to the marital status the share of 72% of respondents have been married.

According to the results of the research 35% of the respondents have been up to 24, the 25% of them have been in the category from 25 to 34, while 15% of them have been in the category from 35 to 44, and 15% from 45 to 54. The rest of 10% of respondents have been older than 65. The share of 58% of respondents have been female and 42% of respondents have been male.

The age of consumers has been investigated by numerous studies. In a meta-analysis, Wiernik et al. (2013) compared the results of 68 papers with a total of 220 independent samples from 20 countries using different environmental sustainability variables such as: environmental concerns (young people might be more concerned due to socio-emotional selectivity, i.e. the feeling of longer remaining life expectancy), the environmental awareness (young people are likely to seek more targeted information, which will potentially make them more environmentally conscious), environmental knowledge (young people may acquire more environmental knowledge), social norms (older people may be more motivated by social norms), attitudes towards ecological behavior (young people will have more positive attitudes towards ecological behavior) and pro-ecological intentions (young people will have stronger ecological behavioral intentions). The general conclusions of the meta-analysis indicate a relatively weak age differentiation of the results referring to the mentioned variables.

In the context of youth research, a particularly interesting group of so-called "Millennials" ("Generation Y"). Generation „Y“ is usually, group includes people born between 1979 and 1994 (Kotler, Armstrong, 2012). For example, Naderi and Van Steenburg (2018) cite examples of 17 studies conducted among young people (between 2008 and 2017). Joshi and Rahman (2016,) identified the most important predictors of buying green products among young people: social impact (norms), attitudes towards buying green products, perceived level of environmental knowledge, participation in recycling and environmental labels. Similar rankings of the importance of these predictors of green product purchases were established by Lee (2008). The awareness of the importance of preserving the environment directly and positively affects the intentions to purchase and use ecological products and services. It was found that female respondents have more pronounced attitudes of concern for the environment than male respondents (Rosandić, Širola, 2019).

Only 12% of respondents fully agree that the market of "green consumers" in the area of Dubrovnik is developed, 16% of them agree, while 42% neither agree nor disagree, 24% of respondents do not agree and 6% of them completely disagree that the market of "green consumers" in the area of Dubrovnik is developed.

The monthly income of 56% respondents was higher than HRK 7001 kunas, for 10% of them it was till 3000 kunas, 11% of them have had from 3001 till 5000 kunas, 23% from 5001 till 7000 kunas. The most of the respondents, that is 45% of them cited that they spent 11-30% of their monthly income for buying organic products, while 29% of respondents spent less than 10% of their monthly income for buying organic products. The share of 14% of the consumers do not buy the organic products at all, and 2% of them spend more than 30% of their monthly income for buying organic products.

The share of 28% of the respondents mostly use 2-3 products per week, 22% of respondents use 5-10 products per year, while 21% of them use 3-5 products or services per month. Only

11% of respondents use organic products and services on a daily basis, while 18% of respondents do not use green products and services at all.

The share of 62% of respondents stated that the concern towards environment had been connected with intention to buy eco-friendly products/services. The share of 63% of respondents considered that they the customers have decreased waste when they had bought the organic product.

According to the results of the research the female have mostly bought the organic products (64% of respondents) and they have shown more environmental concern. The Roper Organization has stated that when shopping women were more likely to exhibit green behavior in their purchases. Further, women were more likely to recycle products (www.ukessays.com). According to the results of the primary research which have been carried out in Dubrovnik in the share of 53% of respondents have recycled waste, while 47% of them have not recycled the waste. The results of the research which has been carried out in Dubrovnik have shown that women have had more interest for recycling. The results of the primary reseachshown have aslo shown that 85% of respondents considered that young people should be better informed and that the promotional activities should be more focused on young people preferences.

4. In conclusion

There is an growing need to swith over to grren marketing by marketers and consumers. There is aslo need and growing trend among corporations to present environmental advertisments and to prove to the customers that companies are eco centric. The motivation towards an ecologically oriented pattern of behavior could be observed based on individual cost-benefit analysis, which is involved into the decision-making process. Taking into the account that the particular behavior can bring costs as well as benefits, the consumer will behave in an environmentally friendly manner, if it is likely to receive sufficient benefits. Thoughts (cognitive function) and feelings (affective functions) are directly impacted by tha attitude people show hence impacting their overall perception to purchase related behaviour (Hoyer and MacInnis, 2004), so there is a need to chnage consumer behaviour . Therefore, one of the important directions of research should be to determine the individual perceived benefits arising from the ecologically oriented behavior.

Lack of communication is considered to be a major reson for commercial failures of environmentally sustainable products mainly because communication is a mojor step in the development of positive behaviour towards consumer's consumption patterns (Cherrian, Jacob, 2012, 123) However, it has also been expressed that those consumers who are more conscious towards the environment do not necessarily behave in an ecologically friendly way (Pickett- Baker, Ozaki, 2008). According to Sloan (2004) the intention to recycle products, care about environmental pollution and pay for more ecological products have been reflected in very few customers. So, it is necessary to develop products that balance consumer needs for quality, practicality, performance and affordable price, all in terms of minimal environmental impact. The promotional activites should be more intensive including the environmental awareness relating to the characteristics of the product as well. The consumers have expressed the interest in the protection of the environment and they are concerned about the environment, so business executives and other organizations such as local authority should educate customers about environmental protection, usement and benefits provided from the environmental- friendly products. The previous researches which have been done in

Dubrovnik shown that there is a local people interest towards ecological work shops, so it could be used too. The companies in Dubrovnik should use more green branding, eco labelling and green packaging strategies. According to the results of the research it is visible that the customers could be divided in two basic groups and that there is a need to rise the level of awareness referring to the waste recycling.

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UPPER ECHELON THEORY: A REVIEW AND FUTURE RESEARCH AGENDA

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Abstract

The overarching theme of the literature on upper echelon theory (UET) is to understand the impact that top management teams have on the performance of companies. In this article, the extant literature is used to provide an advanced understanding of UET as one of the most significant perspectives in strategic management (Hambrick and Mason, 1984). Additionally, efforts have been made to systematically review increasingly original and conceptual papers to help identify the gaps in the body of knowledge regarding prior empirical studies and to provide recommendations for future research. The aims of this paper are to define the most common critiques of UET, identify the gaps in previous studies, and provide recommendations for future studies according to the results of the analysis. The analysis includes more than fifty papers published over a 36-year period (1984 - 2020) in the field. To address the gap related to top management team heterogeneity, this article critically reviews prominent prior studies on upper echelon theory and top management team heterogeneity. The analysis indicated that the gaps are the results of employing unsuitable methodologies, omitting moderating variables, failing to utilize psychological variables as a group dynamic, and using only demographic proxies. Finally, the article suggests future research directions and develops a research agenda integrating previous research.

Keywords: *Heterogeneity, Top management team, Upper echelon theory*

1. Introduction:

In recent decades, the focus of strategic management has been directed away from strategy implementation according to the effect of the top management team on company performance (Norburn and Birley, 1988; Waldman et al., 2004). Upper echelon theory (UET) was developed to explain the role and impact of the top management team on the management of companies (Tipurić, 2014). Since Hambrick and Mason (1984) introduced the concept of UET, UET has become one of the most significant perspectives in strategic management, and numerous theoretical and empirical papers have been written by academics. Marimuthu and Kolandaisamy (2009) state that considering the role of the top management team in companies, the interests of the business and academic communities in the characteristics of the top management team has permanently existed. UET was developed from the conceptual model defined by Hambrick and Mason (1984), comprising two main propositions: 1. The top management team acts according to their personal interpretations of strategic situations with which there are confronted; and 2. Personal interpretations are the function of their experience, values and personalities (Tipurić, 2020). Kraiczy (2015) claims that the individual interpretation of a present situation by top managers in which they operate directly affects their behavior and strategic choice. Campbell et al (2019: 1280) state that UET “assumes that executive characteristics are related to strategic decisions”. UET defines organizational outcomes and the level of performance as partially related to managers’ characteristics and states that strategic decisions contain a combination of decision makers’ behaviors, reflecting the cognitive frames of the decision maker (Hambrick and Mason, 1984). The emphasis on the demographic characteristics, instead of the psychological characteristics, of top management teams was crucial for UET development (Hambrick and Mason, 1984). This emphasis leads to the analysis of the composition of top management

teams and their demographic heterogeneity. Cannella et al. (2011) claim that most often examined aspect of top management team composition is the heterogeneity. Pfeffer (1985) introduced the concept of organizational demographics and researched the impact of demographic characteristics on organizational outcomes (Angriawan, 2009). Pfeffer (1985) emphasizes that organizational demography describes the distribution of dimensions, such as age, gender and time at the position; it is based on individual data of employees in an organization, but it also reflects the attributes of an organization.

UET emphasizes the impact of the demographic heterogeneity of the top management team on organizational outcomes and states that the demographic heterogeneity of the top management team is a valid variable for the cognitive heterogeneity of the top management team (Angriawan, 2009). Hambrick and Mason (1984) state that cognitive heterogeneity empowers the information processing and decision-making capabilities of a top management team, consequently improving a company's performance.

Hereafter, this paper addresses studies of the abovementioned concepts of upper echelon theory and the heterogeneity of the top management team by offering a systematization of the literature. Specifically, the aim of this paper is to provide an overview of the literature related to the impact of top management team heterogeneity on the performance of companies.

The review summarized theoretical frameworks and empirical results of studies with the aims of identifying gaps in present studies, finding the most frequent critics in this field and defining recommendations for future research. Three research questions in this paper are as follows: (1) What are the main theoretical frameworks for the heterogeneity of top management teams and its impact on a company's performance? (2) What are the main gaps in the present empirical studies that lead to inconsistency in the present research results? (3) What are the main recommendations for future research in this field to achieve more reliable results?

2. Upper echelon theory and heterogeneity of the top management team

The necessity for engaging management to govern a company instead of owners resulted in the question of how to establish the top management team to increase company performance. As a result of market changes, the globalization process, and weak boundaries between the states, there is a high level of heterogeneity in the top management teams in which managers operate today. Nielsen and Nielsen (2013) state that in recent decades, the top management team has become extremely heterogeneous, and the impact of heterogeneity on company performance in the literature is not clearly defined. Specifically, the results of existing studies indicated positive, negative and insignificant impacts.

In the existing studies of the heterogeneity of top management teams, the majority of authors used the following demographic characteristics (Murray, 1989; Hambrick and Mason, 1984; Díaz-Fernández et al., 2014; Tipurić, 2014): age, functional background, tenure, educational background and industrial background. These demographic characteristics are valid proxy variables for the cognitive frames of top managers (Tipurić, 2014; Hambrick and Mason, 1984), although they are not fully precise variables (Tipurić, 2020). Díaz-Fernández et al. (2014) claim that the heterogeneity of top management teams in their functional background, tenure, educational background, international background and industrial background increases the capability for information processing and cognitive capability and produces a wider base of knowledge that leads to a higher level of performance.

Van Knippenberg and Schippers (2007) define heterogeneity as the level of diversity among group members that can have a negative or positive impact on group processes and performance. A heterogeneous group can have various skills and features that can emphasize a company's ability to adapt but also increase the level of conflict (Murray, 1989). Several academic studies have indicated a negative impact of heterogeneity on performance, although the majority of authors in the field claim that heterogeneity has a positive impact on a company's performance. Top management teams with a high level of heterogeneity have a positive impact on company performance (Marimuthu and Kolandaisamy, 2009), increasing rentability (Pfeffer, 1985; Naranjo-Gil et al., 2008), especially in turbulent business environments (Hambrick and Mason, 1984). Additionally, Talke et al. (2010) state that heterogeneity supports the innovation strategies of companies, and Pitcher and Smith (2001) claim that heterogeneity results in higher levels of innovation and diversification.

Hambrick and Mason (1984) initially define the following demographic characteristics that have an impact on companies' performance: age, functional background, other career experiences, education, socioeconomic roots, financial position and group characteristics. Abatecola and Cristofaro (2018) claim that over the years, academics have extended demographic characteristics to race, gender and international background.

Gender. Dezsó and Ross (2012) state that the gender heterogeneity of top management teams leads to better performance on managerial tasks that results in a higher level of company performance. The results of present studies are inconsistent, but numerous authors state that the gender heterogeneity of a top management team has a positive impact on a company's performance (Egerová and Nosková, 2019).

Functional background. Williams and O'Reilly III (1998) claim that functional background is a proxy for the information, skills, knowledge and expertise that individuals bring into a group.

Tenure. Angriawan (2009) claims that tenure is the number of years that members spend on a top management team; however, Abatecola and Cristofaro (2018) state that over the years, the context of tenure gained various properties, such as the number of years on a top management team or the number of years in an industry or a company. Furthermore, Carpenter (2002) states that demographic characteristics are more emphasized in short-tenured teams. The core idea of tenure is that new external top managers are the initiators of changes and lead to a new strategic orientation (Wally and Becerra 2001; Díaz-Fernández et al, 2015). Angriawan (2009) states that tenure heterogeneity in the top management team has a positive impact on performance.

Educational background. Bai et al. (2018) state that previous studies support the premise that education takes place in a delicate time period of individuals; therefore, experience in this period is strongly reflected on individuals with permanent impacts on their future decision-making processes. Educational background heterogeneity in top management teams can improve the problem-solving process and decision making in a dynamic environment and has a positive impact on companies' performance (Díaz-Fernández et al, 2014). Kock and Talke (2012) state that educational heterogeneity leads to heterogeneity in knowledge and enables the creation of new knowledge. Numerous authors define heterogeneity in educational background as having a positive contribution to performance through the diversification of skills, cognitive possibility, creativity and readiness to change (Angriawan, 2009).

Industry background. Kock and Talke (2012) state that the industry background heterogeneity of top management teams enables additional networks beyond the current industry and leads to the possibility that the strategic orientation of a company deviates from the existing industry standards. Specifically, a high level of heterogeneity in the industrial background of the top management team is related to the high level of strategic dynamics. Team members are more motivated for a new strategic approach based on previous experience and have wider aspects for the adoption of strategic changes and exploring new possibilities and new markets (Díaz-Fernández et al., 2016).

Cultural background. This demographic characteristic was researched in several studies (Lo et al. 2019). For the proxy variable of cultural background heterogeneity, the nationality of team members is used (Lo et al., 2019; Elron, 1997 and Nielsen and Nielsen, 2013). Nielsen and Nielsen (2013) state that growing up in society with specific informal and formal institutions defines how top managers interpret and process strategic opportunities and threats, and this pattern of behavior managers brings it to a top management team outside of their states. Cultural heterogeneity contributes to task solving and leads to an innovative solution, as it is positively related to performance (Nielsen and Nielsen, 2013).

3. Methodology

This paper combines a review of theoretical and empirical scientific articles in the field of upper echelon theory and the heterogeneity of top management teams. The research was performed using the following databases: Web of Science (WoS), Google Scholar and Hrčak as a central portal of Croatian scientific journals. Articles that were published in the time period from 1983 until 2020 were included. More than 90 articles were identified. Hereafter, these articles were reviewed to assess their compatibility with the research questions. Keywords that were used are *upper echelon theory*, *heterogeneity of the top management team* and *demographic heterogeneity*. After the analysis of the relevance of the initial articles, the further analysis included articles that conformed to the research questions. The relevant papers were analyzed, summarized, and synthesized to define the state-of-the-art research in the field of upper echelon theory. Gaps in the body of research were identified; and based on this analysis, the authors defined recommendations for academics for future research agendas.

4. Present research review

Studies in the field of UET have a strong background in the scientific literature, but numerous authors claim that future researches are necessary, especially those with a focus on using advanced statistical methodology to obtain more consistent results on the impact of top management team heterogeneity on a company's performance (Carpenter, 2002; Nielsen, 2010; Díaz-Fernández et al., 2020; Díaz-Fernández et al., 2015), including the moderating variables in the research models (Talke et al., 2010). The majority of authors state that the heterogeneity of the top management team has a positive impact on performance, but van Knippenberg and Schippers (2007) claim that heterogeneity can have a positive or negative impact on group processes and performance. The heterogeneity of teams results in different skills and features that can increase a company's possibility of adaptation but, conversely, can increase the level of conflicts in the team (Murray, 1989). One of the most significant potential problems associated with heterogeneity is interpersonal conflict (Certo, 2006). Accordingly, Triana et al. (2014) and Chen et al. (2018) state that the heterogeneity of top management teams is double-edged in nature because it can encourage or obstruct strategic change depending on firm performance.

Several authors define performance using financial data, but researchers have also identified performance per a company's strategy (e.g., strategy of initial offers and innovation strategy). Díaz-Fernández et al. (2015) analyzed how the demographic characteristics of the top management team have an impact on strategic changes, and they identified that teams with a higher level of functional and international heterogeneity and shorter company tenure are leaner toward strategic changes. These results clearly highlight the significance of the top management team on business in general and the impact of their demographic characteristics on a company's performance. Carpenter and Fredrickson (2001) analysed the impact of team heterogeneity on global strategic posture and included the moderating variable environmental uncertainty in the US companies. They indicated a positive impact of international background heterogeneity, educational heterogeneity, and tenure heterogeneity and a negative impact of functional background heterogeneity, furthermore, environmental uncertainty moderated this relationship. Kock and Talke (2012) conducted research on companies from Europe and the USA and determined that the heterogeneity of the top management team has a positive impact on a company's strategic orientation to innovation. Bai et al. (2018) conducted research on the initial public offerings of 1479 companies in the private sector in China in the time period from 2005 to 2014, and the results indicated that managers with a prestigious Chinese university degree leaned toward an initial offer on the domestic market, while managers that have a degree from foreign university leaned toward an initial offer on foreign markets. These results clearly show how formal education is important in the strategic decision-making process for managers. Bryon and Post (2016) conducted research on companies from different states and observe a positive impact of the gender heterogeneity of the board of directors on the social responsibility of companies. Triana et al. (2014), in their research conducted on Fortune 500 firms, indicated that board gender heterogeneity is negatively related to the amount of strategic change.

Table 1 shows the comparison of the existing studies that analyzed the impact of the heterogeneity of the top management team on performance defined using financial data. The reason for this approach is to achieve the ability to compare studies. Previous studies were analysed through the following aspects: type of demographics characteristics, authors, moderating variables used in research models, indicated impact on companies' performance, the country in which the research was conducted, and the sample and method used for testing the hypotheses. The analysis indicated an equal presence of gender heterogeneity, cultural heterogeneity, functional heterogeneity, tenure heterogeneity and educational heterogeneity in previous studies. International experience heterogeneity and industry heterogeneity were rarely observed in previous studies. Authors have analyzed whether previous research models include moderating variables that can emphasize the impact of the demographic characteristics of the top management team on performance (Carpenter, 2002; Talke et al., 2010). Several authors used some moderating variables, but those variables were collected as demographics characteristics (e.g., firm internationalization, firm size, socialization, TMT colocation, and TMT group longevity) without collecting data on the psychological information of team members, such as a manager's cognitive frame, skills and knowledge without using proxy variables. The analysis indicated a lack of combining the demographic and psychological variables in the research models to increase the consistency of research results, as Oppong (2014) suggested. The majority of authors are focused exclusively on the demographic characteristics of top managers, and psychological characteristics are omitted because they are labor-intensive to collect. Several authors included moderating variables in research models to avoid collecting psychological data regarding top managers. Previous studies' results show the inconsistency. Specifically, for the majority of analyzed demographic characteristics (gender heterogeneity, cultural heterogeneity, functional

heterogeneity, tenure heterogeneity and educational heterogeneity), the research results indicated positive, negative and insignificant impacts. The consistency of the results is shown for international experience heterogeneity and industry heterogeneity, but in keeping with the few studies describing those characteristics, theses regarding their consistency of results could not be accepted. The countries are analyzed to assess where most studies focus because there is a diversity of markets, corporate governance, management, and cultures among countries. These aspects can lead to different research results. The analysis shows that most of the studies were conducted in the USA and Asian countries, but several studies were also conducted in European countries. The most commonly used methods for hypothesis testing in previous studies are hierarchical regression analyses, ordinary least squares (OLS) regressions, meta-analysis and panel data. One study performed fuzzy-set qualitative comparative analysis and structural equation modelling. This clearly shows that quantitative research is common in empirical studies in the field of UET. Hereafter, only in a study conducted by Lo et al. (2019) was a combination of two statistical methods employed to test the hypothesis with a simultaneous qualitative and quantitative approach. The analysis indicated that there was a lack of a combination of statistical methods in the present studies that could achieve more consistent results.

Table 1: Previous studies

Demographics characteristics	Authors	Moderating variables	Impact on performance	Country	Method
Gender heterogeneity	Marimuthu and Kolandaisamy (2009)	No	insignificant	Malaysia	Panel data
	Dezso and Gaddis Ross (2012)	Innovation intensity (non-psychological variable)	positive	USA	Panel data
	Cambrea et al. (2017)	No	positive	Italy	Ordinary least squares (OLS) regression
Cultural heterogeneity	Lo et al. (2019)	Socialization (non-psychological variable)	positive	USA	Multiple regression analysis Fuzzy-set qualitative comparative analysis
	Marimuthu and Kolandaisamy (2009)	No	positive	Malaysia	Panel data
	Nielsen and Nielsen (2013)	Tenure, firm internationalization, and industry (non-psychological variables)	positive	Swiss	Hierarchical linear modeling (HLM)
	Cambrea et al. (2017)	No	insignificant	Italy	Ordinary least squares (OLS) regression
Functional heterogeneity	Certo et al. (2006)	No	positive	N/A	Meta-analysis
	Cannella et al. (2011)	TMT colocation and environmental uncertainty (non-psychological variables)	positive	USA	Panel data (a pooled cross-sectional time series)
	Díaz-Fernández et al. (2014)	No	insignificant	Spain	Hierarchical regression analyses

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	Chen et al. (2018)	TMT group longevity (non-psychological variables)	negative	Taiwan	Hierarchical regression analyses
	Díaz-Fernández et al. (2016)	Strategic change (non-psychological variables)	positive	Spain	covariance-based structural equation modelling
Tenure heterogeneity	Certo et al. (2006)	No	positive	N/A	Meta-analysis
	Cannella et al. (2011)	TMT colocation and environmental uncertainty (non-psychological variables)	positive	USA	Panel data (a pooled cross-sectional time series)
	Tanikawa et al. (2016)	TMT average age (non-psychological variables)	negative	Japan	Hierarchical regression analyses
	Díaz-Fernández et al. (2016)	Strategic change (non-psychological variables)	positive	Spain	covariance-based structural equation modelling
Educational heterogeneity	Certo et al. (2006)	No	insignificant	N/A	Meta-analysis
	Díaz-Fernández et al. (2014)	No	insignificant	Spain	Hierarchical regression analyses
	Chen et al. (2018)	TMT group longevity (non-psychological variables)	negative	Taiwan	Hierarchical regression analyses
	Cambrea et al. (2017)	No	positive	Italy	Ordinary least squares (OLS) regression
	Díaz-Fernández et al. (2016)	Strategic change (non-psychological variables)	positive	Spain	covariance-based structural equation modelling
International experience	Díaz-Fernández et al. (2014)	No	positive	Spain	Hierarchical regression analyses
	Cambrea et al. (2017)	No	positive	Italy	Ordinary least squares (OLS) regression
Industry heterogeneity	Díaz-Fernández et al. (2014)	No	positive	Spain	Hierarchical regression analyses

5. Gaps in the body of research and recommendations for future research

Research results on top management team heterogeneity remain controversial and inconsistent (Nielsen, 2010; Díaz-Fernández et al., 2020; Carpenter, 2002); therefore, research inevitably focuses on the impact of heterogeneity (Díaz-Fernández et al., 2015) by using new and enhanced methodological approaches in the field of UET to achieve more consistent results (Nielsen, 2010, Díaz-Fernández et al., 2020; Abatecola and Cristofaro, 2018). Pitcher and Smith (2001) state that linking the impact of top management team heterogeneity with strategic outcomes is problematic, and the results of empirical studies are often inconsistent, which is why choosing an adequate research method is an important means of decreasing this inconsistency. Carpenter (2002) claims that the impacts of education, experience and tenure on a company's performance are moderated by the strategic and social context in which managers are acting. Carpenter (2002) indicates that the absence of moderating variables that describe this context in the majority of present research models is the reason for the inconsistency observed in existing research results. Talke et al. (2010) state that the correlation among heterogeneity and performance is indirect and dependent on moderating variables. Díaz-Fernández et al. (2015) claim that top management team effects on managerial dimension as decision, strategy or performance are more complex than researches in demographical literature had assumed. Gil et al. (2019:4) state that "*Part of the reason for the inconsistent findings may be that prior research has largely ignored the role that exogenous factors might play in the relationship between top management team heterogeneity and firm performance*". Oponng (2014) states that there are two ways researchers investigate whether top managers influence organizational performance: 1. assessing top managers' demographic characteristics and relating them to organizational performance and 2. measuring the psychological traits of top managers and examining whether they are related to performance. The majority of UET researchers used demographic approaches in studies instead of 'psychological' approaches, and a minority of studies used both demographic and psychographic variables simultaneously in the research model (Oponng, 2014). Priem et al. (1999) state that identifying the relationship among the top management team and performance has not been feasible due to the absence of demographic data, but demographic proxies of psychographic variables have limitations. Such variables as a top management team's processes, attitudes and judgments are crucial in the UET model, and they have to be measured directly to clarify the top managers' choices (Priem et al., 1999). Analysis of previous studies shows a lack of moderating variables that describe the social and strategic context through psychological data. This lack leads to the gap in present studies.

Wang et al. (2012) state that the majority of empirical studies related to UET are conducted on US companies, although several recent authors attempted to fill this geographical gap by studying other countries, especially China (Abatecola and Cristofaro, 2018), to examine whether the assumptions of UET are applicable in other markets. This analysis confirms the geographical gaps in the field of UET because the majority of studies were conducted in the USA and Asian markets, although several studies were conducted in European countries. The diversity of markets could lead to different research findings; therefore, future research should focus on increasing the number of studies in European and other markets to fill this geographical gap.

Furthermore, the analysis indicated a gap in the methodological approaches. The majority of studies used one statistical method to test the hypotheses. Combining several methods in studies and not omitting the qualitative approach may lead to more consistent results.

In general, the analysis indicated the following gaps in the present studies in the field of UET:

1. The omission of moderating variables to describe the social and strategic context via psychological data.
2. Geographical gaps, since most of the studies were conducted in the USA and Asia.
3. Most studies used one statistical method and mostly quantitative approaches.

In line with the identified gaps, recommendations for future research are as follows:

1. Focusing on moderating variables (e.g., the group process) by including them in research models.
2. Using the psychological approach and merging it with a demographical approach to focus on psychological data.
3. Conducting studies on different markets (especially those in European countries).
4. Using a combination of statistical methods and qualitative and quantitative approaches.

6. Conclusion

In recent decades, numerous papers and empirical studies that analysing top management team heterogeneity have been written. As the most significant issue in the field of UET and heterogeneity inconsistency of results has been expressed. The literature review does not provide an unambiguous postulate of team heterogeneity impact on company performance. This condition leads to numerous critics of UET and also steers the recommendations for the future research agenda.

This paper provides a literature reviews prior studies on upper echelon theory and top management team heterogeneity with the aims of identifying gaps, finding the most frequent critics and defining recommendations for future research. Finally, the paper offers answers on three research questions. The existing literature indicated the double-edged impact of top management team heterogeneity on company performance. The authors' analysis emphasized the most significant gaps in the abovementioned field. In addition, indicated gaps are the omission of moderating variables, geographical gaps of studies, insufficiency of qualitative research approaches and overvalue of demographic variables. Accordingly, recommendations for future research are defined.

Despite numerous previous studies, future studies are necessary to ensure more consistency in the results of the top management team heterogeneity impact on company performance. It is crucial to include moderating variables in research models to take into consideration the social context in which the top management team operate. Additionally, demographic approaches should not be abandoned, and the psychological approaches have to acquire a more significant role in future research to ensure that the social context of the management team will be taken into consideration. The social context could have an important role in moderating the relationship between heterogeneity and performance.

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CORPORATE GOVERNANCE IN PANDEMIC TIMES

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Abstract

The SARS-CoV2 pandemic turned 2020 into a year marked by uncertainty. Because of the coronavirus, humanity took a break from the fast pace of daily activities, and entity management faced a huge challenge in terms of how entities are managed and controlled.

During this period, researchers around the world studied the impact of the coronavirus in various areas of activity. Therefore, our paper aims to make a bibliometric analysis of scientific publications, focusing on the relevance of the concept of “corporate governance” and the key terms used in scientific papers before (2019) and after the outbreak of the pandemic (2020). To this purpose, we extracted the information available in the Web of Science Core Collection database in the categories Economics, Law, Management, Public administration, Business and Business Finance, studying the distribution of the most intensively used keywords in order to identify and analyse the links between them. In our research we only took into account the keywords proposed by the authors in the published works and we established a minimum threshold of 5 simultaneous occurrences.

The results of our study reveal that there is a significant research interest in the concept of corporate governance in scientific literature, while the pandemic has changed the way entities are managed during these difficult times.

Keywords: *bibliometric analysis, corporate governance, pandemic outbreak*

1. Introduction

Entities governance is a challenge, especially when talking about business management in times of crisis. Currently, the economic environment is significantly affected by the COVID-19 pandemic. The effects are visible in the area of accounting and financial reporting policies and practice as well (Burca *et al.* 2021) Face with this crisis, economic entities became vulnerable and business sustainability was threatened, in many areas of activity, by the measures preventing the spread of the virus. The quarantine and disruption of non-essential activities as measure to contain the COVID-19 pandemic has negatively affected all economies around the World (Caballero-Morales, 2021).

In other words, companies have been forced to adopt new managerial guidelines to adapt to the difficult conditions and to survive in this “new normal” (Carracedo *et al.* 2020).

„How can I be effective as a leader while keeping my team safe in this COVID—19 world?” (Newman and Ford, 2020) is a question that has caused concern among managers, and the answer to it is still a challenge.

In these difficult times, managers implemented in their activity old concepts like telework and remote work, in order to ensure business continuity. Known as ‘teleworking’ or ‘teleworker’ and ‘telecommuting’, all of these refer to the ability to work flexibly using remote technology to communicate with the workplace (Grant *et al.* 2018). With governmental policies forcing some offices and businesses to close, societal pressure has driven the innovative use and implementation of digital technologies in order to maintain some sense of normalcy and human connection (Zimmerling and Chen, 2021). Due to the introduction of work-from-home concept caused by the COVID-19 restrictions, companies must use innovative technologies,

applications and network security programs in order to ensure business development in a uncertain economic environment.

In the research conducted on a sample of 60 entities listed on Bucharest Stock Exchange, Crucean and Hategan (2021) found that „the effects generated by the COVID-19 pandemic had a significant impact in most of the studied industries, affecting both companies to carry out activities by closing borders, reducing or even closing certain activities, stopping travel and hindering communication with suppliers, customers or investors, reduced sales, deferred payments or the need to optimally manage costs and available resources, as well as at the level of employees by performing work at home, technical unemployment or salary reductions, but also at the level of the client-auditor relationship, by limiting travel in business interest”.

Meyer *et al.* (2021) in their study conducted in August 2020, depicted that a greater share of firms reported significant or severe disruptions in daily activity, being forced to apply wage cuts and, as a response to the COVID-19 pandemic, they lower their one-year-ahead inflation expectations.

Researchers like Obal and Gao (2020) believe that a pandemic may also present opportunities not only challenges because new relationships may be established in this tumultuous times, as there may be other partners who are better equipped to help the company address urgent short-term needs, and these connections can turn into long-term partnerships.

Eventually, in order to cope with a major crisis like the one generated by the coronavirus, managers must be creative and flexible so that they can adapt and develop business strategies in this new reality.

COVID-19 remains a topic of great interest to the academia, as researchers around the world are interested in analysing the effects of the pandemic crisis in various fields.

In our paper we aimed to study how the pandemic has influenced scientific research in the field of corporate governance. Thus, we conducted a bibliometric analysis of the existing scientific publications in the Web of Science Core Collection database, taking into consideration the keywords and the most cited authors who addressed the concept of corporate governance before (during 2019) and after the outbreak of the pandemic (2020).

2. Methodology and data

The bibliometric analysis of scientific publications is a method helping to quantitatively evaluate the literature indexed in databases such as Web of Science Core Collections, Scopus, Dimensions and PubMed. In our paper, we chose the Web of Science Core Collections database as it includes the most representative and qualitative papers in the academia. The science mapping was done with VosViewer, a software for constructing and visualizing bibliometric networks.

The aim of our paper is to identify how the pandemic has influenced research in the field of corporate governance. To this purpose, we started by identifying the articles on corporate governance that were published in the Web of Science Core Collection both in 2019 and in 2020 in areas such as Business, Business Finance, Economics, Law, Management and Public administration. From the sample of 3.709 articles published over the two years under analysis, we extracted the keywords proposed by the authors, with a minimum threshold of 5 simultaneous occurrences. In order to notice the latest trends and topics of interest in the

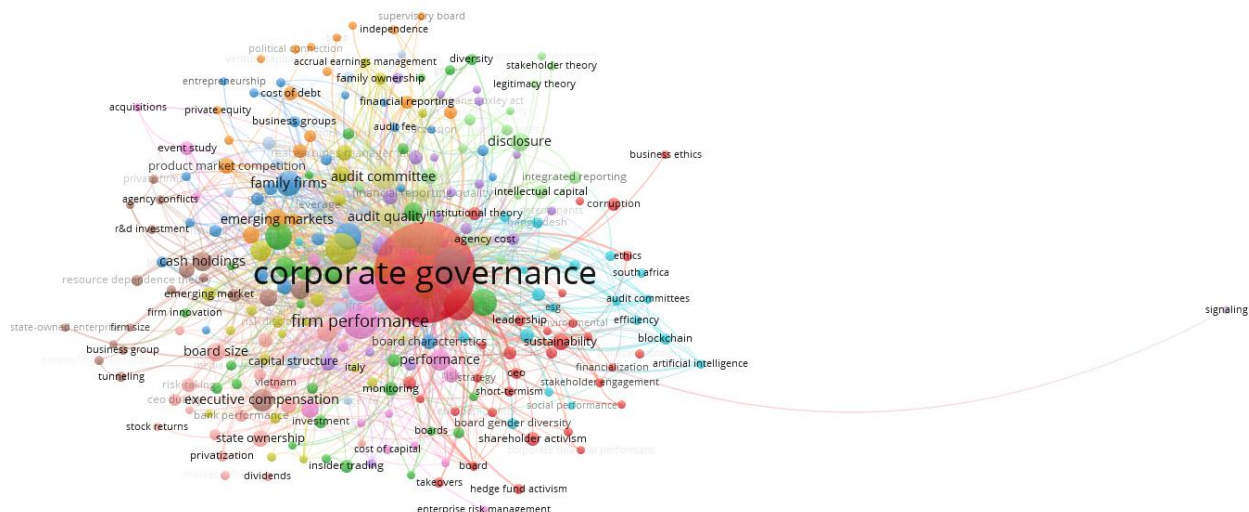


Figure 2 Keyword link network in the field of corporate governance in 2020
Source: authors processing using the VosViewer program

The 269 keywords identified in 2020 are grouped into 14 clusters with 2.598 links. Out of the 14 word groups, the red group contains the highest number of keywords interconnected by the concept of corporate governance.

From the sample of keywords that exceed the criterion of at least 5 occurrences, we selected, for each year, the first 25 keywords with the highest link strength with other keywords, in other words their occurrence together is the most relevant.

In Table no.1. we illustrated the 25 keywords under analysis, sorted in descending order based on the strength of their links with other keywords.

Table 1 Relevant keywords used by authors in corporate governance research						
	YEAR 2019			YEAR 2020		
	<i>Key word</i>	<i>No.of appearances</i>	<i>Links strenght</i>	<i>Key word</i>	<i>No.of appearances</i>	<i>Links strenght</i>
1	Corporate governance	560	452	Corporate governance	715	615
2	Firm performance	70	63	Firm performance	86	79
3	CSR	57	54	Board of directors	83	78
4	Board of directors	55	49	Ownership structure	66	64
5	Earnings management	55	48	CSR	66	62
6	China	51	45	Earnings management	69	60
7	Ownership structure	50	45	Agency theory	64	59
8	Agency theory	48	45	Firm value	51	49
9	Firm value	39	34	Governance	51	42

10	Gender diversity	36	31	China	52	41
11	Executive compensation	35	31	Audit committee	43	40
12	Emerging markets	30	28	Financial performance	41	37
13	Audit committee	31	27	Gender diversity	34	32
14	Family firms	27	23	Audit quality	33	30
15	Financial performance	24	20	Emerging markets	32	29
16	Disclosure	21	18	Audit fees	31	24
17	Governance	23	17	Board size	26	24
18	Board structure	18	16	Sustainability	21	20
19	Financial crisis	19	15	Financial crisis	19	17
20	Board composition	15	15	Risk	16	16
21	Institutional investors	17	14	Investors protection	18	15
22	Risk management	14	13	Cost of debt	15	15
23	Board of directors	13	13	Discretionary accruals	15	15
24	Audit quality	16	12	Monitoring	15	15
25	Board gender diversity	12	10	Stock price crash risk	14	12

Source: authors processing using the VosViewer program

As it can be noticed from the previous table, in 2019 researchers addressed topics related mainly to the structure of the administrative board and focused on identifying the impact of corporate governance mechanisms on financial performance through studies that drew attention to the specific features of the business model in obtaining positive financial performance (Ciftci *et. al.* 2019).

The keywords proposed by authors in 2020 also addressed the topic of risk through terms such as risk, financial crisis, stock price crash risk, monitoring, investors protection, cost of deb and sustainability, which reflect the interest in the way entities are controlled and managed in periods of crisis such as the one generated by the new coronavirus.

3.2. Citations analysis

The analysis carried out with the help of the VosViewer software also allowed us to identify the authors with the most cited works in the field of corporate governance. In 2019, 3.945 authors published in the Web of Science Core Collection, and, out of these, 2.817 recorded at least one citation. In 2020 we identified 4.679 authors in the database, out of which 1,674 had at least one cited work. The breakdown of citations is illustrated in the following table (table no. 2):

Table 2 Citations analysis		
Number of citations	Year 2019	Year 2020
Under 10	2.516	1.641
11-20	234	29
21-30	47	4
31-40	18	0
41-50	1	0
Over 50	1	0
TOTAL	2.817	1.674

Source: authors processing using the VosViewer program

In order to identify the research directions in the field of corporate governance in 2019 and 2020, we grouped the authors by the number of citations, according to the ranges in table 2, and we analysed the most representative work for the most cited author in each category.

In 2019, the most cited author was Ntim Collins, whose works were cited 76 times. In the most representative paper published in 2019, *A study of environmental policies and regulations, governance structures, and environmental performance: The role of female directors*, he analyses the impact of gender diversity on performance, and the extent to which the proportion, age and education level of women on the administrative board affects the performance of the Chinese companies listed. Within the range of 41-50 citations, Wood Geoffrey's papers on corporate governance were cited 41 times. The author's most representative work published in 2019, *Corporate governance and firm performance in emerging markets: Evidence from Turkey*, studies the relationship between corporate governance and financial performance in the case of Turkey, an example of family capitalism. Within the range of 31-40 citations, with 39 citations, we found Heugens Pursey, an author who published representative works in the field of corporate governance in 2019. In the most cited study, *Information Asymmetry in Management Research: Past Accomplishments and Future Opportunities*, he developed a conceptual framework for organising and evaluating information asymmetry research, by analysing 223 relevant articles published in prestigious journals. Within the range of 21-30 citations, we analysed the most representative work in terms of the number of citations belonging to the author Chung Chune Young. In 2019, his works in the field of corporate governance received 29 citations. *Institutional block-holders and corporate social responsibility* demonstrate that lagged institutional blockholder ownership has a significantly positive effect on an investee firm's current CSR index, suggesting that institutional block-holders actively engage with firms' CSR activities to improve these firms' long-term prosperity and performance. Within the range of 11-20 citations, the most representative author is Igor Filatotchev. His most cited work, *Liability of foreignness in capital markets: Institutional distance and the cost of debt*, is a 24-year study on 361 entities in 45 countries, showing that institutional distances lead to increased cost of debt. The results extracted from the VosViewer software reflect that most authors who published papers on corporate governance in 2019 recorded less than 10 citations. Out of these, Jebran Khalil recorded the highest number of citations and the highest authorship link intensity based on simultaneous citations. The most representative work published in 2019, *Do gender diversity and CEO gender enhance firm's value? Evidence from an emerging economy* analyses how gender diversity and CEO gender can influence firm value represented by Tobin's Q indicator in the emerging market of Pakistan over the period 2010-2017.

In 2020, we recorded a decrease in the number of citations, as compared to the previous period under analysis, thus forming three intervals, which means up to 30 citations per author.

The most cited author in 2020 was Elamer Ahmed who recorded 28 citations during the year. His most representative analysis, in terms of the number of citations received, is the study *Sharia supervisory boards, governance structures and operational risk disclosures: Evidence from Islamic banks in MENA countries*, where he examines the impact of the Supervisory Board and governance structures on the degree of operational risk disclosure. Its results reveal that the independence of the board and the quality of governance are statistically significant and positively associated with operational risk disclosures. Within the range of 11-20, the highest number of citations belongs to the author Pucheta-Martinez Maria Consuelo who records 20 citations for the works developed in the field of corporate governance. Out of these, the work *Ownership structure, stakeholder engagement, and corporate social responsibility policies: The moderating effect of board independence* received the highest number of citations. In this paper, the authors adopted an agency theory framework to understand the extent to which professional shareholders, such as government, institutional, and foreign influence the firm's CSR reporting.

Within the last range, with 10 citations, is the author Hussainey Khaled, who, in the most representative work in terms of the number of citations, published in 2020, *ESG disclosure and firm performance before and after IR: The moderating role of governance mechanisms* analysed, with econometric methods, the effect of environmental, social and governance disclosure on firm performance before and after the introduction of integrated reporting and the effect of corporate governance mechanisms on this relationship.

The relationship network among authors based on their countries of origin allowed us to identify the interest of the academia in the concept of corporate governance corresponding to the geographical areas they come from. In this situation, too, the size of the nodes corresponding to each country is important, as it indicates the relevance of that country in corporate governance research, while the thickness of the curved lines and the distance between the nodes represents the collaboration link between the authors.

At a minimum threshold of 1 paper originating in the same country, for 2019 there is a sample of 94 countries, out of which 84 establish co-authorship links. For 2020, the sample consists of 101 countries, out of which 85 establish co-authoring links.

From a graphic point of view, the analysis of the international collaboration corresponding to the two years under analysis is illustrated in figure 3 (for 2019) and figure 4 (for 2020).

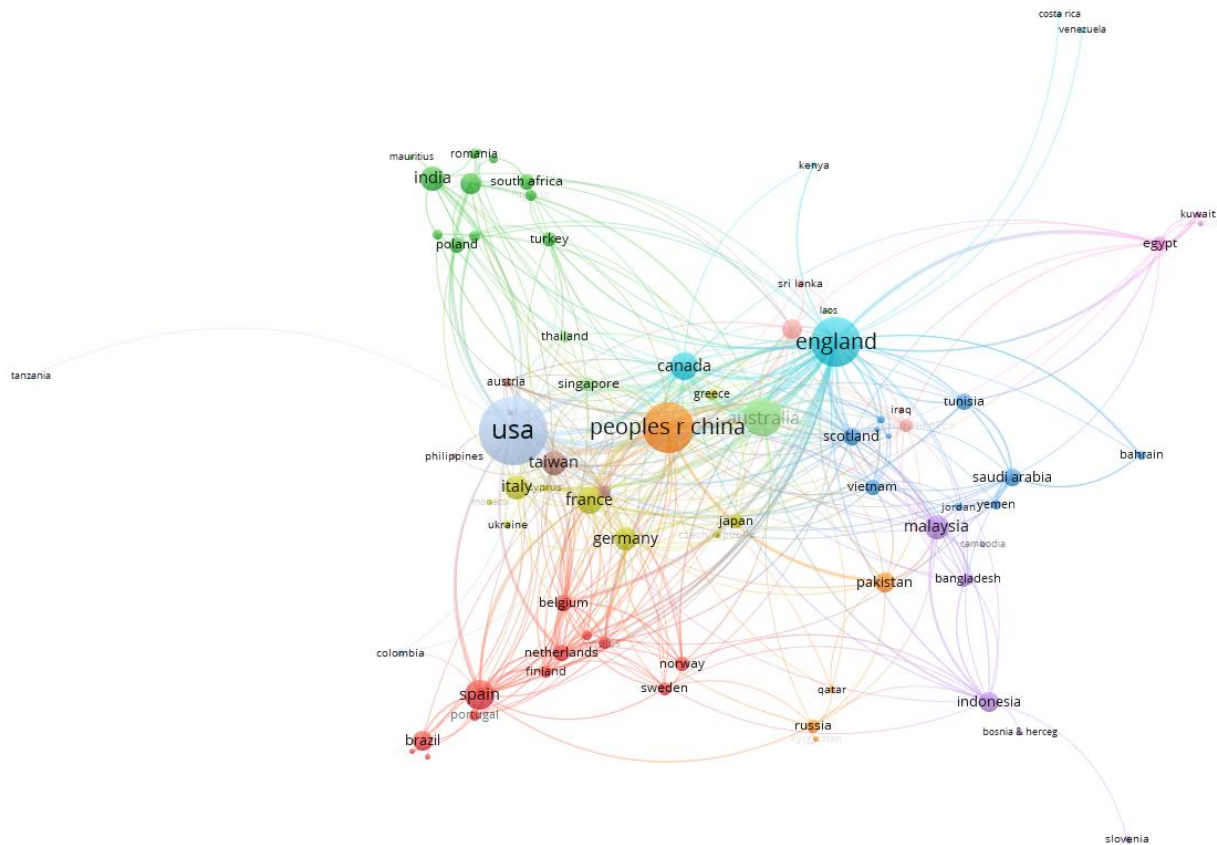


Figure 3 The country-based link network among the authors of scientific papers in the field of corporate governance in 2019
Source: authors processing using the VosViewer program

The graphic representation for 2019 reveals 12 groups of differently coloured countries, interconnected by the links between the authors of corporate governance studies, in terms of their scientific collaboration (the groups are formed based on the intensity of the collaboration link).

The largest cluster is the red one, consisting of 13 countries, namely: Argentina, Belgium, Brazil, Chile, Finland, Lebanon, Mexico, Netherlands, Norway, Portugal, Spain, Sweden and Wales.

However, the most relevant country in terms of international cooperation is the United States, which belongs to the last group. The USA records the highest number of published works, but also the highest number of citations. The second place in terms of international cooperation belongs to the United Kingdom, followed by the People's Republic of China.

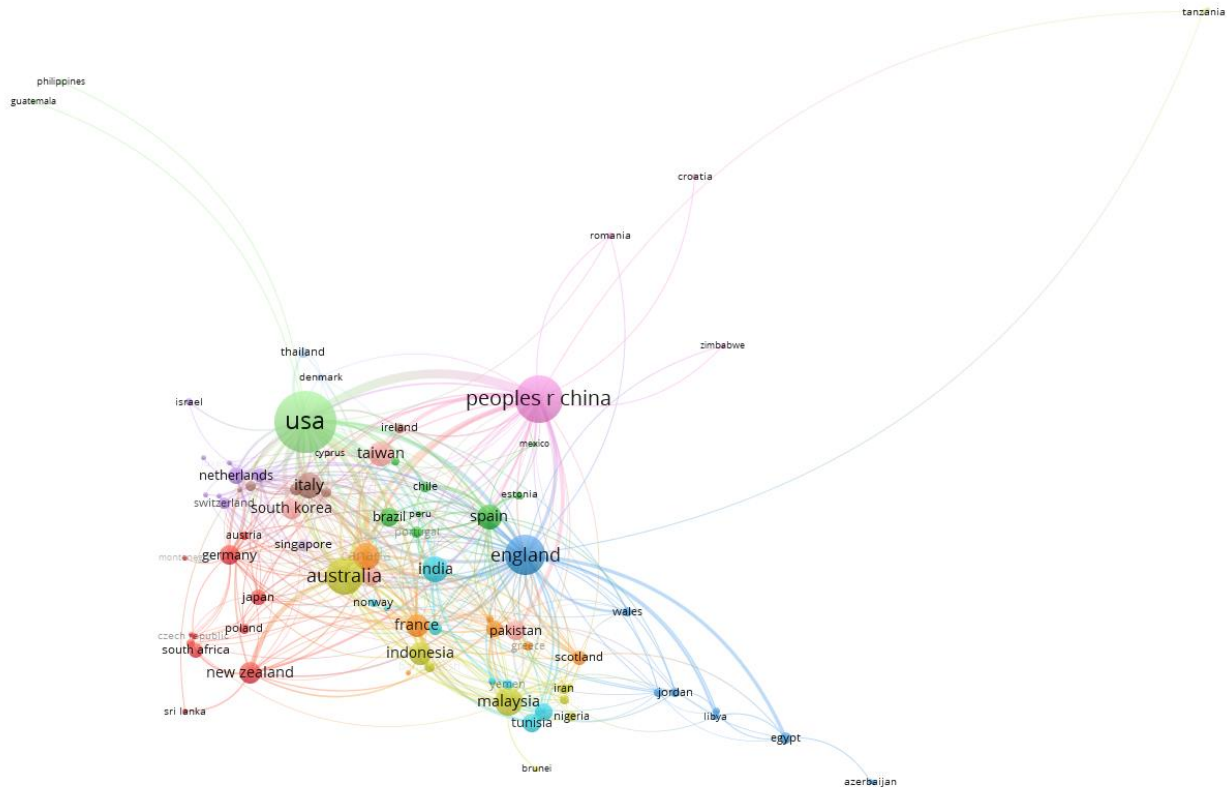


Figure 4 The country-based link network among the authors of scientific papers in the field of corporate governance in 2020
Source: authors processing using the VosViewer program

The graphic representation for 2020 reveals 14 differently coloured clusters, interconnected by the links between the authors of corporate governance studies, in terms of their scientific collaboration (the groups are formed based on the intensity of the collaboration link).

The largest cluster is the red one, consisting of 11 countries, namely: Bahrain, Brunei, Iran, Malaysia, Nigeria, Oman, Palestine, Saudi Arabia, Scotland, Tunisia and Yemen.

However, the most relevant country in terms of international cooperation is represented by the United States of America, which belongs to cluster 12. The USA also records the highest number of published works, but also the highest number of citations. The second place in terms of international cooperation belongs to the People's Republic of China, followed by the United Kingdom. In terms of citations, the USA is followed by the United Kingdom and then by the People's Republic of China, and in terms of the number of papers indexed in the Web of Science Core Collection, the People's Republic of China ranks second, followed by Great Britain.

The data obtained reveal the significant research interest in the concept of corporate governance in countries such as the USA, the People's Republic of China and the United Kingdom, countries on which the pandemic also had a strong economic and social impact.

4. Conclusions

The pandemic generated by the new coronavirus is still a challenge for the economic environment around the world. Even if it was a temporary measure, the lockdown applied by

different countries around the world, in an attempt to stop the spread of COVID-19, had considerable repercussions on economic activity. In particular, companies slow down their production due to disruption of supply chains but also due to the fact that demand for goods and services has been reduced. In the current economic context, we note that uncertainty has a detrimental influence on projected spending programs and other private investment, and in the face of this health crisis, entity managers need to pay close attention to how risks are managed, respectively, they need to review their strategy to meet the challenges and elaborate plans for future business development.

The bibliometric analysis performed in this study allowed us to identify the fact that research in the field of corporate governance was also directed towards studying the impact of COVID-19 on the way in which entities are managed and controlled. If before the pandemic, researchers were mainly interested in the impact of governance attributes on increasing performance, while ensuring sustainability through measures that address both the interests of stakeholders and involvement in the community life in which they operate, the "new reality" of nowadays reflects that entities need to be able to cope with risks, adapt to new conditions and place greater emphasis on digitalisation and implement strategies that ensure survival now and prosperity in the future.

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MANAGEMENT IN EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS IN SERBIA – STANDARD APPROACH, OLD HABBITS AND NEW CHALLENGES

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Abstract

In this paper we discuss several different aspects or different fields of expertise that any manager of educational institution in Serbia must have, in order to be successful as a manager. We analyze: (1) formal aspect of licencing process for school principals, (2) aspect of law, bylaws and regulations, (3) political and society aspect, (4) medical aspect as a consequence of COVID19 crisis and also (5) aspect of implementation of new educational technologies and digitalization in educational process. Special attention is given on a new challenges in management, that arises during COVID19 crisis. An interesting research was implemented with principals of schools, preschool institutions and other educational institutions, regarding all those aspects. 264 principals participated in this research. In this paper we presented obtained results, we analyze them and also we give some conclusions.

Keywords: Management, Education, Digitalization, Covid19

1. Introduction

Leadership is a way of directing the behavior of gathered people in order to achieve a certain goal by effectively using available resources (Ward, 2020). Management is a special scientific discipline, practically multidisciplinary, dealing with the problems of management of jobs, processes and systems (Bush, 2008). This discipline studies management as a complex process, with a series of sub-processes. On the other hand, this discipline deals with a group of people who manage processes and study all individual management problems and phenomena related to the efficient execution of certain tasks (Pedler et al., 2005).

Each of us plans our daily activities almost every day and organizes all available resources that are necessary for the realization of planned daily activities. There is almost no family in which certain activities are not delegated to individual members of the household in the morning, with the necessary stimulus for the activities to be realized. Individuals are usually unaware of this, but it is a typical daily routine that includes several basic management functions.

Similarly, on the other hand, some other systems (for example, educational) or institutions such as educational institutions (kindergartens, schools, faculties) too, are under the constant influence of the environment. In order for the system to continue to function and fulfill the purpose of its existence, coordinated and well-planned management activities are necessary. (Longshore, 2019)

Theories dealing with the study of management, both in the world and in the domestic literature, list five basic functions of the management process: planning, organizing, delegating, leading and controlling (Bush et al., 2019; Ashkanasy et al., 2000). Over time, management methods have constantly changed and adapted to the newly created emerging

socio-economic relations, but the essence of everyday management functions has always remained the same. All five management functions are interdependent and interconnected. Each of these five functions is an indispensable part of the management process in the business system. Accordingly, the the implementation of any of the functions can give full effect only if the other functions are realized in the required way.

2. Management in education

In the previous period, a few decades ago, the role of the school principal or the preschool director was, very important in the local society. Very important, but only in educational mean and in educational field. School principal had to be respectable teacher and educational professional, well known in his/her field of expertise. He/she had to deal with teaching process, teachers, students, parents and quality of education in its own school (Abdikadir, 2013). But principal did not have a need for some additional education, additional skills. He/she did not have to be principal and, at the same time, expert in law and economy. He/she did not have to be seriously involved in political processes in local municipality. He/she did not have a need to struggle for money for school, everything was well settled down and arranged by state and by the municipality (Ballou et al., 1995). Additionally, there were no fast and big changes in education like, for example, a leap into digitalization. What happened and what changed in last 10 years? Education changed¹.

Principals have had standard approach in their work and, of course, some old habits. But now, they have to accept new challenges.

There were a lot of different influences and aspects, that affects school principal job and role. We will consider some aspects, for this role in Serbian educational system, right now, in this specific moment. In particular, we will discuss: licensing for school principals, legal and law aspect, municipality and political aspect, Covid19 situation, and aspect of digitalization.

2.1 Formal aspect of license exam for school principals

For many decades there was no licensing exam for the role of school and preschool principal in Serbian educational system. Any experienced teacher could apply for a principals position and if he/she have a support from other colleagues and if he/she is willing and if express some leadership skills. It was desirable, also, that he/she is a good and respectable teacher. There was no need for special knowledge of legal procedures and law, and the same is with finance, economy and accounting.

After many years and some sort of evolution of school principals role in Serbian educational system, desired skills and knowledge for school principals, are now bigger and wider (Terziu et al, 2016; Leithwood et al, 1982).

Three years ago, the Serbian Ministry of Education, Science and Technological Development decided to regulate this field. Certain regulations and bylaws were adopted, and based on that, the government was able to regulate this process and, finally, to improve the overall quality of education.

In the last 3 years, any teacher in Serbia has the opportunity to apply for the so-called "exam for licensing principals", which consisting of three parts:

¹ *Official Gazette of RS, The Law in the Basics of Educational System, No. 88/17, 27/18, 10/19.*

- presentation of the research of educational practice, key research results and recommendations for the improvement of educational practice,
- verification of compliance with the competency standard for the director, and
- presentation of the content of the candidate's portfolio, which contains evidence of the achieved results and previous professional experience.

So, now we have a relatively demanding complex exam that is approached with a lot of seriousness. As such, it ensures the raising of the competencies of the principal and thus contributes to the strengthening and improvement of the overall skills of the future principal of the school or kindergarten. On the other hand, it provides them with some new necessary knowledge. This type of exam also requires very serious but proper preparation, which is regulated in detail by a bylaw (Grissom et al, 2018).

Old habits have to be replaced with a new habits, and that should be in accordance with new challenges.

The results of this approach are already visible. More professional and educated principals are more acceptable solution for leadership in educational institutions. They are better managers and better leaders. They know about all educational processes more than others, so they are now “right persons on the right place”. And we can all agree that this is significantly better solution for a country's education system than it was in previous years.

This serious and well structured and organized approach brings better results in leadership and in educational process too (Bossert, 1982). But, even more important, it guarantees better quality of school work, better results and better quality of education.

2.2 Legal and law aspect

Does one school principal needs to know educational laws, labour laws and other legal regulative? Does he/she need to know elements of economy? We can say that thirty years ago, principal role in Serbia was much easier. Everything was well ordered and organized, almost all about legal matters and about financial matters was well structured and organized, by state government or by local municipality. So, at in those circumstances, principal was not real manager, but more like coordinator of all processes in school. He/she did not have a need for dealing with laws, public procurement, organizing excursions, etc. But what does it look like today?

We have to admit that role of principals today is much different. There are so many processes during management of school, that he/she must be aware of them and processes that school principal by himself/herself must fully control (Stern, 1978). And that is why he/she needs to have a very good knowledge. In fact... he/she must know all educational and labour laws. Then he/she must have good knowledge of economy, finance and accounting. And public procurements, of course. Management skills are necessary too. And, of course... the last but not the least. Very good knowledge of teaching process and teachers job (Elihami et al., 2017)

Is this, maybe, too much for one person? Even if it is a school principal? Not at all, definitely. Because if it is too much there would not be always more candidates for each principals position. Attraction of this leaders position is obvious, despite the knowledge requirements. It can be explained, maybe, with higher salary, by wide influence on educational process and colleagues, and maybe just a simple need for power.

So, we can conclude that school principal today must be successful mix of lawyer, economist, manager and educational expert. This is a kind of modern school management, it is more demanding and there are so many new challenges. Only good competences in all mentioned areas can guarantee successful school leadership.

And to not forget... if school principal would like to try to participate with his/her school in European projects, knowledge of english language is also necessary, or at least desirable.

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So now we can clearly emphasize that the old approach to the role of director is a thing of the past. New habits and a constant need for new skills are already there. New demanding challenges are an integral part of the everyday life of future school principals.

2.3 Aspect of municipality and political engagement

We can be sure that thirty or forty years ago, schools and school employees, including school principals, were completely out of politics. They were dealing exclusively with educational matters and teaching process in school. There was no need that principal be a part of political life in municipality, and there was not to many interruption of school processes, from the side of politicians.

Many things changed (Howe et al, 2000; Masterson, 2017) and they changed in Serbia, also. Probably in similar manner, like in other countries, like in other educational systems. Today, school principal must be a person who is involved in all processes in local municipality and wider society. He/she cannot be separated, he/she must be fully engaged. School principal are now respectable persons in municipality, they have very descent integrity (Blasé et al, 1987; Cuban, 2009). They are well known in society, they compare in public their school results, they are proud on achievements of their schools.

There are so many situations when work and activities of school principals are affected and influenced by, mostly local politics. This is not influence regarding school programs – because school programs and curricula are in the charge of Ministry of Education and other state institutions and can not be changed. That influence is, mostly, about process of selection of new employees, ie. regarding human resources. It might look like not so big deal, because it is not directly connected with teaching process and children. But... on the other hand, if local politicians force principals to bring into the school some people, some teachers that are not so good and prepared, after some period, it would be long term bad influence of such activities, and negative for learning and teaching process.

Another segment of possible political influence of local municipality political leaders to school principals is similar like with other directors or managers of public institutions – regarding public procurements. It is always desirable that school principal cooperate with companies and businessmen who is close to local municipality. It is usually hard for principal to avoid, because local municipality has big influence on his election, so principal have to be in good relations and polite to local municipality leaders.

So, to conclude, modern school principal in Serbia, have be involved in most processes in local municipality and wider society. He/she must be fully engaged and in permanent relations with local political authorities.

2.4 Aspect of Covid-19 pandemia

During 2020, we have had one big change in our lives – COVID19 pandemia. And it still last, more than year after. The impact of the pandemic on education is extremely large. In fact, education might be one of mostly affected areas of social life in our municipalities and states. And this is not specific only for Serbian educational system, because similar situation is in almost all countries and educational systems in the world.

Schools are not the same anymore (Harris, 2020). Most of our children are at home, using online educational contents, television broadcasts or some sort of hybrid learning (IEQE, 2020) systems. If students go to school, it is necessary to respect specific measures such as physical distance and a smaller number of students in classrooms. Teachers are working, partly from schools, partly from homes, but there is one fact, that is for sure: teachers are working more then earlier and their job is harder now, because they must combine different types of teaching processes, different teaching tools, and to adjust everything for each student, particulary (Russel, 2020).

Overall shape of educational process, do students need to go to school or not, and all decisions about how the school should work are changing every week or two. So, this is one very, very complicated situation in education (Harris et al, 2020), caused by COVID19.

How did students respond to this situation? How did parents react at the same time? How did teachers react to those new challenges? How did principals react? These are many issues and we will deal with each of them separately.

The indisputable fact that we have to admit is that, after the first shock in March 2020, our students managed the fastest. They adapted to the new situation, almost immediately, they adopted new available high-tech tools and a new way of learning. They showed us how we need to adapt and make some evolutionary changes in the moment.

Right after students, next group that adjusted and adopted changes were parents. They accepted new role, to use digital tools for learning together with their children, and they endeavored to help their children in teaching process, despite new circumstances.

After parents, we have teachers. They adopted changes very slow, with long period of refusing. ~~People~~ Persons who are responsible for work with young generations, who are the future of our country in every sense, they waited to much. They expected that everything will be again like in previous period. Anyway, during summer 2020 they final accepted this new reality and new state of mind.

And what about the directors? It was necessary for the Directors to show more flexibility. It was necessary to immediately change the previous ways of working. All teaching processes in the schools changed in just one night. The usual communication and cooperation with colleagues was no longer possible. Even school meetings have moved to viber groups, zoom sessions, MS team meetings. The meetings of the teachers' council were digital. And the

director had to have an absolute insight into everything, it was necessary to be the first to adapt to the new situation.

New age brought new habits and new demands for principals. Everything came very fast and this was a real challenge for the future. Principals accepted this challenge – they had to. Principals are now real leaders in all school aspects.

2.5 Aspect of digitalization

Digitalization of educational process was not inducted only by COVID19 pandemic. It is only forced at that moment, to be fully implemented immediately. Educational system and whole society was preparing for digitalization for more than 30 years. And education will, probably, accept fully digitalization, even without COVID19 pandemic. Only question could be “when”. But now, we are in some kind of new reality (Rott, 2018). We took a “step of 1000 miles”. And there is no return, education will never move back. Teachers and students will never again work without mobile phones, tablets, laptop and computer (Debes, 2018). All technological tools and improvements will stay in teaching process, even after this specific situation (Gobble, 2018).

Where is school principal? What was the role of school principal earlier? How should each good principal act today? What will be the future role of school principal?

He/she have to be involved in almost all processes (Lindqvist et al, 2018), and to be aware of his/her role and importance. If students and teachers need to have improved digital competences (MoESTD, 2019), principal must be even better, because he/she must control the whole process. If students and teachers had to be active participants of hybrid model of learning (IEQE, 2020), school principal must be even more informed and familiar with that approach in teaching. So, the role of school principal becomes even more difficult and even more significant and important.

School principals in Serbia, as in other countries today probably, in this digital age must be some kind of “digital principals”. He/she must be familiar with all new digital tools and all novel approaches in use of technology in the educational process. They already made a big step during last year.

He/she have to be aware for using new technologies and properly prepared, but not only in classroom, but also in communication with teachers, in leading meetings with teachers and meeting of Teachers council, using internet portals and internet sites related to laws and finance. Digital way of acting and digital way of thinking became one of the key competences of one modern and successful school principal in Serbian school.

3. Research and results

3.1 Description of research

3.1.1. Sample

In this research participated 264 school principals from School Department of Belgrade. The selection of the School Department of Belgrade was made, based on two criteria:

- a large number of schools in the territory of School Department;
- mix of urban and suburban schools.

The majority of this sample consists of male principals (58%), while percentage of women in the principal role is slightly lower (42%). Almost half of the sample consisted of respondents of age between 50 and 59 (45.8%), followed by respondents aged 40 to 49 (38.3%). The lowest percentage were respondents aged 60 and higher (11.7 %).

When we consider work experience, the largest number of respondents have been working in education for over 21 years (63.6%). In the position of principal, most principals are in the first term of school management (34.8%), followed by respondents who are principals between 5 and 8 years (28.4%). It is especially interesting to note that as many as 69 respondents (26.1%) have been in the position of primary school principal for more than 12 years.

3.1.2. Instrument

For the purposes of this research, an online questionnaire (Google Forms) was created for primary school principals (14 closed questions) shown in the form of an assessment scale and one open-ended question. The questionnaire contains three groups of questions compiled in accordance with the subject of the research. The first group of questions refers to sociodemographic data (gender, years of service, years of service in the position of director).

The second group of questions refers to the type of primary school (number of students, urban and suburban environment).

The third group of questions refers to the decision-making on teaching staff and non-teaching staff, budget, teaching materials and methods of evaluation. Also, in the third group of questions we had questions related to the influence the ministry, School department or school board on decision making.

The fourth group of issues relates to the management of the educational institution during the COVID 19 pandemic. All questions were required, except the last, optional question.

The last question in the questionnaire was open-ended and respondents were able to share their experience of school management during the COVID 19 pandemic.

3.1.3. Research method

Given the subject of research and the created instrument, we use descriptive statistics and the method of content analysis.

3.1.4. Data analysis

In the analysis, we especially deal with the principal's opinion on school management in the regular and in circumstances challenging COVID 19 pandemic. Although the legislation requires otherwise, the majority of principals (36%) claim that the Ministry of Education or the School Department has a direct influence on decision-making on teaching staff and staff, budget and evaluation methods (see Figure 1).

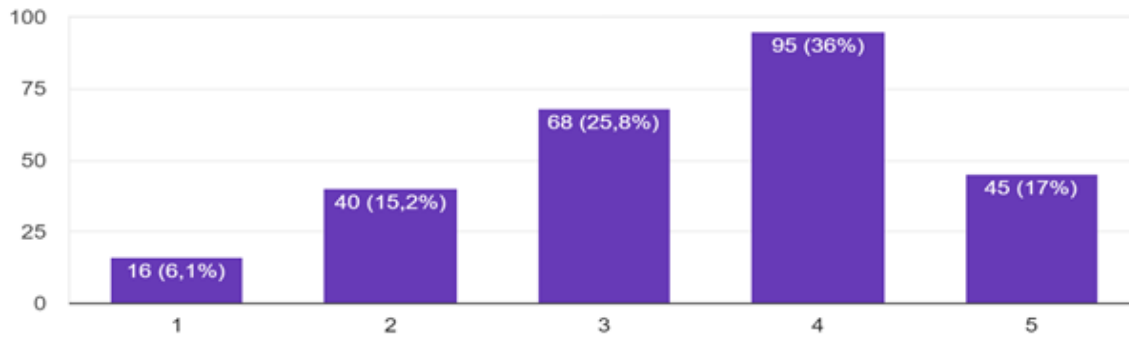


Figure 1: Decisions about human resources, budget and methods of evaluation is on Ministry of Education

Figure 2 shows the answers of the respondents to the question on the impact on decision-making on teaching staff and staff, budget, materials and the method of evaluation performed by the School Board. Most respondents, 36.4%, confirmed the direct influence of the school board on decision-making.

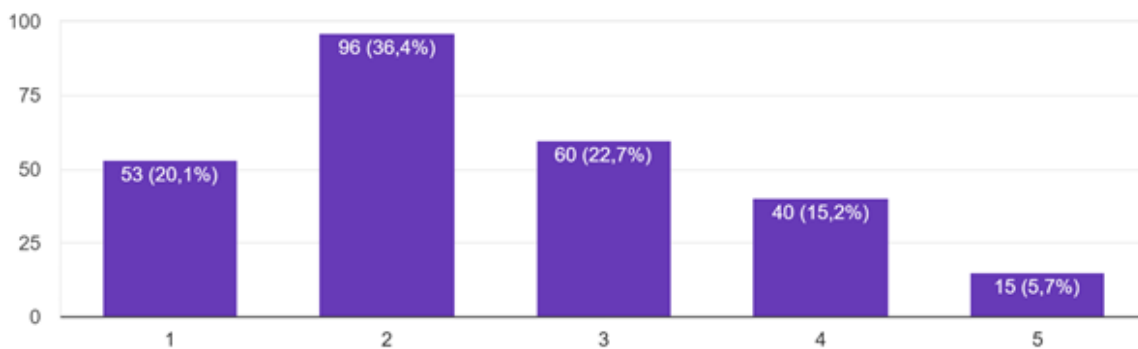


Figure 2: Decision about human resources, budget and methods of evaluation is on School Board

The School Board participates in numerous activities of the school: adopts the statute of the School, adopts internal school bylaws and other general acts. It also comments organization and systematization of work; adopts the School program, School development plan, Annual school work plan, adopts reports on their implementation and the Report on evaluation and self-evaluation; determines the proposal of the financial plan for the preparation of the budget of the Republic of Serbia; adopts the financial plan of the School in accordance with the Law; adopts the public procurement plan of the School; adopts the Report on the operations of the School, the Annual Accounting, the Report on the excursion; decides on the leasing, ie leasing of school space; decides on the expanded activities of the School, status change, change of the name and seat of the School in accordance with the Law.

Also, the school board is responsible for the position of principal by announcing a public competition, no later than three months before the end of the term of the current principal and electing the school principal; decides on the rights, obligations and responsibilities of the

School Director; makes a decision on the appointment of the acting director in accordance with the Law; dismisses the director of the School from office in accordance with the Law;

On the other hand, the competencies of the school board are also giving an opinion to the director of the school in the process of deciding on the selection of teachers and professional associates for employment. The school board is also responsible for other activities such as the appointment of members of the Expert Team for Development Planning; forming various education commission, etc.

In addition to everything mentioned so far, the school board is also responsible for considering respect for general principles, achieving the goals of education and standards of student achievement, as well as taking measures to improve working conditions and achieve educational work. The school board adopts the Plan of professional development of employees and adopts a report on its implementation; decides on objections, respectively appeals against the director's decision; Finally, one of his last roles is to make a decision on initiating the procedure for appointing members of the School Board no later than two months before the expiration of the mandate of the previously appointed members of the School Board.

A special issue related to the challenges during the KOVID 19 pandemic. Respondents were offered the factors shown in

Table 1. Factors that made teaching process more difficult during period of KOVID 19 pandemia

Table 1: Factors that made teaching process more difficult during period of KOVID 19 pandemia		
Factor	Teachers (out of 264)	Percentage
Limited Access of students to digital devices	141	53,4%
Limited Access of students to digital devices	165	62,5%
Low digital competences of students	60	22,7%
Low digital competences of parents	99	37,5%
Low digital competences of teachers	57	21,6%
Low level of technical suport for teachers	89	33,7%
Low level of technical suport for students	106	40,2%
Bad procedures and instructions for distance learning	65	24,6%
Difficulties in students engagement	132	50,0%
Difficulties in support to families for distance learning	101	38,3%
Teacher doesnt have enough expirience for distance learning	120	45,5%
No training for teachers regarding distance learning	75	18,0%

The largest number of respondents pointed out that the main hindering factor for the realization of distance learning is the difficult access of students to a good internet connection. Given that the research was conducted in the capital, where economic conditions are better than in other parts of our country, this data implies that further research is needed. Also, in 2019, the Republic Statistical Office of the Republic of Serbia researched the use of information and communication technologies in Serbia and it

was determined that 80.1% of households have an Internet connection. Respondents' answers indicate the quality of the internet connection, so the types of connections should be investigated in future work.

As a hindering factor for the realization of distance learning, 50% of respondents point out the difficulties in engaging students. Student engagement refers to student behavior in school, through engagement during learning and in relation to academic achievement, and through student engagement through school-related activities. During distance learning, students' extracurricular activities are kept to a minimum. To process the answer to the 14th question, an open-ended question, the method of content analysis was used. Respondents' answers can be divided into two categories.

The first category emphasizes the quick response of the authorities to the pandemic, as well as the high motivation and competence of distance teaching teachers. The second category of answers refers to increased demands during distance learning, the need to solve problems on the go, as well as concerns about the health of students and school staff. Most respondents agree that it is necessary to raise the competencies of employees for the use of information and communication technologies. Here is one of the detailed answers: When the pandemic started in March 2020, we were all surprised and asked the question: What now? However, we organized ourselves very quickly and started to establish communication with the students. First they were viber groups. Soon platforms like google classroom, zoom and the like were launched. In a short time, we quickly matured digitally.

Most students got used to the new technologies very quickly. We only remember the trial final exam which was online. As a principal, I set myself the task of encouraging teachers to start researching digital platforms and tools on their own, to try, experiment and thus gain experience related to distance learning. I followed the offer of webinars and conferences related to digitalization and forwarded it to my colleagues. I worked on raising the awareness and responsibility of teachers to do their job professionally and to find time for each student. It was necessary to help and support parents to accept modern technologies as a reality. Many introduced the Internet, bought tablets, mobile phones or computers and thus helped their children to follow online classes. I think the education system has coped with this difficult situation."

4. Conclusions

In this paper we discuss several different aspects or different fields of expertise that any manager of educational institution in Serbia must have, in order to act like successful manager. We analyze:

- (1) formal aspect of licencing process for school principals,
- (2) aspect of law, bylaws and regulations,
- (3) political and society aspect,

(4) medical aspect as a consequence of COVID19 crisis and also

(5) aspect of implementation of new educational technologies and digitalization in educational process.

Special attention is given on a new challenges in management, that arises during COVID19 crisis.

An interesting research was implemented with principals of schools, preschool institutions and other educational institutions, regarding all those aspects. 264 principals participated in this research. In this paper we presented obtained results, we analyze them and also we give following conclusions:

- New approach with “principal licencing exam”, guarantees improving leadership, management and overall skills of one school principal. More educated principals are better solution for leadership in educational institutions. This approach guarantees better results in leadership, but even more important, in educational process too.
- School principal must be very successful mix of lawyer, economist, manager and of course teacher and educational expert. This is a kind of modern school management, it is much more demanding and there are so many new challenges.
- Local municipality and local political authorities have big influence on principals election, so each principal have to be in good relations and polite to local municipality leaders. It means that modern school principal in Serbia, have be involved in most processes in local municipality and wider society. He/she must be fully engaged and in permanent relations with local political authorities.
- Principals accepted COVID19 challenge with a great flexibility and they changed and adjusted their way of work immediately. All activities were moved to: ~~Principals went digital~~ digital: google classrooms, viber groups, zoom sessions, MS Teams meetings. New age brought new habits and new demands for principals, and this was a real challenge for the future. Principals accepted this challenge and they are now real leaders in all school aspects.
- Today, in this digital age, school principals both in Serbia and in other countries, must be a kind of " digital principals ". Familiar with all new digital tools, familiar with all novell approaches in use of technology in the educational process, aware of all aspects of using new technologies, properly prepared for digitalization in classroom, but also in management, legal decisions, and finance. Digital way of acting and digital way of thinking wil be the key competences of school principal in future, too.

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REPRESENTATION OF WOMEN IN MANAGEMENT POSITIONS OF CROATIAN COMPANIES AND PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION AND THEIR IMPACT ON BUSINESS PERFORMANCE

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Abstract

Despite the numerous examples of women who successfully manage the world's largest companies, especially in difficult economic conditions, their share in the total number of senior management is modest. Both women and men can be good and bad leaders, but they nurture different leadership styles that are important to understand. The most effective leader will appropriately combine the positive qualities of both women and men. Working to strengthen women's leadership aspirations is key to the very development of women's leadership skills. If they do not live as leaders, they will not develop their leadership and will not be exposed to situations in which they can develop it. Therefore, in this research, we will primarily focus on women in management positions, their representation and leadership style, as well as their impact on business performance. Furthermore, we will analyze gender representation in public and state administration in the Republic of Croatia. In this context, we will analyze the representation of women and men in management positions in business entities in the Republic of Croatia. We will also analyze the representation of women on supervisory boards, instances with a significant over-representation of women and men and those with a gender balance, as well as instances outside the business sector where the presence of women in the hierarchical pyramid is also declining. In the modern world, there is no longer a division into male-female jobs and positions, even in information technology, the role of women has changed. Gender equality is legally guaranteed in every country, but we still face the injustice of unequal pay for women, even though, on average, women are statistically more educated than their male counterparts. Reducing the gender gap when it comes to this topic depends mainly on the skills of both women and men in reconciling professional and private life. Women and men are directly or indirectly the subjects of all measures taken by the state administration and the impact of these measures is too rarely analyzed from a gender perspective. By examining the work we do from the perspective of different population groups, we can ensure that the decisions made benefit all of us and thus foster equality between men and women. Gender equality is (re)organizing, improving, developing and evaluating policy processes so that actors, who are otherwise involved in decision-making, include a gender perspective in all policies at all levels. We can say that gender equality is a concept by which the gender perspective and the promotion of gender equality are included in the work of all state bodies and their decisions. Gender equality does not eliminate the need for certain measures to achieve equality, but complements them. Gender equality in management positions in many countries will not be achieved so quickly, although this is precisely why, due to the different leadership skills that characterize them, a positive impact on business results can be attributed.

Keywords: *Gender equality, business performance, Croatia*

1. INTRODUCTION

Gender equality in every state is the foundation of democratic principles as well as the constitutional order based on the systematic application of gender representation in all organizations, be they for-profit or non-profit. The aspiration to establish equal gender representation at all levels of society is an indicator of its maturity, when it comes to management positions of for-profit organizations, the company's management, supervisory boards, boards of directors and assemblies, while non-profit organizations primarily refer to the management of institutions. administrative and other councils.

In Croatia, gender equality is regulated by the Gender Equality Act issued by the Government of the Republic of Croatia (hereinafter the Act) through the Office for Gender Equality. The first Gender Equality Act was passed on 14 July 2003. The Gender Equality Act determines the bases for the protection and promotion of gender equality as fundamental values of the constitutional order of the Republic of Croatia. It defines and regulates the method of protection against discrimination on the grounds of sex and the creation of equal opportunities for women and men (OG 82/08). Gender equality implies that women and men are equally represented in all areas of public and private life, that they have equal status, equal opportunities in exercising their rights, as well as equal benefit from the achieved results (OG 69/17, consolidated text of the Act). Furthermore, the Law defines the prohibition of discrimination in the areas of employment, both in the public and private sectors.

The National Policy for Gender Equality, for the period from 2011 to 2015, additionally harmonized the provisions of the Act with the provisions of international standards with the law of the European Union. The basics of prohibition of discrimination in the field of employment and work have been expanded, a quota system for elections at all levels has been introduced, the area of judicial protection against discrimination has been improved and an independent body for combating discrimination in the field of gender equality has been established. for gender equality, all in accordance with the obligations in the transposition of the *acquis communautaire*.

For the first time, the role and status of county commissions for gender equality as bodies in charge of implementing the Gender Equality Act with the Attorney General's Office, the Office for Gender Equality of the Government of the Republic of Croatia and coordinators in state administration bodies have been legally defined.

With the adoption of the Law on Gender Equality, preconditions have been created for achieving a balance between men and women at all social levels, including management positions.

2. WOMEN IN MANAGEMENT POSITIONS

According to Buble (Buble, 2006), the contemporary interactive leadership style holds that women have a different leadership style than men, which is more effective in a modern often turbulent environment. Women are more prone to interactive behavior, consensus, and

participation. Interactive leadership style is not only a feature of women, many men are also prone to interactive behavior.

Professional article from the business weekly *Lider* (<https://lider.media/lider-trend/only-202-years-are-needed-to-equalize-the-economic-gap-between-women-men/>, 4. 7. 2019), states that according to the current rates of economic development of countries, the World Economic Forum estimates that it will take at least another 202 years for the economic gap between men and women, based solely on gender differences, to equalize globally.

The results of a study by the Council on Foreign Relations, an American non-governmental organization based in New York, showed that countries such as Mexico, El Salvador and Croatia now provide women with greater equality in economic relations than men than in the strongest economic powers. such as the US, Germany or Norway.

In their research, Posarić, Kokot and Klačmer Čalopa (Posarić, Kokot and Klačmer Čalopa, 2017) analyze the representation of women in management positions in Croatian companies and their impact on business performance. The survey was conducted in 2013 on 383 largest Croatian companies according to the criterion of realized revenues. Of the 383 companies surveyed, 379 use a two-tier corporate governance model. The results of the research showed that in 379 observed companies there are 829 members of the management board and 1152 members of the supervisory board. Out of a total of 829 members of the management board, only 128 are members, which represents 15% of women in the management boards of the observed companies. When it comes to the observed supervisory boards, this percentage is 21%, out of 1152 members of the supervisory boards of the observed companies, 240 are members. The representation of women in management positions in the 400 largest Croatian companies is significantly less than 40%, while the recommendation of the European Commission is that the representation of women on management boards is 40%. Out of a total of 379 companies observed, 128 of them, which is 15%, have one or more women on their board.

Interestingly, the survey found that firms that have at least one woman on the board have higher average post-tax profits than firms that do not have a single woman on the board. Also, companies that have at least one woman on the supervisory board have a higher average profit after tax compared to companies that do not have a woman on the supervisory board.

Nidogon Višnjić et al. (Nidogon Višnić et al., 2018), conducted a survey on the attitudes and perceptions of women in management positions about their position in the workplace over 112 respondents using a questionnaire sent by e-mail to respondents employed in management positions in business organizations in Croatia. The results showed that in Croatia the representation of women in management positions is 19%, (while the average in the European Union is 20.2%), that business organizations that have a higher share of women in management achieve 35% higher return on capital, have 26% higher prices shares, and net profit growth of 14%.

Soldat (Soldat, 2018) analyzes the ratio of the number of female and male managers in the European Union, emphasizing that the share of male managers is 67% and women 33%. When it comes to Croatia, the share of women managers is at the level of 30%.

Furthermore, in 2014, the Credit Suisse Research Institute (<https://www.credit-suisse.com/about-us-news/en/articles/media-releases/csri-gender-3000-201609>) conducted research among 42 countries on the topic of gender diversity in a sample of 27,000 directors as well as their impact on the performance of the surveyed companies. The results showed that the number of women in management positions is growing. The average representation of women on committees in 2010 was 9.6%, while in 2013 it increased to 12.7%. Companies achieve a 28% higher rate of return on equity, a 6% higher debt-to-equity ratio, and an 11% higher dividend payout ratio in which women hold the position of CEO than companies that have men as CEOs. Companies that have more than 10% of women as CEO and operations manager achieve a 27% higher rate of return on capital, 26% higher debt-to-equity ratio and 42% higher dividend payout ratio than companies that have less than 5% of women as executive director and operations manager. Companies with more than 15% of women in senior management achieve a 52% higher rate of return on capital, 61% higher debt-to-equity ratio and 22% higher dividend payout ratio than companies that have less than 10% of women in senior management.

McKinsey & Company (McKinsey & Company, 2007) conducted a survey called "Women Matters" in relation to 89 European companies regarding the share of women on the board of directors and their function in the company. The results of the research showed that companies with a greater diversity of women in management positions achieve a higher rate of return on equity than the industry average (11.40% vs. 10.30%), that they achieve higher operating profit than the industry average (11.10% vs. 5. , 80%) and achieve higher growth of stock prices than the industry average (64% vs. 47%).

In 2014, the European Commission (<https://ec.europa.eu/info/policies/justice-and-fundamentalrights/gender-equality>) conducted a survey between 28 EU member states present on stock exchanges, including Croatia, over 613 companies. The analysis of the research results included the gender representation of the chairman of the board of directors or supervisory board in the two-level model and the members of the board of directors or supervisory board in the two-level model. The results of the research showed that at the level of the entire European Union, the average share of 7% of women and 93% of men refers to the position of chairman of the board or supervisory board in the two-tier model, and that the average share of 20% of women and 80% of men board or supervisory board in a two-tier model. Regarding the data related to Croatia, they are as follows: 25 companies, showed that the average share of 12% of women and 88% of men refers to the position of chairman of the board or supervisory board in the two-tier model and that the average share of 19% of women and 81% of men refer to board or supervisory board membership in a two-tier model.

Authors Tacheva and Huse (Tacheva, Huse, 2006) conducted a survey of 249 Norwegian companies on the topic of the relationship between women's representation and company effectiveness. The results of the research showed that there is a negative correlation between the representation of women on supervisory boards and the success of the financial control of committees over companies. In addition, there is a positive relationship between the representation of women on supervisory boards and the effectiveness of the same committees in performing a quality control function over the company. Research shows that the representation of women on supervisory boards can have a positive and negative impact on the

company, that they have better results of control over tasks of a qualitative nature, while they have lower ability to control service tasks. The conducted research indicates that the representation of women in the supervisory board does not always contribute to increasing the success of the company.

3. REPRESENTATION OF WOMEN IN MANAGEMENT AND MANAGEMENT POSITIONS IN PUBLIC AND STATE ADMINISTRATION IN THE REPUBLIC OF CROATIA

Due to the unavailability of data on the management and ownership representation of women in public and state administration from regular statistical monitoring (CBS, FINA, commercial courts), the representation of women in management positions in public and state administration in Croatia, ie gender balance can be obtained only through occasional surveys individual institutions. Surveys on the representation of women and men in managerial and managerial positions in business entities in the Republic of Croatia based on the published results of the Progress Project of the Gender Equality Ombudsman "Removing the Glass Labyrinth - Equal Opportunities in Accessing Economic Decision-Making Positions in Croatia" in 2014 on this topic.

A quantitative survey of the 500 best companies by revenue was conducted electronically (ranking list for 2012, FINA), 168 companies responded, ie 33.60%.

Their structure is as follows: companies with predominant management control of the Republic of Croatia with public authorities 7.14% (12); companies of the company with predominant control of the Republic of Croatia without public authorities 7.14% (12); companies with management control of private persons with public authority 1.79% (3), and companies under management control of private persons without public authority 83.93% (141).

The representation of women in the management structure from the following table indicates a positive trend and an increase in the number of women in management positions of 24.17% in 2014 compared to 19.53% in 2011, while in the same period the number of men in management positions fell by 5.87%.

Table 1 Gender structure at management level (management, board of directors and supervisory board)

	2011.	2014.	change
Women	19,53%	24,25%	+24,17%
Men	80,47%	75,75%	-5,87%

Source: Progress project, Gender Equality Ombudsperson 2014.

When we talk about the representation of women on supervisory boards, we also see an increase in the number of women in 2014 compared to 2011 by 13.98%, and a decrease in the number of men of 3.46%.

Table 2 Gender structure in supervisory boards

	2011.	2014. (N=105, n=98)	promjena
Women	19,88%	22,66%	+13,98%
Men	80,11%	77,34%	-3,46%

Source: Progress project, Gender Equality Ombudsperson 2014.

Representation of women at the level of presidents of administrative and supervisory bodies, and areas with a significant overrepresentation of women / men are shown in Tables 2 and 3 and indicate the same trend of increase in the number of women of 4.78% in 2014 compared to 2011, as well as a decrease in the number of men observed in the same period by 0.47%.

Table 3 Gender structure of leading persons of management bodies and supervisory boards

Gender structure of presidents of governing bodies			
	2011.	2014.	promjena
Women	9,00%	9,43%	+4,78%
Men	91,00%	90,57%	-0,47%
Gender structure of chairpersons of supervisory boards 2014			

Source: Progress project, Gender Equality Ombudsperson 2014.

Table 4 Areas with a significant overrepresentation of women / men

Gender roles at management levels	
AREAS WITH EXPRESS OVER-REPRESENTATION (> 70%)	
WOMEN	MEN
human resources 75.00%	production management 84.85%
marketing 83.33%	sales 73.14%
public relations 87.50%	maintenance 91.67%

Source: Progress project, Gender Equality Ombudsperson 2014.

Areas with a significant over-representation of women and men, above 70% when it comes to women are human resources, marketing and public relations, while areas with a significant over-representation of men are production management, sales and maintenance.

Areas with a significant overrepresentation of women (> 60%) are finance (64.41%) and quality control (65.79%). The area with gender balance is procurement (52.31% women; 47.69% men).

The results of the research coincide with the dominant indicators on the position of women and men in the Croatian labor market, which are:

- underrepresentation of women at the managerial level coincides with their underrepresentation in the number of participants in the labor market,
- women enter management positions later and leave them earlier, which coincides with the later entry of women into the labor market and their earlier exit from it,
- Despite the fact that the share of highly educated women in the labor market is higher than the share of men and that the share of highly educated women in the companies that participated in the survey is higher than the share of men, the situation in management bodies is reversed. gender roles coincides with the horizontal segregation of areas of activity in the labor market.

In the period from 2011 to the present, an increase in the share of women in management positions has been observed. Some companies do not have systematic monitoring and keeping of gender statistics.

Data indicating an increase in the representation of women suggest the so-called. "Rising tide strategy", and the trend of increasing the number of highly educated women in the labor market in the last decade, which certainly contributes to the growing number of women in management positions.

Higher education for women reduces the competitive advantage that a man has in the labor market by the fact that he is a man. At the same time, the data show that there are a lot of women in management positions with the potential for management positions, but they are still underrepresented in those positions. The entry of women into governing bodies is expressed by a disproportionate percentage of highly educated women. These disparities and their coincidence with gender-based unfavorable trends in the labor market indicate the existence of a glass ceiling.

The decline in the presence of women in the hierarchical pyramid also exists outside the business sector and only further supports claims of the existence of structural barriers (stereotypes and burdens of women with the profession of organizing family life).

Data related to 2011 further show that 55.2% of assistants at the university are women, and 28.0% of full professors are women. In the judiciary, the statistics are as follows: women are judges of municipal courts 70.4%, when it comes to women judges of misdemeanor courts then it is 72.0%, while women in 58.0% of cases are judges of county courts, 68.0% women are judges of commercial courts, 48.0% are judges of the Supreme Court, and 38.5% of women are judges of the Constitutional Court.

When it comes to the state attorney's office, 69.2% of women are municipal attorneys, 55.8% of women are county attorneys and 47.8% of women are state attorneys.

The example of educational activity well illustrates stereotypes about what are "women's" activities, because within one activity and one profession there are significant differences in the share of women in total employed teachers, so 84.8% of women in primary education and 65 in secondary education 65, 9%, and in high 47.3% women.

The World Economic Forum has established a group of highly influential leaders (50% women and 50% men) who have decided to launch a series of initiatives to improve the use of women's intellectual / working capital. At the same time, three pilot projects were launched involving working groups with equal numbers of women and men, in Mexico, Turkey and Japan, tasked with contributing to closing the gender gap in economic activity by 10% in each country through a public-private partnership.

3. CONCLUSION

Despite the numerous examples of women who successfully manage the world's largest companies, especially in difficult economic conditions, their share in the total sum of senior and senior management is modest.

Both women and men can be good and bad leaders, but they nurture different leadership styles. It is important to understand the different leadership styles they nurture. The most effective leader will combine the positive characteristics of both women and men in an appropriate way.

Women are slowly entering the business world and occupying more and more positions where only men used to be. These changes are not happening fast because of the different prejudices that men have towards female leaders, and also because of the fear that women have of failure and low self-esteem.

In the modern world, there is no longer a division into male-female jobs and positions in the workplace. Even in information technology, the role of women has been repositioned. Gender equality is legally guaranteed in every country, but we still face the injustice of unequal pay for men and women, even though they are statistically on average more educated than their male counterparts.

The report on the implementation of the EU Strategy for Equality between Women and Men states that in Europe the male employment rate has stabilized below 75%, while the female employment rate has risen slightly for the third year in a row and reached 63%. The ability of Member States to increase sustainable employment rates and reduce the gender gap depends most on the ability of women and men to reconcile work and private life.

It is necessary to help women recognize themselves as leaders. Women need to increase their self-confidence, which means they need to be willing to fight, fail, take risks, not be perfect. Internal and external are barriers that prevent women leaders from developing; self-confidence and avoiding opportunities that can lead to failure; Susan R. Madsen's popular book "Women and Leadership around the World" (2015) says a lot about this; among the external are things like the glass ceiling, modernly called labyrinth, the gender pay gap, socialization, unconscious prejudices, organizational processes and systems that benefit male-dominated cultures, lack of opportunities for women in networking and mentoring, and more .

Working to strengthen aspirations for leadership in women is essential for the very development of women's leadership skills. If they do not strive to be leaders, they will not strive to develop leadership and will not be exposed to situations in which they can develop leadership.

The quote by John Quincy Adams gives a clear course of action to all current leaders and those who are just trying to become:

"If your attitude, words and actions encourage others to dream more, learn more, achieve more and become the best variant of yourself, then you are a leader."

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THE NEW CHALLENGES FOR CENTRAL AND EASTERN EUROPEAN TRANSITION COUNTRIES

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Abstract

The new cooperatives and alternative governance models are offered through the Belt and Road Initiative, which is discussed as a global challenge for the Central and Eastern European transition countries. Former socialist countries started their transition by removing the iron curtain, the physical and mental boundary dividing Europe into two separate political blocks from the end of World War II in 1945 until the end of the so-called Cold War in 1991. The research questions in this paper are: (1) Is it possible to use the Belt and Road Initiative for improving Central and Eastern Europe Countries' economic development? (2) How can European Union membership influence the cooperation between a single country and Belt and Road Initiative? The methods used for this research are primarily literature analysis and synthesis of different opinions. The significance of research questions is very high, especially if any correlation between development and Initiative can be established. Furthermore, the position of former transition countries within the European Union can show how the Initiative is useful for the bilateral relationship. If research indicates that the Initiative is beneficial for transitional countries, even if they are already European Union members, the conclusion can lead to the necessity of cooperation between the Belt and Road Initiative and the European Union as a more formal initiative.

Keywords: *Belt and Road Initiative, economic development, transition countries*

1. Introduction

The modern World is multipolar, with more than two political, economic, and military forces dominating particular regions or globally. Fascinating view of different powers influencing the contemporary world suggests Wolfish and Smith (2000) in their three approaches model to the centers of power (Fig.1). The significant contribution to a better understanding of the modern multipolar world is the inclusion of other organizations, besides the states, dominating in the first approach, because in today's world, many corporations, non-governmental organizations, or even terrorist, play a significant role, which makes the second approach reasonable. The third approach includes trans-organizational systems such as the market or Internet, and their influence and power are out of the question.

Despite considerable efforts to establish a peaceful and cooperative environment on a global level, starting with the Organization of United Nations, Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development, and many similar initiatives, permanent or ad-hoc, the World is still fraught with different conflicts while final solutions seem to be very far. Economic relationships, in spite of the growth, tend to enlarge the discrepancy between impoverished people and very few enormously wealthy and influential people. If 2% of the wealthiest control more than 90% of world assets, it is not likely that conflicts will resolve. In such a controversial world, each initiative to improve economic and political cooperation is more than needed.

One of the most significant initiatives for intercontinental cooperation is so-called The *Belt and Road Initiative* (BRI) or *The Silk Road Economic Belt and the 21st-century Maritime Silk Road* concept for improving collaboration between Asian and European countries. The initiative was launched by the Chinese government in order to promote economic co-operation among today's modern countries along the historical Silk routes. The general idea was to support the free flow of economic factors and the efficient allocation of resources on both continents. Regarding further market integration and the creation of a regional economic co-operation framework, the benefit is expecting in bilateral cooperation and at the global level too.

Approaches	Type of Power	Type of Center	Example of Center of Power
I.	Economic and Military Capability	States	United States, China, India Brazil, Japan, Russia
II.	Technological and Financial Capability, Moral Persuasion, Legal Authority, International Obligation, Development and Accumulation of Knowledge	State Actors, NGO-s, Global Cities and Region, Interstate Organizations, Quasi State Institutions, Group Actors	Local Governments, Supreme Courts, Greenpeace, Investor Services, Rating Agencies, Corporations, EU Parliament, OECD, Central Banks, Revolutionary and Terrorist Organizations
III.	Authority and Common Understanding	Spheres of Authority, Interpersonal Communications, Intersubjective Consensus and Understanding	The Market, The International System, Domestic Political System, Internet

Fig.1. Approaches to Understanding Multiple Centers of Power, Wolfish and Smith (2000)

According to the great importance of the Belt and Road Initiative for the further economic development of all countries on the route, some questions arise for different researches:

1. Is it possible to use the Belt and Road Initiative for improving South and Eastern Europe Countries' economic development?
2. How can European Union membership influence the cooperation between a single country and Belt and Road Initiative?

The significance of these research questions is very high, especially if any correlation between a single country's development and Initiative can be established. Furthermore, the development of former transition countries within the European Union can show how the Initiative is useful for the bilateral relationship, mostly when these clearly political commitments are not accepted without some reserves, especially in the West, according to Shen and Chan (2018).

2. The Belt and Road Initiative contribution to the Transition Countries

The Belt and Road Initiative is an ambitious effort to improve regional cooperation and connectivity on a trans-continental scale (World Bank, 2018). The general idea is strengthening infrastructure, trade, and investment links between China and more than 60 other Asian, European, and African countries that make over 30 percent of global GDP, 62 percent of the population, and 75 percent of known energy resources. The *Silk Road Economic Belt*, linking China to Central and South Asia and onward to Europe, by land, and the *New Maritime Silk Road*, linking China to South East Asia, the Gulf Countries, North Africa, and on to Europe, by sea. To avoid earlier interpretation of “one road and one belt,” six other economic corridors have been identified to link neighboring countries to the Belt and the Road. The initiative is still blending the shape, intentionally open to all governments and international and regional organizations.

European countries in transition, even if they joined the European Union, did not achieve their expectations from the period of leaving socialism. Industrial production, the rate of employment, and above all, the level of the living standard is still far below that time projections, and people’s dissatisfaction results in a decrease in birth rate and increase of migrations. Many transitional states are not tenable, with such indicators on a long-term basis.

The World Bank analysts (2018) recognize significant economic and policy challenges, but the realization of the potential benefits of Initiative is not automatic, so complementary reforms should be introduced to improve institutions and the policy environment. The bank is already deeply engaged in many countries along the route: (1) about US\$ 80 billion is placed for infrastructure in Belt and Road countries and (2) the World Bank Group is undertaking a study to analyze the economics of the Initiative, that includes:

- An assessment of the *connectivity gaps* (e.g., transport, communications, trade, investment) in the broad Belt and Road Initiative region,
- An assessment of the *economic effects of proposed BRI infrastructure improvements*, including the impact on international trade, cross-border investment, allocation of economic activity, and inclusive and sustainable growth in the Initiative countries,
- Identification of *complementary policies and institutions that will support welfare maximization* for all countries on the route, including, for example, trade, investment and procurement reforms, and social, environmental and governance safeguards.

If the World Bank is so deeply included in analyzing and financing Initiative, it is likely that China’s *Marshall Plan* is about to succeed. European transition countries have an excellent opportunity to benefit from China’s initiative and the World Bank’s support, making a positive answer to the first research question.

The answer to the second research question depends on the relationship between the European Union and China and China’s bilateral relations with former transitional countries. China and Europe, each located at one end of the Silk Road, are natural partners on the Initiative. As Ming shows (2018), with the joint efforts of both sides, the Initiative and Europe’s development strategies are creating synergy. The governments of 11 EU member states have already signed the cooperation documents with the Chinese government. The China-Europe express freight trains are busy traveling across the Eurasian continent. In 2017, a total of 3,673 trips were made, up by 116% from 2016 and exceeding the total number combined during the past six years. The train services reach 36 European cities in 13 countries and make access to European goods to the Chinese market much more manageable. In addition, a significant number of projects are

well underway, such as infrastructure, logistics, ports, e-commerce, and finance. Yet, the real benefit will be brought to full only when all players come to realize its importance and take part in it. To understand better this Initiative, it is essential to understand three main ideas: (1) *Openness*. The Initiative aims to promote economic cooperation through infrastructure connectivity and to bring about joint development by leveraging the comparative strengths of all participants. It is not a unilateral strategy or China's Marshall Plan, as some have called it. On the contrary, it is designed to promote cooperation that is open to all. (2) *Transparency*. The Initiative is not a one-way street allowing only China to export its resources, market opportunities, technologies, projects, and manpower. Instead, it is based on broad consultation and communication. All projects must be results-oriented, high-standard, and sustainable. (3) *Inclusiveness*. The Initiative aims to establish a regional economic cooperation platform that is inclusive, balanced, and beneficial to all. While each participant comes from different backgrounds and has different needs, mutual respect is essential to preserve such diversity and value flexibility in bilateral cooperation instead of insisting on uniformity. So, if exist a political will, the European Union's members can contribute to the Initiative by their openness, transparency, and inclusiveness. The framework, principles, and cooperation priorities in the Belt and Road Initiative (Action plan, 2015), to accelerate regional connectivity and development, are:

- *Policy Coordination* is key to the effective implementation of the Initiative. Countries along the route have to find some common ground while resolving differences. To expand shared interests, enhance mutual trust, and build consensus on further cooperation, it is vital for them to increase inter-governmental communication on macroeconomic policy and other strategic issues.
- *Connectivity of Infrastructure* and technical standards are essential for joint development planning, while respect for each other's sovereignty and security must stay intact. This is the way how to facilitate the building of the infrastructure network and construction of critical international traffic arteries.
- *Unimpeded Trade* is the primary purpose of cooperation, so all existing barriers to free trade should be eliminated through the process of policy coordination on the route. Immediate measures, accepted by countries and regions along the route, should include: creating mechanisms to facilitate free trade and the removal of investment and trade barriers; opening free trade areas to create a business-friendly environment at the regional and national levels and unleash the potential for cooperation, and improving the transparency of technical measures and reducing non-tariff barriers to liberalize and facilitate trade.
- *Financial integration* is the most critical support for the Belt and Road Initiative. Key measures the countries concerned could take to foster economic integration include increasing financial cooperation to ensure currency stability, build a sound framework for investment, financing, and credit services not only in Asia but in European and African countries, expand the availability of public financial products; and strengthening the role of the Asian Infrastructure Investment Bank, the BRICS New Development Bank, the Silk Road Fund, World Bank; European Bank for Reconstruction and Development and sovereign wealth funds of the countries concerned in funding key projects.
- *Closer people-to-people ties* provide an anchor for the Initiative. Without personal relationships, the strategic goal of connecting diverse cultures and different countries would be out of reach. Increased interaction and mutual understanding, greater awareness of potential benefits from expanded cooperation, and more participation are therefore indispensable to the initiative's success. Different countries, along the route,

must accept a friendly approach to each other and to the Initiative. Traditional diversities should be taken as a mutual benefit in building own cultural and economic identity by using infrastructural advantage along the route. Education should be at the top of priorities.

In addition to real political activities, China should increase exchanges and cooperation between non-governmental organizations of countries along the Belt and Road, organize public interest activities concerning education, health care, poverty reduction, biodiversity and ecological protection for the benefit of the general public, and improve the production and living conditions of poverty-stricken areas along the route. It is essential to enhance international exchanges and cooperation on culture and media and leverage the positive role of the Internet and new media tools to foster a harmonious and friendly cultural environment and public opinion (National Development and Reform Commission, 2015).

Although proposed by China, the Belt and Road Initiative should be a shared aspiration of all countries along the route. It's not easy to expect that different Asian, European, and African countries are all ready to establish a joint platform for common political and economic cooperation, but institutional support from outside could be of great help. The Republic of China, the World Bank, and many other institutions can significantly help in building mutual confidence, especially if they finance joint infrastructural projects. Building a port in Asia or building a bridge in a Middle European country can be perhaps the best projects for building mutual confidence between China and other countries. Winning the international competition in such vital projects, China can use for introducing to the international community not only the policy of lower costs but also the policy of the highest ecological and quality standards.

According to the National Development and Reform Commission (2015), China is ready to conduct equal-footed consultation with all countries along the Belt and Road to seize the opportunity provided by the Initiative, promote opening-up, communication, and integration among countries in an enormous scope, with higher standards and at deeper levels, while giving consideration to the interests and aspirations of all parties. The development of the Belt and Road is open and inclusive, and the active participation of all countries and international and regional organizations in this Initiative is welcomed. The belt and Road Initiative should exist only as a two-way journey towards a better future.

The development of the Initiative should mainly be conducted through policy communication and objectives coordination. It is a pluralistic and open process of cooperation that can be highly flexible and does not seek conformity. China should join other countries along the route to substantiate and improve the content and mode of the Belt and Road cooperation, work out relevant timetables and roadmaps, and align national development programs and regional cooperation plans. According to macro-economic planning, priority areas should be infrastructural projects inland and sea traffic, education and production, and trade of goods and services. China will help reform and improve the international economic governance system, actively guide the global economic agenda, safeguard and consolidate the multilateral trade system, work to see the international economic order develop in a way that facilitates equality, fairness, mutual benefit, and cooperation, and work with other countries to deal with global challenges. Further, China will increase cohesion between the development plans and technological standards of China and those of other countries along the routes of the Belt and Road Initiative, make further efforts to facilitate transport among countries along the routes, and simplify customs clearance procedures along the routes. We will establish a diversified, project-based financing model that includes the participation of enterprises and institutions with

enterprises as the main actors and that is led by investment funds of various types (13th Five-Year Plan 2016-2020). All other countries along the route should share China's enthusiasm regarding the implementation of the Initiative.

3. Conclusion

The Belt and Road Initiative is an excellent idea on how to connect different countries across three continents. There is no doubt that cooperation between China and other countries can transform the economic environment in which economies in the region recently operate. World Bank's analysts (2018) admit how regional cooperation on the new and improved transport infrastructure and policy reforms could substantially reduce trade costs and improve connectivity, leading to higher cross-border trade and investment and improved growth in the region.

Some doubts are present regarding China's penetration towards the West and South, which leads to the fear of increasing China's domination in the economic and political sphere. According to the Economist (2018), the term itself is confusing. The "road" refers mostly to a sea route; the "belt" is on land. Countries eager for China's financing welcome it as a source of investment in infrastructure between China and Europe via the Middle East and Africa. Those who fear China see it instead as a sinister project to create a new world order in which China is the pre-eminent power.

The Initiative protectors, however, stress the importance of mutual political confidence in the two-way process of consulting, analyzing, and building joint projects. The rest of the world can also use its influence to make the Initiative more beneficial. Even China's billions cannot finance everything on offer. Money coming from the West, from the European Union, and from institutions such as the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund should be lent according to international standards transparently and environmentally safeguarding, as well as according to public procurement and debt sustainability. So long as they are good projects, let China include them in the Initiative if it wants to (Economist, 2018).

Regarding possibilities for cooperation between the Initiative and former socialist countries in Europe, they are wide open. Those countries still suffer from the lack of international investment, even if some of them successfully joined the European Union ten and more years ago. All investments in infrastructural projects, industrial production, and trade are necessary for developing transitional countries, especially for increasing the living standard in those countries. The next cooperation field is education because, primarily in European Union countries, education is on a high-quality level. However, many highly ranked universities in Eastern European countries suffer from the lack of students, according to a significant decrease in the birth rate in those countries. So, the Belt and Road Initiative is an excellent opportunity for transitional countries to accelerate their economic and social development, and the Initiative is suitable even for European Union members.

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CHALLENGES IN PUBLIC SECTOR STRATEGIC PLANNING AS PREREQUISITE FOR EFFICIENT FUNDS ABSORPTION – THE CASE OF TOURISM SECTOR

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Abstract

For time being, scholars are tackling the topic of strengthening the absorption capacity of both, the private firms and the public sectors in terms of securing different forms of external funding for their strategic projects. In private companies this process is realized in various combinations of intrinsic and extrinsic resources, while in the case of organizations and public sector bodies, the process is predominantly intrinsically oriented. The question arises, what are the specific challenges that public sector bodies are confronted with in the operationalization of mandatory strategic planning? And, what are the obstacles that should be overcome in enhancement the internal absorption capacity of public sector bodies for the purpose of efficient planning of national strategic project, including the idea, conceptualization and realization. This situation escalates in cases when multiple options of external structural funding of national strategic projects are made available in a relatively short period of time. Primarily, it refers to the cases of EU countries that have the right to use cohesion and other available funds for the development of national competitiveness, at the same time they must obey strict criteria in funding application supported with content of appropriate quality. On the example of the Croatian tourism sector, this paper investigates series of challenges that the public bodies are confronting in dealing with mentioned issues, and offers authors' recommendations to improve the process. Results produced by this paper shall assist scholars to conceptualize and expand their empirical research around the proposed findings. It shall also guide the public sector practitioners to optimise their approach in strategic planning by aiming to be more agile and efficient in delivering their obligatory outputs.

Keywords: *strategic planning, absorptive capacity, cohesive funding, tourism*

1. Introduction

In this advanced era of the 4th industrial and 5th social revolution, when it comes to strategic planning and management of public policies, activities should be directed towards the transformation and transition of the Croatian economy, including tourism. Therefore, it is of crucial importance, especially now when the economy is further catalyzed by the global crisis caused by the COVID-19 pandemic, to institutionally direct and encourage towards the development of higher added value industries. The global crisis caused by the COVID-19 pandemic and, consequently, the economic crisis had emphasized the fact that the national economy must not be based largely on service industries and/or tourism. Especially not on the "sun and sea" tourism, whose "success" in the Republic of Croatia for many years is measured only by monitoring the registered number of tourist arrivals and overnight stays.

Taking into account the current situation and the necessary direction towards the sources of EU funds as key options available to overcome the crisis caused by the COVID-19 pandemic, by analyzing the past period, the necessary need to strengthen the capacity to manage public policies is further emphasized. Quality human resources management is of fundamental

importance in creating long-term value, and represents competitive advantage of modern business operating (Noe, Hollenbeck, Gerhart, Wright, 2006).

This comes to the fore especially in the segment of strategic planning in order to implement programmes and projects financed by the EU funds in certain public organizations, which are, among other things, in charge of EU funds absorption. The key role of line ministries should be emphasized in the first place, which, despite the continuous multi-year education systematically conducted in state administration bodies, still do not have staff with specific knowledge and competencies. This key constraint will be considered further in this paper on the example of the Ministry of Tourism and Sport of the Republic of Croatia.

This paper primarily deals with the management of public body organizations' projects co-financed by the European Union funds, which is exceptionally important, given public body organizations are financed with taxpayers' money in order to achieve higher quality standards that constitute the common good. Exactly for the reason, the interest of all involved is for public organizations to operate as efficiently as possible, and to increase the quality of management of projects of public importance.

On the example of the Croatian tourism sector, authors are investigating series of challenges that the public bodies are confronting in dealing with mentioned issues and offer authors' recommendations to improve the process.

Following this introduction, the theoretical background and the present in-field situations are presented. The second part ends with articulation and articulation of the research challenge. The third part presents the research results and the methodology description, while in the fourth section findings are discussed and propositions for practitioners are made. The paper ends with concluding remarks, identified limitations, and proposals for further research.

2. Theoretical background and the context

2.1 Public authorities planning and current economic situation

The Government of the Republic of Croatia, through the National Reform Programme in 2019 (Vlada Republike Hrvatske, Nacionalni program reformi 2019.), carried out the entire legislative and institutional reform of the strategic planning and development management system, with the aim of increasing the quality of policy formulation and quality directing of investments from European Union funds, for the purpose of social progress and more directed development of the territory of the Republic of Croatia, which needs be taken into account while implementing the priority tourism policy measures. This is crucial in the forthcoming period if the goal is to ensure long-term absorption capacity from EU funds. Taking into account the Evaluation, the question can be asked whether the vision, objectives and measures envisaged in the previous Tourism Development Strategy were well set, and how to valorize results produced until the date, and include those in the process of designing the new sectoral strategy. Considering the abovementioned, it is evident that public bodies in charge of implementing strategies must have a well-established internal structure, level of knowledge, coordination and efficiency in order for the strategies to truly be implemented and for the anticipated level of development to be achieved.

Given the increasingly dynamic environment and the increasingly complex work assignments that are placed before employees in public bodies, and especially of those in central government bodies, new organizational problems are emerging. The New Public Management and the Good Governance doctrine are two modern doctrines that could address problems of structure, coordination, competence, transparency, and public administration reform, in general. The doctrines differ in own approach, so administrative reforms inspired by the new

public management should lead to a reduction in the public sector, and good governance approaches public administration in an attempt to build best practices and standards of conduct, which should incorporate basic principles upon which it as a doctrine should be grounded (Lozina, Klarić, 2012).

If economic competitiveness is considered in the context of the constantly emphasized importance of tourism, the main objective defined by the Tourism Development Strategy of the Republic of Croatia (NN 55/13, hereinafter: the Strategy) is inevitably imposed. Namely, the main objective defined by the Strategy was to increase the attractiveness and competitiveness of tourism, which should have resulted in the Republic of Croatia becoming one of the 20 leading tourist destinations in the world, according to the World Economic Forum (WEF, 2019.) competitiveness criteria, by 2020. However, according to the current World Economic Forum Report, the Republic of Croatia is ranked 27th out of a total of 140 countries in the world. This means that the main objective defined in the Strategy had not yet been reached. According to the World Economic Forum Report, Croatian tourism achieved a poor ranking in the field of price competitiveness, expressed through 93rd place among a total of 140 countries (WEF, 2019). According to the current WEF Report, Croatian tourism also lags behind in the category of human resources and the labor market, where it is positioned on the 103rd place (WEF, 2019).

LIDER magazine's analysis of companies founded in 1990. illustrates the undesirable state of the economy over the past thirty years („Pioniri kapitalizma“, 2020.). The conducted analysis indicates that as many as nine of the ten largest companies in the Republic of Croatia are engaged in retail and distribution. It is inevitable to look here for the first time at national tourism, which is exceptionally important for the Croatian economy, but its profiling makes the blade of innovative activity less sharp and leads us to a certain form of rentier economy.

The President of the European Investment Bank office in the Republic of Croatia, warned that "without reforms, money alone will not be sufficient" and at the same time emphasizes the tax reform and the reform of public administration and the judiciary system as key interventions in terms of strengthening of the Croatian economy, primarily in the context of encouraging domestic and foreign investments. A changed approach in the development of the Croatian economy must be added to these reforms, for example, by moving from what has been the leading approach for many years, and that is trade in goods of import origin, imposed by the import and trade lobby.

In addition, in the context of strategic planning and development management, in the speech of president Ursula von der Leyen at the plenary session of the European Parliament, the topics of necessary respect for the basic principles of strategic management in the function of balanced development of all areas were emphasized (ec.europa.eu, 2020.).

2.2 Available financial envelope and challenges that arise

Thanks to the negotiating skills, the Republic of Croatia had well explained its needs, objectives and interests and thus ensured a good position in the allocation of funds, which relate to the available funds from the multiannual financial perspective of the European Union for the period from 2021. to 2027., that is, to the European Union budget.

The European Union investments in the period from 2021 to 2027 are focused on five main objectives: a Smarter Europe, a Greener, carbon free Europe, a more Connected Europe, a more Social Europe, a Europe closer to citizens. The areas of intervention of the Croatian National Recovery and Resilience Plan are the following components: economy; public

administration, judiciary and state property; education, science and research; labour market and social protection; health care; and initiative: renovation of buildings

The precondition for the withdrawal of available funds is the signing of a Partnership Agreement between each EU Member State and the European Commission, and for the withdrawal of funds from the Resilience and Recovery Facility, the National Recovery and Resilience Plan had been developed and proposed, in which the reform and investment programs to be implemented by August 31st 2026 should be identified. Therefore, each Member State wishing to use a grant under the Resilience and Recovery Facility must adopt the National Recovery and Resilience Plan (NRRP) on the national level, setting out the objectives and investment plan for the purpose of recovery from the COVID-19 crisis. The European Council approves or rejects plans on the basis of a proposal coming from the European Commission. The currently available system for withdrawing funds from the multiannual financial framework should be accredited according to the new rules, and most likely a new system of management and control over the use of money from the Resistance and Recovery Facility is to be established. The fact is all needs to be performed in a very short period of time.

Will the available financial arrangement of 22 billion euros of European funds, negotiated for the future of our generations, be used in the best possible way, and what will its absorption and efficiency depend on? In these challenging times, it takes ability, agility, competitiveness, responsibility and innovation in order to create content for the funds and invest those in the best possible way. European funds are primarily indicated as an exceptional opportunity and a blessing, but only if treated accordingly.

The reforms to be performed through the support of funds from the NRRP should lead to structural changes and make Croatia an acceptable and desirable place to do business. Taking into account the scale of the pandemic crisis and its devastating impact on businesses and public finances, it is evident there is no time to lose and that reforms to be performed in the forecoming short period of time will need to be targeted and understandable, and come with clearly defined measurable outcomes. It is most certain that the efficiency and intensity of the EU funds absorption will depend on the absorption capacity and the capacity of the overall system of the Republic of Croatia, which includes both the public and the private sector. This primarily refers to the ability of the absorption capacity of the institutional framework, and especially the ability to identify targeted contents needed by the business sector, but also the absorption of economic, that is, business sector, in order to focus on sustainable investment.

European regional and agricultural policy funds have provided 13,83 billion euros for Croatia, which are available through the multiannual financial framework, that is, the seven-year European budget (2021.-2027.), which is significantly more than the previously planned range of 7 to 10 billion euros. Additional 9,9 billion euros from the Resilience and Recovery Facility should be added to the abovementioned amount, of which 6,3 billion euros will be available in the form of grants to the Republic of Croatia, and 3,6 billion euros will be available in the form of loans (Summary of the draft of the National Recovery and Resilience Plan, March 2021, Government of the Republic of Croatia).

NextGenerationEU (NEXt Generation EU) is a temporary instrument to encourage recovery in the value of 750 billion euros. The backbone of this instrument is the Recovery and Resilience Facility, followed by the Recovery Assistance for Cohesion and the Territories of Europe – REACT-EU Programme, as well as financial resources to be added to other European programmes and funds: Horizon Europe, InvestEU, Rural Development, Just Transition Fund,

RescEU. These funds are intended to eliminate the immediate economic and social damage caused by the coronavirus pandemic (ec.europa.eu, 2020).

Certainly, the NextGenerationEU initiative is thematically in line with the five main objectives, but at the same time it will be focused on the most pressing global challenges, in particular the crisis caused by the COVID-19 pandemic. In order to mitigate the consequences of the crisis and create preconditions for sustainable transformation of the Croatian economy, it is crucial to design and create quality programs and generate strategic projects in order to carry out the transition and transformation of both the public and the private sector.

The National Recovery and Resilience Plan should also contribute to the fulfillment of obligations arising from the special recommendations sent by the Council of the European Union to Croatia within the European Semester 2019. and 2020.

Regarding the multiannual financial framework, it is particularly emphasized the EU funds will not be able to be used without the impact assessment evaluation and the correct expenditure of funds control. Here, as the final mechanism, the European Anti-Fraud Office - OLAF stands out (OLAF, 2021). Mechanisms to control the implementation of activities within the organizations themselves, as well as among organizations, are necessary in order to reduce errors and ambiguity that is inherent, above all, in international projects (Galbraith, Kazanjian, 1986).

3. Research

3.1 Research question and methodology

In the optics of previously stated, the research question of this paper is, what are the specific challenges that public sector bodies are confronted with in the operationalization of mandatory strategic planning? And, what are the obstacles that should be overcome in enhancement the internal absorption capacity of public sector bodies for the purpose of efficient planning of the national strategic project, including the idea, conceptualization, and realization?

In order to answer the research question, a qualitative research methodology was selected and applied. It uses prevalently secondary sources in a form of currently available literature and other facts from media and conducted interviews. The results of conducted research are presented and classified in the case of planning in the Croatian tourism sector that follows.

3.2 Case of national tourism public planning

Hundreds of millions of kunas were spent from the national budget in accordance to the Decisions of the Minister of Tourism on the selection of projects under the "Competitiveness of the Tourism Economy" Programme in 2014, 2015, 2016, 2017, 2018 and 2019 (Ministarstvo turizma i sporta Republike Hrvatske, 2014, 2015, 2016, 2017, 2018, 2019) as well as for the long-term loan program for tourism entrepreneurs "Incentive for Success", by which the ministry in charge of tourism subsidizes the interest rate for loans from commercial banks included in the program, in the past period (Ministarstvo turizma i sporta Republike Hrvatske, 2020).

Also, in the previous multi-annual financial perspective, the Ministry of Tourism and Sport did not produce Analyses of the effectiveness of state aids granted under the programmes, although the obligation is defined by the Law on State Incentives (NN 47/14, 69/17). Moreover, the State Audit Office in its Performance Audit Report - Implementation of measures set out in the Tourism Development Strategy of the Republic of Croatia until 2020

(hereinafter: the Report) emphasizes that the planned effects of the objectives defined by the Strategy, related to increasing attractiveness, competitiveness, investment and consumption, are not being met (Hrvatski sabor, 2016).

The Evaluation performed during the implementation phase of the Tourism Development Strategy of the Republic of Croatia until 2020 (hereinafter: Evaluation), conducted by the Institute for Development and International Relations, IRMO, Zagreb, determined that the objective of improving the structure and quality of accommodation is not being achieved. Moreover, the Evaluation determined that the objective of increasing and changing the structure of investments, defined by the Strategy, is also not being achieved, that no strategic investment project in tourism has been realized, and that the realization of the strategic objective of increasing tourist consumption goes in the opposite direction than of the changes planned by the Strategy.

The evaluation had also identified the reasons why the strategic objectives defined by the Strategy were not realized in the past period, and those are: low level of expertise and competencies of certain employees in the Ministry that are responsible for implementing tourism policy measures, insufficient engagement of key stakeholders and insufficient and/or inadequate interdepartmental cooperation within the framework of certain priority measures of tourism policy implementation.

In order to minimize such practice in state administration bodies, in the above mentioned example of the ministry responsible for tourism, the Government of the Republic of Croatia had implemented legislative and institutional reform of the strategic planning and development management system through the National Reform Programme for 2019, with the aim of increasing the quality of public policy formulation and quality directing of investments not only from European Union funds, but also for the purpose of social progress and more directed development of the Republic of Croatia territory (*National Reform Programme*, 2019).

Also, the intention of the legislative reform of the entire system of strategic planning and development management of the Republic of Croatia, which was implemented by the Government of the Republic of Croatia on the basis of the National Reform Programme 2019, was to limit the number of strategic planning documents and at the same time define clear principles for their development, implementation, monitoring, reporting and impact evaluation (*National Reform Programme*, 2019).

The obligation also applies to line ministries when initiating the procedure and/or drafting strategic development documents for the following programming period, which should comply with the National Development Strategy of the Republic of Croatia until 2030 (Hrvatski sabor, *National Development Strategy of the Republic of Croatia until 2030*, 2021).

The National Development Strategy of the Republic of Croatia until 2030 was adopted by the Croatian Parliament on February 5th, 2021, and in November 2020, the Ministry of Tourism and Sport of the Republic of Croatia sent to the Government of the Republic of Croatia for adoption the Decision to initiate the process of drafting strategic sectoral documents in the field of tourism, with the aim of drafting the "Sustainable Tourism Development Strategy until 2030" and the corresponding "National Sustainable Tourism Development Plan from 2021 to 2027 („Pokrenuta aktivnost izrade nove strategije razvoja održivog turizma“, 2020).

In this context, the example from the Ministry of Tourism and Sport can be considered, namely the project "Croatian digital tourism". A project can be defined as a set of activities that should lead to the desired change in a certain period of time. The discipline of project

management provides a framework that will take the organization from the current state to the planned future state, and projects are considered completed when they have served the purpose for which they were intended (Thackeray, 2012).

The "Croatian Digital Tourism" - HDT project objective was to create conditions for more easy use of public services to citizens and entrepreneurs in the tourism and hospitality sector through informatization of public services, development of the necessary registers and establishment of a digital solution for easier use of public services by all included in the tourism and hospitality sector. The "Croatian Digital Tourism" project implementation period is from September 1st, 2014 to November 1st, 2020, and the overall project value is 39.753.667,71 kunas („Hrvatski digitalni turizam“, 2020). The Directorate for Strategic Planning, Digitalization and EU Funds, that is the Sector for Strategic Planning, Digitalization, EU Programmes and Project in the Ministry of Tourism and Sport of the Republic of Croatia, did not complete the "Croatian Digital Tourism" project within the predetermined period (Ministarsvo turizma i sporta Republike Hrvatske, 2021). Which is a possible consequence of the COVID 19 pandemic, and almost all projects in the implementation period have contract annexes by which they have been extended for a certain period.

The construction of 5 public e-services is planned by the project (Central tourism register, Administrative procedures for categorization of catering establishments and tourist facilities and issuing of decisions to tourism service providers, Non-administrative procedures for granting support for tourism development, Registration and deregistration of guests, Providing tourist information and promoting Croatian tourism), as well as equipping of officials, and linking the procedures of several public administration bodies into an integrated county information system („Hrvatski digitalni turizam“, 2020).

In the National Reform Programme 2020, from April 2020, in the creation of which the then Ministry of Tourism also participated, the "Croatian Digital Tourism" project is only sporadically mentioned (*Nacionalni program reformi*, 2020). On the other hand, exactly because of the crisis caused by the COVID-19 pandemic it was more than necessary for the rapid digital transformation and connection of stakeholders in tourism, and the promotion and establishment of efficient and innovative business, to take place.

Due to the crisis caused by the COVID-19 pandemic, many line ministries digitalized their operations in just a couple of days, and made their services more simple to use by the citizens and entrepreneurs to use, and the improvement in this regard should also be the result of the abovementioned project. For now, in tourism we have the eVisitor system, which is an information system for registration and deregistration of guests in tourism, for which only a computer or a mobile device with an Internet browser and an Internet connection is needed. The basic functionalities of the eVisitor system are: Registration and deregistration of guests, Registry of all accommodation service providers and their accommodation facilities in the Republic of Croatia, Calculation and control of accommodation tax collection, and Processing and analysis of data and reporting for statistical purposes (HTZ, 2021).

In the context of the analysis of the role of human resources capacity for strategic planning and EU programmes and projects in the Ministry of Tourism and Sport, the Program for Strengthening the Competitiveness of Human Resources in Tourism "Centres of Competence" can be observed. Namely, the Ministry of Tourism and Sport, in cooperation with the Ministry of Science and Education, is implementing a project to establish regional centers of competence in tourism and hospitality, with the support of the EU funds. Implementation activities defined by the said Program, and at the same time Measure 19 of the priority

tourism policy defined by the Strategy, should have been implemented by the end of year 2015. (*Strategija razvoja turizma Republike Hrvatske do 2020*, 2013).

Given the number of stakeholders in these integrated projects, it took a long period of time in order to harmonize and coordinate two completely different systems: that of education and of tourism. The funds could be used only when the preconditions were met: on the basis of the plans submitted by the vocational schools, the schools to become the Centers of Competence were selected. In 2017, the schools expressed own interest and were ranked according to own capacities, in 2018. development plans were made, on the basis of which schools were appointed regional centers of competence in a particular sector, and after the evaluation, in late 2018 and mid-2019 two Calls for EU grants were published.

The Decision on funding for the grants award for the establishment of regional centers of competence in the tourism and hospitality sector was made by the relevant ministry in charge of tourism only in May 2020 („Ministarstvo turizma donijelo odluku o financiranju projekata za uspostavu regionalnih centara kompetentnosti“, 2020). The completion of the Program, and thus the priority measures of tourism policy defined by the Action Plan for the implementation of the Strategy (NN 55/13), will be implemented by the end of year 2023.

In order to take into account one of the basic principles of strategic planning, the principle of transparency, the Directorate for Strategic Planning, Digitalization and EU Funds and the Sector for Strategic Planning, Digitalization, EU Programmes and Projects in the Ministry of Tourism and Sport of the Republic of Croatia should have established specific mechanisms of EU funds spending control. In order to respect the principle of transparency, it is necessary to ensure the availability of information on the delivery of goods and/or services, or in other words, publicly available information on the legality of EU funds spending.

On the other hand, the European Union had defined a set of basic principles and standards according to which it is necessary to develop a legal framework and harmonize practices, in order to ensure the functioning of a responsible and efficient public administration. The Republic of Croatia had reformed its civil service legislation in the process of accession, but this process has not been completed to date because there are many shortcomings, disagreements and omissions in the regulation of those rules that are in line with European standards, which is evident from the above example of the Ministry of Tourism and Sport (Marčetić, Musa, 2013).

4. Discussion and recommendations

Based on the presented research facts on Ministry of Tourism and Sport of the Republic of Croatia which are related to strategic planning, digitalization and EU funds, it can be concluded that this body of state administration is confronting a number of challenges when it comes to ensuring the withdrawal of much-needed EU funds for the tourism sector. Although in planning, implementation and reporting on implementation it was only necessary to follow a clearly and unambiguously defined legal procedure, adopted back in year 2017,

Nevertheless, changes are taking place and projects are being implemented, but the system is still slow and inert, and delays in relation to the plan are frequently occurring, which is now additionally perpetuated due to the pandemic situation. In order to achieve long-term realization and provide the much-needed absorption capacity, it will be necessary to make additional efforts and improve the system efficiency that are proposed as follows.

Firstly, the key institutions involved in the creation of the program will have to involve all stakeholders in the process, particularly economic operators and their associations. Secondly, interact and communicate with those in order to identify needs and generate ideas, and design

and form programs and strategic projects to be funded by the European Union funds. Strategic planning must not be reduced to mere administration. Finally, quick decisions will have to be made, some of which will have to be different.

It is important that in this process the creators and negotiators of investment programs in negotiations with the European Commission are competent and that they represent, promote and protect with arguments the national interests, based on the specifics of Croatian territory, and to design programs and conditions that are appropriate for the Republic of Croatia. This is important to emphasize because in the preparation and implementation of the placement of previous cohesion funds, there was often disadvantage in comparison to the European Commission administration. Namely, in the past period, some of the programmes were complex both for application and for implementation at all levels, from infrastructure projects to research, development and innovation projects. Unfortunately, the original EU procedures for the use of EU funds have often been further "upgraded" on the Croatian side and thus further complicated. This needs to change and an intensive work at the level of interministerial and intersectoral cooperation should be performed. At the same time, with the gradual reduction of the institutional framework, business people and all other beneficiaries should act more responsibly towards the European funds.

The fact to be emphasized is that nothing would be possible without the existence of a consistent methodology for measuring the impact of invested money, which was absent in the previous period. Although the programs were implemented, there was no evaluation process and no decisions could be made to eliminate the shortcomings of the implemented programs.

Namely, implementation monitoring and evaluation are used in the process management, indicate questions and responsibilities on public spending, involve various stakeholders and enable those to express own views and attitudes, provide opportunities to learn and share good practice experiences and new ideas in future activities. Monitoring implementation is a continuous task of auditing information and systematically reviewing the budgetary position and financial activities, while generating quantitative data and providing feedback on the implementation of activities and measures, facilitating corrections of deviations from general and specific objectives, and contributing to the accountability of public spending and providing information on the management of strategic planning documents. The evaluation includes an assessment of interventions in accordance with the results, impacts and needs that are trying to be met. It is a systematic tool, which provides evidence for decision making and improves efficiency and usefulness. The European Commission states, among other things, that evaluation contributes to transparency, learning and accountability because from it lessons for the future about what works, in what circumstances and why, can be learned.

Effective strategic development management requires a flexible mechanism, which provides necessary information and promotes results of implementation. The models for measuring, monitoring and evaluating the development effects of strategic planning acts, regardless of their content coverage, represent one of the frameworks for policy implementation and should be based on a system of measurable indicators of implementation performance. This means, among other things, that planning, implementation and reporting on the implementation of public policies and all projects arising from strategic development documents, the Program of the Government of the Republic of Croatia, and from current stakeholder plans, must be based on the principles of accuracy and completeness, efficiency and effectiveness, accountability and focus on results, partnerships and transparency.

The most important project management success indicator of the of the mentioned EU projects from the Directorate for Strategic Planning, Digitalization and EU Projects in the

Ministry of Tourism and Sport of the Republic of Croatia will be the results of the correction of contracted and withdrawn funds, and most importantly, the amount of funds that will have to be returned, depending on the audit, that is, internal and external evaluation of the implementation of the mentioned projects financed by the European funds.

5. Concluding remarks

The presented case of the Ministry of Tourism and Sport demonstrates the importance of improving the competencies and capabilities for an integrated approach in the design and implementation of public policies and projects, for the purpose of better strategic planning and development management integration. Also, a standardized performance appraisal approach needs to be implemented, which needs to take into account initial conditions and expected socio-economic effects. Namely, the horizontal and the vertical unconnectedness of strategic planning acts, the unconnectedness of objectives with funds and resources in the budget, as well as the impossibility to quality measure their effects and impact are the key causes, which consequently influenced the impossibility to design and implement comprehensive and effective, in this case, tourism policies in the function of the development of the Republic of Croatia. This means that effective strategic management of tourism development requires a flexible mechanism that provides the necessary information and promotes the results of implementation. Models for measuring, monitoring and evaluating the development effects of strategic planning plans/programs, regardless of their content coverage, represent one of the frameworks for policy implementation, in this case tourism policy, and should be based on a system of measurable indicators of implementation performance. Planning, implementation and reporting on the implementation of tourism policy and all projects arising from strategic development documents of the tourism department, program documents of the Government of the Republic of Croatia, but also from current tourism development stakeholders' plans must be based on the principles of accuracy and completeness, efficiency and effectiveness, accountability and result-orientation, partnerships and transparency. In order to achieve this, it is necessary to thoroughly and systematically reorganize the internal organization of the Ministry of Tourism and Sport.

The results of (in)efficiency of strategic development documents implementation, including the Tourism Development Strategy, are correlated with the internal organization of the ministry responsible for Strategy implementation, that is, depend on strategic human resources management in the Ministry of Tourism and Sport.

The Workload Analysis, which had to be prepared by the Ministry of Tourism and Sport, needs to be revised, especially taking into account the work permit from the European Commission for managing European Union funds and bodies involved in the management and control of the use of EU structural instruments, and management and control systems for the use of European Structural and Investment Funds. The above is for the purpose of analysis and ensuring an adequate number of employees required for the timely performance of tasks related to the management and control of EU funds.

The mentioned is also in the function of introducing an *ex-post* evaluation of the effects of selected activities that the Ministry of Tourism and Sport must implement in order to continuously improve the budget planning system and better control of the use of public sources funds.

In addition, it is also important to take into account the systematic legal reform that defines the management of public policies, which was implemented by the Government of the Republic of Croatia through the National Reform Programme. Namely, the intention of the mentioned reform was to limit the number of strategic planning documents and, at the same

time, to define clear principles for their preparation, implementation, implementation monitoring, reporting and evaluation of effects. This should, among others, be taken into account by line ministries in initiating the procedure and/or drafting strategic development documents for the next programming period.

Finally, in order to use the European funds efficiently, it is very important to invest in programmes and strategic projects that enable continuous and sustainable growth and development. It is necessary to move away from the previous dominant investments that were focused on basic infrastructure, 'walls, concrete' and the like. A large part of the European money should be directed towards market globalization and internationalization of Croatian companies, especially of small and medium-sized enterprises, with the aim of those entering the global market more efficient. In addition, more intensive work is needed to strengthen economic diplomacy. It is equally important to have strong competencies, vision and agility to complement the available financial envelope with other available investment instruments, especially at the level of the European Union, which creates a unique national investment power that one needs to be able to and, above all, know how to operationalize.

Results produced by this paper shall assist scholars to conceptualize and expand their empirical research around the proposed findings. It shall also guide the public sector practitioners to optimise their approach in strategic planning by aiming to be more agile and efficient in delivering their obligatory outputs.

As for the further research, it is necessary to make a comprehensive comparative analysis of coefficients and jobs specifications, in correlation with the analysis of the achievement of objectives and expected outcomes of the Tourism Development Strategy, especially in relation to the National Reform Programme of the Government of the Republic of Croatia, and the new structure of the Ministry of Tourism and Sport of the Republic of Croatia. The research also needs to be conducted with regard to the policy of the Government of the Republic of Croatia in order to improve the fiscal framework and fiscal discipline, all in order to establish an effective system of financial and statistical planning and reporting in the ministry in charge of implementing the tourism policy.

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Zakon o državnim poticajima (NN 47/14, 69/17)

COVID-19 PANDEMIC AND GLOBAL VALUE CHAINS: IS THE RECONFIGURATION ON THE WAY?

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Abstract

Geographical fragmentation of the production process through outsourcing and offshoring of activities led to the international trade paradigm shift and brought global value chains to the center of development studies. This shift has led countries to compete in trade in tasks within the production process, rather than traditionally in final products, thus transforming development strategies, especially in developing countries. Demand and supply shocks inflicted on national economies worldwide caused by the COVID-19 pandemic brought unprecedented challenges to global value chains' functioning. Thus, the central debate in the global value chains field is currently focused on the pandemic's effects on potential de-globalisation, especially on further developments in global value chains. This paper provides an overview of global value chains' development and their broader economic context. The literature review shows the main opportunities and challenges that global value chains have met in the last decades and provides a comprehensive overview of the current ones. Given the rising protectionism and economic nationalism since the COVID-19 outbreak, which replaced decades of global value chains expansion period, this paper focuses on the potential further global value chains' developments and the context that will shape it.

Keywords: *global value chains, COVID-19, globalisation, protectionism*

1. Introduction

GVCs have been seen as one of the most visible trademarks of globalisation (Barbieri *et al.*, 2020). After the Second World War, the main goal was to spur the global economic development through increased cooperation among countries. The decades that followed brought a fundamental change in the international trade patterns, including the geographical fragmentation of the production process and its functional integration. Thus, international trade and industrial organisation entered a new era of global value chains (GVCs). Multinational companies, as lead GVC companies, mainly from developed countries, started the disintegration of their value chains, remaining to focus on their core activities with the highest value-added (Gereffi *et al.*, 2005). The outsourced and offshored activities usually included a low share of value-added and were usually transferred to counties with lower costs (Neilson *et al.*, 2014). Thus, developed countries have started offshoring mainly their labour-intensive production activities to less developed countries, enabling them to combine their advanced technologies with cheap labour force from the developing countries (Baldwin, 2011). Thus, GVCs emerged as a range of activities in the process of product production and sales, organised in different geographical locations in different countries (Humphrey, Schmitz, 2009).

The globalisation developments after the 1950s can be divided into three periods (Antras, 2020): (1) from 1970-1986, when it has shown restrained growth; (2) between 1986 and 2008, when the „hyperglobalisation“ took place, and (3) after the last financial crisis, when trade flows have recovered after the slump, but remained and somewhat decreased in comparison to pre-crisis data. In this period, until 2008, the increasing trade and foreign investment just somewhat decreased during a few shocks (Baldwin, Tomiura, 2020): (1) The oil-shock induced recession of 1974-75, (2) Inflation defeating recession of 1982-83, and (3) Tech-wreck recession of 2001-02. The global financial crisis in 2008 has led to a significant temporary decrease in world trade, making the steepest fall in international trade after the Great Depression (Baldwin, Tomiura, 2020). This crisis has spurred the protectionist ideas and slowed further globalisation in the following decade, coined by The Economist as the period of „slowbalisation“.

After a period of „slowbalisation“ the COVID-19 pandemic has shocked the global economy. Its outbreak and lockdown in China at the beginning of 2020, which afterward spilled to the rest of the world, revealed the risks of the current global organisation of production. World trade sunk to the lowest level in May 2020. Unlike the previous financial crisis, which was only a demand shock, the COVID-19 crisis brought both supply and demand shocks. As Baldwin and Tomiura (2020) point out, the supply shock of the COVID-19 pandemic was responsible for the decrease of the exports of those countries that were hit the hardest, while the demand shock of the COVID-19 pandemic was responsible for falling imports, especially in trade partners of the hardest-hit nations.

Since the global financial crisis, several research and discussion papers explored the hidden protectionist measures and possibilities of reverse prospects of globalisation (e.g., Nordtveit, 2010; Peters, 2018; Flew, 2018; Livesey, 2018). Given the COVID-19 shock to the world economy and the revealed GVC fragilities, the public discourse in favor of protectionist measures has strengthened, and more research investigated the prospects of globalisation, especially the developments in GVCs (Olivié, Gracia, 2020; Antras, 2020; Pegoraro *et al.*, 2020; Gereffi, 2020; Williamson, 2021). The main aim of this paper is to provide a literature review of determinants that shaped the development of GVCs in the three periods since the beginning of GVCs formation: (1) period before the 2008 global financial crisis; (2) period from the 2008 global financial crisis to the COVID-19 outbreak and (3) period since the COVID-19 outbreak and future prospects. Through literature review, this paper provides an overview of GVCs development and their broader economic context while pointing out to main challenges and opportunities they faced in the previous decades, as well as the contemporary ones that should provide us an insight into further developments. Given the rising protectionist measures and economic nationalism since the COVID-19 outbreak, this paper focuses on the current determinants and economic context after the pandemic that is expected to shape the future of GVCs in the following decades.

After the introduction, the second section analyzes the drivers that led the GVC development until the global financial crisis in 2008. The third section explores determinants shaping GVCs in the following period, from the financial crisis to the COVID-19 outbreak. The fourth section provides the analysis of COVID-19 pandemic effects and other determinants

that can shape the future of GVCs. The conclusion in the last section includes a synthesis of the main drivers that have shaped GVCs and that are expected to further shape them, as well as a set of recommendations for further research in this field.

2. Drivers Leading Global Value Chains Development

The differences in countries' resources and their level of development lead to differences in the prices of production factors, ecological restrictions, and social surroundings. These differences provide opportunities for cost optimization of the production process through offshoring and outsourcing activities it includes. Besides these economic determinants, a set of political, ideological, and technological determinants has driven the development of GVCs since the 1950s. As Baldwin (2013) points out, these drivers led to the emerging of GVCs, which took place firstly led by FDI from 1950 to 1970, afterward by trade from the 1970s to 1995, and then by information and communication technologies (ICT) since 1995.

As the international migration barriers have never withdrawn after the Second World War, the differences in wages among developed and less developed countries have remained high (Baldwin, 2012). At the beginning of this process in the 1950s, large transnational corporations started investing in raw materials and primary products and afterward in industrial sectors such as the auto industry. Large retailers and branded manufacturers saw these opportunities and began searching for production locations in farther locations in east Asia (Gereffi, Lee, 2012). Decreasing international trade costs further encouraged trade in intermediate products (Bridgman, 2012). Los *et al.* (2015) pointed out that these costs included reducing of tariffs and other non-tariff barriers due to rounds of negotiations organised through multilateral trading agreements (General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade - GATT, General Agreement on Trade in Services- GATS and The Agreement on Trade-Related Aspects of Intellectual Property Rights- TRIPS) and World Trade Organisation (WTO), as well as decreasing of other costs that are significant for international trade, such as transport costs, costs of outsourcing and offshoring, costs of meeting specific standards, etc. An important round of trade negotiations for development of GVCs was the Kennedy round in the 1960s, which brought a considerable increase of WTO members, decrease of tariffs, and was focused on the manufacturing industry. A significant incentive for further liberalisation was the establishment of WTO within the Uruguay negotiation round, which was expected to assure the rule of law in international trade with a goal of global prosperity through further globalisation (Stiglitz, 2009). WTO's dispute settlement mechanism was frequently referred to as a „central pillar of multilateral trading system“ (Javorcik, 2020).

Significant ideological changes impacting the development of GVCs included the opening of China, which was quantified through the factor proportions model by Zymek (2015), liberalisation in India, the fall of the Berlin Wall, and the end of the Soviet Union and Yugoslavia. It is also important to emphasise the change in the development model in the 1960s in the East Asian countries (South Korea, Taiwan, Hong Kong, and Singapore), which switched to export-oriented industrialisation models and in the decades that followed begun to be known as „Asian Tigers“ (Gereffi, 2014). Gereffi (2014) points out that the emergence of BRICS (Brasil, Russia, India, China, and South Africa) has affected GVC developments due to their increasing integration in global industrial development, large and relatively cheap

labour force, and raw materials. These transitions have brought a significant labour supply shock to the global economy. Neoliberal policies promoted by Margaret Thatcher and Ronald Reagan in the 1980s and Washington Consensus recommendations at the end of the 1980s gave additional spur to liberalisation, deregulation, and privatisation worldwide.

In the following period, regional economic integrations have increased as well as bilateral trade agreements. Miroudot *et al.* (2013) point out that regional trade agreements (RTAs) increased from 70 in 1990 to around 350 in 2012, raising the question if RTAs are a driver of GVCs or GVCs were the driver of RTAs. Posing the same question, Baccini *et al.* (2018) have investigated 61 preferential trade agreements (PTAs) made from 1995 to 2013. They have shown that liberalisation included in these PTAs was faster for intermediate than final goods due to GVCs. Geographical proximity in these cases was also beneficial (Baldwin, 2012). This was especially the case in EU countries where „old“ member states have outsourced many labour-intensive activities to „new“ member states (which joined EU since 2004) with lower costs. Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) has shown to be important in developing regional value chains in Asia and North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA) has demonstrated the same in the USA, Mexico, and Canada (Amador, Cabral, 2014).

Besides the previously mentioned drivers regarded to the economic, ideological, and political sphere, the largest number of studies (e.g., Gereffi, 1994; Baldwin, 2011; Rehnberg, Ponte, 2018; Rodrik, 2018) points out the technological progress as a key determinant of geographical fragmentation and dispersion of value chain activities aimed to exploit the comparative advantages of countries in specific tasks in the production process. Studies have shown that transport advancements and decrease of transport costs have been the most important in the period until the 1980s, while afterward, information and communication technologies have shown to be more important as they decreased the costs of coordination and information transfer. Containerisation was one of the most significant changes that led to more efficient trade in goods using ships, and air transport was important for intermediate goods that needed to be shipped fastly to different locations (Los *et al.*, 2015), while tracking packages improved the efficiency and security of these deliveries (Amador, Cabral, 2014).

The development of communication technologies has enabled the integration of dispersed geographical locations in real-time (Sturgeon, 2008). The Internet has changed the organisation dynamic and governance while facilitating the transfer of ideas, information, and instructions (Gereffi, 2001). The „Internet globalisation“ has decreased the information asymmetries among buyers and sellers and increased the availability of goods and services worldwide (Gereffi, 2001). Amador and Cabral (2014) also point out that these changes have led to the offshoring of different services, such as software development or call centers. The analysed changes led to increasing vertical specialisation within so-called world factories North America, Europe, and Asia and shaped the roles of the USA, Germany and China as their center economies (Baldwin, Lopez Gonzales, 2015). While the companies and countries were conducting and experiencing the disintegration of the production process, integration of the value chains started to increase among these areas (Gereffi, Fernandez-Stark, 2016).

3. Determinants Shaping Global Value Chains After Global Financial Crisis

The 2008 crisis has led to a significant temporary decrease in world trade and was the steepest fall in international trade in recorded history, and the largest after the Great Depression (Baldwin, Tomiura, 2020). Several authors point out that kind of hyper-globalisation that was taking place until the financial crisis, was not sustainable to remain for a long time, and trade to gross domestic product ratio needed to stabilise at a steady-state value, as it is not possible to attain growth without any boundaries (Antras, 2020).

Many economic determinants and contexts had changed in this period compared to the world-known when the global value chains were emerging. Until 2008, China and other emerging economies have changed their competitive position, increased their international trade, and increased their share in high-tech and mid-tech products, leading China to become the world factory (Timmer *et al.*, 2013; Neilson *et al.*, 2014). Also, Timmer *et al.* (2016) have shown that China has decreased its import intensity, while Los *et al.* (2015) point out that rising wages in China and rising fuel prices have affected the transport costs leading to decreasing further fragmentation. Besides that, Asia became an important final goods market (De Backer, Miroudot, 2013). According to the World Bank (2019), the G7 income reached its highest level in 1988, when it amounted to around 68% of total world income, while until 2017, it fell to 46% of the world income. Furthermore, Horner and Nadvi (2018) predict that emerging markets will reach 50% of final consumption by 2025. Thus, the demand and GVC with higher value have shifted to the less developed countries, especially the Asian ones.

The 2008 global financial crisis was an important driver of hidden protectionist policies that followed. The geopolitical turmoil that continued also brought more visible protectionist measures, including trade war between USA and China and Brexit (Pegoraro *et al.*, 2020). Research by Colantone and Stanig (2018) using disaggregated referendum returns and individual-level data shows that Brexit voters were higher in number in regions that were harder hit by economic globalisation-induced shock to the British manufacturing sector in the previous period. This shows that, in some cases, unequally distributed globalisation benefits might lead to identity-based nationalism and isolationism. Sampson (2017) further points out that the real effects of Brexit and its scope are yet to be seen with possible two scenarios: (1) the start of the disintegration in the new protectionist era or (2) being just a small diversion in the further globalisation.

These changes have led to increasing trade among the less developed countries, especially in Asia (Horner, Nadvi, 2018). A significant determinant that enabled these changes and has been shaping the global value chains landscape is the technological advancement brought through the Fourth Industrial Revolution. The decreasing pace of further fragmentation was partly due to reshoring facilitated by technological innovations, which are more durable than the one-off shock from the financial crisis. Rehnberg and Ponte (2018) pointed out the Fourth Industrial Revolution as a potentially important driver of changes in the manufacturing industry. They especially emphasised the potential complementary or substitution positioning of 3D printer technology and advanced robotics, artificial intelligence, virtual assistants, and

robotic process automation which are expected to produce new digital goods and transform the existing ones.

Mckinsey Global Institute research also points out the crucial future impact of digital platforms (e-commerce), logistical technologies, and processing technologies (cloud and blockchain) that they predict to decrease cross-border transaction costs from 6% to 11% up to 2030. As Antras (2020) points out, digital technologies have been reducing existing barriers in various ways. E-commerce enables small firms to enter markets and makes the management of inventories and logistics easier. On the other side, rating systems in digital platforms help increase the verification of participants in this process. At the same time, artificial intelligence, machine learning, and big data improve translation services which also enable language barriers to drop. These changes are expected to affect the factor intensity of production process tasks and change the global production organisation in the following years.

Also, the availability of qualified workers, the proximity of consumers, and infrastructure quality have become a more crucial variable of production location. Some of the labor-intensive industries are being transformed into capital-intensive industries (Mckinsey Global Institute, 2019). On the other side, Antras (2020) points out that although automation associated with industrial robots is increasing in developed economies and tends to decrease production costs and increase productivity and optimal scale, it also increases their demand for intermediate inputs produced mainly in less developed countries.

What is also important, the role of WTO had changed in this period and was not as significant as it once was. The rulemaking shifted more to regional and bilateral levels, including new trade agreements and regional integrations: US-Mexico-Canada Agreement (USMCA), Comprehensive and Progressive Agreement for Trans-Pacific Partnership (CPTPP), EU-Canada Comprehensive Trade Agreement (CETA), EU-Japan Economic Partnership Agreement, and African Continental Free Trade Area (CFTA) (World Economic Forum, 2019).

4. Global Value Chains After the COVID-19 Pandemic

The pandemic occurred in an already rising protectionist policies surrounding, which included trade wars, Brexit, rising regionalisation joined with rising reshoring and nearshoring initiatives. Data available from Global Trade Alert (2021) shows an increasing trend of government intervention in the last decade and a significant increase in government intervention in 2020. A range of protectionist measures on vital medical supplies and protective equipment such as facemasks have been implemented worldwide upon the pandemic outbreak. Evenett (2020) pointed out that 54 governments worldwide have implemented some export curbs/obstacles on medical supplies associated with the pandemic until 21 March 2020. On the other side, another set of restrictions, later on, was connected with the COVID-19 vaccine, which has been produced, like other vaccines as well, in a relatively small number of countries, as well as its ingredients and medical kits for distributing them (Evenett *et al.*, 2021). While some countries have restricted the vaccine

exports, others have restricted some of the vaccine inputs exports, as well as bags and other connected necessities.

Pandemic has increased demand for home computers, TVs, gaming consoles, and other devices during the lockdowns (Wall Street Journal, 2020), which has led to a shortage in semiconductors, one of the most globalised and strategically important industries in the world. Grimes and Du (2021) point out that this industry is very focused in two areas: (1) intellectual property regarding semiconductors designing made by suppliers of their critical software and components in developed nations, including US, South Korea, Taiwan, and some EU countries and (2) outsourced lower value-added part of the GVC (production, assembly, and testing) in Asia, particularly in China. According to the latest data they provided (1Q2019) Taiwan's TSMC and South Korea Samsung are the largest foundry companies making a large global market share. Due to the shortage that took place, not only the mentioned products production suffered but also those of cellphones, modern cars, etc.

It is also important to stress that China's central position in the trade network has not been affected by the COVID-19 pandemic so far (Vidya, Prabheesh, 2020). Parts and components that are made in China are essential for manufacturing processes worldwide. Baldwin and Tomiura (2020) refer to China as OPEC for industrial inputs and workshop of the world in the textile sector. Thus the supply shock was hard at the beginning of the pandemic while China felt the most significant hit and had hard lockdowns, while afterward Japan and South Korea and the two most important centers of GVCs, United States and Germany, felt a larger hit (Baldwin and Tomiura, 2020). Due to the increasing labour costs in the last period, China started seeking its position in more valuable parts of the value chain which includes innovation and high technologies, as its competitive advantage in labour costs was declining (Grimes, Du, 2021).

Recent Global Trade Alert (2021) data do not show a further increase in the number of new protectionist measures in 2021 compared to 2020. On the other side, much less visible was the liberalisation taking place, mainly regarding decreasing tariffs and other restrictions on certain vital medical products, even between the USA and China (Gruszczynski, 2020). Also, most of the interventions were related to pharmaceutical products and medical products trade, which can be explained as aimed to assure the domestic availability of these essential products to fight the pandemic, and thus mostly considered as a temporary shock by economic agents (Antras, 2020). The pandemic has been a medical, societal, and commercial crisis (Evenett, 2020), but it is yet to be seen which of the changes it brought are here to stay. Thus it is essential to distinguish among a temporary policy change effect due to pandemic and sustainable policies that are here to stay (Gereffi, 2020). The disruptions in GVCs caused by the COVID-19 pandemic have undoubtedly pointed out the existing fragilities, weaknesses, and potential risks of the current global production organisation. Gereffi (2020) stresses two main fragilities: (1) increasing dependence on key exporting economies such as China and (2) just-in-time business model aimed to reduce inventories and lower costs.

Many companies experienced significant supply chain disruption during the pandemic due to reliance on offshore suppliers. The risk of depending on one nation exclusively has been

especially amplified. Thus, the pandemic has increased the importance of the diversification of supplier countries. Javorcik (2020) points out that shareholders and rating agencies will force companies to rethink the resilience of their global value chains, which might lead to diversification of their supplier base. This is expected in order to protect against such future disruptions connected to a particular producer or geographic location, which might drive investment to less popular destinations holding such comparative advantages (such as eastern Europe and the southern Mediterranean). Accordingly, Miroudot (2020) points out that shorter GVCs could be less vulnerable.

Another shock for GVCs during the pandemic occurred in May 2021, when the ship „Ever Given“ blocked the Suez Canal and stopped many GVCs production. It is important to emphasise that much of the GVC trade is made by ships, and Suez Canal is one of the busiest routes in the world, with around 55 000 containers of cargo from Asia to Europe daily, important for oil and natural gas trade, but also manufacturing goods trade (Wall Street Journal, 2021). This kind of problem provokes delays in production and additional costs, keeping in mind that rental prices for containers have already increased significantly lately. The Economist (2021) also pointed out upon this shock that resilience „does not come from autarky but from diverse sources of supply“.

Besides stressing the turning point to favoring nearshoring initiatives, Barbieri *et al.* (2020) consider reshoring as an important element of global supply chain reconfiguration. But this is mostly not viewed as a single solution, as self-sufficiency can not be equated with robustness or to say „putting all the eggs in one basket is still not a good idea“ (Miroudot, 2020). Accordingly, Hayakawa and Mukunoki (2020) point out that diversification of sourcing (including domestic and international suppliers) and dual sourcing of the same inputs from suppliers in different countries should help to prevent future adverse GVC shocks. Miroudot (2020) also suggests a strategy for building robustness, regarded as „the ability to return to normal operations over an acceptable period after a disruption“, through redundancy in suppliers or alternative production locations. On the other side, he further suggests building resilience, regarded as „the ability to maintain operations while disruption is taking place“, through products (e.g., having standardised inputs easier to be replaced), design of the value chain (identifying place and suppliers that are less risky) and resilience monitoring.

But, companies do not make reshoring or nearshoring decisions easily. Antras (2020) points out several important factors that could determine the future developments: (1) previous offshoring is now considered as a sunk cost, while new reshoring would need additional fixed costs to enable it; (2) it is important to analyse if the collocation of production process segments is important because it makes harder to reshore some of the activities and leave others offshored; (3) if some of the travel restrictions and other risks stay in place it can be expected that firms will be less likely to organise their suppliers from far away locations, as face to face interaction often is important in the beginning stage and also if they perceive these risks as more of the longer term. Williamson (2021) points out that some of the predictions of large reshoring and nearshoring have been obscuring a more important fundamental change that is taking place that includes the rapidly increasing flows of data and knowledge around the world.

Most studies do not point out expected significant changes in GVC governance. Verbeke (2020) argues that managerial practices will somewhat change, but the guiding GVC design principles are less likely to do the same as it was constructed to achieve economic efficiency and create larger economic value than other types of governance. Kano and Oh (2020) do not foresee long-term changes in the fundamentals of GVC governance based on the fact that most of the changes that occurred last year are just reinforced previous trends. They also expect some structural changes and adjustments in GVC management but argue that underlying principles of GVC governance should remain unchanged. They stress reliability as a critical property of GVC governance that will undoubtedly continue to be so in the future.

On the other side, Lee and Gereffi (2021) point out that the Fourth Industrial Revolution challenges sector-based approaches such as GVCs. They point out that emerging platform-based industrial development challenges the framework of GVCs and seeks cross-sectoral innovation, capability development, and upgrading, leading to the transformation of GVCs, especially its governance model. These arguments followed the paper by Gereffi (2020), which pointed out that disruptions lead to a more fragmented, multipolar, and regionally oriented international system, thus reasoning not for the de-globalisation, but a re-globalisation as a sustainable response for a long term future development.

Bacchetta *et al.* (2021) provided an analysis of reasons for GVC reconfiguration from the firm's point of view and the government's point of view. Their conclusions also point out to diversification of supplies sources, which will vary by sector and reorganisation costs. They also point out that reshoring initiatives will not be driven by the pandemic itself but by the prior trends, including rising factor costs in emerging econ, the uncertainty of the trade policy, and the Fourth Industrial Revolution effects. As the most significant post-pandemic risk, they see a move to more protectionist policies than the pre-pandemic one, which would decrease the innovation spillovers, economies of scale, and global division of labour. Gruszczynski (2020) argues that pandemic length and severity will surely affect international trade relations and governance. If it lasts longer, it is expected that the effects will be more significant.

The key role in this reconfiguration is undoubtedly on the multinational companies, which according to UNCTAD (2019), owned 9% of world foreign assets and made 17% of global sales on foreign markets, employing 13% of workers abroad in 2017. Especially those 0,1% most successful ones show to be important making the 10% of world GDP. Bacchetta *et al.* (2021) point out three reasons why companies might reorganise their GVCs to some extent: (1) higher trade costs; (2) vulnerability of the production upon shocks; (2) diversification striving to increase robustness and resilience. Near-shoring and reshoring initiatives existed in the pre-COVID-19 world, which was characterised by increasing trade regionalisation patterns. The Fourth industrial revolution largely spurred these trends. It is also important to analyse the industrial policy trends, as it has lately, after decades of being neglected, returned to the center of development debate (Jurčić *et al.*, 2020). Verbeke (2020) proposed the agile GVCs concept as the best safeguard to maintain the economic connections necessary for a growing global economy. GVC developments and the importance of the analysed

determinants are yet to be empirically investigated. Several testable hypotheses can be drawn along with the analysed arguments based on the recent literature on this topic.

5. Conclusion

The literature review of determinants and context shaping the GVCs provided in this paper shows that GVCs have continually been changing through decades. They were affected by different determinants and global economic developments. The determinants that have shaped the geographical fragmentation of the production process can be grouped as (1) economic determinants, (2) political and ideological determinants, (3) technological determinants, and (4) multilateral and regional economic cooperation incentives.

Decreasing costs of international trade have been a consequence of technological advancement in transport and ICT, but also of decreasing barriers to trade on the multilateral and regional levels. On the other side, still large barriers to international migration and differences in production factor prices provided the possibilities to reduce the production costs of many companies through offshoring. The most important political and ideological changes included the opening of China, liberalisation in India and the fall of Berlin Wall and Yugoslavia. These drivers led to the period of „hyperglobalisation“ that ended with the global financial crisis in 2008. In the following period of „slowbalisation“, production factor price differences started to shrink along with the rise of „Global South“ markets.

The Fourth Industrial Revolution brought new technologies that have enabled transferring some of the labour-intensive activities into capital-intensive, thus spurring the ideas of reshoring and nearshoring previously offshored activities. The role of the WTO has decreased, while the regionalisation has increased. The changes in the global organisation of production coupled with the global financial crisis led to rising protectionist policies, including trade wars and Brexit.

The COVID-19 pandemic revealed the fragilities of GVCs, and some changes are to be expected. Provided literature review points to the expected supplier diversification and supplier redundancy as risk-reducing strategies. Also, it points out the importance of identifying less risky places and suppliers, considering partial nearshoring and reshoring activities in some cases, not in the manner of self-sufficiency, but to ensure resilience and robustness through diversification. The effects of the Fourth Industrial Revolution are expected to shape the future GVC landscape, enabling further fragmentation but at the same time also enabling other more protectionist initiatives. GVC reconfiguration and further globalisation trends might depend on the duration, depth, and equality outcomes of the current crisis on economies, especially the GVC center economies (USA, Germany, and China), and their responses. It is yet to be seen how the political discourse and industrial policies will shape these changes in the post-COVID-19 pandemic world. As in previous periods, we can expect that multinational companies will have the key role, through their further production organisation decisions based on the costs and risks faced due to the set of analysed determinants.

Further empirical analysis is needed to (1) show the effects of the potential reconfiguration of GVCs using FDI data and global input-output tables revealing the changes in trade flows; (2)

show the development of protectionist measures; (3) determine the characteristics of GVCs that might experience higher reconfiguration and those sustainable in the existing form.

This paper includes a modified excerpt from author's doctoral thesis „Croatian manufacturing industry in Global Value Chains“ defended in the academic year 2019/2020 at the University of Zagreb, Faculty of Economics and Business. The adjusted excerpt refers to the literature review of GVC determinants in the pre-COVID-19 pandemic period and is included in this paper to disseminate research results.

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CONTEXTUALIZING STRATEGIC CAPABILITIES AS DRIVER OF COMPETITIVENESS: COMPARING GLOBAL AND RUSSIAN FIRMS

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Abstract

A dynamic business environment and globalization are driving firms to be more flexible and increase their competitiveness. Survival is a business aim challenging firms to grow, change, and develop, triggering increasingly tough new global competition. This paper clarifies the concept of strategic capabilities as a basis for developing firms' competitiveness by gathering and structuring knowledge in this field, making a contribution to the existing body of literature with authentic Russian expertise. The term "strategic capability" is considered in the context of the competitive paradigm evolution, ranging from the theory of economic development and a market-based view (MBV), through a resource-based view (RBV) to the firms' dynamic capabilities. The theoretical framework includes the strategic capability's foundations and challenges that the firms face in applying their strategic capabilities. Based on the theoretical model presented, the empirical part investigates a comparison of the strategic capabilities of global and Russian firms, and then identifies both general and specific strategic capabilities, applying qualitative methods. The results provide a structured overview of the strategic capability approach and can be helpful addressing the related strengthening of firms' competitive advantages based on the identified strategic capabilities and obtaining strong market positions. It enables both foreign and Russian firms operating in global markets to compete in a more confident manner.

Keywords: Firm competitiveness, Global firms, Russian firms, Strategic capability, Strategic competitive advantages

1. Introduction

The external environment is becoming extremely turbulent and more aggressive, as it is affected by globalization and tough global competition. That becomes a permanent challenge for all market players. For this reason, there is a growing interest in firms' competitiveness and its evolution to the level of leading firms in certain market segments.

A fundamental challenge for firms today is to combine different types of resources, core competencies, dynamic and other capabilities in a rapidly changing business environment to gain competitive advantage. The concept of strategic capabilities is a mediator between these terms. Strategic capability is a modern concept in management, and it is the basis for the building of strategic competitive advantages (London, Hart, 2004; Cuervo-Cazurra, Newburry, & Park, 2016; 2020). Today, strategic capabilities are crucial for any firm to remain competitive in a rapidly changing environment. A firm can have a stronger competitive position by identifying its strategic capabilities, matching them to its environment, and integrating them into a strong strategy (Kumar, Simon, & Kimberley, 2000).

The development of the strategic capability concept suffers from a diversity of interpretations offered by a multitude of different authors, as a result, the concepts introduced by the resource-based view (RBV) and its theoretical extensions (resources, processes, capabilities,

competencies, etc.) lack clear definitions (Thomas & Pollock, 1999). In this study, strategic capabilities combine unique resources, core competencies, knowledge, and capabilities and adapt them according to the external and internal environment. A. Johne characterized strategic capabilities as a “*complex bundle*” that enables firms to perform (Johne, 1992). V. Kumar explored the relationship among the external environment, strategy, and strategic capabilities that leads to organizational performance and sustainable competitive advantages (Kumar *et al.*, 2000). Strategic capabilities are considered as a driver of the firms' competitiveness through the building of new competitive advantages or strengthening them.

The authors, based on the results of large-scale empirical research, investigate a study of strategic capabilities of firms with different levels of globalization operating in the Russian market, where strategic capabilities are considered as a driver of firms' competitiveness.

The analysis of 24 cases of global and Russian firms allows us to identify the major categories and subcategories of strategic capabilities and “*needed-to-win*” strategic capabilities that play a critical role in firms' competitiveness. The study of the identified strategic capabilities enables us to observe *how the level of globalization determines the set of major strategic capabilities of firms*. This is the focus of the current study and provides an opportunity to analyze the key differences in the building of the firms' competitiveness, taking into account the context, i.e., the level of firms' globalization.

The structure of the study reflects the main theoretical and methodological issues and the findings of the author's research. The theoretical part of the study focuses on the development of the strategic capability concept, its relationship with competitive performance, as well as the features of this concept's evolution in Russia in Sections 2-4. The methodology of the empirical research is presented in Section 5. The main results are grouped according to the identified research questions in sections 6.1-6.4. The conclusion presents the main findings, limitations, and recommendations for further research.

2. Strategic capabilities background

The firm's strategic capabilities are based on three crucial pillars. First, it is the firm's internal resources and core competencies, which have to be unique and hard to replicate (Barney, 1991). Second, information in a knowledge-based economy and organizational knowledge will be the main assets of any organization (Drucker, 1999). Third, the firm's interaction with the external environment can provide the resources, competencies, and additional capabilities that a firm needs for a particular strategic goal (Lenz, 1980; Johne, 1992; Hubbard, Pocknee, & Taylor, 1996; Johnson *et al.*, 2008). In general, all of these aspects have to be part of the “*needed-to-win*” capabilities in order to become strategic capabilities; then, the latter will be the most optimal choice for their subsequent transformation into competitive advantages and the creation of firm value (Teece, Pisano, & Shuen, 1997). Also, building competitive advantage requires a firm to integrate resources, learn, and change its business model to improve its performance over the long term, in addition to having strategic capabilities developed “to a level of mastery that exceeds anything the firm does, and especially better than any of its competitors” (Robert, 1993).

Strategic capabilities are directly related to the firm's strategy. Their emergence has led to the development of strategic intent, i.e., an expression of the organization's intentions, what it is going to do, and how the business wants to “move from here to there”, and strategic fit, i.e.,

when a firm must match its capabilities and resources with the opportunities available in the external environment. Also, research divides strategic capabilities into two main types, namely core capabilities and distinctive capabilities (Leonard, 1992; Kay, 1993).

Sustained strategic capabilities are the basis for sustainable competitive advantage which, in general, requires the firm to invest heavily in terms of time and resources (Prahalad, 1983; Robert, 1993; Hayes, Pisano & Upton, 1996; Hubbard *et al.*, 1996). The sustainability of strategic capabilities is formed of three key components: complexity, organizational culture dynamics, and causal ambiguity (Teece *et al.*, 2000; King & Zeithaml, 2001; Cool *et al.*, 2002).

Cuervo-Cazurra A., Newburry W., Park S. (2016; 2020) have developed a new stage in the research of the firm's strategic capabilities. Their interest focuses on the development of firms' strategic capabilities at the international level, taking into account the country context in which firms operate. Thus, the authors have expanded the traditional “structure – conduct – performance” paradigm (Bain, 1956) and included the country context in the causal chain (“context – structure – conduct – performance”). This allows them to elucidate how the country context affects competitive strategies, and consequently provides an understanding of what capabilities need to be developed in order to improve competitiveness in the markets. In addition to expanding the concept, the authors defined strategic capabilities as the firm's ability to select the most appropriate vision, identify realistic intentions, compare resources and competencies with environmental opportunities, and prepare and implement strategic plans (Cuervo-Cazurra *et al.*, 2016; 2020).

Led by Cuervo-Cazurra A., Newburry W., Park S., the research group at the Research Center for Emerging Market Studies (Shanghai, China) has developed an international approach that helps to identify the main categories and subcategories of firms' strategic capabilities and achieve some comparability of research results, including different countries and firms. Recent research by Cuervo-Cazurra A., Newburry W., Park S., in which the author of this study participated, used this approach to compare the cases of different firms from twelve emerging markets. This revealed which capabilities of leading multinationals in emerging markets are strategically important for them (Cuervo-Cazurra *et al.*, 2020).

3. The relationship between strategic capabilities and firms' competitiveness

The concept of strategic capabilities was developed as a part of the theory of competitiveness and competitive advantage, which has passed through three main stages in its development: the theory of economic development, a market-based view (MBV), and a resource-based view (RBV). According to these stages, the source of competitive advantage changed from internal (resources and skills) and external (industry, market) factors of firm efficiency to unique resources, core competencies, and dynamic capabilities.

RBV emphasizes the importance of strategic (unique) resources and core competencies that are difficult to replicate (Prahalad & Hamel, 1990; Crook *et al.*, 2008; Barney *et al.*, 2011), and need to be developed ahead of time (Barney, 1991; Lischuk & Trefilova, 2014; Orekhova, 2016). Regarding the firms' capabilities, there are different approaches to their description and understanding in the scientific literature. A review of the development of the capability concept and related theoretical statements provides a more comprehensive and in-depth view of strategic capabilities. It is a good starting point in studying strategic capabilities and determining their relationship with improving a firm's competitiveness.

P. Wójcik work analyzed definitions of capabilities offered by various authors (Mahoney & Pandian, 1992; Amit & Schoemaker, 1993; Hooley, Broderick, & Moller, 1998; Winter, 2000; Helfat & Peteraf, 2003; Besanko *et al.*, 2004; Helfat *et al.*, 2007; Helfat & Winter, 2011; Teece, 2012) and noted that there is a great number of ambiguities in the positioning and usage of capability among other closely related concepts like resources and competencies. Such a situation affects the precision of analysis at the theoretical and empirical levels. Moreover, capabilities are defined through the terms “capacities” and “abilities” in most cases, which can be described as tautological to “capabilities” (Wójcik, 2015).

In order to understand the nature of a firm's strategic capabilities, it is important to examine its architecture (Pandza, Horsburgh, Gorton, & Polajnar, 2003; Vesalainen & Hakala, 2014). Most models addressing the capability hierarchy are four-level, including resources, operational and functional capabilities, core competencies, and dynamic capabilities (Hafeez, Zhang, & Malak, 2002; Mills, Platts, & Bourne, 2003; Sanchez, 2004; Sanchez & Heene, 1997; Wang & Ahmed, 2007; Wójcik, 2015; Ceglinski, 2020).

Rethinking the existing architecture of a firm's strategic capabilities allowed the authors to present their own vision of the relationship among resources, competencies, various types of capabilities, strategic capabilities, competitive advantages, and competitive performance (Figure 1). Strategic capabilities accumulate all the listed levels (resources, competencies, and capabilities) and build competitive advantage on their basis. This enables considering strategic capabilities as a driver of firms' competitiveness. It is worth noting that the presented model includes the most relevant research for each level to show the diversity of approaches to understanding and describing the terms.

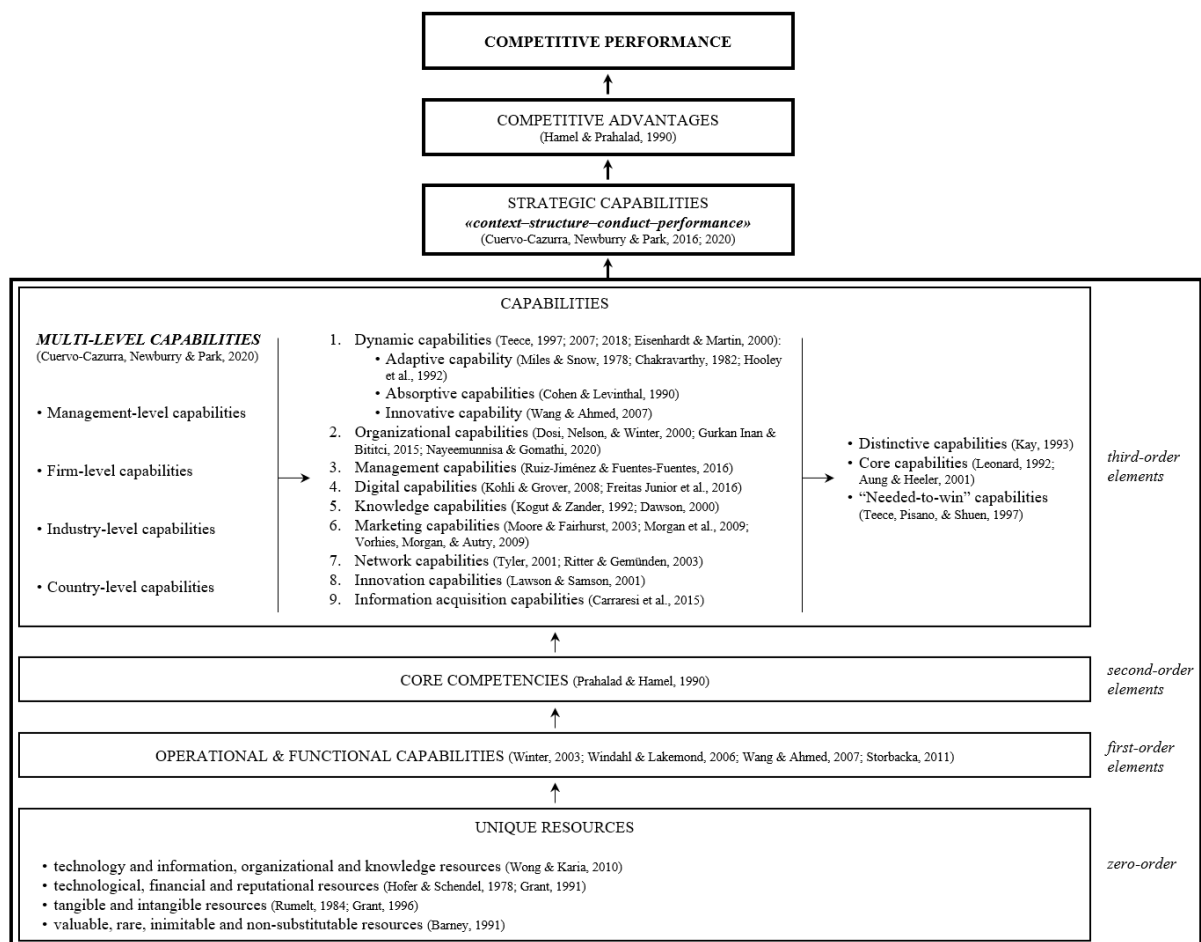


Figure 1: The Relationship among Strategic Capabilities, Competitive Advantages and Competitive Performance

Source: authors' own elaboration based on a review of the capability literature

At the zero level of the hierarchy are unique resources, which include various interpretations of this term by the following authors (Hofer & Schendel, 1978; Rumelt, 1984; Barney, 1991; Grant, 1991; 1996; Wong & Karia, 2010). Resources are fundamental to the existence of the firm. According to Wang and Ahmedt, there are operational and functional capabilities at the first level. They allow resources to be allocated in order to achieve a goal (Wang & Ahmed, 2007). The core competencies correlate with the second level. C. Prahalad and G. Hamel provided the most complex definition of core competency: a category based on a related set of skills, activities, and resources that participates in creating customer value, outperforms firms' competitors, and changes in accordance with the environment (Prahalad & Hamel, 1990).

There are a variety of different firm capabilities that are explored by the authors (Miles *et al.*, 1978; Chakravarthy, 1982; Cohen & Levinthal, 1990; Leonard, 1992; Kay, 1993; Aung & Heeler, 2001; Tyler, 2001; Ritter & Gemünden, 2003; Teece, 2007; Wang & Ahmed, 2007; Carraresi *et al.*, 2015; Ruiz-Jiménez & Fuentes-Fuentes, 2016; Nayeemunnisa & Gomathi, 2020). They can be both static and change over time in accordance with environmental business conditions. Particular attention should be paid to the term dynamic capabilities, discussed from different perspectives, which have been analyzed in (Jurksiene & Pundziene,

2016). They ranged from competencies, abilities, capabilities, capacities, to processes and routines, which also points to the possibility of concepts' substitution in using the term. Thanks to dynamic capabilities, the firm's strategic capabilities ensure the firm's adaptation to changing conditions over time. Another view of capabilities categorizes them into four levels, depending on the context: management-level, firm-level, industry-level, and country-level capabilities (Cuervo-Cazurra *et al.*, 2020)

Strategic capabilities include all the above key categories (unique resources, core competencies, capabilities), taking into account the country context. Understanding the market and adapting to its conditions can improve the efficiency of an organization and its product lifecycle, which can lead to a sustainable competitive advantage in the long-term (Jácome, Lisboa, & Yasin, 2002). Using this approach to identify and build a sustainable competitive advantage in the relevant industry is called “*competing on capabilities*” (Ghemawat, 1986; Stalk, Evans and Shulman, 1992; Kumar *et al.*, 2000; Simon & Power, 2004; Moffat & Simon, 2008).

Thus, strategic capabilities are the basis for the building of strategic competitive advantages, which lead to the achievement of superior competitive performance by the firm. So, strategic capabilities are the driver to increase a firm's competitiveness in the market.

4. Development of the strategic capabilities concept in Russia

In Russia, the development of strategic management and the theory of organizational competitiveness, intensified in the early 1990s after the country's transition from a planned economy to a market economy. By the end of the decade, the first rethinking of strategic capabilities, as an important category in building an organization's competitive advantage and competitiveness, had already emerged.

G. B. Kleiner, V. L. Tambovtsev, and R. M. Kachalov defined strategic capabilities as something abstract but contributing to the long-term development of the firm. However, in more recent papers, the authors observe that this category is quite specific, as the decision can have both positive and negative impact on the enterprise and its future development (Kleiner, Tambovtsev, & Kachalov, 1997). This separation of the strategic capabilities influence was concretized by Y. D. Turusin, S. Y. Lyapina, and N. G. Shalamova. According to them, a positive set of strategic capabilities does not require a firm to attract additional resources, competences, and other changes to achieve the strategic goals, and vice versa for a negative set (Turusin, Lyapina, & Shalamova, 2003).

Through considering strategic capabilities, O. S. Vihansky notes the importance of the external environment, as it is the source of resources and competencies which are necessary both for maintaining internal capabilities at the level of minimum competitiveness and, in general, for strengthening the firm in the market (Vihansky, 1998). A. N. Petrov reviews the impact of the external environment on the firm and concludes that the purpose of strategic capabilities (the resource potential of the firm) focuses on “identifying opportunities for key strategic decisions to further penetrate mastered markets and diversify production” (Petrov, 2005).

Approaches to the definition of strategic capabilities are based on the resource-based concept (Table 1), which considers the firm not through the prism of a set of business units or final

products, but as a set of organizational capabilities, competencies, and resources that form the competitiveness of the firm structure and product value (Lukinykh, 2018).

№	Definition	Author, publication year
1	SC is a set of manufacturing and management resources, a sufficient level of firm development and the nature of interaction that ensures the achievement of the firm's strategy.	Filatova, 2006
2	SC is the relevance and sufficiency of the firm's strategic resources used to develop and implement a strategy that strengthens its competitive position.	Vasilyeva, 2010
3	SC allows the firm to create the most appropriate to the firm's activities strategy that is difficult to replicate. and.	Bgashev, 2012
4	SC is a combination of resources and core competencies (abilities) of the enterprise, which provides a sustainable competitive advantage.	Vasilyeva, 2012

Later research underlines that strategic capabilities support the unity of a firm's unique features. They are divided into two main types: reproducible and distinctive capabilities, which are the foundation of competitive advantage (Patrakhina, 2015). The competitive advantage and organization's superior performance are explained by the differences in its strategic capabilities, which triggers the emergence of new strategic capabilities research and theoretical justifications, particularly in Russia. Most studies of strategic capabilities in the Russian market focus on the study of specific strategic capabilities in a particular subject area (marketing, value chain, etc.), and comprehensive studies are limited (Roersen, Kraaijenbrink, Groen, 2013; Patrakhina, 2015; Gurkov, Saidov, 2017; Smirnova, Rebiasina, Khomich, 2017; Guseva, Rebiasina, 2019; Guseva, 2020).

So, the contextual interpretation of the strategic capabilities concept can generate a number of theoretical problems. Most definitions of strategic capabilities relate them to resources and competencies inside the organization and to opportunities in the external environment. Yet, the availability of resources, competencies, and capabilities is not a guarantee for increasing the firm's competitiveness. The latter will be affected by how they are used, developed, and correlated with the external environment.

5. Methodology of empirical research

This empirical research emphasizes the study of strategic capabilities as a driver of competitiveness for firms with different levels of globalization operating in the Russian market.

The main research question: *how does the context (the level of firm globalization) change the set of major strategic capabilities of firms?* It was then decomposed into four questions:

- 1.1. What strategic capabilities are major for global firms?
- 1.2. What strategic capabilities are major for domestic firms?

1.3. What strategic capabilities have become major for Russian exporting firms while expanding their business beyond the domestic market?

1.4. What is the difference between the set of major strategic capabilities of global and Russian firms?

The study of strategic capabilities was conducted by using the methodology proposed within the framework of an international research group (Cuervo-Cazurra *et al.*, 2020), where one of the authors was a member. This methodology identifies the major subcategories of firms' strategic capabilities categorized into 6 categories: 1. Obtaining resources; 2. Product/service capabilities; 3. Operations and management; 4. Marketing; 5. Managing external environment; 6. Strategy.

The empirical research used qualitative research methods in the form of semi-structured interviews. The interviewees were the owners, top, and middle level managers, because they can most correctly assess the components of the firm's strategy and other factors related to it.

The total pool of collected data (interviews) was 143 interviews with various firms. 45 interviews were selected, taking into account the setting of research questions and the specifics of the firms' distribution into three groups: 1) global firms with activities in the Russian market; 2) domestic firms with activities in the domestic market; and 3) Russian exporting firms conducting business in both domestic and foreign markets. In the study, 24 out of 45 analyzed firms belong to industry or services and are distributed according to two criteria proposed by (Cuervo-Cazurra *et al.*, 2020): the industry in which a firm operates (low-tech, high-tech, or service) and the degree of globalization of a firm (domestic, exports, or global) (Table 2).

Table 2: Main characteristics of the firms studied				
		Firm category		
		Domestic firms	Russian Exporters	Global firms
Industry type	High-tech	SUENCO JSC Laser systems and technologie "LST-707" LTD	Varton LTD ASPECT PJSC Sberbank	Merck Group BMW Group Toyota Motor Corporation
	Low-tech	SUEK JSC AISFER JSC Torgservis LTD (manufacturing, trading of oil equipment)	PROMAGRO LTD	Japan Tobacco International GrandVision Kraft Heinz ECCO
	Service	Radinteh R&P LTD Chistyj-Gorod LTD Tsargrad LTD Medical Center Medved LTD Prime-Stomatologia LTD		Ketchum Lotte Mazars

The empirical study includes 10 global firms, 10 domestic firms, and 4 Russian exporters. The industrial sector is represented by 15 firms and the service sector by 9 firms. High-tech firms were defined as using advanced technology in their operations or manufacturing an innovative, technologically complex product. Sberbank, which belongs to the banking services sector, was categorized as high-tech, since this firm is developing as a modern ecosystem, using technologies such as artificial intelligence (AI), robotics (RPA), BigData, and expanding into other industries. Table 3 summarizes the main characteristics of the selected firms.

Table 3: Selected Firms' Profile and Financial Performance					
Firm name	Industry / Firm category	Year of foundation	Country	Sales 2019, USD ^a	No. of markets
Global firms					
Merck Group (Russian subsidiary is Sigma-Aldrich)	Chemicals, Pharmaceuticals / Global	1668	Germany	18,145 million	66
BMW Group	Automotive / Global	1916	Germany	116,833 billion	8
Toyota Motor Corporation	Automotive / Global	1937	Japan	278,460 billion	190
Japan Tobacco International	Tobacco / Global	1949	Japan	20,268 billion	130
GrandVision	Optical / Global	1891	Netherlands	4,535 million	40
Kraft Heinz	Food processing / Global	1869 (M&A Kraft Foods and H.J. Heinz in 2015)	USA	24,98 billion	50
ECCO	Shoe and Footwear Manufacturing / Global	1963	Denmark	1,527 million	99
Ketchum (Russian subsidiary is Ketchum Maslov)	Consulting, Marketing communications / Global	1923	USA	n/a	8
Lotte	Conglomerate / Global	1967	South Korea	15,252 billion	8
Mazars	Audit, Consulting, Taxation / Global	1945	France	2 billion	91
Domestic firms					

SUENCO JSC	Electric power / Domestic	2002	Russia	264,336 million	1
SUEK JSC	Coal mining and energy producing / Domestic	2001	Russia	7,547 million	1
AISFER JSC	Food processing / Domestic	2011	Russia	21,267 million	1
Firm name	Industry / Firm category	Year of foundation	Country	Sales 2019, USD ^a	No. of markets
Domestic firms					
Laser systems and technologie "LST-707" LTD	Printing machinery, other offset printing machinery and other equipment / Domestic	2008	Russia	n/a	1
Torgservis LTD (manufacturing , trading of oil equipment)	Manufacturing, trading of oil equipment / Domestic	n/a	Russia	n/a	1
Radinteh R&P LTD	Scientific Research and Development Services / Domestic	2016	Russia	525 116	1
Chistyj-Gorod LTD	Advertising / Domestic	2005	Russia	116 938	1
Tsargrad LTD	Security services / Domestic	1996	Russia	1,178 million	1
Medical Center Medved LTD	Healthcare / Domestic	2014	Russia	1,284 million	1
Prime-Stomatologia LTD	Healthcare / Domestic	2005	Russia	2,151 million	1
Russian Exporters					
Varton LTD	LED lighting / Exporter	2009	Russia	12,647 million	4
ASPECT PJSC	Manufacture of instruments and appliances for measuring, testing and navigation / Russian Exporter	1991	Russia	24,087 million	32

Sberbank	Banking, financial services / Russian Exporter	1991	Russia	13,972 billion	22
PROMAGRO LTD	Swine, Food processing / Russian Exporter	2014	Russia	101,169 million	6
a Based on exchange rate of 31 December 2019: USD 1 = EUR 0.890155 USD 1 = JPY 109.593831 USD 1 = KRW 1 153.889977 USD 1 = RUB 62.271942					

The content analysis of the gathered interviews highlighted the strategic capabilities according to their categories and subcategories presented internationally. (Cuervo-Cazurra *et al.*, 2020). Then, for each category of firms (global, domestic, and export), their strategic capabilities were ranked according to the frequency of mentions in the interviews. The ranking was conducted in a few stages:

1. ranking the top 3 categories of major strategic capabilities;
2. ranking the top 5 subcategories of major strategic capabilities;
3. ranking the most frequent critical (*needed-to-win*) strategic capabilities.

The study used a quartile ranking in determining the level of strategic capability importance for firms. Strategic capabilities were ranked, grouping them into 3 classes:

1. Very important – 1 quartile – mentioned by at least 75% of firms and more (at least seven of the ten firms);
2. Important – 2 quartile – mentioned by 50% of firms (four to six of the ten firms);
3. Less important – 3 quartile – mentioned by 25% of firms and less (three or fewer of the ten firms).

The final stage of the research compared and analyzed the major categories and subcategories of strategic capabilities of global and Russian firms.

The empirical investigation carried out in accordance with the set research questions allowed the authors to identify the major strategic capabilities of global firms represented in the Russian market, domestic firms, and Russian exporters. Their specific and general strategic capabilities were analyzed. These capabilities ensure a difference in focus in the building of firms' competitiveness, as strategic capabilities are its driver.

6. Empirical research findings

6.1 Major strategic capabilities of global firms

The analysis of global firms' strategic capabilities categories found that firms were comparably attentive to *operations and management* and *marketing*, which were consistently ranked first and second place according to firms' frequency of mention in interviews (Figure 2). *Product/service capabilities* is the third most important category of strategic capabilities for global firms. Other categories of strategic capabilities were also noted, but their lower firms' frequency of mention suggests that they are less important in building the global firms' competitiveness.

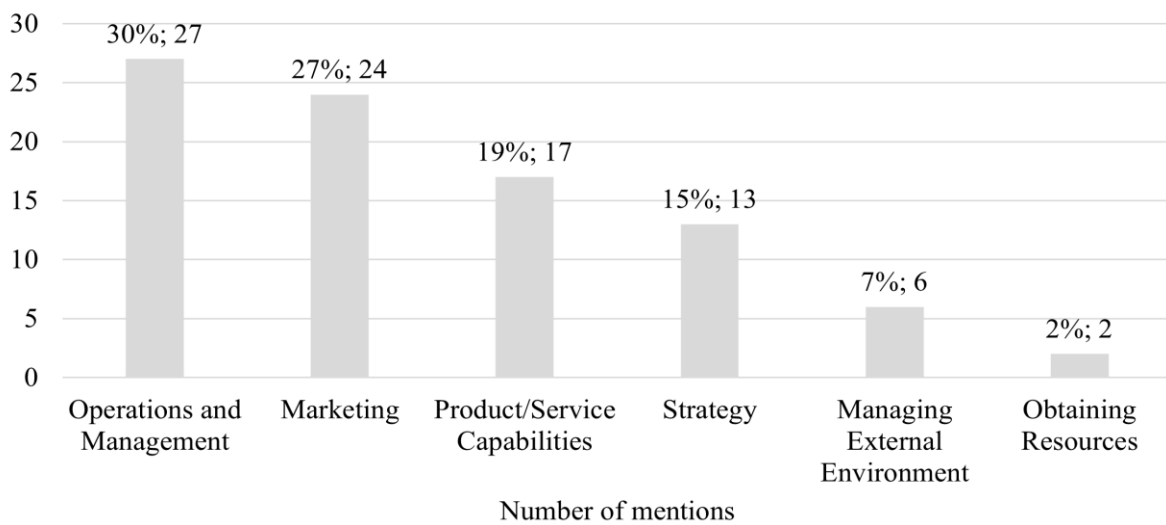


Figure 2: Major categories of the strategic capabilities of global firms

The next level of analysis highlighted the top 5 major subcategories of strategic capabilities of global firms (Figure 3), which included strategic capabilities from the 1st and 2nd quartiles.

The most important strategic capabilities of global firms include *quality control* and *professional employees/workers*. The importance of quality in international competition was demonstrated in the 1980s when Japanese cars were introduced to the U.S. market. They were superior to similar American cars in terms of reliability and cost, allowing Japanese firms to win the fight for the market at that time. Also, quality correlates with the growing level of resource scarcity. Its growth is a global problem and gives rise to one of the highest priority tasks for the world economy, i.e., resource-saving.

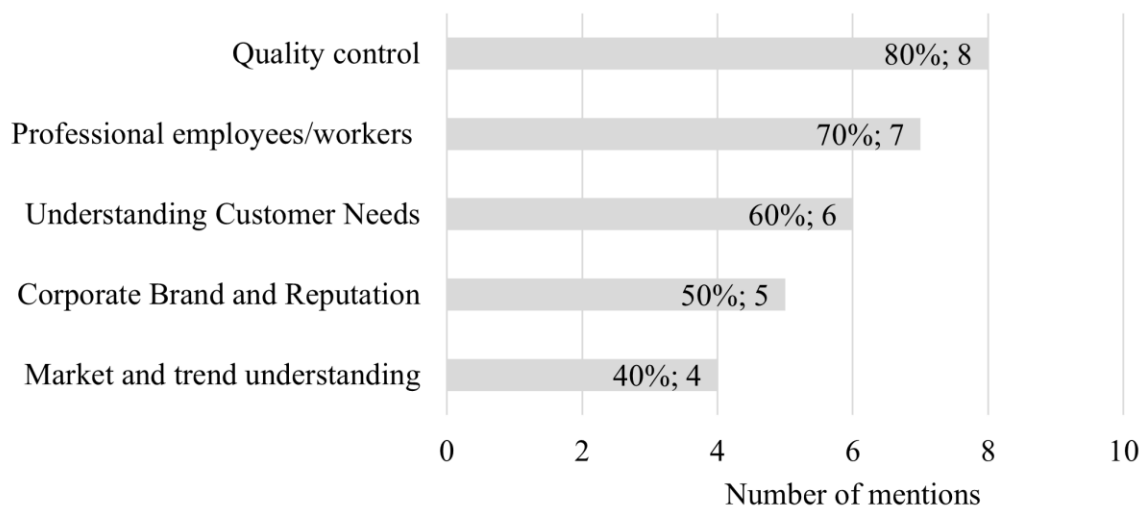


Figure 3: Major subcategories of the strategic capabilities of global firms

The quality management system and the firm's innovation potential are directly related to human capital. People are becoming a key asset to firms. Global firms actively invest in human resources, hiring highly *professional employees/workers*, as it is impossible to

produce a quality product without trained and educated personnel (“the firm is focused [...] on specialists, qualified people” (Merck Group); “[...] people, namely on the expertise of the people who work in the firm, on the methodology that we use, which, in fact, also depends on the skill level of people” (Mazars)).

The second quartile – important strategic capabilities – includes 3 capabilities from the marketing category: *understanding consumer needs, corporate brand and reputation, and market and trend understanding*. Today, the world market focuses on customers, satisfying their needs and desires, as customer-oriented firms are 60% more profitable than firms that do not focus on customers in their work (Morgan, 2019). Besides, many large global firms associate their brand with the concept of quality and, therefore, they are responsible for products/services with their market reputation. Finally, regular market research, accounting for current trends and understanding the consumer allows firms to adjust the level of quality and necessary costs.

Regarding strategic capabilities from the perspective of their critical importance to the firms' success in markets, global firms noted *quality control* not just as the most important capability but as “*needed-to-win*”, critical in building firm competitiveness (“culture of high-quality processes, high-quality products, and very clear processes” (Japan Tobacco International); “accepted golden rules of quality” (Kraft Heinz)).

Thus, there are three key areas where global firms actively develop their capabilities: *operations and management, marketing, and product/service*. First, the focus is on human potential and employee expertise. Secondly, the focus is both on market trends, research, and customer needs, as well as on supporting the firm's reputation and promoting its brand. Finally, the quality control is emphasized not only on the product, but also on the materials and technologies used and the level of personnel training. It is important to note, operations and management takes center stage in the analysis of the strategic capabilities' categories, but the analysis of the capabilities subcategories shows the high importance of the product to global firms, in particular, its quality.

6.2 Major strategic capabilities of domestic firms

The importance of *operations and management* is outlined among the categories of strategic capabilities mentioned by domestic firms (Figure 4). *Product/service capabilities* are second most important but the number of mentions of this category is comparable with the third rank, which is shared by *strategy* and *marketing*. To conclude, there is a big difference in importance between the categories of the strategic capabilities of domestic firms.

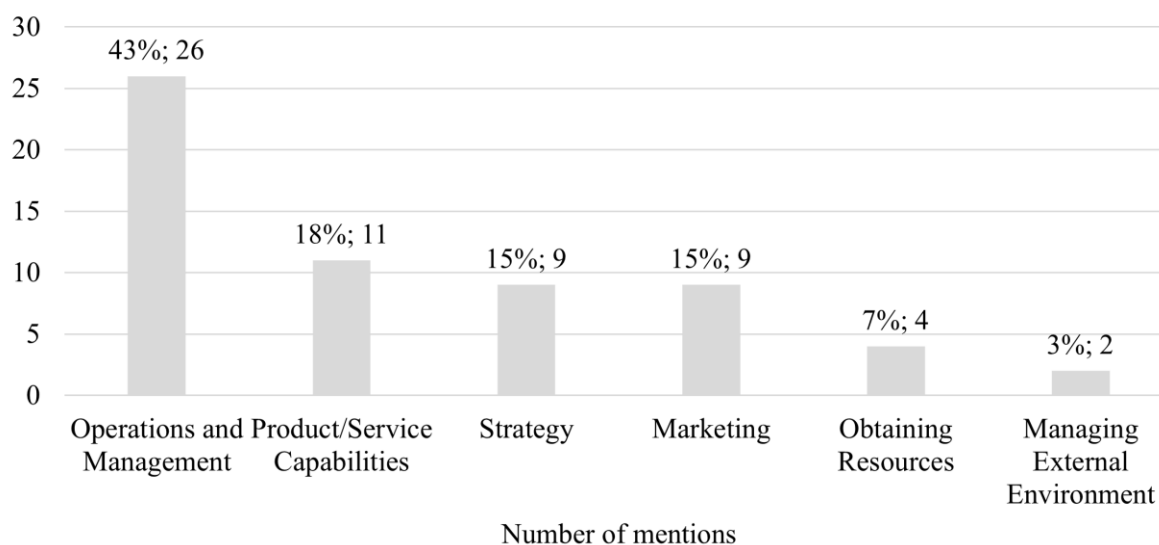


Figure 4: Major categories of the strategic capabilities of domestic firms

The analysis of the strategic capabilities' subcategories (Figure 5) revealed the reason for the significant difference between the categories of strategic capabilities.

Domestic firms prioritize human resources in most cases (“human assets [...] the team” (Medical Center Medved LTD)). *Professional employees/workers* belong to the first quartile of strategic capabilities, which indicates their importance. The focus of domestic firms on people is also reinforced by the fact that Russian firms value both *hard* and *soft skills*, which are part of the second quartile – important strategic capabilities. Some of the capabilities in the 3rd quartile are also related to human resources. 3 of the 10 domestic firms noted their developed capabilities in *personnel training*, which shows their desire not just to find a professional but to bring them up (“we keep people, we teach people, we grow them from the ground up” (Radinteh R&P LTD); “we try to prepare our future employees, starting from the school, we do not miss them in their student years and strive to attract them to work for our firm as much as possible” (SUENCO JSC)).

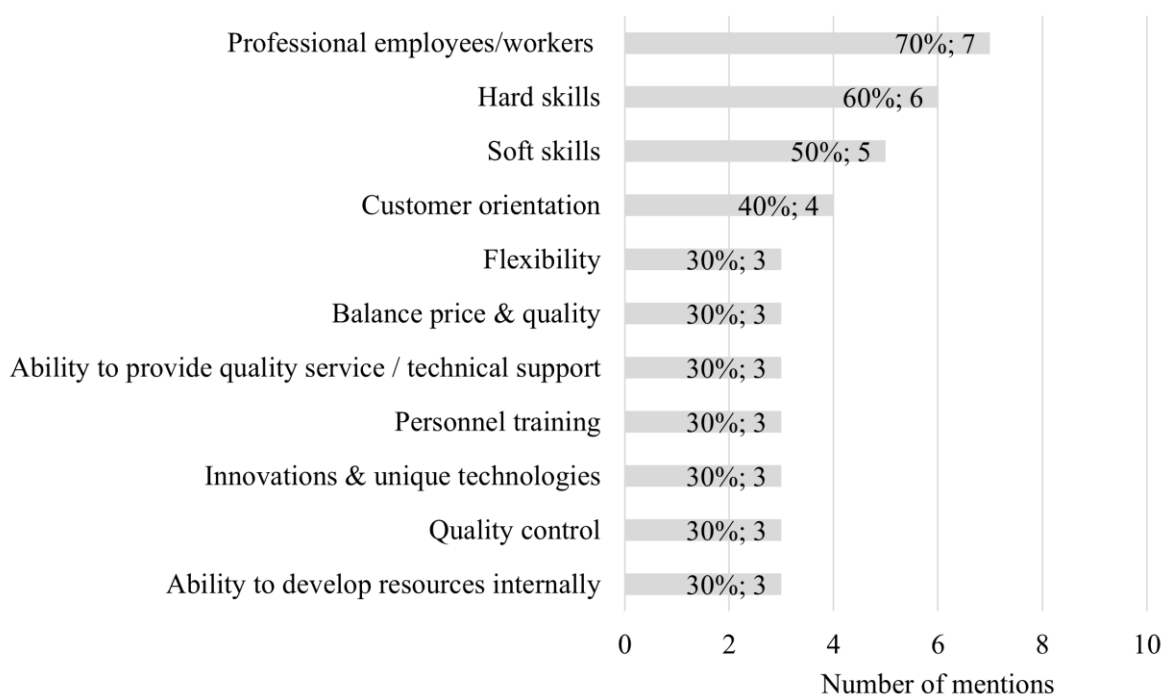


Figure 5: Major subcategories of the strategic capabilities of domestic firms

Customer orientation is at the lower boundary of the 2nd quartile of the strategic capabilities of domestic firms. In this case, 4 of the 10 Russian firms identified *customer orientation*. They apply an individual approach to clients in their operations (“[...] differentiated products, we have an individual approach to each customer” (Radinteh R&P LTD), “we try to optimize and customize the program for the client” (Chistyj-Gorod LTD)). However, all of this is just one side of the action set included in consumer orientation.

According to the definition of strategic capabilities (*needed-to-win*) it was found that domestic firms mentioned *professional employees/workers* and their *skills* (hard and soft) in most cases (“employee competence” (Prime-Stomatologia LTD); “a professional team of like-minded people” (AISFER JSC)). However, strategic capabilities as the *ability to develop resources internally* (“full production cycle [...] own raw material base” (AISFER JSC); “a large number of reserves, i.e., mineral deposits” (SUEK JSC)) and *balance price & quality* (“reasonable price/quality ratio” (Chistyj-Gorod LTD)) were additionally noted, which are also considered to be fundamental in building firm competitiveness.

The emergence of these capabilities is driven by the country's historical background, its resource dependence, from which the country is gradually trying to escape, realizing its potential in railway transport development, agriculture, the military-industrial complex and the digital economy. The general state of the economy has also influenced the development of these capabilities, as the cost of a good or service is at the forefront, firms want higher margins and lower costs, and for the consumers, the price is important according to their standard of living. All of this reflects how context affects firm performance, particularly their strategic capabilities.

Based on the above, domestic firms focus on human capital and its potential, setting staff professionalism as the basis for building the firm's competitiveness. The business environment in which the firm functions is also identified as important, as the context determines many aspects in a firm's operation, including competitiveness.

6.3 Major strategic capabilities of Russian exporters

Russian exporters are equally concentrated on two categories of strategic capabilities (Figure 6): *marketing* and *product/service*, which share the first position. Second and third, respectively, were *strategy* and *operations and management*. In the first four strategic capabilities, there is no significant difference in the frequency of mentioning by firms. This indicates their low differentiation in the development of their competitiveness.

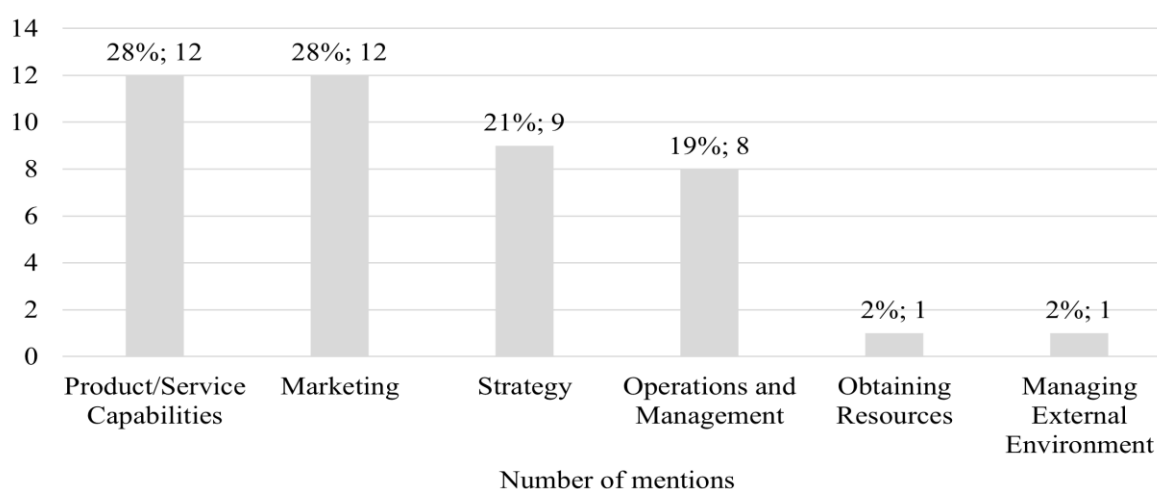


Figure 6: Major categories of the strategic capabilities of Russian exporters

According to the analysis of the major subcategories of Russian exporters' strategic capabilities 4 of their major strategic capabilities were identified (Figure 7). The business of these firms is focused on the development of *product/service capabilities*, which include *quality control* (mentioned by 4 of the 4 firms and is also a “*needed-to-win*” capability) and *product & service manufacturing* (mentioned by 3 of the 4 firms). *Marketing* is also increasing in importance: the firm engaged in *understanding customer needs* (mentioned by 3 of the 4 firms), begins to build its own corporate brand and maintain its reputation (*corporate brand and reputation* were mentioned by 3 of the 4 firms) (“researching the network customer's requirements” (PROMAGRO LTD); “professional reputation [...] first you work for the name, then the name starts working for you” (ASPECT PJSC)). Finally, Russian exporters highlight the need to be *flexible* on various issues (“the bank's adaptability and flexibility to the external market situation” (Sberbank); “the firm [...] is ready to provide the customer with virtually any modifications for any request” (Varton LTD)), which is also a “*needed-to-win*” capability in competition.

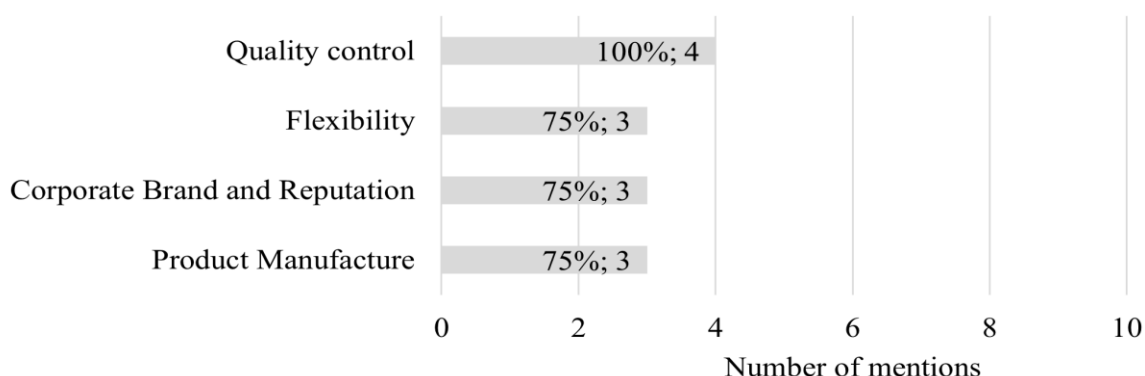


Figure 7: Major subcategories of the strategic capabilities of Russian exporters

Russian exporters actively develop their categories of strategic capabilities in several areas at once: *product/service capabilities*, *marketing*, *strategy*, and *operations and management*. They match the following subcategories of strategic capabilities: *quality control*, *corporate brand and reputation*, *flexibility*, and *product/service manufacture*. Such an approach is conditioned by the desire of Russian exporters to increase their competitiveness in new markets, i.e., they occupy an intermediate position between domestic firms operating in the local market and global firms.

6.4 A comparison of major strategic capabilities of global and Russian firms

The analysis of the strategic capabilities' categories of global and Russian firms (Figure 8) revealed that *operations and management* is a priority for global and domestic firms. The importance of developing strategic capabilities in *marketing* and *product/service* is comparable for global firms. These categories are ranked third and second, respectively, by domestic firms, but there is a significant gap in the frequency of mention by firms relative to the first category, *operations and management*. There is a significant gap in the number of mentions of these categories despite the overlap between the main categories of strategic capabilities of global and domestic firms. Although the strategic capability categories (*marketing* and *product/service capabilities*) are leading for domestic firms relative to others their importance is still not as high as for global firms.

Russian exporters are at an intermediate stage in the transformation of the firm from a domestic to a global firm. They retain the features of domestic firms, but consistently transform their business in the direction of global players. Russian exporters overestimate the strategic nature of their capabilities at the global level. Comparing the major strategic capability categories between Russian exporters and global firms (Figure 8), the strategic capabilities of both types of firms are focused on *product/service capabilities*. The importance of *marketing* for Russian exporters increases compared to its importance for domestic firms, which brings them closer to the business vision of global firms. However, Russian exporters and domestic firms are characterized by a priority *strategy*.

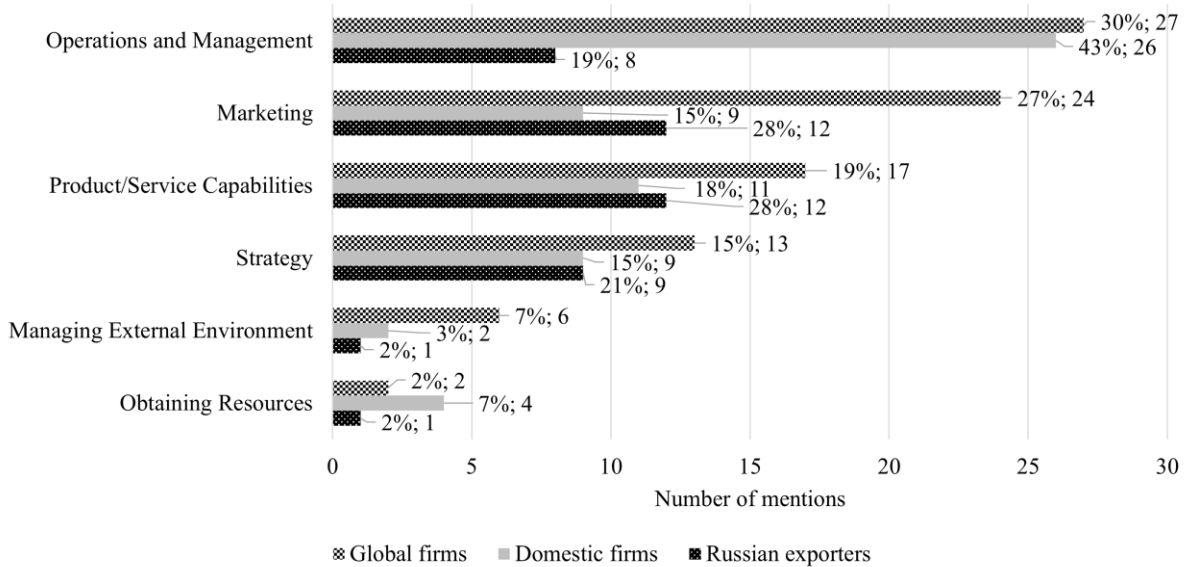


Figure 8: A comparison of the major strategic capability categories by global and Russian firms

A comparison of the major strategic capability subcategories of global and Russian firms (Figure 9) shows that the level of globalization affects its major strategic capabilities and they are changing in accordance with the external market environment. Global firms focus mainly on strategic capabilities related to *quality*, *people*, and *marketing* in building their competitiveness. The general strategic capability of global firms and domestic firms is to focus on *people* and their *skills*. However, quality control is mentioned only by 3 domestic firms of the 10, in contrast to the global firms, where 7 of the 10 firms mentioned it. This comparison presents quality as a less significant strategic capability for domestic firms. There is a confirmation of this situation in the country, as the lack of quality Russian analogues of foreign products imported into the country serves as the second most important problem, after, in general, the lack of Russian analogues of any quality. The cases of Russian exporters stand out against this background. They are “*lifting up*” their strategic capabilities to the level of competitiveness in global markets and developing *quality control*. Russian exporters are actively working on developing their *brand*, increasing its recognition, and trying to establish their product/service firmly in new markets, which brings them closer to global firms' business vision. In addition, the competitiveness of Russian exporters is supported by their *flexibility* and their unique product/service, which requires attention to *product manufacture*, the technologies used, and the idea of the product/service itself, its innovativeness.

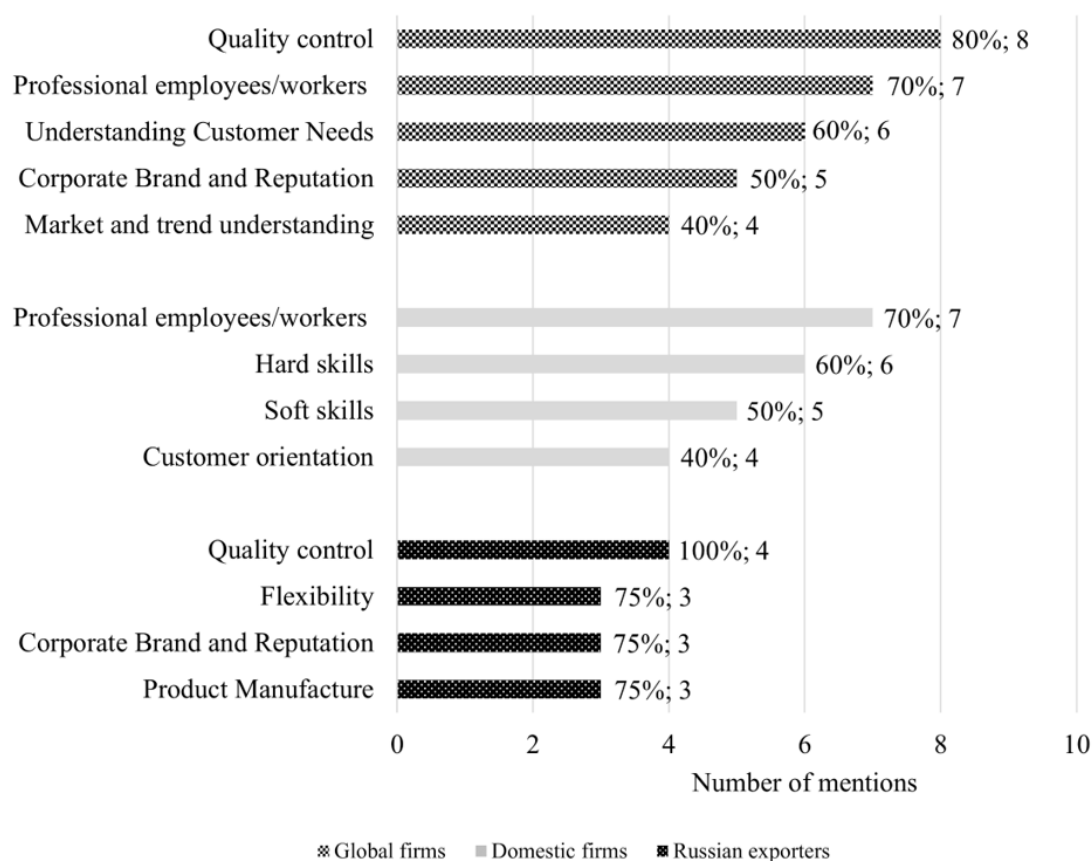


Figure 9: A comparison of the major strategic capability subcategories by global and Russian firms

In comparing the “*needed-to-win*” strategic capabilities, global firms and Russian exporters find that *quality control* is of critical importance to the firms' success. For Russian exporting firms, the flexibility is comparable in importance. Domestic firms emphasize the *professionalism of employees/workers*, their *skills*, and the *ability to develop resources internally* and *balance price & quality* as “*needed-to-win*” strategic capabilities.

Global firms demonstrate the necessary set of strategic capabilities needed to be competitive in any geographic market. Domestic firms develop only human capital from this set. It is important to outline the position of Russian exporters. Transforming their activities, they retain the features of local players and develop in the direction of global firms, focusing on the strategic capabilities that are important in global competition.

7. Conclusion

The study's theoretical part examines the claims devoted to a critical concept in management, strategic capabilities. The authors consider strategic capabilities through the relationship among resources, competencies, various types of capabilities including strategic capabilities, competitive advantages, and superior competitive performance (Figure 2).

Strategic capabilities are the basis for building competitive advantage, designed for the long term, and which increase the firm's competitiveness. They accumulate unique resources, core competencies, knowledge and capabilities which the firm has to use in the most competent

way in response to the challenges of the external and internal environments. This view presents strategic capabilities as a driver of firms' competitiveness.

The empirical study selected 24 firms representing low-tech, high-tech, or service firms operating in the Russian market. The sample is representative of opinions on the major strategic capabilities of global and domestic firms operating in the Russian market, which allows us to answer the main research question: *how does the context (the level of firm globalization) change the set of major strategic capabilities of firms?*

The analysis of the strategic capabilities of global and Russian firms identified the major categories and subcategories on which these firms focus most in building their competitiveness.

At the level of strategic capability category analysis, global firms found the high significance of *operations and management* (30% of firms), *marketing* (27%), and *product/service capabilities* (19%). 43% of domestic firms also demonstrated the importance of *operations and management*, and with less attention paid to the *product/service capabilities* (18%), *marketing* (15%), and *strategy* (15%). Russian exporting firms do not focus on a particular category, they value equally the *product/service capabilities* (28%), *marketing* (28%), *strategy* (21%), and *operations and management* (19%).

Among the strategic capability subcategories, global firms emphasized *quality control* (80%), *professional employees/workers* (70%), and marketing, which includes *understanding consumer needs* (60%), *corporate brand and reputation* (50%), and *market and trend understanding* (40%). Domestic firms concentrate on *professional employees/workers* (70%) and their *hard* (60%) and *soft skills* (50%). *Quality control* (100%), *flexibility* (75%), *corporate brand and reputation* (75%), and *product manufacture* (75%) are the focus for Russian exporters.

Most notable are the “*need-to-win*” strategic capabilities. Global firms highlight *quality control* (40%). Domestic firms emphasize *professional employees/workers* (40%), their *soft skills* (30%), and the *ability to develop resources internally* (40%), and *balance price & quality* (30%). *Quality control* (50%) and firm *flexibility* (50%) play a key role for Russian exporters.

The general strategic capability in the Russian market has become the focus of global and domestic firms on *professional employees/workers*. People and their skills are highly important for the analyzed firms, as they are the holders of human capital and add value to the firm. Technological advances cannot be properly implemented without people.

It is especially important for firms entering global levels or already operating there to focus their human resources on *quality control* in order to be competitive. This was demonstrated by the cases of global firms and Russian exporters. A firm's strategy has to focus on quality, which is related to product innovation, to the search for and implementation of innovative technologies that improve product quality, and to quality management, in order to successfully compete in new markets and hold its position there. A differentiation strategy enables firms to focus on quality, while a low-cost strategy does not contribute to the realization of quality goals.

The main research findings have practical implications, taking into account the market specifics (contextualization) for the development of strategic capabilities and improving the level of competitiveness when entering new foreign markets. The most critical limitation of this study is that it may be biased by collecting data only from managers who can be subjective. Future research could replicate these findings in other industries or focus on a specific sector. Further studies may also examine the results for both small and medium sized enterprises (SME) and large enterprises and investigate if there are differences according to the size of firms.

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SOCIAL ENTREPRENEURSHIP AND CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY IN ROMANIA

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Abstract

Social entrepreneurship has received an increased attention during the last decades from both researchers and business environment, in the context in which more corporate social responsibility (CSR) strategies were implemented in order to enhance a higher well-being. While social entrepreneurship was regarded from the perspective through which it meets common needs resulting from the economic system, CSR was viewed as a company's ethical reflection based on its interdependence to the society. The purpose of the present paper is to underline the role of CSR in transforming businesses into an engine for sustainable development, by focusing on the informal factors that are influencing the social entrepreneurship in Romania. The documentary investigation of the literature allowed us to develop two major research hypotheses. The first one is that the higher the level of social justice and of post-materialist values is in a country, the greater the level of CSR. The second one is that the higher the level of CSR is in a country, the lower the size of social entrepreneurship. By using partial least squares–structural equation modelling, we have tested these hypotheses on the case of Romania. Our findings, which underline that social entrepreneurship is influenced by post-materialist values, social justice and CSR, allowed us to accept both research hypotheses. These results have important implications for the policy makers responsible for enhancing social entrepreneurship.

Keywords: *Corporate social responsibility, Post-materialist values, Romania, Social entrepreneurship, Social justice*

1. Introduction

The recent evolution of the business environment suggests that, in the near future, success will be guided by more than financial profit (PWC, 2016). In developed economies, social and environmental initiatives of the entrepreneurs were already largely encouraged by governments and nongovernmental organizations. At the European Union level, a corporate social responsibility guideline was adopted in 2014. Since then, the large listed companies have to report not only their financial performance, but also the social and environmental initiatives. This led to the immediate response of the investment institutions, which paid more attention to the responsible companies (Bocken, 2015; Murguia and Lence, 2015).

Yet, the academic approach did not particularly focus on these changes from the business environment. The literature showed a greater interest in the responsible behavior of the nonprofit entrepreneurs than in the social initiatives of the for-profit companies (Hörisch, 2015; Santos, 2012). Therefore, although the social entrepreneurship emerged as a concept referring to both for profit and nonprofit enterprises, the focus in the literature is largely on the latter ones (Zahra, Gedajlovic, Neubaum and Shulman, 2009). In this view, the social entrepreneur is the person that pursues the creation of social value rather than the economic value (Dacin, Dacin and Matear, 2010; Peredo and McLean, 2006), by looking for solutions to solve major problems such as poverty, hunger and diseases (Light, 2006). Inside the company, the role of the social entrepreneur is to identify the problems and to find ways of solving them, in order to reach the sustainable development goals (Drayton, 2002).

In line with these ideas, Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) is considered an important lever in supporting social entrepreneurship (Austin, Stevenson and Wei-Skillern, 2006; Austin, 2000). Both concepts – social entrepreneurship and CSR – have moved away from the conventional idea of the economic value creation, in the sense that they are aimed at creating social value, not as a derivative but as the center of their business (Gast, Gundolf and Cesinger, 2017).

Considering all these aspects, the literature needs a wider perspective, from the angle where being responsible is a part of the business model. Aiming at filling this gap, the purpose of the present paper is to underline the role of CSR in transforming businesses into an engine for sustainable development, by focusing on the informal factors that are influencing the social entrepreneurship in Romania. In order to achieve this purpose, the research methodology involved the partial least squares–structural equation modelling. The rest of this paper is structured as follows: section 2 briefly summarizes the literature on social entrepreneurship and CSR, based on which two research hypotheses were developed. Section 3 presents our methodological approach, and sections 4 and 5 discuss the results of our analysis, and, respectively, underline the conclusions.

2. Literature review

The theoretical background related to social entrepreneurship dates from the late 1990's. The interest in this topic increased after the 2007 crisis, when social entrepreneurship started to be considered not only from the point of view of its role on economic growth and sustainable development (Javed, Yasir and Majid, 2019), but also as a solution for the governments' shortcomings in ensuring the wellbeing (Kliber et al., 2018). From that moment on, social entrepreneurship gain a more relevant position in public authorities' agendas.

As a field with highly permeable boundaries, the CSR concept had various interpretations during time. From Corporate Social Performance (Clarkson, 1995) and Corporate Environmentalism (Menon and Menon, 1997), in the 1990's, it has developed to even Corporate Citizenship (Waddock, 2004), in the beginning of the 2000's. Yet, all these concepts may refer only to the branches derived from CSR (Waddock, 2004), which, actually, represents any responsible activity that allows a firm to achieve a sustainable competitive advantage (McWilliams and Siegel, 2011). The same idea can be found at other researchers, which emphasize that responsibility is a part of the branding that, in turn, can develop into a competitive advantage (Panwar et al., 2016).

However, CSR is an important vehicle for promoting not only the business competitiveness (Saleh et al., 2011), but also the sustainable development (European Commission, 2002), since CSR is usually viewed as an approach to integrate social and environmental aspects into corporate activities. Actually, most definitions of CSR make explicit reference to the three pillars of sustainable development, mentioned in the Brundtland Report (environmental, social and economic). While Lamarche and Bodet (2018) have considered CSR as a voluntary contribution of the companies to sustainable development, Capron and Petit (2011) view CSR as an organization's component of sustainable development, aimed at offering company-level solutions to the global ecological and social crisis. This approach is similar to Müller-Christ and Hülsmann's (2003), who underlined that sustainable development is an extension of the resource-based view of strategic management.

It is well-known that, during the last decades, entrepreneurship had an increased contribution in the processes of economic development. This led to a growing interest among researchers

to identify the determinants of entrepreneurship. Yet, it has not been achieved a consensus on this topic. Traditionally, the major explanation for differences in entrepreneurial activity across countries is related to their economic condition (Blau, 1987). However, the persistence of cross-country variations might suggest that the economic condition is not the key reason (Grilo and Thurik, 2005). Some recent studies argue that differences in entrepreneurial activity across countries can be attributed more to culture (Wennekers et al. 2007). This is the reason why, when analyzing the institutional factors influencing entrepreneurship, a particular focus paid by researchers was on the informal ones (Castaño, Galindo and Méndez-Picazo, 2015; Veciana and Urbano, 2008), since their impact is more significant than that generated by formal factors (Engle, Schlaegel and Dimitriadi, 2011). As defined by North (1990), informal institutions are norms that offer the motivational structure of an economy, by shaping the choices of individuals and, thus, ensuring stability and reducing the risks. More precisely, the informal institutions include the social and cultural norms and values (Hayton and Cacciotti, 2013), which are influenced by the development level of the society: after a certain level of wealth, values shift from materialist to post-materialist (Inglehart, 2000). As in the Thomas Mann novel, the post-materialist societies are focusing more on personal development and wellbeing, than on materialistic goals. Therefore, since post-materialism is related to a higher concern for the environment and to a positive approach of the social justice, social entrepreneurship and CSR are directly influenced by these changes in values (Bekkers, 2005; Frazen and Meyer, 2010). While some researchers considered that social entrepreneurship is rooted in social justice (Caldwell, Harris and Renko, 2012; Cook, Dodds and Mitchell, 2003), others argued that it is a natural development of CSR (Freireich and Fulton, 2009). Meanwhile, Crisan and Borza (2012) underlined that CSR has an important role in the social value creation process for both, businesses and social purpose organizations. Social entrepreneurship mainly involves the usage of entrepreneurial practices to create social rather than economic value (Bacq and Janssen, 2011). Although some studies also mention the environmental factors, they play only a secondary role (Mair and Martí, 2006). Light (2008) defines social entrepreneurship as a result of the interaction between four aspects: the entrepreneur, the idea, the organization and the opportunity. The last one is considered to be the central aspect since the opportunities provide resources and potential collaboration, leading to sustainability. Meanwhile, in the case of CSR, apart from the economic performances, social inclusiveness and environmental resilience are also important issues (Aguinis and Glavas, 2012). The three dimensions have actually been labelled profit, people and planet, or the “3 Ps” (Elkington, 1997).

Based on these theoretical aspects identified in the literature, we have developed two research hypotheses:

H1. The higher the level of social justice and of post-materialist values is in Romania, the greater the level of CSR.

H2. The higher the level of CSR is in Romania, the lower the size of social entrepreneurship.

3. Research methodology

To verify the two hypotheses, we have used *partial least squares–structural equation modelling* (PLS-SEM). This method allows identifying the paths between endogenous and exogenous constructs, by estimating non-observable latent variables when establishing dependent linear relationships among them (Hair et al., 2017). We have chosen PLS-SEM because it can be used when the sample is heterogeneous and small (Ringle, Wende and Becker, 2015) and it admits both categorical and continuous scales (Falk and Miller, 1992). Moreover, it does not raise problems regarding multicollinearity (Barclay, Higgins and Thompson, 1995).

Our model, developed on the case of Romania, includes 4 variables and 10 indicators (see Table 1).

Table 1: Variables and indicators	
Variable	Indicator
Social entrepreneurship	Non-profit organization
	For-profit companies
CSR	CSR activities
Cultural values	Materialist/post-materialist index
Social justice	Poverty prevention
	Access to education
	Labor market
	Social cohesion
	Health
	Inter-generational justice

Data was taken from several sources, such as Bosma, Schøtt, Terjesen and Kew (2020), The Azores (2021), Hellmann, Schmidt and Heller (2019) and World Values Survey (2021).

In order to see the quality of the model, we have analyzed each of its components. According to the literature, reliability and validity criteria have to be met (Hair et al., 2017). Those indicators that did not meet these criteria were removed. The internal consistency among the variables and their items was measured by Cronbach's Alpha test and by the Composite Reliability Index. The Fornell–Larker criterion was used to determine the discriminant validity.

After validating the model, we evaluated the explanatory capacity of the structural model, with the help of R^2 and the path coefficient. As it happens in the case of linear regression, the higher the coefficients are, the better the model is (Barclay, Higgins and Thompson, 1995) and no rejection limit is set (Ringle, Sarstedt and Mooi, 2010).

4. Results and Discussions

As mentioned before, we have evaluated the explanatory capacity of the structural model. As it can be seen in Table 2 and Table 3, the model underlines the importance of the cultural values and social justice for CSR in Romania, since these two variables explain more than 40% of its variance. The robust relationship among cultural values, social justice and CSR results from the fact that the correlation's coefficients are 0.56, 0.51, and, respectively, 0.62, as can be seen in Table 3. Actually, our results indicate that social justice has a very substantial influence on CSR in Romania since the coefficient between both variables (0.52) is the most robust, and the correlation between them (0.62) is the highest that can explain the CSR.

As it can be seen in Table 3, the correlation between CSR and SE (-0.15) is negative for Romania, suggesting an indirect relationship that is weak, but statistically significant.

Taking into account all these results, we can accept both research hypotheses:

H1. The higher the level of social justice and of post-materialist values is in Romania, the greater the level of CSR.

H2. The higher the level of CSR is in Romania, the lower the size of social entrepreneurship.

	Cultural values	CSR	Social entrepreneurship	Social justice
R²	–	0.41	0.57	0.28
Correlation among variables				
Cultural values	1.00			
CSR	0.51	1.00		
Social entrepreneurship	0.21	- 0.12	1.00	
Social justice	0.56	0.62	0.11	1.00

	Original Sample (O)	Standard Deviation	p Values
Cultural values → CSR	0.48	0.12	< 0.05
CSR → Social entrepreneurship	- 0.15	0.03	< 0.05
Social justice → CSR	0.52	0.14	< 0.05

All these results are in line with the existing literature. Therefore, we can say that institutional economics is an appropriate approach to explain the entrepreneurial activity in Romania. The creation of social value, the major aim of social entrepreneurship, focused on addressing social needs, suggests the requirement of a specific cultural context to develop. Under the umbrella of cultural change, our results underline that the informal factors that impact social entrepreneurship consist of post-materialist values, social justice and CSR. Actually, a higher level of social justice and more focus on post-materialist values lead to more CSR activities in Romania. It is known that economic development has more positive results through democracy related values, such as equality, liberty, tolerance, than through values involved by authoritarian forms of governance (Inglehart and Welzel, 2005). Moreover, as explained by Inglehart (2000), when per capita income increases, the value of some aspects related to the environment and quality of life also increases. Considering all these issues and the fact that the country has passed from a centralized economy, before 1990, to a market economy, it is quite easy to understand why post-materialist values, related to self-esteem, self expression, trust, welfare and quality of life, are more prevalent in Romania than the material welfare gains.

As shown by Schraad–Tischler (2011), this paper also confirms, in the case of Romania, that social justice is the result of the evolution of the society towards post-materialist values. Therefore, we can argue that CSR is related to sustainable development, which involves the integration of social, economic and environmental elements.

Meanwhile, the CSR activities will discourage the social entrepreneurship. In other words, we can say that even though CSR and social entrepreneurship are both focused on solving social problems, their negative and weak relationship suggests a trade-off between business and social imperatives. While social entrepreneurship can deal with social problems but it is not necessarily able to manage organizations or projects that reach a certain size, Corporate Social Responsibility are actions aligned to a previously established company and, thus, it is easy to

tap into an additional resource pool of corporate knowledge, managerial skills and capabilities to implement strategic actions for supporting the environment and society. If we consider these differences between CSR and social entrepreneurship, we can understand why, in Romania, an emerging economy that has a fragile business environment, the two are innovative alternatives that do not go together. In fact, the reality shows that CSR prevails over social entrepreneurial initiatives.

5. Conclusions

As it was already stated, both social entrepreneurship and corporate social responsibility are focused on creating social value, acting as responses to environmental demands. Yet, while CSR is regarded as a sum of business initiatives directed to solve the needs of people, and, thus, to maximize the company's profit, social entrepreneurship is looking more for opportunities to improve the quality of life, without searching for the profit. For social enterprises, profit is just an added benefit that helps in solving the problems. Moreover, a company that adopts CSR practices may choose projects that align with business's strategic goals, while a social enterprise chooses projects based on the needs of the society.

Since the industrial society rely more on economic growth than the post-industrial country, which pays an increased attention to environmental protection and cultural aspects, a growing group of people in more developed states begin to demand economic and social efficiency from the companies. Therefore, the cultural values and the social justice are important issues to be considered by firms that adopt CSR activities.

Based on this theoretical background and considering the particular environment of Romania, country that since 1990 has passed from a centralized to a market economy, we started our research assuming that social justice and post-materialist values are positively influencing the level of CSR. Additionally, we considered that the higher the level of CSR is in Romania, the lower the size of social entrepreneurship.

Our results underline that the three dimensions involved by sustainable development are largely influenced by managers' perceptions of CSR. In Romania, among the informal factors that impact social entrepreneurship consist of post-materialist values, social justice and CSR. Actually, as suggested by our findings, a higher level of social justice and more focus on post-materialist values lead to more CSR activities. Meanwhile, the CSR activities will discourage the social entrepreneurship.

These results may present particular importance to the policy makers responsible for enhancing social entrepreneurship. First of all, some actions to enhance social entrepreneurship in the educational system are required, in order to raise its awareness and visibility.

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TURIZAM I PRIVREDNI RAZVOJ BiH U “COVID – 19 SVIJETU”

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Abstrakt

Turizam će se vratiti svojoj prvobitnoj funkciji: „scena na kojoj vladajući i bogati igraju svoje statusne uloge“ i izgubiće na svojoj masovnosti. Pandemije će biti naša budućnost iz najmanje dva već prepoznatljiva razloga (1) Covid - 19 je prva velika i ozbiljna opomena prirode da njena nosivost našeg varvarstva popušta i da čovjek mora promijeniti svoje ponašanje prema životnoj i radnoj sredini, a to se ne može dogoditi preko noći, bez obzira koliko bismo brzo to shvatili i željeli sprovesti. (2) Covid - 19 je otvorio prilike za nove biznise, posebno farmaceutskoj industriji i ostalim granama koje se s njom razvijaju, a to znači da se kapital gomila u te grane, a to dalje znači da te grane determinišu ekonomski i društveni razvoj, odnosno da te grane dobijaju društvenu moć da definišu strateške i marketinške orijentacije budućih preduzetnika. U tom kontekstu posmatran, turizam će bitno izmijeniti svoj smisao. Covid - 19 je, već vrlo očigledno, doveo do pada životnog standarda u cijelom svijetu, mnoge privredne grane su i preko 90% redukovale ili potpuno ugasile svoje djelatnosti, kao što je hotelijerstvo, a posebno veliki hotelski sistemi.

Ključne riječi: turizam, covid 19, preduzetništvo, ekonomija, BiH

1. Uvod

Covid – 19, pandemija je dovela, za kratko vrijeme do značajnih društvenih i ekonomskih promjena. Naglo širenje pandemije je dovelo do zatvaranja ekonomija i država, što je proizvelo smanjenje internacionalnih ekonomskih procesa i do globalnog siromašenja srednje klase, kao i do pada ispod granica siromaštva sve većeg broja ljudi planete. Fenomen „masovni turizam“ odlazi u prošlost, a na turističku scenu stupaju selektivni oblici turizma, posebno oni vezani za zdravlje ljudi, koje je globalno ugroženo.¹ Dakle, predviđa se povratak korijenima turizma, a to je zdravstveni turizam koji je preteča ostalih oblika. Sljedeći je bio „sportski“ turizam, ako tako zovemo posjete velikim borilištima, olimpijskim igrama i predstavama. Vremenom je taj sportski turizam dobio dodatak i rekreativni, posebno krajem prošlog vijeka, kada je čovjek na odmoru tragao za sadržajima za rekreaciju, obzirom da mu je redovni posao sve manje bio fizički naporan – rekreativan, kao i odlazak i povratak s posla.

¹ Turizam i jeste počeo kao zdravstveni turizam, zadržavanje u banjanskim liječilištima, trgovaca koji su prevozili robe i birali odmor gdje mogu da urade nešto i za svoje zdravlje.

Dakle, očekivati je da će budući turizam biti orijentisan u ovom smjeru, jer će pandemije, bile one opomena prirode, što i jesu, ili vještački stvorene, predstavljati očekivanu posljedicu. Doživljava, ili ih preživljava čovjek, koji je sve više globalno biće, a to znači da ga dotiču globalne prednosti, ali i globalne nedaće. Zato je razmišljanje o vještačkoj proizvodnji virusa, za nas, lokalne autore nebitno, jer bi predstavljale „teorije zavjere“ ili možda, „zavjere teorija“!. Mi se trebamo nositi sa vremenom i razvojem društva koji ne razumijemo, o čemu govori Nasim Nikolas Taleb u knjizi „Crni labud“. ²Naše prihvatanje i pomirenje da živimo u vremenu nepredvidivih događaja, ali događaja koji imaju dalekosežne i globalne posljedice, vodi pravilnom stavu prema pojavama. To je upravo teorija „Crni labud“, čime se naglašava da će budućnost biti puna događaja koje nećemo moći, bez obzira na stepen razvoja nauke, predvidjeti, a oni će imati tektonske i dalekosežne posljedice na dalji život ljudi na globalnom nivou. Nije slučajna ni sam naziv COVID-19, on za nas znači da će budući virusi dobijati nazive samo po godini u kojoj se pojave, ili budu objavljeni. Šta ovo znači za nas „strateške menadžere“? Da moramo odustati od teorija prošlog vijeka kao što su: “čovjek je najmoćnije biće na Zemlji“, kao i od teorije „priroda je neiscrpan izvor resursa“, jer su ti postulati nauke 20. vijeka, doveli do ove situacije: razvoj tehnike i tehnologije je brzo osiromašio resurse u prirodi a čovjek je postao izgubljen, dirigovan i kontrolisan, bez moći da kreira svoj lični, a posebno društveni život.



Slika 1. Načela održivosti

Izvor: N. Čavlek, et al., Turizam ekonomske osnove i organizacijski sustav, Zagreb, Školska knjiga, 2011, str. 416.

Turističke aktivnosti su neodvojive od prirodne i kulturne sredine koja ih okružuje. “*Environment*” i “*culture*” su u središtu razvoja turizma. Postoji recipročan odnos između turizma i životne sredine - turizam utiče na životnu sredinu kao što i životna sredina i ostali faktori utiču na turizam (Lugonja, Knežević 2017:259).

²Teorija “Crni labud” potiče iz 17 vijeka, kada se tvrdnja “Svi labudovi su bijeli” uzimala kao početna istina. To je važno sve dok nije 1697. godine pronađen crni labud u Australiji.

2. Posljedice virusa Covid – 19 na turizam

Turizam je u 2019. godini pokazivao dalji rast, kako na globalnom nivou od oko 3%, tako i posebno na području Balkana, oko 5%, a Srbije i BiH čak do 8%. Turistička potrošnja Evrope je pala za 68,4 % u martu 2020. u odnosu na mart 2019. (u Italiji za 96%)³. Turizam u 2020. godini na Balkanu je mnogo obećavao, jer je u januaru 2020. u Srbiji bio porast posjete turista za 28% u odnosu na januar 2019. , dok je u februaru porast bio za 18%, u odnosu na februar 2019. godine. Turizam proizvodi oko 9% bruto društvenog proizvoda i zapošljava oko 10% radnika svijeta i time je postao veliki generator privrednog razvoja, novih investicija i novih radnih mjesta. Poznata je njegova multiplikativnost, naročito u destinaciji u kojoj se dešava, jer ulazi u skoro sve pore života lokalne zajednice. Treba naglasiti direktna finansiranja od turizma u lokalnoj zajednici: ugostiteljstvo, saobraćaj, trgovine i indirektno preko radnika koji rade u turizmu, preko čijih zarada turizam finansira: poljoprivredu, industriju, obrazovanje, energetiku i svo ostalo što radnik konzumira u svom svakodnevnom životu. Zato je turizam bio dobra prilika i našeg regiona, obzirom da je, kao nova i „neistrošena“ destinacija sve više privlačio turiste svijeta, nekoliko godina unazad. Pretpostavke turizma su: standard, slobodno vrijeme, sloboda kretanja, povjerenje, sigurnost i bezbjednost. Sve će ovo biti ugroženo na duži period, od pojave novog virusa covid - 19, koji je ubrzo proglašen pandemijom. Takođe, usko povezani saturizmom jesu i određeni oblici preduzetništva, te u tom smislu je važno naglasiti da preduzetništvo predstavlja oblik stalnog taganja za prilikama koje se nalaze van sredstava i resursa koje trenutno kontrolišemo. Ovo je primjenjivo na pojedince, grupe ali i na cijelo društvo. (Čeko i Vrbanac, 2020:83)

Šta se može učiniti u ovoj situaciji? (bilo da je vidimo kao covid situaciju ili postcovid stanje).

Analize stanja domaćeg turizma pokazuje značajan porast putovanja u sopstvenim državama i u lokalnu, što treba biti orijentacija daljeg razvoja turističkog sektora, te je potrebno redizajnirati strategije razvoja turizma svake zemlje i akcenat staviti na domaći i lokalni turizam. Vaučeri, koje je davala Republika Srpska, građanima, da bi ih stimulisala na turističku potrošnju u svojoj zemlji je bila prilika da se oživi domaći, lokalni, nacionalni turizam. Podaci govore da su neke destinacije: Jahorina, Trebinje, Tara (u slučaju regiona) i slične destinacije imale minimalne gubitke, koji su se ogledali u zamjeni inostranih turista domaćim.

Dalja orijentacija privrednog razvoja treba da bude ka oblicima turizma koji će biti povezani sa zdravljem, bilo da je to održavanje (prevencija) ili se radi o post covid rehabilitacijama. Novi turistički centri, posebno u netaknutoj prirodi, u ruralnim područjima i na planinama, mogu postati centri zdravstvenog turizma i centri post covid rehabilitacije, što se već dešava u centru

³Izveštaji su Švajcarske banke

UBS03.03.2021.<https://www.google.com/search?q=%C5%A0vajcarska+banka+USB>

Zotović u Banjoj Luci, koji je prvi preduzeo aktivnosti rehabilitacije pacijenata koji su preležali corona virus.⁴

3. Perspektive turizma BiH u postcovid periodu

U skladu sa ovom preorijentacijom turista prilike su u jačanju domaće poljoprivrede, proizvodnje zdrave hrane, aktiviranje boravka i oporavka u našim prelijepim selima u kojima je moguće pokrenuti ove biznise i pretvoriti u nove preduzetničke prilike. Jasno je da “preduzetništvo raste u onim zajednicama koje odgovaraju pozitivno na poslovne promjene jer preduzetnik jeste onaj koji je sposoban da pretvori ideje u projekte i praksu, te onaj koji otkriva priliku za profit i dobit na mjestima gdje drugi to nisu vidjeli, a to postaje stimulatивно za ukupan razvoj preduzetništva u nekoj sredini”. (Čeko i Vrbanc, 2020:83) Uvezivanje proizvođača i potrošača na lokalnom novou bi prevazišlo ključni problem naše poljoprivrede: proizvedemo, a onda nemamo tržišta za svoje proizvode, jer proizvođač i potrošač nisu nikada isti subjekti. Očekuje se da će u problemu na duži rok biti transporti, zbog “look daun”-a i zatvaranja država, tako da će biti u boljoj poziciji zemlje i lokalne zajednice, koje ne zavise od uvoza. To znači da orijentacija preduzetnika i traženje prilika za biznis treba biti u lokalnoj sredini, u proizvodnji hrane i čuvanju i prodaji prirodno-kulturno-istorijskih ljepota naše zemlje. Posvećenost jačanju ekološke svijesti, patriotizma i čuvanja i zaštite (prvo od nas samih, a onda i od turista), naših kulturno-istorijskih, etnoloških, vjerskih, manifestacionih i ostalih običaja i vrijednosti, su novi resursi za biznis i privredni razvoj, a onda i za turizam, koji će svojom multiplikativnošću povući razvoj svih grana privrede. Ova orijentacija će zadržati mlade kadrove, jer će prepoznati prilike, i uz podsticaj države i lokalne zajednice u tom pravcu, može biti put pozitivnog privrednog rasta naše zemlje, kao i prepoznavanju značaja i jačanju uticaja *organizzazione kulture*⁵ kao važnog barometra uspjehnosti koji “prouzrokuje borbu koja se u njemu vodi i sve više sužava prostor za neprofesionalnost, nekompetentnost i nekvalitet.” (Vukotić, Čeko i Gaćinović, 2016:35)

U turističkim i ostalim sektorima, treba biti orijentacija na samoodrživost, korištenje obnovljivih izvora energije, a za to posjedujemo uslove: imamo dovoljno i vode i vjetera i raznovrsne klime, flore i faune. Dobro upravljani i regulisani razvoj turizma može biti katalizator pozitivnih promjena. Turizam može da aktivira mehanizme multiplikatora rasta, favorizujući, na primjer, povećanje zaposlenosti, direktno ili indirektno, čak i kada tip i kvalitet odgovora zapošljavanja zavise ne samo od ulaganja, već, prije svega, od osjetljivosti nacionalnih i lokalnih ekonomija i lokalnih turističkih inicijativa u kojima važnu ulogu igraju, zavisno od prilagodljivosti ljudskih grupa, socio-kulturnog nivoa mjesta, od ciljanih grupa turista prema kojima je ponuda upućena, od strukture prostora i od uslova životne sredine (Lugonja 2014b, 32).

⁴ „Miroslav Zotović“, www.miroslavzotovic.com, Zavod za fizikalnu i medicinsku rehabilitaciju

⁵ “Organizaciona kultura predstavlja neizostan dio svake organizacije a najjednostavnije se može definisati kao sistem vrijednosti, uvjerenja, pretpostavki i normi ponašaja koje se manifestuju kroz simbole, pri tom usmjeravajući mišljenje i ponašanje članova organizacije.” Prema: Janjićević, N. (1997) *Organizaciona kultura*. Ulix, Novi Sad.

Strategije razvoja države, regija i gradova treba što prije redizajnirati i usmjeriti ka ovim novim prilikama. U njih treba ugraditi „Crnog labuda“, to jest momenat iznenadnosti, nenadanosti, slučaja i slično, i biti fleksibilan i prilagodljiv iznenadnim uslovima. Krizni menadžment ili menadžment u kriznim momentima, svakako dobija na važnosti, kao i marketing koji brzo reaguje i brzo prilagođava aktivnosti novim okolnostima. “Društveni razvoj se postiže se tako što se postepeno ostvaruju mogućnosti koje su unaprijed date u nekoj pojavi. On predstavlja dužni proces, te se odvija se kroz određene faze. Razvojno kretanje po pravilu ireverzibilno, svaka sljedeća razvojna faza predstavlja savšeniji društveni poredak. Pojam promjene, njenih uzroka i posljedica koje stvara, podstiče različite interpretacije iz različitih uglova, tako se ovaj pojam interpretirao jos u starim mitovima, religijama, zdravorazumskim situacijama kao i sa naučnog stanovišta. Socijalne promjene su društvene promjene i procesi u kojima se tokom nekog kraćeg ili dužeg vremena uspostavljaju novi oblici odnosa između društvenih grupa i između pojedinaca.” (Čeko i Bjelogrić, 2015) Da bi države mogle reagovati brzo i efikasno u još bržim promjenama i udarima, potrebna je uska i otvorena saradnja svih aktera društva, privrede, a posebno onih koji su oslonjeni na sektor turizam. Dalje je potrebno staviti akcenat na zdravlje opšte, a onda i turista, pa, prema tome, u svakoj destinaciji mapirati taj „zdravstveni“ faktor, posebno u banjama, selima, vazdušnim banjama i sličnim lječilištima, ili mjestima koja to mogu postati. Turista post covid perioda će još više insistirati na sportu i rekreaciji na odmoru, tako da je potrebno destinacije obogatiti tim sadržajima. Dalje, turisti će preferirati velike prostore, izolaciju, fizičku komociju, a to u gradskim sredinama nije moguće. Gradovi će ostati samo centri kulturnog turizma i šopinga, a smještaj, ishrana i boravak će biti sve više prebacivani u ruralna područja, gdje turista ima komociju, zdravu hranu sa imanja („without transport“) čistu pitku vodu, čist vazduh i što veće prostore za rekreaciju i zabavu, a to je moguće samo u selima. Dakle, ruralna područja, a takva smo zemlja, poljoprivreda, agroturizam, ekoturizam, etno sela, salaši, poljoprivredna gazdinstva i slične lokacije će biti interesantni budućim turistima. Naravno, zarade su u tim sektorima manje, ali to je samo naizgled, jer kad preduzetnik radi kod svoje kuće, sam sa porodicom živi i radi na svom imanju, tu su zarade koje nisu vidljive, a isto su profit, iako ne devizni. Preduzetnici u ovim sektorima predstavljaju i društveno odgovorne preduzetnike, jer pomažu razvoj drugih lokalnih preduzetnika i čine dobro za cijelu zajednicu. Preduzetnici su nužno orijentisani na lokalnu saradnju kroz razmjenu proizvoda, energetskih izvora, turističkih sadržaja i slično i postaju pravi socijalni preduzetnici, što profilira novu i poželjnu ličnost preduzetnika, koji svoj uspjeh ne gleda samo kroz profit na kraju izvještajnog perioda, nego vidi svoju korist u lokalnoj zajednici, vidi svoj doprinos ukupnom razvoju i postaje lider kog slijede novi, mladi preduzentici. Naravno da je potrebno da takva filozofija vlada i u lokalnoj zajednici, koja pomaže i podstiče takav put i tako se ostvaruje sinergija vlasti i privrede u interesu ukupnog razvoja. U ovakvom razvoju i „Crni labud“ ima manju moć djelovanja, jer svaka nezavisnot, suverenitet i samodovoljnost u prostornom, društvenom, a onda i ekonomskom smislu, predstavljaju oblike borbe protiv udara, opasnosti, prirodnih i društvenih katastrofa i pandemija. “Socijalni razvoj je promjena koja znači postizanje složenijeg i savršenijeg stanja.

Društveni napredak je promjena koja znači prelazak na bolji i prosperitetniji društveni poredak. U svom historijskom razvoju društvo prolazi kroz različita stanja i faze koja označavaju njegove manifestne karakteristike, prema kojima se ono prepoznaje spolja i odnosi prema svom užem i širem okruženju.” (Čeko i Bjelogrić, 2015) Ovakvi biznisi, budući da nisu visokoprifitabilni, nisu na udaru finansijske i političke elite, navikle na brze i enormne zarade, pa je prostor naprosto, pogodan za preduzetnike domaćine, patriote, porodične ljude, upravo kakvi smo mi sa Balkana, čime možemo i svoju privrženost porodičnim i društvenim vrijednostima sačuvati pod udarom postindustrijskog, savremenog društva.

Jačanjem lokalnog razvoja profiliraju se mladi koji vole svoje selo, svoj kraj i državu, ne žele otići i postaju pravi promoteri onoga što imaju. Poljoprivreda i turizam i jesu perspektivne grane našeg regiona, samo je povezivanje ta dva sektora u postcovid periodu postalo pravi izazov i prilika za nove preduzetnike. Ako ovu orijentaciju prihvate i države i lokalne zajednice i pokrenu širu podršku kroz poreske, kreditne i grant podrške, uz podršku EU i drugih donatora, moguće je, za kratak period, podići turistički i ostale sektore naše privrede. Takvim razvojem ćemo se u istinu, a ne formalno, približiti EU integracijama, a sigurno će popustiti i netrpeljivost u unutrašnjoj politici, jer će EU integracije jačati privrednim, inovativnim i preduzetničkim aktivnostima, a ne dogovorom naših političara. Poštovanje i primjena EU standarda u turizmu, poljoprivredi i zaštiti životne sredine, će nas učiniti prihvatljivim dijelom Evrope, u kojoj su različitosti upravo turistički izazov, zbog čega su Ujedinjene nacije proglasile turizam za „Pasoš mira“. U ovakvom kontekstu prostor postaje najkvalitetniji turistički resurs, a ruralni i poljoprivredni prostor RS, BiH i Balkana, uistinu jeste to. Ako tako budemo razvijali preduzetništvo i biznis u našim prelijepim šumama, jezerima, rijekama, planinama, onda sigurno neće drvna ili elektro industrija tražiti eksploataciju tih resursa u druge svrhe. Turizam neće te prostore uništiti, kao što to moraju uraditi ove industrije, ali naši eko pokreti se bore protiv industrija i koncesija, a ne nude bolje riješenje. Turizam je uvijek čuvao prostor, kako čuva srednjovjekovnu tvrđavu usred grada, tako i plažu i jezero, ali samo ako se on odvija i donosi prihod lokalnoj zajednici. Ona onda ima argument da tvrđavu ne pretvori u gradilište stakla i betona, rijeku u hidrocentralu ili da isječe planinu u drva za ogrev i slično.

4. Uključenje turizma BiH u evropske tokove

Turizam je najglobalniji fenomen i privredna grana, jer ne poznaje granice, jezike, razlike, kulture, nego naprotiv: što smo različiti to smo turistima zanimljiviji, tako da u ovoj grani jedinstvenosti, posebnosti i različitosti čine osnovu konkurentskih prednosti destinacija i država. Budući turista će se prilagoditi globalnim pojavama, iznenađenjima i „Crnom labudu“, kao faktoru na koji računa svojom odlukom da putuje. Odabir destinacija ide u korist nerazvijenih, jer će turisti uopšteno preferirati povratak prirodi, vraćanju sklada društva i prirode. U tom kontekstu će cirkularna ekonomija sve više potisnuti linearnu, jer je bliža idejama održivog rasta i razvoja, zaštiti životne sredine i unapređivanju odnosa čovjeka i resursa, gdje će se

preduzetništvo boriti za što manje otpada, a sve više reciklaže i zadržavanja resursa u sistemu proizvodnje. Takva orijentacija je osnova novog modela globalne ekonomije 21. vijeka koju zovu „ekonomksa krofna“, a koja zauzima mjesto prostom ekonomskom rastu kao dosadašnjem modelu. Spoljni prsten krofne (ekološka sfera) je naš ekosistem sa izazovima: acidifikacija okeana, hemijsko zagađenje i zagađenje vazduha, očuvanje zemljišta, klimatske promjene. (Biočanin, Badić, 2020: 81). Unutrašnji prsten „ekonomske krofne (društvena sfera) predstavlja društveni minimum koji je potreban za normalan razvoj i rast ekonomija, a elementi su: pitka voda, čista hrana, riješenje otpada, socijalna jednakost, pravo na politički glas, pristup energiji, stanovanju, obrazovanju, zdravstvu i sl. Prostor između prstenova je prostor bezbjednog i pravednog života, poslovanja i preduzetništva. Prihvatanje ovih modela rasta, razvoja i biznisa, će nove preduzetnike približiti globalnim sistemima preduzetništva u turizmu, kao i u drugim oblastima. Tako će se globalizovati i menadžment i marketing, što ide u korist malih ekonomija i malih zemalja, kakva je i naša, odnosno zemalja koje nemaju sredstava da ulažu u istraživanja i marketing koncepcije. Uravnotežen rast i razvoj, gdje će biti potrebno „raditi više sa manje“, manje i resursa i profita, će postati novi mode preduzetništva. Moraćemo zaboraviti brze zarade, sa malo ulaganja, a mnogo resursa i otpada ali na račun prirode i ekosistema. Ta filozofija i psihologija poslovanja u kojoj čovjek „sječe granu na kojoj sjedi“ će ostati u 20. vijeku. Novi preduzetnik gradi visoko moralan odnos društvene i ekološke sfere ekonomske krofne, gradeći globalni moral koji brine o budućim generacijama. Kroz nove pokrete mladih za zdravu i čistu sredinu, suverenitet hrane, slow food konvinijume i slične pokrete, preko društvenih mreža informacija i svojih aktivnosti na terenu, a koje imaju za cilj očuvanje autentičnih proizvoda, destinacija i prirodnih oaza, pokazuju mnogo veću odgovornost, od svojih predaka, što je novo svjetlo na kraju tunela, koji možemo nazvati „ekološki krah“, a pojavni oblik su pandemije, gdje je corona virus samo prva opomena. (Ilić i Marković, 2013).

Balkan je važna geostrateška tačka Evrope, kolijevka kulture i civilizacije Evrope, ali je i važan energetska potencijal, posebno sa najnovijim istraživanjima da se ispod Hercegovine nalaze ogromni resursi nafte. Balkan je geopolitičko čvorište Istoka i Zapada i „verige Svijeta“ (Vidović i Đelić, 2020), a to znači i vrlo važna turistička destinacija, jer je Balkan i veliko transportno čvorište, gdje su se vjekovima ukrštali putevi i kulture, te su ostavile kulturno-istorijsko blago koje je osnova razvoja turizma. Zato je uključenje Balkana u šire turističke tokove Evrope od velikog interesa Evropskog turizma, što pokazuje interesovanje UNESCO-a i drugih asocijacija koje se bore za očuvanje turističkih vrijednosti. To su bitne pretpostavke razvoja preduzetništva u novim tendencijama u turizmu, ali ne zavisnom, nego jedinstvenom i originalnom, jer su takve turističke pretpostavke turizma u BiH. Ako tako vrednujemo svoje prirodne ljepote i posebnosti koje nam je priroda podarila), društvene (naše ljude široko poznate po gostoljubivosti i humanosti), te ljudske (zdrave i široko obrazovane resurse mladih) potencijale, to nam garantuje ravnopravno partnerstvo u evro ali i širim integracijama. Glavni resursi budućnosti jesu prirodna dobra, ali je još važniji resurs znanje, jer jedino ono može uspješno rješavati prepreke koje će

pred preduzetnike postavljati “Crni labud” u ekonomiji, pandemije i udari prirode koje ne možemo, zbog nedostatka informacija, ovdje analizirati. Zato je povećan značaj obrazovanja i to cjeloživotnog⁶, koje će omogućiti prepoznavanje izazova, njihovo usmjeravanje i poslovno prilagođavanje. (Maravić, 2015).

5. Zaključak

Turizam je grana privrede koja najviše koristi donosi lokalnoj zajednici i svojom multiplikativnošću povezuje sve lance u proizvodnji i potrošnji. Zato turizam treba staviti na pravo mjesto u strategijama razvoja države i lokalne zajednice. Razvoj preduzetništva u turizmu i obrazovanje kadrova za pomenuti sektor, može biti kvalitetna osnova daljeg razvoja naših malih država i malih ekonomija. Preduzetnici moraju biti inicijatori, inovatori i nosioci razvoja, a onda trebaju skrenuti pažnju državi na svoje postojanje i prihod koji donose, kako bi država ojačala socijalno preduzetništvo koje je prisutno i razvoju svih ruralnih ekonomija i ekonomija koje se bave proizvodnjom hrane. Time lokalna zajednica postaje samoodrživa, nezavisna i samostalna u svemu, čime sebi obezbjeđuje integritet i suverenitet. Tako nezavisna postaje partner u regionu i šire, a samo potlačeni trabant, kojeg stalno uslovljavaju i eksploatišu jači i razvijeniji kakav je položaj današnje RS i BiH u regionu i Evropi.

Trebamo postati svjesni svojih konkurentih resursa razvoja turizma: relativno čista zemlja, obilje pitke vode i čist vazduh u ruralnim sredinama, su naš veliki potencijal razvoja iako je to posljedica naše nerazvijenosti, u prilici smo da te resurse stavimo u punu funkciju razvoja turizma, koji je, kao grana privrede, privlačan, jer ne ugrožava te resurse, kao druge grane industrije. Razvojem preduzetništva u poljoprivredi i turizmu u ruralnim područjima, možemo obezbjeđiti rast bruto društvenog proizvoda i održivost na duži period. Možemo privući nove turiste, jer će oni, zbog virusa korona i drugih predviđajućih pandemija, birati ove prostore i staviće u prioritet: zdravu hranu, boravak u čistoj prirodi, sport i rekreaciju u tim sredinama. Time se uklapamo i u VIA DINARIKU, najmoćniju strategiju razvoja turizma u našem regionu, a naša država je prostorno dio i te strategije, kao i Jadransko-jonske strategije, koje će ojačati povezivanje primorskog i kontinentalnog turizma.

Da bi se ove promjene dogodile u našem društvu potrebno je promijeniti sistem vrijednosti, posebno kod mladih. Mladi svoj sistem vrijednosti formiraju pod uticajem vrijednosnih opredjeljenja društva, to jest porodice, sredine u kojoj žive, obrazovnog sistema i prostora u kojima provode svoje slobodno vrijeme. Njihva vrijednosna opredjeljenja su važna, jer su oni graditelji budućeg društva. Potrebno je pomjeriti vrijednost IMATI ka vrijednosti BITI, tako da

⁶ Više vidjeti u: Maravić, J (2003). *Cjeloživotno učenje*. Časopis Edupoint br. 17. Izvor: <http://edupoint.carnet.hr/casopis/17/clanci/5.html> Preuzeto: 28.01.2021.)

mladi više ulažu u svoju kulturnu, društvenu, emocionalnu i duhovnu ličnost, a da se odriču vrjednovanja na osnovu materijalnih dobara. Tako će povratiti taj generator sreće, koji današnje generacije čini nezadovoljnima i nesrećnima, jer ne mogu sve imati odmah i sada, nego žive za neki cilj u budućnosti. Potrebno je da uništiti te „kradljivce sreće“ (Kolarević i Srećanović, 2020), zbog kojih nismo u stanju da živimo ovdje i danas, nego smo u stalnom nezadovoljstvu što ne možemo biti negdje drugdje i u nekoj zamišljenoj budućnosti. Zbog toga je New Age prevod istočnih filozofija i religija na jezik zapadnog uma danas tako popularan. On propagira odustajanje od zamišljenog cilja i prepuštanje sadašnjosti i životu u njoj. Novi mladi preduzetnik ne smije da miješa *lucky* i *happy*, on radi i stvara oslobođen iluzije o instant profitu i uspjehu, koji ga čini sretnim. On je sretan danas, tu gdje jeste, sa onim što ima, sa željama da bude koristan sebi, svojoj porodici i zajednici. On ne izjednačava materijalno bogastvo i sreću, jer sreća i uspjeh se zasnivaju na predanom radu i ličnom identitetu zasnovanom na pozitivnim vrijednostima, a ne šta i koliko imamo. Ovakav moralni stav, etika prema samom sebi, drugim ljudima, zajednici i prirodi, predstavljaju okosnicu modernog pristupa preduzetništvu, što je navedeno i u Agendi 21: „etičko poslovanje, korporativna društvena odgovornost, partnerstvo i saradnja, zaštita okoline, solidarnost, očuvanje prirodnih resursa, eko bezbjednost, održiv razvoj“ i sl. (Kalarević i Stevanović, 2020: 585)

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ISTRAŽIVANJE POVEZANOSTI IZMEĐU ORGANIZACIJSKE PRAVEDNOSTI I DEVIJANTNOG PONAŠANJA NA RADNOM MJESTU U HRVATSKIM PODUZEĆIMA

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Sažetak

U radu je dat pregled dosadašnjih istraživanja o povezanosti između organizacijske pravednosti i devijantnog ponašanja na radnom mjestu, od kojih većina istraživanja potvrđuju takvu povezanost. Svrha rada bila je istražiti povezanost između organizacijske pravednosti i devijantnog ponašanja na radnom mjestu zaposlenika u hrvatskim poduzećima u sektoru informacijske tehnologije (IT). Nakon analize primjerenosti mjernih ljestvica za dimenzije organizacijske pravednosti i za vrste devijantnog ponašanja na radnom mjestu, ispitana je korelacija između različitih dimenzija organizacijske pravednosti i vrsta devijantnog ponašanja. Rezultati su pokazali statistički značajnu korelaciju, odnosno povezanost jedino između proceduralne pravednosti i organizacijske devijantnosti (negativan koeficijent korelacije ukazuje da je pozitivna percepcija proceduralne pravednosti praćena sa smanjenjem organizacijske devijantnosti i obrnuto). Nadalje putem t-testa za zavisne uzorke ispitalo se postoji li statistički značajna razlika između različitih dimenzija organizacijske pravednosti, te je utvrđena statistički značajna razlika jedino između proceduralne pravednosti i interakcijske pravednosti. Ograničenja istraživanja proizlaze iz dva izvora moguće pristranosti: (1) relativno male veličine uzorka (u istraživanje je bilo uključeno 58 ispitanika IT sektora) i (2) pristranost ispitanika (ispitanici su bili pozvani da ocjene vlastito devijantno ponašanje). Rezultate istraživanja treba shvatiti indikativnima za procjenu pouzdanosti mjernih ljestvica kao i međusobne povezanosti analiziranih varijabli. Navedene su implikacije za menadžersku praksu kao i preporuke za daljnja istraživanja.

Ključne riječi: devijantnost na radnom mjestu, hrvatska poduzeća, IT sektor, organizacijska pravednost

1. Uvod

Istraživanja organizacijske pravednosti, koja proučavaju ulogu pravednosti u učinkovitom funkcioniranju organizacija, intenzivirana su posljednjih nekoliko desetljeća. U području rukovođenja i organizacijskog ponašanja, znanstvenici su spoznali važnost organizacijske pravednosti kao izvora motivacije na poslu (Cojuharenco i sur., 2011), bitnog čimbenika u selekciji zaposlenika (Gilliland i Chan, 2001), moralnog prosuđivanja (Rupp i sur., 2003), u različitim stilovima rukovođenja te radnim i organizacijskim ishodima poput zadovoljstva poslom, organizacijske odanosti, radnog učinka i odgovornog organizacijskog ponašanja (Colquitt i sur., 2001). Teoretičari organizacijskog ponašanja smatraju da je doživljaj organizacijske pravednosti pozitivan prediktor odgovornog organizacijskog ponašanja, privrženosti, odanosti i želje za ostankom u organizaciji, zadovoljstva i zaokupljenošću poslom te drugih sličnih stavova i suradničkih oblika ponašanja (Cohen-Charash i Spector,

2001; Bartle i Hayes, 1999). Na percipiranu nepravdu, zaposlenici u organizaciji mogu reagirati različito. Osobe koje doživljavaju nepravdu mogu biti sklonije negativnom ponašanju koje utječe na njih, na druge ili na organizaciju, poput odugovlačenja, krađe, stresa i neposlušnosti te su sklonije lošijem zdravlju i manjem blagostanju (van den Bos, 2015). Percepcija nepravde može dovesti do napuštanja organizacije ili smanjenja odanosti istoj, pri čemu se zaposlenici mogu početi ponašati suprotno pravilima organizacije (Greenberg, 1993). Stoga je važno podrobnije istražiti povezanost organizacijske pravednosti i ponašanja zaposlenika, a posebice povezanost s devijantnim ponašanjem na radnom mjestu.

U ovom se radu najprije definiraju pojmovi organizacijske pravednosti i devijantnog ponašanja na radnom mjestu te se sistematiziraju njihove dimenzije i vrste. Naveden je niz dosadašnjih istraživanja kojima se analizirala povezanost između organizacijske pravednosti i radne devijantnosti. U nastavku rada prikazani su rezultati empirijskog istraživanje zaposlenika u hrvatskim poduzećima u djelatnosti informacijske tehnologije (IT) kojim se ispitalo postojanje povezanosti između pojedinih dimenzija organizacijske pravednosti i vrsta devijantnog ponašanja na radnom mjestu, kao i postojanje razlika između dimenzija organizacijske pravednosti i vrsta devijantnog ponašanja na radnom mjestu. Na kraju rada je navedena diskusija i zaključci te su opisna ograničenja istraživanja.

2. Definiranje i dimenzije organizacijske pravednosti

Organizacijska pravednost pokazala se kao važna odrednica stavova i ponašanja u radnom okruženju pa je jedan od glavnih ciljeva organizacijske psihologije njezino potpunije razumijevanje (Gilliland i Chan, 2001). Pojam organizacijske pravednosti prvi je definirao Greenberg (1987) opisujući ga kao percepciju radnika o pravednosti u organizaciji s pripadajućim reakcijama u ponašanju, spoznaji i osjećajima. Za razliku od filozofa, koji normativnim pristupom primjenjuju *a priori* standarde (etičke principe) za određene situacije, psiholozi često koriste deskriptivni pristup usmjeravajući se na iskustva pojedinaca u doživljenim situacijama (Greenberg, 2011). Takva deskriptivna perspektiva, koju istraživači organizacijske pravednosti preferiraju, naglašava pojedinačne percepcije pravednosti. Naime, u kontekstu organizacije, pravednost se opisuje kao društveni konstrukt utemeljen na subjektivnim doživljajem pojedinaca (Colquitt, 2001). Ističe se da se percepcije formiraju iz značenja koje osoba pripisuje određenoj situaciji pa se ista može se tumačiti na različite načine. S obzirom da su percepcije organizacijske pravednosti subjektivne prirode, glavni je cilj teorija pravednosti upravo njezina konceptualizacija i mjerenje (Azar i Darvishi, 2011).

Priroda reakcije na percipiranu nepravdu ovisit će o tomu je li doživljena nepravda primarno povezana s ishodima (ekonomskim i socio-emocionalnim), procesima i procedurama ili kvalitetom interpersonalnog odnosa (Cojuharenco, i sur., 2011), iz čega proizlazi i višedimenzionalnost koncepta organizacijske pravednosti. Najčešće se oblikuje trodimenzionalni model koji obuhvaća distributivnu, proceduralnu i interakcijsku dimenziju (Greenberg, 2011). Neki teoretičari razlikuju i informacijsku pravednost, kombinirajući je s interakcijskom, te prihvaćaju trodimenzionalni model, dok drugi teoretičari razdvajaju

interakcijsku i informacijsku pravednost, oblikujući četvero-dimenzionalni model organizacijske pravednosti (Colquitt, 2001).

Osnove oblikovanja distributivne pravednosti postavio je Adams u svojoj teoriji pravednosti prema kojoj je pojedincu važnija procjena pravednosti ishoda (pravednost raspodjele prema doprinosu) nego sama razna ishoda. Leventhal (1980) definira distributivnu pravednost kao prosudba pojedinca o pravednoj raspodjeli ishoda, pri čemu temelj za procjenu pravednosti može biti ne samo doprinos, već i potreba, jednakost ili kombinaciji navedenog. Proceduralna pravednost obuhvaća percepciju pravednost u donošenja organizacijskih odluka (uključujući metode i postupke donošenja odluka), pri čemu se traži da odluke budu nepristrane, dosljedne i moralne (Cropanzano i Greenberg, 1997). Proceduralna pravednost razvijena je u području pravosuđa (Thibaut i Walker, 1975), a njezinu primjenu u području organizacije objasnio je Leventhal (1980) usvajajući kriterije na kojima se takva pravednost zasniva: dosljednost, nepristranost, točnost, mogućnost ispravljanja pogrešaka, reprezentativnost i etičnost. Temeljem radova Thibauta i Walkera (1975), Colquitt (2001) je sistematizirao 7 kriterija proceduralne pravednosti i to: pravo glasa u procesu (kontrolu procesa), stupanj utjecaja na ishod (kontrola odluke), konzistentnosti, nepristranosti, preciznosti, mogućnost korekcije i etičnosti. Interakcijska se pravednost odnosi na pravednost ljudskih interakcija u procesu prenošenja informacija i odluka te tretiranje pojedinaca na korektan način, posebice onih pojedinaca na koje odluke imaju posljedice (Bies i Moag, 1986), dok informacijska pravednost obuhvaća percepciju pravednosti komuniciranja u okviru organizacijskih procedura. Komunikacija uz objašnjenja koja su adekvatna (jasna, razumna i detaljna) i pravovremena dopunjuju percepciju informacijske pravednosti jer pomažu zaposlenicima da razumiju situacije s kojima se susreću (Skarlicki, i sur., 2008).

Temeljem prethodnih istraživanja teoretičara koji se bave organizacijskom pravednošću, Jakopec i Sušanj (2014) opisuju dva glavna izvora pravednosti i to: neposredni rukovoditelji i organizacija u cjelini te citiraju Malatesta i Byrne (1997) i Masterson i sur., (2000) kako je percepcija pravednosti rukovoditelja povezana s ishodima važnim za rukovoditelje, dok je percepcija pravednosti organizacije povezana s ishodima važnim za organizaciju (među koje možemo ubrojiti i devijantno ponašanje na radnom mjestu).

3. Definiranje i vrste devijantnog ponašanja na radnom mjestu

Često korištena definicija jest ona od Robinson i Bennett (1995) prema kojoj devijantno ponašanje na radnom mjestu podrazumijeva dobrovoljno ponašanje kojim se krše važne organizacijske norme, a čime se ugrožava dobrobit organizacije i/ili zaposlenika. Organizacijske norme su determiniranje očekivanog ponašanja, jezika, principa i postulata koji omogućuju da se radi u prihvatljivom radnom ritmu (Awanis, 2006). Organizacijske norme propisane su putem formalne organizacije (politikama, pravilima i procedurama), ali i neformalnom organizacijom (nepisana pravila) te se odnose na standarde organizacije, a ne na sustav apsolutnih moralnih standarda (Kaplan, 1975). Devijantno ponašanje na radnom mjestu naziva se još i radna devijantnost (Appelbaum, i sur., 2007), kontraproduktivno

ponašanje (Bennett and Robinson, 2000), organizacijska nepristojnost (Miner i sur., 2012), destruktivno ponašanje i sl.

U literaturi se mogu pronaći različiti pristupi u sistematizaciji vrsta devijantnosti na radnom mjestu. Hollinger i Clark (1982) kategorizirali su radnu devijantnost zaposlenika u dvije kategorije: devijantnost vezanu uz imovinu (otuđivanje ili oštećivanje imovine koja pripada poslodavcu), i proizvodnu devijantnost (kršenje organizacijskih normi u pogledu količine i kvalitete obavljenog posla). Sličnu kategorizaciju radne devijantnosti predlažu Mangione i Quinn (1974) te je dijele u: kontraproaktivno ponašanje vezano uz imovinu (namjerno oštećivanje imovine poslodavca) i devijantnost vezanu uz proizvodnju (proizvodnja slabe kvalitete ili niske količine). Često je citirana podjela prema Robinson i Bennett (1995), Bennet i Robinson (2000) koja devijantnost na radnom mjestu dijeli na: (1) organizacijsku devijantnost u koju spada *proizvodna* (predstavlja blaži oblik devijantnosti kao što su izostajanje, kašnjenje ili ranije odlazanje s posla, uzimanje dužih pauza, sporiji tempo rada, rasipanje resursa i sl.) i devijantnost *vezana uz imovinu* (spada u teži oblik devijantnosti kao što je rušenje ili otuđivanje imovine, krivo iskazivanje radnih sati, krađa, krivotvorenje računa i sl.) i (2) interpersonalnu devijantnost koja može biti *politička* devijantnost (spada u blaže oblike devijantnosti kao što su ogovaranje, prebacivanje krivnje, favoriziranje, nekorektna konkurencija i sl.) i *osobna agresija* (spada u teže oblike devijantnosti kao što je seksualno uznemiravanje, verbalno uznemiravanje, krađa od suradnika, sabotiranje i ugrožavanje suradnika i sl.).

Iako se devijantno ponašanje na radnom mjestu može analizirati na razini grupe (Priesmuth i sur., 2014), na razini poslovnih jedinica (Dunlop i Lee, 2004) i na organizacijskoj razini (Ermann i Lundman, 1978), u istraživačkim studijama, devijantno ponašanje na radnom mjestu najčešće je ispitivano na individualnoj razini.

4. Povezanost organizacijske pravednosti i devijantnog ponašanja na radnom mjestu

U području organizacijskog ponašanja može se pronaći niz istraživanja koja su proučavala odnos između organizacijske pravednosti i devijantnog ponašanja na radnom mjestu. Greenberg (2004) ističe da percepcija organizacijske nepravde prenosi poruku da se s organizacijom, nadređenima i/ili zaposlenicima ne postupa pošteno. Primjerice, u slučaju proceduralne nepravde, ako se odluke donesene u organizaciji percipiraju kao nepoštene, frustracije će se vjerojatno povećati, što može povećati devijantno ponašanje na radnom mjestu. Osjećaj nepravde može se javiti ako zaposlenik smatra da nije plaćen korektno (oblik distributivne nepravde) i/ili da ga njegov nadređeni zlostavlja (interakcijska nepravda).

No, hoće li zaposlenik reagirati na nepravdu i na koji način će to učiniti ovisi o brojnim čimbenicima. Među takve čimbenike teoretičari ubrajaju: utjecaj percipirane nepravde na samog zaposlenika, percepcija prošlih i budućih situacija, osobne dispozicije poput želje za iskupljenjem te tendencija suočavanja s problemskom situacijom. Turnley i Feldman (1999) opisuju četiri posljedična odgovora na nezadovoljstvo zbog doživljene nepravde: (1) izlazak – negativno/aktivna reakcija (primjerice davanje otkaza); (2) povlačenje – negativno/pasivna

reakcija (primjerice smanjenje napora na radu) (3) korištenje prava glasa – pozitivno/aktivna reakcija (primjerice pritužba); te (4) odanost – pozitivno/pasivna reakcija, primjerice ignoriranje (Baldwin, 2006).

Istraživanja unutar organizacija (Greenberg, 1990), istraživanja na grupama (Thornton i Rupp, 2016), kao i istraživanja na akademskoj populaciji (Linde i sur., 1990) konzistentno potvrđuju utjecaj nepravde na devijantno ponašanje u organizaciji. Postoji niz empirijskih studija koje su pokazale da je organizacijska pravednost snažan prediktor sabotaze (tj. štetnog ili ometajućeg ponašanja) i drugih negativnih ponašanja u organizaciji. Nalazi u istraživanju organizacijske pravednosti upućuju na to da je percepcija nepravde povezana s povećanim agresivnim i devijantnim ponašanjima na radnom mjestu (Skarlicki i Folger, 1997), kao što je uključivanje u osvetnička ponašanja i izražavanje neprijateljstva (Greenberg, 1987) te smanjenje odgovornog ponašanja u organizaciji (Cropanzano i Greenberg, 1997). Percepcija nepravde povezana je s fluktuacijom, neproaktivnim ponašanjima, neprijateljstvom na radnom mjestu, osvetom i sl. (Colquitt i sur., 2001; Cohen-Charash i Spector, 2001). Također, percepcija distributivne pravednosti negativno je povezana s kontraproaktivnim radnim ponašanjima i konfliktima na radnom mjestu (Cohen-Charash i Spector, 2001). Scarlicki i Folger (1997) su utvrdili da je distributivna pravednost negativno povezana s osvetničkim organizacijskim ponašanjima koja uključuju glumljenje bolesti te namjerno uništavanje ili rasipanje opreme ili materijala. Također, Aquino i sur. (1999) su pronašli dokaze da je distributivna pravednost negativno povezana s interpersonalnim devijantnim ponašanjima, poput širenja glasina usmjerenih na pojedince u organizaciji.

5. Empirijsko istraživanje povezanosti organizacijske pravednosti i devijantnog ponašanja na radnom mjestu u hrvatskim poduzećima u djelatnosti informacijske tehnologije (IT)

U ovom radu željela se ispitati povezanost između različitih dimenzija organizacijske pravednosti i vrsta devijantnog ponašanja na radnom mjestu. Provedeno je empirijsko istraživanje u kojem su populaciju istraživanja činili zaposlenici hrvatskih poduzeća iz djelatnosti informacijske tehnologije (IT). Ispitanicima je navedeno da je sudjelovanje u istraživanju anonimno. Podaci su se prikupljali u lipnju 2019. godine, a anketu je ispunilo 58 ispitanika.

Kao instrument prikupljanja podataka korišten je anketni upitnik izrađen pomoću Google obrasca. Upitnik je imao ukupno 36 pitanja zatvorenog tipa od kojih su 2 pitanja obuhvatila demografske podatke (dob i spol). Sljedećih 15 pitanja je bilo vezano uz percepciju organizacijske pravednosti. Za mjerenje organizacijske pravednosti preuzet je upitnik na hrvatskom jeziku prema Jakopec i Sušanj (2014) i to onaj dio upitnika koji se odnosi na mjerenje pravednosti kojoj je izvor organizacija u kojoj radnik radi. Jakopec i Sušanj (2014) svoj su upitnik konstruirali uzevši u obzir veći broj prethodno provjerenih upitnika koji su korišteni u tu svrhu u znanstvenim istraživanjima. Organizacijska pravednost mjerila se uz pomoć njihovog trodimenzionalnog modela koji uključuje: distributivnu, proceduralnu i interakcijsku pravednost. Upitnik se sastojao od tri skupine, svaka s po 5 tvrdnji, koje

sadržajno pokrivaju navedene tri dimenzije, a procjenjivale su se na skali Likertovog tipa od 1 (u potpunosti se ne slažem) do 5 (u potpunosti se slažem). Stavke namijenjene mjerenju distributivne pravednosti odnosile su se na procjenu pravednosti ishoda (nagrađivanja i mogućnosti napredovanja) s obzirom na različito ulaganje pojedinca (iskustvo, trud, radna uspješnost, kvaliteta odrađenog posla) i karakteristike samog posla (izvori stresa na poslu, zahtjevi uloge posla). Stavke namijenjene mjerenju proceduralne pravednosti bile su temeljene na dosljednosti, nepristranost, točnost i objašnjavanju metoda i postupaka u donošenju organizacijskih odluka te povratnoj informaciji o kvaliteti rada. Interakcijska pravednost obuhvatila je pravednost komunikacije međuljudskih odnosa, odnosno na kvalitetu načina na koji se s ljudima ali i s njihovim osjećajima u organizaciji postupa (primjereno, iskreno i otvoreno, s poštovanjem i uvažavanjem), a mjerila se, također, kroz pet stavki. Preostalih 19 tvrdnji postavljeno je kako bi se procijenila pojava devijantnog ponašanja na radnom mjestu. Pri konstrukciji upitnika za devijantno ponašanje uzeo se u obzir standardizirani upitnik koji se koristi za istraživanje devijantnog ponašanja (Bennett i Robinson, 2000). Ispitanici su procijenili tvrdnje slaganje s tvrdnjama na ljestvici od sedam stupnjeva gdje je 1 značilo „nikad“, a 7 „svaki dan“. Interpersonalna devijantnost ispitivala se uz pomoć 7 tvrdnji, dok se organizacijsku devijantnost ispitivala pomoću preostalih 12 tvrdnji.

Analiza provedenog empirijskog istraživanja odvijala se u sljedećim fazama: (1) procjena pouzdanosti primijenjenih mjernih ljestvica; (2) deskriptivna analiza dimenzija organizacijske pravednosti i vrsta devijantnosti na radnom mjestu, (3) analiza povezanosti dimenzija organizacijske pravednosti i vrsta devijantnog ponašanja na radnom mjestu.

Analiza je pokazala da su ispitanici u najvećoj mjeri zaposleni u poduzećima srednje veličine s više od 50 zaposlenih u IT sektoru. Među ispitanicima je bilo 48% žena i 52% muškaraca (prema posljednjem popisu stanovništva iz 2011., Republika Hrvatska imala je 48,2% muškaraca i 51,8% žena). Najveći je udio ispitanika u kategoriji od 18 do 25 godina i on čini 55% uzorka. Sljedeća po brojnosti je kategorija ispitanika od 26 do 45 godina, koja čini 38% uzorka. Tek 7%, odnosno 4 ispitanika je starije od 45 godina. Niti jedan ispitanik nije bio stariji od 65 godina.

5.1. Procjena metrijskih karakteristika mjernih ljestvica za organizacijsku pravednosti i za devijantnosti na radnom mjestu

Procjena metrijskih karakteristika primijenjenih mjernih ljestvica za vrste organizacijske pravednosti i vrste devijantnosti na poslu (analiza pouzdanosti) napravljena je putem Cronbach alpha koeficijenta koji je jedan je od najčešće korištenih koeficijenata za određivanje pouzdanosti mjernih ljestvica.¹

¹ Cronbach alpha koeficijent predstavlja mjeru unutarnje dosljednosti skupa tvrdnji koji može poprimiti vrijednosti između 0 i 1. Što se Cronbach alpha koeficijent nalazi bliže vrijednosti 1, mjerna ljestvica je pouzdanija. Kriteriji koji se najčešće primjenjuju su: (1) ako koeficijent pouzdanosti poprimi vrijednost od oko 0,9, pouzdanost se može smatrati izvrsnom; (2) ako koeficijent pouzdanosti poprimi vrijednost od oko 0,8, pouzdanost je vrlo dobra, (3) kod vrijednosti od oko 0,7 pouzdanost se može smatrati prihvatljivom, (4) koeficijent pouzdanosti manji od 0,5 ukazuje na to da bi više od polovice opažene varijance moglo biti posljedicom slučajne pogreške, pa se mjerne ljestvice ne mogu smatrati pouzdanima.

Distributivna pravednost mjerila se sljedećim tvrdnjama: DP_1 (Organizacija me pravedno nagrađuje s obzirom na moje iskustvo); DP_2 (Organizacija me pravedno nagrađuje s obzirom na trud koji ulažem u posao); DP_3 (Organizacija me pravedno nagrađuje za dobro napravljen posao); DP_4 (Organizacija me pravedno nagrađuje s obzirom na zahtjevnost i stresnost mog posla); DP_5 (Organizacija me, s obzirom na moj radni učinak, pravedno nagrađuje i omogućuje mi napredovanje). Rezultati analize pouzdanosti mjerne ljestvice za distributivnu pravednost te utjecaja pojedinih tvrdnji na njenu ukupnu pouzdanost prikazani su u Tablici 1. Iz Tablice 1. vidljivo je da se mjerna ljestvica za distributivnu organizacijsku pravednost nalazi u području izvrsne pouzdanosti. Sve varijable (tvrdnje) koje čine mjernu ljestvicu podjednako doprinose njenoj pouzdanosti te se može zaključiti da je ljestvica pogodna za daljnje analize.

Tablica 1: Mjerna ljestvica za distributivnu pravednost - analiza utjecaja pojedinih tvrdnji na Cronbach alpha koeficijent

Statistika za tvrdnje (zbirno): ukupni Cronbach alpha = 0,95				
Tvrdnje distributivne pravednosti	Aritmetička sredina ljestvice bez tvrdnje	Varijanca ljestvice bez tvrdnje	Ukupna korelacija nakon korekcije tvrdnji	Cronbach alpha bez tvrdnje
DP_1	14,07	21,714	0,835	0,937
DP_2	14,21	21,185	0,920	0,923
DP_3	14,24	20,607	0,898	0,926
DP_4	14,22	20,493	0,816	0,941
DP_5	14,43	20,776	0,813	0,941

Izvor: izrada autora, IBM SPSS Statistics 25 Output

Proceduralna pravednost mjerila se tvrdnjama: PP_1 (Dobivam jasne povratne informacije o kvaliteti mog rada od strane moje organizacije); PP_2 (Organizacija mi na vrlo jasan način objašnjava donesene odluke i daje dodatne informacije kad to zahtijevam); PP_3 (Prema meni se odluke dosljedno provode od strane organizacije); PP_4 (Poslovne odluke vezane uz moj posao, organizacija donosi na temelju točnih i preciznih informacija); PP_5 (Postupci moje organizacije koji utječu na mene su pravedni i nepristrani). Rezultati analize pouzdanosti mjerne ljestvice za proceduralnu pravednost te utjecaj pojedinih tvrdnji na njenu ukupnu pouzdanost prikazani su u Tablici 2.

Tablica 2: Mjerna ljestvica za proceduralnu pravednost - analiza utjecaja pojedinih tvrdnji na Cronbach alpha koeficijent

Statistika za tvrdnje (zbirno): ukupni Cronbach alpha = 0,86				
Tvrdnje proceduralne pravednosti	Aritmetička sredina ljestvice bez tvrdnje	Varijanca ljestvice bez tvrdnje	Ukupna korelacija nakon korekcije tvrdnji	Cronbach alpha bez tvrdnje

PP_1	13,60	13,787	0,480	0,891
PP_2	13,53	12,639	0,731	0,823
PP_3	13,24	12,292	0,773	0,811
PP_4	13,38	12,941	0,712	0,828
PP_5	13,14	13,454	0,777	0,818

Izvor: izrada autora, IBM SPSS Statistics 25 Output

Iz Tablice 2 vidljivo je da se mjerna ljestvica za proceduralnu pravednost nalazi u području vrlo dobre do izvrsne pouzdanosti, no ta se pouzdanost može dodatno povećati izbacimo li iz ljestvice tvrdnju PP_1 koja glasi „Dobivam jasne povratne informacije o kvaliteti svog rada od strane moje organizacije.“ Rezultat nove analize pouzdanosti bez ove tvrdnje prikazan je u Tablici 3. Nakon izbacivanja tvrdnje PP_1 iz mjerne ljestvice za mjerenje percepcije proceduralne pravednosti postignuta je izvrsna pouzdanost te njezin Cronbach alpha koeficijent sada iznosi 0,89. Stoga će se u daljnjoj analizi ljestvica koristiti u tom obliku.

Tablica 3: Mjerna ljestvica za proceduralnu pravednost - analiza utjecaja pojedinih tvrdnji na Cronbach alpha koeficijent nakon izbacivanja tvrdnje PP_1

Statistika za tvrdnje (zbirno): ukupni Cronbach alpha = 0,89				
Tvrdnje proceduralne pravednosti	Aritmetička sredina ljestvice bez tvrdnje	Varijanca ljestvice bez tvrdnje	Ukupna korelacija nakon korekcije tvrdnji	Cronbach alpha bez tvrdnje
PP_2	10,41	7,931	0,734	0,871
PP_3	10,12	7,406	0,832	0,832
PP_4	10,26	8,195	0,711	0,879
PP_5	10,02	8,614	0,781	0,857

Izvor: izrada autora, IBM SPSS Statistics 25 Output

Interakcijska pravednost mjerila se sljedećim tvrdnjama IP_1 (Organizacija me tretira na primjeren način); IP_2 (Moja organizacija me poštuje); IP_3 (Moja organizaciji prema meni postupaju potpuno iskreno i otvoreno); IP_4 (Moja organizacija mi jasno daje do znanja da sam vrijedan zaposlenik/ca); IP_5 (Moja organizaciji vodi računa o mojim osjećajima i smatra ih se bitnim). Rezultati analize pouzdanosti mjerne ljestvice za interakcijsku pravednost te utjecaja pojedinih tvrdnji na njenu ukupnu pouzdanost prikazani su u Tablici 4. Iz Tablice 4 vidljivo je da se mjerna ljestvica za interakcijsku pravednost nalazi u području izvrsne pouzdanosti, no ta se pouzdanost može dodatno povećati izbacimo li iz ljestvice tvrdnju IP_1 koja glasi „Organizacija me tretira na primjeren način.“

Tablica 4: Mjerna ljestvica za interakcijsku pravednost - analiza utjecaja pojedinih tvrdnji na Cronbach alpha koeficijent

Statistika za tvrdnje (zbirno): ukupni Cronbach alpha = 0,91

Tvrđnje interakcijske pravednosti	Aritmetička sredina ljestvice bez tvrdnje	Varijanca ljestvice bez tvrdnje	Ukupna korelacija nakon korekcije tvrdnji	Cronbach alpha bez tvrdnje
IP_1	14,45	17,234	0,589	0,922
IP_2	14,22	16,002	0,885	0,867
IP_3	14,48	15,166	0,826	0,874
IP_4	14,57	14,811	0,846	0,869
IP_5	15,17	15,373	0,722	0,898

Izvor: izrada autora, IBM SPSS Statistics 25 Output

Rezultat nove analize pouzdanosti bez ove tvrdnje prikazan je u Tablici 5. Nakon izbacivanja tvrdnje IP_1 iz mjerne ljestvice za mjerenje percepcije interakcijske pravednosti postignuta je izvrsna pouzdanost te njen Cronbach alpha koeficijent sada iznosi 0,92. Stoga će se u daljnjim analizama ljestvica koristiti u tom obliku.

Tablica 5: Mjerna ljestvica za Interakcijsku pravednost - analiza utjecaja pojedinih tvrdnji na Cronbach alpha koeficijent nakon izbacivanja tvrdnje IP_1

Statistika za tvrdnje (zbirno): ukupni Cronbach alpha = 0,92				
Tvrđnje interakcijske pravednosti	Aritmetička sredina ljestvice bez tvrdnje	Varijanca ljestvice bez tvrdnje	Ukupna korelacija nakon korekcije tvrdnji	Cronbach alpha bez tvrdnje
IP_2	10,45	10,673	0,861	0,891
IP_3	10,71	10,000	0,799	0,905
IP_4	10,79	9,465	0,865	0,883
IP_5	11,40	9,647	0,777	0,916

Izvor: izrada autora, IBM SPSS Statistics 25 Output

Interpersonalna devijantnost mjerila se uz pomoć 7 tvrdnji: ID_1 (Ismijavao/la sam nekoga na poslu); ID_2 (Povrijedio/la sam suradnika grubim riječima); ID_3 (Izgovorio/la sam etničku, rasnu ili vjersku primjedbu ili komentar na poslu); ID_4 (Opsovao/la sam nekoga na poslu); ID_5 (Radilo/la sam podvale nekomu na poslu); ID_6 (Ponašao/la sam se grubo prema nekomu na poslu); ID_7 (Javno sam osramotio/la nekoga na poslu). Rezultati analize pouzdanosti ove mjerne ljestvice te utjecaja pojedinih tvrdnji na njenu ukupnu pouzdanost prikazani su u Tablici 6. Iz Tablice 6 vidljivo je da se mjerna ljestvica za interpersonalnu devijantnost nalazi u području izvrsne pouzdanosti. Pouzdanost bi se mogla minimalno povećati izbacimo li iz ljestvice tvrdnju ID_1 „Ismijavao/la nekoga na poslu“, no s obzirom da se radi o povećanju Cronbach alpha koeficijenta tek za 0,005, ljestvica će se u daljnjim analizama nastaviti koristiti u svom originalnom obliku, sa svih sedam tvrdnji.

Tablica 6: Mjerna ljestvica za interpersonalnu devijantnost - analiza utjecaja pojedinih tvrdnji na Cronbach alpha koeficijent

Statistika za tvrdnje (zbirno): ukupni Cronbach alpha = 0,90				
Tvrdnje interpersonalne devijantnosti	Aritmetička sredina ljestvice bez tvrdnje	Varijanca ljestvice bez tvrdnje	Ukupna korelacija nakon korekcije tvrdnji	Cronbach alpha bez tvrdnje
ID_1	10,14	39,279	0,564	0,905
ID_2	10,64	37,814	0,814	0,869
ID_3	10,79	39,185	0,702	0,883
ID_4	10,45	35,971	0,797	0,871
ID_5	11,16	44,239	0,633	0,892
ID_6	10,91	38,957	0,789	0,873
ID_7	11,22	43,721	0,757	0,884

Izvor: izrada autora, IBM SPSS Statistics 25 Output

Mjerna ljestvica za mjerenje organizacijske devijantnosti sastojala se od 12 tvrdnji: OD_1 (Uzmiao/la sam imovinu u vlasništvu organizacije bez odobrenja); OD_2 (Provodio/la sam previše vremena na poslu maštajući ili sanjareći, a ne radeći); OD_3 (Krivotvorio/la sam ispravu, putni nalog, račun i sl. da prikažem veće troškove od onog što je zaista potrošeno na službena putovanja); OD_4 (Uzeo/la sam dodatnu, dužu pauzu nego što je to dopušteno na mom radnom mjestu); OD_5 (Neopravdano sam zakasnio/la na posao); OD_6 (Oštetio/la sam svoju radnu okolinu); OD_7 (Zanemario/la sam slijediti upute mog nadređenog); OD_8 (Namjerno sam radio/la sporije nego što sam mogao/la); OD_9 (Raspravljao sam o povjerljivoj informaciji moje organizaciji s neovlaštenom osobom); OD_10 (Konzumirao/la sam alkohol ili drogu na poslu); OD_11 (Uložio/la sam malo napora na poslu i nedovoljno se trudio/la); OD_12 (Razvlačio/la sam posao izvan radnog vremena kako bih dobio/la prekovremene sate). Rezultati analize pouzdanosti te mjerne ljestvice i utjecaj pojedinih tvrdnji na njenu ukupnu pouzdanost prikazani su u Tablici 7.

Tablica 7: Mjerna ljestvica za organizacijsku devijantnost - analiza utjecaja pojedinih tvrdnji na Cronbach alpha koeficijent

Statistika za tvrdnje (zbirno): ukupni Cronbach Alpha = 0,78				
Tvrdnje organizacijske devijantnosti	Aritmetička sredina ljestvice bez tvrdnje	Varijanca ljestvice bez tvrdnje	Ukupna korelacija nakon korekcije tvrdnji	Cronbach alpha bez tvrdnje
OD_1	20,40	45,261	0,472	0,768
OD_2	19,36	37,217	0,622	0,744
OD_3	20,64	49,253	0,197	0,786
OD_4	18,93	36,767	0,540	0,759
OD_5	19,79	43,114	0,408	0,771
OD_6	20,48	46,079	0,543	0,768

OD_7	20,00	44,596	0,381	0,773
OD_8	19,24	38,327	0,604	0,747
OD_9	19,95	43,874	0,346	0,778
OD_10	20,29	46,913	0,311	0,779
OD_11	19,71	40,772	0,638	0,747
OD_12	20,36	48,937	0,096	0,795

Izvor: izrada autora, IBM SPSS Statistics 25 Output

Tablica 8: Mjerna ljestvica za organizacijsku devijantnost - analiza utjecaja pojedinih tvrdnji na Cronbach alpha koeficijent nakon izbacivanja tvrdnje OD_12

Statistika za tvrdnje zbirno: ukupni Cronbach alpha = 0,80				
Tvrdnje organizacijske devijantnosti	Aritmetička sredina ljestvice bez tvrdnje	Varijanca ljestvice bez tvrdnje	Ukupna korelacija nakon korekcije tvrdnji	Cronbach alpha bez tvrdnje
O_D_1	19,02	43,491	0,484	0,779
O_D_2	17,98	35,877	0,610	0,759
O_D_3	19,26	47,564	0,190	0,798
O_D_4	17,55	34,532	0,581	0,766
O_D_5	18,41	41,475	0,409	0,783
O_D_6	19,10	44,410	0,543	0,780
O_D_7	18,62	43,117	0,366	0,787
O_D_8	17,86	36,612	0,616	0,758
O_D_9	18,57	42,390	0,335	0,792
O_D_10	18,91	45,378	0,295	0,792
O_D_11	18,33	39,172	0,639	0,759

Izvor: izrada autora, IBM SPSS Statistics 25 Output

Iz Tablice 7 vidljivo je da se mjerna ljestvica za organizacijsku devijantnost nalazi u području vrlo dobre pouzdanosti. Pouzdanost bi se mogla dodatno povećati izbacimo li iz ljestvice tvrdnju OD_12 koja glasi „Razvlačio/la posao izvan radnog vremena kako bih dobio/la prekovremene sate“ Rezultat nove analize pouzdanosti bez ove tvrdnje prikazan je u Tablici 8. Nakon izbacivanja tvrdnje OD_12 iz mjerne ljestvice za mjerenje organizacijske devijantnosti postignuta je nešto veća, vrlo dobra pouzdanost te njen Cronbach alpha koeficijent sada iznosi 0,80. S obzirom da izbacivanje niti jedne od preostalih jedanaest tvrdnji ne bi doprinijelo povećanju Cronbach alpha koeficijenta, u daljnjim analizama ljestvica će se koristiti u tom obliku.

5.2. Deskriptivna statistika vrsta devijantnosti i dimenzija organizacijske pravednosti

U tablici 9 prikazana je razina uključenosti u devijantno ponašanje na radnom mjestu, prema samo-procjeni ispitanika. S obzirom da se interpersonalna devijantnost mjerila putem 7 tvrdnji, a organizacijska devijantnost s 11 tvrdnji, aritmetička sredina organizacijske

devijantnosti (zbirno) pomnožena je (ponderirana) s 0,6364 ($7/11=0,6364$) što je omogućilo usporedivost aritmetičkih sredina (treći stupac Tablice 9). Aritmetička sredina ocjena na ljestvici (prosječno) za pojedinu vrstu devijantnosti, dobivena je dijeljenjem aritmetičke sredine ljestvice (zbirno) s brojem tvrdnji kojima se mjerila pojedina vrsta devijantnosti (četvrti stupac Tablice 9). Prema podacima iz tablice, devijantnost na radnom mjestu u hrvatskim poduzećima u IT sektoru prisutna relativno rijetko; prosječna ocjena organizacijske devijantnost je 1,85, a interpersonalne devijantnost 1,79.

Tablica 9: Razina uključenosti u devijantno ponašanje na radnom mjestu, prema ocjeni ispitanika

Vrste devijantnosti	Aritmetička sredina ljestvice (zbirno)	Ponderirana aritmetička sredina ljestvice (zbirno)	Aritmetička sredina ljestvice (prosječno)
Interpersonalna devijantnost	12,55	12,55	1,79
Organizacijska devijantnost	20,36	12,96	1,85

Izvor: izrada autora, IBM SPSS Statistics 25 Output

Kako bi se utvrdilo je li razlika u prosjecima između varijabli Interpersonalna devijantnost i Organizacijska devijantnost statistički značajna, proveden je t-test za zavisne uzorke (*Paired-Samples t-test*). U tablici 10 prikazana je deskriptivna statistika vezana uz vrste devijantnosti na radnom mjestu, a u tablici 11 analiza putem t-testa. Iz tablice 11 se vidi da t-testom nije utvrđena statistički značajna razlika ($t = 0,485$) između navedenih vrsta devijantnosti.

Tablica 10: Deskriptivna statistika vrsta devijantnog ponašanja na radnom mjestu

Vrste devijantnosti	Ponderirana aritmetička sredina ljestvice (zbirno)	N	Standardna devijacija	Standardna pogreška aritmetičke sredine
Interpersonalna devijantnost	12,55	58	7,316	0,959
Organizacijska devijantnost	12,96	58	4,452	0,585

Izvor. izrada autora IBM SPSS Statistics 25 Output

Tablica 11: t-test za zavisne uzorke

<i>t-test za zavisne uzorke (Paired-Samples t-test)</i>					
Vrste devijantnosti	Razlika ponderiranih aritmetičkih sredina (zbirno)	Standardna devijacija	T	Stupnjevi slobode (df)	Sig.
Interpersonalna devijantnost –	0,41	6,381	0,485	57	0,629

Organizacijska devijantnost					
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Izvor: izrada autora, IBM SPSS Statistics 25 Output

Nadalje se željela ispitati razina organizacijske pravednosti, prema percepciji ispitanika (Tablica 12).

Tablica 12: Dimenzije organizacijske pravednosti

Dimenzije organizacijske pravednosti	Aritmetička sredina ljestvice (zbirno)	Ponderirana aritmetička sredina ljestvice (zbirno)	Aritmetička sredina ljestvice (prosječno)
Distributivna pravednost	17,79	14,23	3,56
Proceduralna pravednost	13,60	13,60	3,40
Interakcijska pravednost	14,45	14,45	3,61

Izvor: Izrada autora, IBM SPSS Statistics 25 Output

S obzirom da se distributivna pravednost mjerila putem 5 tvrdnji, a proceduralna i interakcijska pravednost svaka putem 4 tvrdnje, aritmetička sredina distributivne pravednosti (zbirno) pomnožena je (ponderirana) s 0,8 ($4/5=0,8$), kako bi se omogućila usporedivost aritmetičkih sredina (treći stupac Tablice 12). Također, izračunate su vrijednosti aritmetičke sredine ocjena na ljestvici (prosječno) za pojedinu dimenziju pravednosti, koje su dobivene dijeljenjem aritmetičke sredine ocjena na ljestvici (zbirno) s brojem tvrdnji kojima se mjerila ta dimenzija pravednosti (četvrti stupac Tablice 12). Iz Tablice 12 je vidljivo da je pravednost u ispitivanim hrvatskim poduzećima IT djelatnosti percipirana kao osrednja. Najbolje je ocijenjena interakcijska pravednost (3,61), nešto lošije distributivna pravednosti (3,56) te proceduralna pravednosti (3,4).

Kako bi se utvrdilo postoji li statistički značajna razlika u prosjecima između dimenzija *Distributivna pravednost*, *Proceduralna pravednost* i *Interakcijska pravednost*, proveden je t-test za zavisne uzorke (*Paired-Samples t-test*). T-testom je utvrđena statistički značajna razlika samo između dimenzija *Proceduralna pravednost* i *Interakcijska pravednost*. Između preostalih parova dimenzija statistički značajna razlika nije utvrđena. Rezultati analize prikazani su u Tablicama 13 i 14.

Tablica 13: Deskriptivna statistika dimenzija organizacijske pravednosti

Dimenzije organizacijske pravednosti	Ponderirana aritmetička sredina ljestvice (zbirno)	N	Standardna devijacija	Standardna pogreška aritmetičke sredine
Distributivna	14,23	58	4,547	0,597

pravednost				
Proceduralna pravednost	13,60	58	3,713	0,488
Interakcijska pravednost	14,45	58	4,151	0,545

Izvor: Izrada autora, IBM SPSS Statistics 25 Output

Tablica 14: t-test za zavisne uzorke

<i>t-test za zavisne uzorke (Paired-Samples t-test)</i>					
Dimenzije organizacijske pravednosti	Razlika ponderiranih aritmetičkih sredina ljestvice (zbirno)	Standardna devijacija	T	Stupnjevi slobode (df)	Sig.
Distributivna pravednost/ Proceduralna pravednost	0,63	3,615	1,329	57	0,189
Distributivna pravednost/ Interakcijska pravednost	0,21	3,275	0,497	57	0,621
Proceduralna pravednost/ Interakcijska pravednost	0,85	2,783	2,312	57	0,024*

*razlika je statistički značajna na razini rizika 5% ($p \leq 0,05$)

Izvor: Izrada autora, IBM SPSS Statistics 25 Output

5.3. Međusobna povezanosti dimenzija organizacijske pravednosti i vrsta devijantnosti

Nadalje se htjela istražiti povezanost između pojedinih dimenzija organizacijske pravednosti i vrsta devijantnosti na radnom mjestu. Za utvrđivanje te povezanosti provedena je korelacijska analiza. Rezultati korelacijske analize nalaze se u Tablici 15. Iz Tablice 15 vidljivo je da je utvrđena statistički značajna korelacija, odnosno povezanost jedino između proceduralne pravednosti i organizacijske devijantnosti. Negativan koeficijent korelacije ukazuje na to je negativna percepcija proceduralne pravednosti praćena povećanjem organizacijske devijantnosti i obrnuto, da je veća sklonost organizacijskoj devijantnosti praćena negativnom percepcijom proceduralne pravednosti. No povezanost ovih dviju varijabli je vrlo slaba i može objasniti svega 7% varijance objiju varijabli. Nije pronađena korelacija između ostalih dimenzija organizacijske pravednosti i vrsta devijantnosti na radnom mjestu, što se prvobitno očekivalo s obzirom da rezultate sličnih prethodno provedenih istraživanja.

Tablica 15: Koeficijenti korelacije između dimenzija organizacijske pravednosti i vrsta devijantnosti

Dimenzije pravednosti	Interpersonalna devijantnost	Organizacijska devijantnost
Distributivna pravednost	-0,071	0,017
Proceduralna pravednost	-0,099	-0,269*
Interakcijska pravednost	-0,191	-0,189

**statistički značajna korelacija*

Izvor: Izrada autora, SPSS Statistics 25 Output

6. Diskusija i zaključak

Niz empirijskih istraživanja u području organizacijske pravednosti pokazuje da percepcija pravednosti na radnom mjestu utječe na stavove prema poslu, rukovodstvu i organizaciji, na različita organizacijska ponašanja te motivaciju i uspješnost u radu, uključujući i različite vrste devijantnosti na radnom mjestu.

Empirijsko istraživanje prikazano u ovom radu je pokazalo da je devijantno ponašanje na radnom mjestu, prema samo-procjeni ispitanika, prisutno relativno rijetko u hrvatskim poduzećima iz djelatnosti informacijske tehnologije (IT), dok je organizacijska pravednost ocijenjena kao osrednja. Statistički značajna razlika utvrđena je jedino između percepcije interakcijske pravednosti i percepcije proceduralne pravednosti. Interakcijska pravednost ocijenjena je nešto bolje (prosječna ocjena 3,61) u odnosu na proceduralnu pravednost (prosječna ocjena 3,40). Nadalje, empirijskim istraživanjem u ovom radu ispitalo se postojanje povezanost između percepcije različitih dimenzija organizacijske pravednosti (distributivne, proceduralne, interakcijske) i vrsta devijantnog ponašanja na radnom mjestu (organizacijske i interpersonalne) u hrvatskim poduzećima IT djelatnosti. Rezultati su pokazali statistički značajnu korelaciju, odnosno povezanost jedino između proceduralne pravednosti i organizacijske devijantnosti. Dobiveni negativni koeficijent korelacije ukazuje na to je negativna percepcija proceduralne pravednosti praćena s povećanjem organizacijske devijantnosti i obrnuto, da je veća sklonost organizacijskoj devijantnosti praćena negativnom percepcijom organizacijske pravednosti. Drugim riječima istraživanje je pokazalo da radnici IT sektora na radnom mjestu reagiraju povoljnije, i za sebe i za svoje poslodavce, kada percipiraju proceduralnu pravednost, dok nepovoljnije reagiraju kada osjete proceduralnu nepravdu. Povezanost ovih dviju varijabli slaba i može objasniti sa 7% varijance obiju varijabli. Potvrđena povezanost između navedenih varijabli u skladu je s sa zaključcima Clay-Warner i sur. (2005) koji ističu da percepcije proceduralne pravednosti pozitivno utječe na procjenu organizacije, autoriteta i pravila, odgovorno organizacijsko ponašanje, organizacijsku odanost i zadovoljstvo poslom. Za ostale dimenzije organizacijske pravednosti i vrste devijantnog ponašanja, u ovom empirijskom istraživanju, nije se utvrdila povezanost.

Teoretičari ističu da se ukupni nepovoljni učinci organizacijske nepravde mogu barem djelomice ublažiti ako je barem jedna dimenzija pravednosti očuvana. Dakle, ako menadžeri samo jednu dimenziju učine pravednom, postoji mogućnost za pozitivne reakcije zaposlenika (Cropanzano i sur., 2007). Stoga bi u razmatranju različitih dimenzija organizacijske pravednosti, menadžeri trebali identificirati dimenzije pravednosti koje nisu prisutne u dovoljnoj mjeri te raditi na tomu da ih unaprijede i poboljšaju. Nadalje, postoji niz okolnosti o kojima ovisi hoće li zaposlenici reagirati na nepravdu i na koji će način to napraviti, kao što su utjecaj percipirane nepravde na zaposlenika, percepcija prošlih i budućih situacija, osobna dispozicija te razina želje za suočavanjem s problemskom situacijom.

Treba napomenuti da pojava tj. izbjegavanje devijantnog ponašanja na radnom mjestu nije uvjetovano isključivo razinom organizacijske pravednosti. U znanstvenoj literaturi opisuje se niz čimbenika koji su povezani s devijantnim radnim ponašanjem, kao što su individualni čimbenici (osobine ličnosti, stavovi i vrijednosti, mentalno zdravlje itd.), čimbenici povezani s poslom (stres, nejasan opis posla i radnih uloga, prevelika količina posla, nedostatak resursa, percepcija rada na poslu koji nije cijenjen itd.) i drugi čimbenici povezani s organizacijom (neadekvatna organizacijska klima, nedostatna organizacijska podrška i nedostatno povjerenje itd.), koji nisu bili predmet detaljnijeg istraživanja u ovom radu. Bolje razumijevanje navedenih čimbenika može pomoći menadžerima da usmjere pozornost na prepoznavanje onih čimbenika na koje mogu direktno utjecati u cilju smanjenja devijantnog ponašanja i negativnih posljedica koje takvo ponašanje nosi.

Ovdje svakako treba uzeti u obzir ograničenja istraživanja. Ograničenja provedenog empirijskog istraživanja proizlaze iz dva glavna izvora moguće pristranosti: (1) relativno male veličine uzorka – u istraživanje je bilo uključeno 58 ispitanika iz IT sektora. Unatoč tomu, rezultate istraživanja treba shvatiti indikativnima za procjenu pouzdanosti mjernih ljestvica i međusobne povezanosti analiziranih varijabli; (2) pristranost ispitanika – budući da se u mjernim ljestvicama za mjerenje devijantnosti ispitanike pozvalo da izravno ocijene vlastito devijantno ponašanje, potrebno je uzeti u obzir da je riječ o subjektivnoj samo-procjeni, koja ne mora odgovarati stvarnosti. Naime, predmet mjerenja je izrazito osjetljiv. Krađe, zlouporaba resursa, neopravdana kašnjenja na posao, vrijeđanja, fizički napadi ili napastovanja, ponašanja su koja zaposlenici nisu skloni priznati iz straha od negativnih posljedica koja bi ta priznanja mogla za njih imati, iako je anketa anonimna. Osim toga, ljudi mogu imati potrebu prikazati se u boljem svjetlu, a to se u ovom području posebice odražava na predmet mjerenja. Isto tako, ispitanici su mogli biti namjerno neiskreni u samo-procjeni devijantnog ponašanja pa postoji vjerojatnost da je učestalost devijantnog ponašanja na radnom mjestu u ovom istraživanju podzastupljena.

Preporuke za daljnja istraživanja ove problematike obuhvaćaju: provođenje empirijskih istraživanja o povezanosti između organizacijske pravednosti i devijantnosti na radnom mjestu u ostalim djelatnostima Republike Hrvatske i/ili šire, pri čemu bi trebalo obuhvatiti veći broj ispitanika. Empirijska istraživanja o drugim izvorima organizacijske pravednosti, kao što je ona koja proizlazi od neposrednih rukovoditelja, mogla bi ispitati postojanje razlike između takve vrste pravednosti i pravednosti kojoj je izvor sama organizacija. Također bilo bi

korisno istražiti različite uzroke devijantnog ponašanja na radnom mjestu koji ovdje nisu istraženi, a koji mogu dodatno osvijetliti njegove ključne pokretače na koje treba usmjeriti pozornost u teoriji i praksi.

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KOMUNIKACIJSKI MENADŽMENT U WEG KONCEPTU VODSTVA

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Sažetak

Procesi koji se odvijaju u sustavu menadžmenta, da bi bili učinkoviti, u sebi sadrže visoki stupanj komunikacijskih vještina. Istodobno da bi komunikacijske vještine bile svrsishodne one moraju biti dio oblikovanog menadžerskog sustava u kojem je jasno postavljen cilj, dakle i plan kao put do cilja, a uz to funkcija nadzora, odnosno, controlling. Često se menadžment shvaća kao jednoobrazan samostalni oblik kojemu se pridružuje donošenje odluka koje služe poradi realizacije ciljeva. Ipak, kako u praksi, tako i u teoriji, to nije tako. Sustav menadžmenta u sebi sadrži niz podvrsta menadžmenta koje se mogu nazvati „*menadžment by...*“. To znači da se svi činitelji koji služe ostvarenju cilja, sukladno planu, pretvaraju u jednu od podvrsta menadžmenta, *menadžment by...*, kao primjerice, cilj i njemu pridružen plan, *objectives*, motiviranost, učenje i drugo. To potvrđuje osnovno pravilo uspješnog menadžmenta u praksi „sa svime je potrebno upravljati“. Da bi sve uredno funkcioniralo pobrinuo se controlling koji nadzire cijeli proces *sub-menadžmenta by...* te intervenira sukladno potrebi, jer sve se mora odvijati u vremenu, dakle, i korigirati u vremenu, odnosno, odmah. Pritom, cilj se ne smije mijenjati. Dakle, na Druckerov *management by objectives*, koji je ciljno usmjeren, i predstavlja krovni *sub-menadžment*, nadograđuju se svi potrebni *menadžmenti by...* Pritom se taj cijeli sustav *menadžmenta by...* stavlja u okvir Deyhleovog WEG koncepta, koji je zamišljen kao most između menadžerskih tehnika vođenja i motiviranja zaposlenika, s jedne strane, a s druge strane, menadžerskih tehnika planiranja i upravljanja na putu do cilja.

Ključne riječi: menadžment by, WEG koncept, menadžersko ponašanja, komunikacijski menadžment, controlling vođenje

1. Uvod

Moderni se menadžment od svog početka (1916. godine) razvija sukladno potrebama gospodarstva, ali i sukladno drugim činiteljima od kojih su neki činitelji više, a neki manje prisutni. Primjerice, znanje o menadžmentu, najprije u teoriji pa onda u praksi, važan je činitelj razvoja i primjene u praksi. U ekonomijama u tranziciji, još uvijek nivo znanja o menadžmentu i njegovim funkcijama nije zadovoljavajuće, pa tako i u praksi zaostaje se za razvijenim ekonomijama EUa. Zatim, percepcija i mentalno prihvaćanje menadžmenta i njegovih funkcija, kao i proces odlučivanja, nedovoljno je razvijeno u ekonomijama u tranziciji, kako na mikro, tako i na makro razini. Problem naslijeđa, što ulazi u domenu kulture naroda, prepreka je razvoju menadžmenta, što iziskuje snažniji upliv obrazovanja i edukacije u cjelini. To je razlog neadekvatnog menadžerskog ponašanja i komunikacije koja je ključna u složenom sustavu upravljanja i motivacije zaposlenih. Menadžment, koji je ciljno

usmjeren, koristi funkcije menadžmenta na način kako to rade razvijene ekonomije EUa. Primjerice, menadžment u Njemačkoj odvija se i razvija u praksi kao poslovanje u uvjetima totalnog controllinga, koji zajedno sa planiranjem upravlja poslovanjem i usmjerava ga prema cilju. Na tom putu razvijaju se pomoćni menadžmenti, i to ne samo kao podvrste menadžmenta, kao što su risk menadžment ili pak humane menadžment, nego pomoćni menadžmenti vezani i podređeni svakom činitelju procesa rada i upravljanja. Takvi pomoćni menadžmenti već po svom pojmu upućuju na posebnu ulogu u sustavu controllinški oblikovanog menadžmenta a javljaju se kao *management by...* Sukladno tome razlikujemo *management by motivation*, *management by learning*, *management by delegation*, *management by exception*, i drugo, a na kraju svi ti pomoćni menadžmenti završavaju sa krunskim *management by results*, a koji je direktni povezan sa *management by objectives*. Oblikovano na nekom višem teoretskom i praktičnom modelu, vodeći znanstvenik controllinga Europe i svijeta, Deyhle, osmislio je WEG model koji objedinjuje sve pomoćne *menadžmente by...* u model koji pokriva cjeloviti proces poslovanja i odlučivanja, a koji vodi do cilja.

Svrha ovog istraživanja je analiza menadžerskog ponašanja i komunikacije u uvjetima Deyhleovog WEG sustava, kao i prikazivanje njegove primjene na jednom primjeru. U tom smislu koristiti će se primjer menadžerskog ponašanja u WEG konceptu na procesu organiziranja jedne europske nogometne utakmice. Cilj ovog istraživanja je valorizirati ulogu menadžerskog komuniciranja u primjeni WEG koncepta, pri čemu će se valorizirati važnost svakog *menadžmenta by...* Hipoteza koja se u ovom istraživanju postavlja, kaže da menadžersko ponašanje i komunikacija uz primjenu WEG koncepta, kao i u uvjetima totalnog menadžmenta nekog subjekta ili događaja, u visokoj mjeri garantira uspješnu realizaciju postavljenog cilja.

2. Funkcije menadžmenta u uvjetima totalnog controllinga

Djelo Francuza Henrya Fayola pod nazivom „General and Industrial Management“, objavljeno 1916. označilo je početak modernog menadžmenta. Samo djelo napisano je više od 50tak godina ranije, ali objavljeno je znatno kasnije, kada je očito bilo vrijeme koje je znalo cijeniti to djelo, i u kojem je primjena modernog menadžmenta bila potrebna prekretnica u upravljanju. Menadžment je Fayol postavio kroz pet funkcija koje su poznate kao POCCC Framework (planning, organizing, commanding, coordinating i controlling). Fayolov POCCC Framework desetljećima se odupirao promjenama koje su pokušavali promovirati mnogi autori. To se posebno odnosilo na funkciju *commanding*, koja se sa razvojem građanskog društva, odnosno demokracije, uz ukidanje robovlasništva, korjenito promijenila. Primjerice, L. Gulick u prvoj polovici 20. stoljeća postavio je svoj POSDCORB Framework, odnosno, sustav funkcija menadžmenta, koji je predstavljao oblikovanje osam funkcija menadžmenta (*planning, organizing, staffing, directing, co-ordinating, organizing, reporting i budgeting*)¹. U njegovom POSDCORB Frameworku nije bilo mjesta za controlling, ali je uveo *staffing* koji

¹ Gulick, L., “Notes on the theory of organization” (1937), in Shafritz, J.M. and Ott, J.S. (Eds), Classics of Organization Theory, 3rd ed., Brooks/Cole, Pacific Grove, CA, 1992.

se zadržao do zadnjeg desetljeća 20tog stoljeća. Krajem 20. stoljeća L. E. Boone & D. L. Kurtz² postavljaju četiri grupe funkcija menadžmenta: (1) *planning and decision making*, (2) *organizing, staffing, and communicating*, (3) *influencing*, (4) *controlling*. Dakle, *controlling* se vraća kao funkcija menadžmenta, *staffing* preživljava, a komunikacija se od vještine uzdiže na nivo funkcije. U teoriji menadžmenta bilo je i drugih pokušaja postavljanja novih funkcija menadžmenta, ali bez značajnog učinka sve do pojave Petera Druckera koji je postavio pet funkcija menadžmenta³: (1) postavljanje ciljeva, (2) organiziranje, (3) motiviranje i komuniciranje, (4) mjerenje i ocjenjivanje postignutih rezultata, (5) razvoj kadrova. Pojava pet grupa funkcija menadžmenta Druckera označava početak proces približavanja Fayolu, ali uz određene promjene i prilagodbe. Krajem 20. stoljeća svi se teoretičari novijeg doba kreću u okviru pet funkcija i POSLC Frameworka, ili pak četiri funkcije i POLC Frameworka, dakle, bez *staffinga*. U takvo razvrstavanje funkcija menadžmenta svojim su se radovima svrstali mnogi teoretičari, kao što su H. W. Koontza i C. O. Donella⁴, T. S. Bateman & C. P. Zeithaml⁵ i drugi. Krajem 20. stoljeća započele su oštre rasprave oko *staffinga* kao funkcije. *Staffing* se kao funkcija menadžmenta javio kao plod težnji stavljanja radnog čovjeka u prvi plan, ali je uskoro taj problem riješen i *staffing* se nije održao. Odnosno, pod utjecajem ekonomskih problema u Americi i svijetu 90tih godina, počeli su se javljati i drugi čimbenici uspješnog menadžmenta koji su oslabili *staffing*, kao primjerice *budgeting* ili upravljanje financijama. Na kraju, problem *staffinga* je riješen, a ugledni su teoretičari menadžmenta, kao primjerice Robert D. Gatewood & Robert R. Taylor & D. C. Ferrell⁶, pa zatim S. C. Certo i S. T. Certo⁷, kao i Griffin, R. W.⁸ povukli oštru razliku između resursa i funkcija menadžmenta. Odnosno, resursi ne mogu postati funkcije menadžmenta, već je za svaki resurs potrebno postaviti primjereni menadžment. Sukladno tome, razvio se financijski menadžment, menadžment *humane resource*, menadžment održivog razvoja, i drugi. Točku na „i“ postavila je Encyclopedia of Management, koja navodi:⁹ „*The functions of management uniquely describe managers' jobs. The most commonly cited functions of management are planning, organizing, leading and controlling, although some identify additional functions. The functions of management define the process of management as distinct from accounting, financing, marketing and other business functions.*“ Ova je enciklopedija konačno riješila pitanje funkcija menadžmenta te je promovirala POLC Framework, odnosno, funkcije: *planning, organizing, leading and controlling*. Na ovu POLC osnovu teoretičari menadžmenta danas nadograđuju neke bolje varijante pa tako, primjerice, u novijem dobu *leading* se zamjenjuje sa *directing*, ili pak sa još blažim izrazima koji predstavljaju ljepšu suradnju radnika i njegovog nadređenog koji mu pomaže tijekom rada.

² L. E. Boone & D. L. Kurtz: „Management“ 3rd edition, McGraw-Hill, Inc. SAD, 1987.

³ Drucker, P.: „Practice of Management“, Heinemann, 1961.

⁴ Koontz, H. & O'Donnell, C.: „Principles of management an analysis of managerial functions“, McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York, 1972., str. 46-49.

⁵ Bateman, S. T. & Zeithaml, P. C.: „Management Function & Strategy“, 2nd edition, Richard, D. Irwin, Inc., 1993.

⁶ Gatewood, R. D. & Taylor, R. R. & Ferrell, D. C.: „Management: comprehension, analysis, and application“, Irwin, 1995, str. 6-8.

⁷ Certo, S. C. & Certo, S. T. : „Modern management“, Prentice Hall, 1997.

⁸ Griffin, R. W.: „Management“, 11th edition, South-Western Cengage Learning, Mason, 2011. str. 5.

⁹ Encyclopedia of Management, 6th edition, GALE Cengage Learning, United States of America, 2009., str. 517.

Tablica 1. Povijesno razvrstavanje funkcija menadžmenta

Fayol, H. (1949, 1987).	P. Drucker (1961)	R. Kreitner (1989)	W. Koontz (1994)	R. Griffing (2011)	Encykloperia of Management (1996)	
Planning	A manager sets objectives.	Planning	Planning	Planning & decision making	Planning	
Organizing	A manager organizes.	Organizing	Organizing		Organizing	
Commanding		Decision making	Staffing		Leading	
Coordinating	A manager motivates people by making 'people decisions' on compensation.	Communication	Leading		Leading	Controlling
Controlling	A manager measures performance.	Motivation	Controlling		Controlling	
	A manager develops himself and others.	Leading				

Izvor: Obrada autora

Kao što se može vidjeti, misao o funkcijama menadžmenta vremenom se mijenjala, i to kao rezultat aktualnih ekonomskih problema u određenom trenutku. U zadnjih nekoliko desetljeća problem funkcija menadžmenta ipak je središnje te danas postoje samo četiri funkcije sukladno Encykloperia of Management (1996.), kao i sukladno značajnim američkim teoretičarima.¹⁰

Zadnjih desetljeća u Europi, a i u svijetu, u razvoju funkcija menadžmenta i njihovom način djelovanja u praksi, posebno se istaknula Njemačka škola menadžmenta na čelu sa dr. dr. Albrecht Deyhle i njegovom akademijom *controllinga*.¹¹ Njemačka je škola menadžmenta funkcije menadžmenta hijerarhijski postavila, odnosno, primat su preuzele funkcije *controlling* i *planning*.¹² Posebno treba napomenuti da se od pojave Petera Druckera i njegovih pet grupa funkcija menadžmenta,¹³ javljaju pomoćni menadžmenti po sistemu *management by...*, a kojima je Drucker postavio čelni *management by objectives*.

3. Menadžersko ponašanje i komuniciranje u uvjetima totalnog *controllinga*

Sve je jasnije da je menadžersko ponašanje, kao i komunikacija, ključna za njegovu uspješnost. Fayolov *commanding*, koji je vrijedio u vremenu robovlasništva i naređivanja, zamijenili su uljuđeni odnosi i komunikacija koja vlada u uspješnim tvrtkama građanskog društva i demokracije, u ekonomijama visoko razvijenog zapada EUa. Stoga psihologija

¹⁰ Griffin, R. W.: *Management*, 11th edition, South-Western Cengage Learning, Mason, 2011., str. 8.

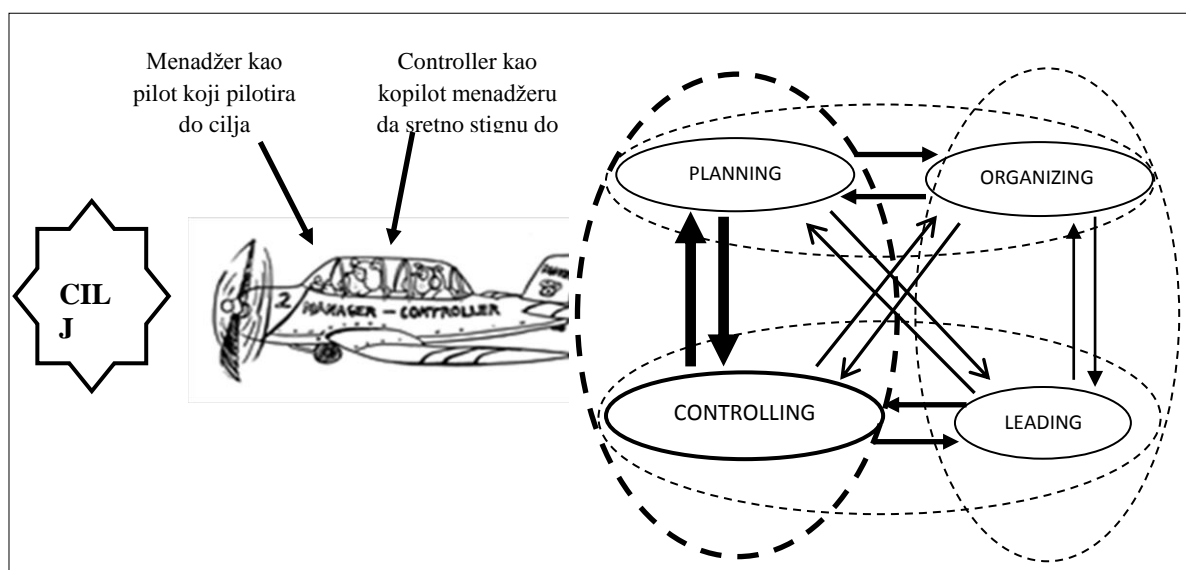
¹¹ www.controllerakademie.de

¹² Dr. dr. Albrecht Deyhle, osnivač je i vlasnik prestižne Controller Akademie AG u Zurich ali i u Njemačkoj.

¹³ Drucker, P.: „Practice of Management“, Heinemann, 1961.

značajno participira u obradama menadžerskih procesa, u čemu controlling i controller imaju posebnu ulogu. Pozitivno menadžersko ponašanje zadatak je svih sudionika radnog procesa, a posebno menadžera, ali ponašanje, komunikaciju i informacijski sustav u nadležnosti su controllera i sustava controllinga. Tako postavljeni zadaci i uloge u ponašanju i komunikaciji stvar su kulture, ali prije svega znanja. Pritom su planiranje i controlling funkcije menadžmenta koje se uče, a organiziranje i vođenje, ili usmjeravanje (directing), funkcije su koje se manje uče a više su stvar osobnih sposobnosti menadžera.¹⁴

Dakle, Njemačka je škola menadžmenta selektivno i funkcijski posložila funkcije menadžmenta, u čemu planiranje i controlling imaju ključnu ulogu te djeluju zajednički.



Slika 1. Planiranje i controlling u njemačkom i europskom P-O-L-C Frameworku

Izvor: Izradio autor Tihomir Luković, a sliku zrakoplova izradio akad. kip. Dragan Dužević

U svojoj osnovi, sustav funkcija menadžmenta, sukladno Njemačkoj školi menadžmenta, postavljen je tako da planiranje i controlling čine jedan zajednički sklop, kao određeni podsustav od dvije funkcije. Druge dvije funkcije njima se pridružuju na način da su im podređene. Cijeli sustav koji vodi ka cilju, svojim odlukama vodi menadžer, dok je controller, uz support menadžeru, odgovoran za operativno provođenje procesa rada, kako bi se to „putovanje“ do cilja odvijalo sukladno planu. Osnovna premisa je da se cilj ne smije mijenjati, a plan može, jer je plan prilagodljiv i cilju podređen. To je zadatak controllera pa je stoga controller ključna osoba tog sustava. On nadzire, regulira, korigira, dopunjava, ne samo menadžersko ponašanje nego cjelovito ponašanje svih subjekata sustava kako ne bi poradi ponašanja došlo do negativnih pojava u sustavu. Stoga, primjerice, komunikacija koju Kreitner i Kinicki izdižu na nivo funkcije menadžmenta, nije funkcija ali zahvaljujući controlleru postaje ključni čimbenik sustava i pozitivnog menadžerskog ponašanja.¹⁵ Stoga se uz controlling i controllera veže složeni sustav koordinacije i vremenske dimenzije u kojoj se

¹⁴ Luković, T. „Planning and Controlling, Separable or Symbiotic Functions of Management”, Conference OFEL 2014, Dubrovnik 2014.

¹⁵ Kreitner, R. & Kinicki, A.: „Organizational Behaviour“, Irwin, Michigan University, 2013., p 429

odvijaju svi procesi, a posebno ciljno orijentirano planiranje.¹⁶ Unutar tog sustava controller preuzima na sebe vođenje i koordiniranje u procesu planiranja, te koordiniranje subjekata planiranja, kao i nadzor nad realizacijom planiranih zadataka i nad njihovom dinamikom. Pritom je njegova uloga posebno usmjerena na ponašanje svih sudionika, na menadžersko ponašanje, kao i oblikovanje učinkovitog sustav komunikacije.¹⁷

4. Menadžersko ponašanje i komunikacija u WEG konceptu vodstva

Kao što je rečeno, menadžersko ponašanje i komunikacija ključni su za uspješno provođenje menadžerske funkcije vodstva. Fayolov *commanding* prilagodio se vremenu i transformirao u *directing* koji sve češće u teoriji zamjenjuje pojam vodstva. Prema tome, funkcija *upravljanja* podređena je funkcioniranju kompanije, odnosno, vođenju kompanije ili nekoga njezina odjela, a što obavlja voditelj tog odjela, menadžer odjela. Pritom, vodstvo i upravljanje ima smisla samo ako njegove funkcije i djelovanje vode kompaniju do cilja, a put do cilja predstavlja planiranje. Na tom putu controller je navigator, kopilot menadžera, pilota, kao što se vidi iz slike 1. Kao što bi Deyhle kazao, „controller je prodavatelj planova i ciljeva“, a realističnost planova i ciljeva postoji samo onda kada postoji netko tko će ih provesti.¹⁸ Poseban doprinos, kao i uloga controllera sadržana je u stalnoj edukaciji, kako sebe, tako i menadžmenta tvrtke, čime se osigurava harmonizirani i motivirani angažman svih zaposlenika.

Da bi tako postavljen sustav totalnog menadžmenta bio učinkovit razvijen je WEG¹⁹ sustav, što znači „PUT“²⁰, a sačinjavaju ga tri temeljna pojma: **W**achstu (rast), **E**nwicklung (razvoj), **G**ewinn (dobit).

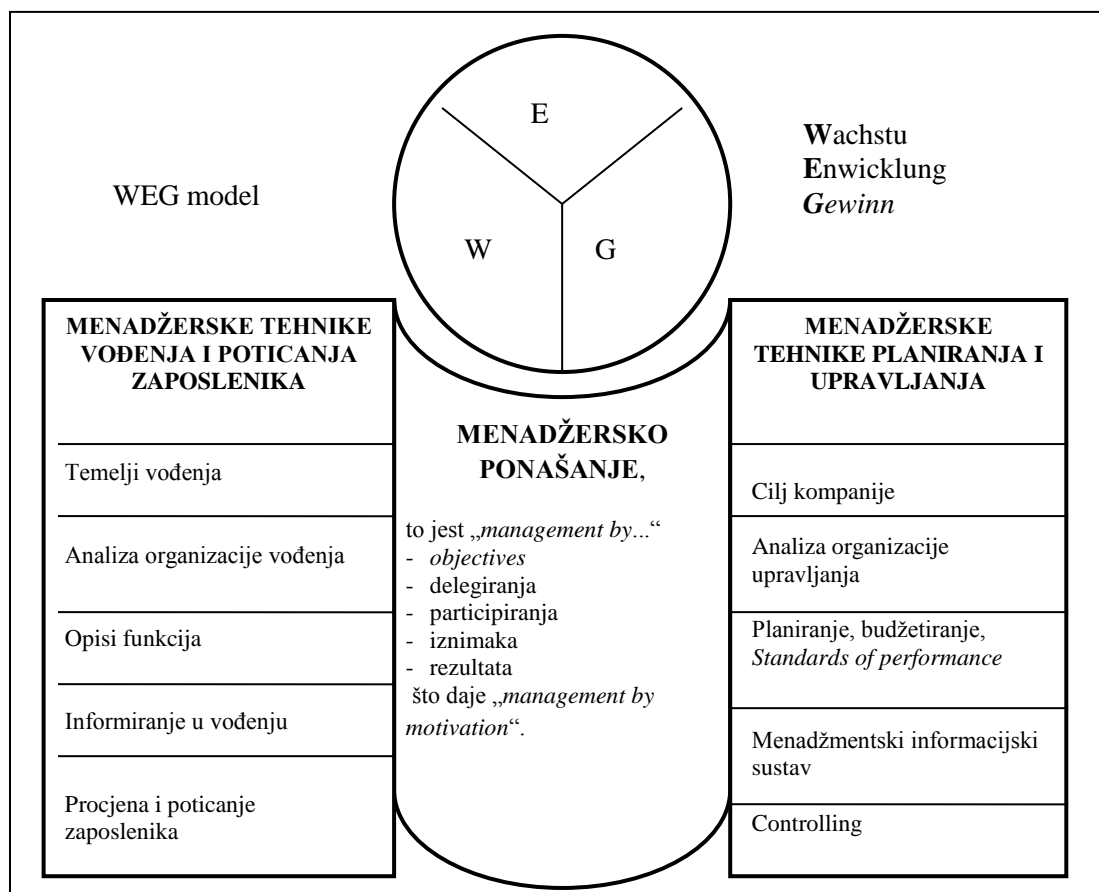
¹⁶ Luković, T. & Lebefromm, U.: „Controlling, planom do cilja, Druga knjiga“, Sveučilište u Dubrovniku, Dubrovnik 2014., str. 50

¹⁷ Isto, od 67 do 69

¹⁸ Deyhle, A., *Controller-Praxis, Führung durch Ziele – Planung – Controlling*, Band II, Verlag für ControllingWissen AG Offenburg, 2003., str. 164

¹⁹ Isto, p. 164

²⁰ Luković, T. & Lebefromm, U., *Controlling, Konzept und Fälle*, Erste Auflage, Engelsdorfer Verlag, Leipzig, 2010., str. 109., Slika 36.



Slika 2. WEG koncepcija menadžmentskog sustava

Izvor: Deyhle; A., *Controller-Praxis, Führung durch Ziele – Planung – Controlling*, Band II, Verlag für ControllingWissen AG Offenburg, 2003, str. 137.

Menadžerski WEG sustav/koncept temelji se na načelima controllinga, a obuhvaća planiranje, kao i sve druge funkcije i situacije u tvrtki. To je sustav koji se razvio 70tih godina, a rezultat je timskog rada grupe njemačkih istraživača controllinga i menadžmenta. Postavljen je na Menadžerskoj akademiji u Münchenu, u okviru Njemačkog instituta za ekonomiju, u suradnji sa V. Bataillardom (Zuerich), G. Grupom (Stuttgart), J. Haeuslerom (Karlsruhe), A. Sahmom (München) i E. Zander (Hamburg). On pokriva tri temeljne dimenzije svakog poslovanja, (1) rast, (2) razvoj i (3) dobit, a koji u stvari predstavljaju osnovne ciljeve poslovanja. Pritom je potrebno zadovoljiti sve zahtjeve *Stakehodera* u sustavu, čemu pridonosi *Balanced Scorecard*. Obzirom na ciljeve, kao i vječnu težnju „biti najbolji“, potrebno je jasno postaviti uzor, a što znači više standarde i vrijednosti koje je potrebno doseći. Dakle, da bi se ciljevi prilagodili uzoru, moraju biti mjerljivi i konkretni.²¹ Pritom, da se ne podlegne dobiti, u smislu robovanja kapitalu, potrebno je postaviti matricu kompromisa, što znači da će se ponekad neke financijske veličine žrtvovati poradi nekih drugih ciljeva, kao primjerice poradi činitelja održivog razvoja. Taj sustav činitelja poslovnog procesa koji je ciljno usmjeren i prilagođen

²¹ Vidjeti poglavlje 2.1. u Luković, T. & Lebefromm, U.: *Controlling, Konzept und Fälle*, Erste Auflage, Engelsdorfer Verlag, Leipzig, 2010., str. 105 - 117

prestižnom djelovanju prema uzoru, sadržan je u *Balanced Scorecardu*²² kao kokpitu temeljnih pokazatelja.

5. Komunikacijski menadžment i *management by...*, case study nogometna utakmica GNK Dinamo (Zagreb) i Tottenham Hotspur F.C. (London)

Sukladno prikazanom WEG konceptu, koji ima oblik mosta između dva stupa, lijevi stup predstavlja *menadžerske tehnike vođenja i poticanja zaposlenika*, a desni stup predstavlja *menadžerske tehnike planiranja i upravljanja*. Ta dva stupa povezuje menadžersko ponašanje, kao i komunikacija.²³ Suština menadžerskog ponašanja i komunikacije, kao poveznice dva stupa WEG koncepta, leži u podršci poslovnog procesa kojim se realizira cilj. Procesi koji se razvijaju i koji nastaju u lijevom i desnom stupu zavise od menadžerskog ponašanja i komuniciranja, a krajnji cilj je postaviti *management by motivation*. Da bi se postigao efekt motiviranosti svih zaposlenika tvrtke potrebno je aktivirati potreban broj *management by...* kao stepenast sustav koji oblikuje i podržava Druckerov *management by objectives*. *Management by objectives* što predstavlja menadžment koji se sastoji od zajedništva cilja i plana kao puta do cilja. Taj sustav, u ovom primjeru, u sebi sadrži pet osnovnih *management by ...*, čije je djelovanje najprikladnije prikazati na jednom primjeru.

a) Ulazna situacija, utakmica GNK Dinamo (Zagreb) i Tottenham Hotspur F.C. (London)

GNK Dinamo (Zagreb) je najbolji hrvatski nogometni klub koji je 2020. stekao pravo takmičiti se u Europskoj lizi. Veliki uspjeh GNK Dinama bio je ulazak u osminu finala, gdje ga je na putu u četvrtfinale čekao engleski Tottenham Hotspur F.C. (London). Susret u Londonu, koji se održao 11. ožujka 2021., završio je očekivanom pobjedom Tottenhama 2:0. Razlika u klasi, kao i vrijednosti momčadi, realizirala se na terenu pobjedom Tottenhama na svom terenu u Londonu. Tržišna vrijednost ekipe Tottenham Hotspur F.C., London, procjenjuje se na 720 milijuna eura, a GNK Dinamo, Zagreb, 103 milijuna eura, a što je logično da to znači i razliku u igri na terenu, ali pitanje je da li je to uvijek tako. Odnosno, uz određene uvjete koji će se obrazložiti u ovom istraživanju moguća je i nemoguća situacija. Vrijednost igrača, u pravilu se odražava u igri na terenu, ali organizacija i priprema utakmice ipak igra ključnu ulogu na rezultat, kao što je to u ovom primjeru.

Dakle, uzvratna utakmica u Zagrebu zakazana je 18. ožujka 2021. GNK Dinamo (Zagreb) se želi dostojno suprotstaviti velikom Tottenhamu Hotspur F.C. (London), pobijediti ga u Zagrebu, a prikrivena je želja pobjeda koja bi GNK Dinamo odvela u četvrtfinale. Ostalo je samo je 7 dana između prve i druge utakmice, a glavni trener GNK Dinama je u pritvoru te momčad preuzima pomoćni trener. Glavni trener nije pomoćnom treneru prenio stanje ekipe, kao i da se za dva igrača sumnja na COVID-19, a nije mu prenio ni informaciju da odlazi u

²² Više vidjeti u knjizi Luković, T. & Lebefromm, U., *Controlling, Konzept und Fälle*, Erste Auflage, Engelsdorfer Verlag, Leipzig, 2010., str. 138, prilagođeno prema Deyhle, A., *Controllor-Praxis, Führung durch Ziele – Planung – Controlling*, Band II, Verlag für ControllingWissen AG Offenburg, 2003., str. 82/83.

²³ Obrazloženje lijevog i desnog stupa nalazi se u knjizi Luković, T. & Lebefromm, U.: „Controlling, planom do cilja, Druga knjiga“ Sveučilište u Dubrovniku, Dubrovnik 2014. u poglavlju 7.

pritor, već je to ovaj saznao iz dnevnog tiska. U gradu Zagrebu pandemija COVID-19 raste, a kada je pomoćni trener doznao za sumnju da dva igrača GNK Dinama možda imaju COVID-19 nastala nervoza kod pomoćnog trenera, koja se prenijela na cijelu momčad. Nervozan trener i igrači ubrzo su sredili redove i izborili za GNK Dinamo (Zagreb) povijesnu pobjedu nad Tottenhamom Hotspur F.C. (London). Taj put do pobjede ovaj je, najbolje organizirani klub u Hrvatskoj, proveo kroz niz *management by...*

b) *Odnos trenera i igrača u sustavu GNK Dinamo (Zagreb) – planirano stanje sukladno sustavu sportskog menadžmenta*

Postavlja se pitanje, na koje će se ovdje dati odgovor, kako je trebalo sve uraditi sukladno „*management by...*“, što bi zagrebačkog GNK Dinama dovelo do povijesnog uspjeha. Ono što je ispušteno, je da je znatno ranije trebalo pomoćnom treneru saopćiti da će uskoro on biti glavni trener. Obzirom na ovu uzvratnu utakmicu sa Tottenhamom u Zagrebu na njemu je zadatak i cilj oduprijet se Tottenhamu i ostvariti barem minimalnu pobjedu. Pritom je bilo potrebno uzeti u obzir umor igrača i kratkoću vremena te na temelju toga budžetirati vrijeme koje se ima do utakmice, da bi se mirno ušlo u utakmicu i ostvarilo barem minimalnu pobjedu. Također je bilo potrebno hitno angažirati epidemiološku službu i riješiti pitanje zaraze dva važna igrača GNK Dinama, tako da se riješi taj problem. Obzirom da se tu pojavio niz problema i zadataka, kao i umor igrača, ali i potreban poseban trening u budžetiranju vremena, svi trebaju uskladiti svoje ciljeve i plan prilagoditi vremenu kojim se raspolaže. Ono što je najvažnije je da su GNK Dinamo i njegov novi trener uglavnom to i u uradili. To je bio „*management by objectives*“.

Nadalje, da bi svi planovi bili usklađeni i povezani, bilo je potrebno uskladiti vrijeme svakoga od njih, uzevši u obzir druge redovne obaveze u tom vremenu. Trener, kao najzainteresiranija osoba i najodgovornija, trebao je razmotriti vrijeme svakog od sudionika te ako je potrebno revidirati vrijeme nekog od njih, odnosno, revidirati plan u vremenu. To ni značilo da se odvija *management by participation*, jer sad svatko ima svoj zadatak koji mora ostvariti u zadanom vremenu. Osoba za nadzor zdravlja u GNK Dinamu, preuzela je na sebe hitno rješenje problema sumnje na zarazu dva igrača, a trener obavlja trening u skladu sa stanjem igrača. Pritom dva napadačka igrača GNK Dinama izdvaja i prepušta da samostalno treniraju po posebnom programu koji sami oblikuju uz pomoć novog pomoćnog trenera. Posebno trenira golman GNK Dinama, kao ključna osoba za narednu utakmicu, jer GNK Dinamo ne smije primiti gol. Trener uzima u obzir opcije da su dva igrača zaražena, kao i da nisu, ili je pak samo jedan zaražen te tome prilagođava svoj rad i postavljanje momčadi.

Postignut je dogovor, te svatko od sudionika sustava pripreme nove utakmice preuzima i razrađuje svoj zadatak. Sukladno zadatku, svatko od njih razrađuje svoj plan i odgovara za njega pa se to zove „*management by delegation*“.

Obzirom da postoji mogućnost da su oba igrača zaražena, kao i da se do utakmice još neko od igrača može zaraziti ili ozlijediti, trener aktivira nekoliko igrača iz redova starijih juniora, a koji igraju u mladoj reprezentaciji Hrvatske. Obzirom da je to zaista nepredvidivo te da se

potrebno pripremiti za neočekivane nepovoljnosti, primijenjen je „*management by exception*“.

U slučaju da ipak nitko nije zaražen te da se napadački igrači GNK Dinama osjećaju spremni, kao i da jedan od ključnih igrača Tottenham Hotspur F.C. radi ozljede ne igra, dolazi se do „*management by result*“. Usporedba planiranog i ostvarenog po svim segmentima plana i cilja pokazala je potpuno izvršenje svih zadataka, što je na kraju rezultiralo dobrom pripremom, sa čime se ulazi u utakmicu.

I zaista, sve se za GNK Dinamo ostvarilo povoljno, sve se skladno provelo u vremenu od 7 dana, pa je proces pet međusobno uvjetovanih *management by...* na kraju pred utakmicu rezultirao željenim *management by motivation*. Cijela momčad je jako motivirana za igru pa jedva čeka početak utakmice. Sa druge strane, Tottenham Hotspur F.C. je uvjeren u svoju snagu i pobjedu podlegao predrasudi „kroz Zagreb ćemo samo prošetati“, pa je izgubio na svojoj motivaciji i motivacijskoj pripremi za oštru utakmicu koja ih čeka u Zagrebu.

Na sreću sve se dobro završilo pa je momčad zagrebačkog GNK Dinama motivirano i spremno ušla u utakmicu i pobijedila je londonski Tottenham Hotspur F.C. sa 3:0, ali za controllera uvijek ostaje otvoreno pitanje „*da li je moglo biti i drugačije?*“. Odnosno, moguće su tri posljedice. Stoga je trebalo za svaki zadatak, plan i cilj, u vremenu kojim se raspolagalo, odrediti *check-point* kako bi se svakog trenutka, odnosno, nakon izvršenog segmenta vremenskog plana znalo da li je sve u redu i da li se sa 100% realiziranog plana ide prema drugom *check-pointu*. Dakle, moguće su tri posljedice. Prva posljedica, (1) tiče se treninga igrača koji je trebalo selektirati po svakom pojedinom igraču da se ne ozlijedi, a što je tek djelomično napravljeno sa dva napadačka igrača i golmanom. Odnosno, za svakog je igrača trebalo razraditi vremenski *check-point* i nadzirati ga. Druga posljedica, (2) odnosi se na postavljanje „*objectives*“, što se može poboljšati, jer možda ima previše motivacije i samopouzdanja, što u slučaju prvog primljenog gola može značiti potpuni slom motivacije Dinama. Pouzdanje u odličnog golmana, Livakovića, dobro je, ali i to treba limitirati. Treća posljedica, (3) odnosi se na nenadan angažman pomoćnog trenera kao glavnog trenera u važnoj europskoj utakmici, utakmici koja je jedna od najvažnijih u povijesti GNK Dinama. Ta nenadana promjena trenera, može biti neproduktivna pa je možda potrebno, samo za tu utakmicu, angažirati pomoć drugog iskusnog trenera, kao pomoć i podršku novom treneru. Sve to odnosi se na „*management by results*“. Na sreću sve je dobro završilo. Sustav tako postavljenih *check-pointa* predstavlja novu vrstu *management by...*, a to je *management by check-point*.

Korištenje obrazloženja ponašanja i komunikacije pomoćnog, a sad glavnog trenera, u odnosu na suradnike GNK Dinama (Zagreb) u utakmici sa Tottenhamom Hotspur F.C. (London), po principu „*management by...*“, osiguravalo je cijeloj ekipi siguran rad i pripremu za novu utakmicu u Zagrebu. To je bio važan činitelj na putu do cilja, te je eliminirao nepotrebne stresne situacije prije utakmice, a uz to podržava osobno planiranje svakog sudionika utakmice. Bez tog sistema, ponašanje i komunikacija menadžera u situacijama koje nastaju do utakmice, može rezultirati nepovoljnim ishodom utakmice, što se nije dogodilo i GNK Dinamo je u četvrtfinalu. Ipak, obzirom da je sve savršeno funkcioniralo, ostvaren je cilj,

pobjeda, ali i nad-cilj, a to je pobjeda koja sasvim neočekivano vodi zagrebački GNK Dinamo u četvrtfinale Europske lige. Dakle, mogućnosti igrača GNK Dinama su prisutne, a sustav *management by...* i WEG koncept, oblik su menadžmenta koja potencijal i mogućnosti ekipe GNK Dinama realizira i aktualizira.

6. Zaključak

Njemački WEG koncept dobar je sustav i primjer uspješnog funkcioniranja svih činitelja poslovanja u uvjetima totalnog menadžmenta. Pritom, ljudski činitelj, promatran kao menadžersko ponašanje i menadžerska komunikacija, prožima cijeli sustav gospodarskih subjekata, a u ovom primjeru i sportskih subjekata. Pozitivna komunikacija i ponašanje svih, prije svega menadžera na svim razinama, važna je, a nju oblikuje i nadzire controller. Stoga je uloga controllera prisutna u svim aspektima poslovnog djelovanja, prije svega funkcije vodstva. Da bi se nadzirale četiri osnovne razine sustava svakog subjekta, odnosno četiri perspektive, financijska perspektiva, perspektiva kupaca, inovacije i perspektivna znanja, kao i procesna perspektiva, potrebno je razraditi model *Balanced Scorecard*. *Balanced Scorecard* predstavlja sustav operativnog izvještavanja na razini usporedbe planirano-ostvareno, što je uvjet realizacije cilja. Ono što je posebno važno je da se pomoću *Balanced Scorecard* zadovoljava uvjet podmirivanja potreba Stakeholdera, a što je uvjet poslovanja bez stresa. Pritom, WEG koncept pokriva i oblikuje cijeli sustav, u čemu je posebno važan most koji povezuje lijevo i desni stup, a to je sustav *management by...* U tom sustavu *management by...*, Druckerov *management by objectives* realizira se postupno, kumulativno, kroz niz potrebnih *management by...*, sa krajnjim *management by result*.

Zaključno, istraživanje koje je provedeno na primjeru sada već legendarne utakmice Dinama i Tottenhama, kao i plasiranja GNK Dinama u četvrtfinale Europske lige, potvrdilo je hipotezu ovog istraživanja. Odnosno, hipoteza koja kaže da menadžerska komunikacija u WEG konceptu, u uvjetima totalnog menadžmenta nekog subjekta ili događaja, u visokoj mjeri garantira uspješnu realizaciju zacrtanog cilja, potvrđena je. Potvrđena hipoteza pokazala je da je menadžerska komunikacija u WEG konceptu važna za svaki gospodarski subjekt, ali i za veće sportske organizacije. Odnosno, sport, koji ne spada u oblik poslovanja, barem ne u Hrvatskoj, traži primjenu svih znanstvenih dosega menadžmenta, posebno controllinga i planiranja. U tome je ljudski činitelj, posebno u smislu menadžerskog ponašanja i komunikacije, ključan činitelj uspjeha.

Za vjerovat je da će Njemačka škola menadžmenta konačno naći primjenu i u hrvatskoj ekonomiji, sportu, kao i svim drugim zbivanjima koja traže menadžment i vodstvo.

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ORGANIZACIONE PROMENE I INOVATIVNE MENADŽMENT PRAKSE U USLOVIMA PANDEMIJE

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Apstrakt

Nijedan događaj od Drugog svetskog rata do danas, nije imao tako značajan planetarni uticaj kao aktuelna pandemija. Ona je ubrzala potrebu za organizacionim promenama, a kako vreme odmiče sve više postaje jasno da najveća opasnost za korporativno upravljanje nije sama pandemija, nego delovanje menadžmenta po "jučerašnjoj logici". Za sve veći broj "virtuelnih" radnika, socijalni aspekt više ne postoji, on je zamenjen telefonskim i video pozivima. Zbog toga je važno da se uspostave nove organizacione norme i pravila, koje će odgovarati individualnim potrebama svake kompanije, te da se izgrade nove menadžment prakse za budućnost, kroz razvoj novih ideja i njihovu tržišnu implementaciju, čime bi se pozitivno uticalo na produktivnost, konkurentnost, zaposlenost i tržište rada. Koliko su naši menadžeri (ne)spremni za "novu realnost"? Kako izgleda prelazak sa jučerašnje na današnju organizaciju rada i da li je rad od kuće nužnost ili poželjan način organizovanja u digitalnoj budućnosti? Koji model organizacije i menadžmenta nam je potreban za uspeh u budućnosti? Ovaj rad se bavi upravo navedenim pitanjima i struktuiran je u tri tematske celine. Prva se fokusira na upravljanje promenama u digitalnom svetu i uslovima pandemije, a bavi se proučavanjem i objašnjavanjem trendova koji oblikuju naše poslovno okruženje i suočavanjem sa pandemijskim izazovima koji postoje u njemu. Druga se bavi vrstama i značajem menadžment inovacija u uslovima pandemije, a akcenat se stavlja na ljudske potencijale, fleksibilne oblike radnog angažovanja i rad od kuće. Treća se fokusira na izgradnju inovativne organizacione kulture, strukture i menadžment prakse. Pisanje ovog rada je motivisano, pre svega, željom da se, kroz analizu raspoložive literature i iskustvo iz prakse autora, pruže korisni saveti i motivišu naši menadžeri da aktuelne pandemijske izazove iskoriste kao šansu i inoviraju svoje poslovanje, te da ono pruži teorijsku osnovu i podsrek za nova istraživanja u budućnosti.

Ključne reči: digitalizacija, ljudski resursi, pandemija, rad od kuće.

1. Trendovi u poslovnom okruženju i pandemijski izazovi

U savremenom poslovanju jedino stalne su zapravo promene. Nijedan događaj od Drugog svetskog rata do danas, nije imao tako veliki planetarni uticaj kao pandemija koronavirusa, sa svojim kratkoročnim i dugoročnim implikacijama po svaku organizaciju. Pandemija koronavirusa je obeležila prethodnih godinu dana i potpuno promenila svet, a mnogi eksperti već se sada upuštaju u predviđanja načina na koji će on biti nepovratno izmenjen. Sa druge strane, manjina uzdržanih glasova poziva na oprez, ukazujući da uzroci izmenjenih uslova poslovanja nisu strukturne prirode i da, kao takvi, ne mogu ni izazvati strukturne promene (Sekulović I, 2020). Pored neizvesnosti vezane za nepoznavanje budućeg kretanja pandemije, koja otežava procene budućeg okruženja u kome će organizacije obavljati svoje aktivnosti i ekonomskih kretanja, neizvesnost se odnosi i na nepoznavanje uticaja koji će faktor egzogenog njenog šoka imati na poslovne aktivnosti, jer je jedinstven u modernoj ekonomskoj istoriji (Praščević A, 2020).

Postoje značajne razlike između potresa poslovanja koji su uzrokovani prirodnim, tehnološkim, operativnim ili onim katastrofama koje je izazvao čovek i onih uzrokovanih pandemijskim događajima. Ove razlike postoje zbog potencijalno povećanog obima, ozbiljnosti i trajanja pandemskih događaja, što zahteva potrebu da organizacije izađu iz okvira tradicionalnih strategija planiranja agilnosti (*EY Global Multidisciplinary professional services organization*, 2020b). Potpuno izmenjen kontekst obrazovanja, rada, kretanja, okupljanja, ponašanja, provođenja slobodnog vremena, života sa porodicom, partnerima i slično je sigurno uticalo na gotovo celokupnu populaciju kako u svetu, tako i na našim prostorima. Praveći strategije poslovanja, ni najveće svetske kompanije nisu mogle zamisliti da će u nekom trenutku biti suočene sa pandemijom, koja će, sa takvim potencijalom, moći da dovede u pitanje opstanak njihovog poslovanja. Uslovljene neizvešnošću, a, ujedno, stepenom spremnosti za reagovanje, različite organizacije reagovala su na različite načine (Tadić V, 2020). U prvi plan je istaknuto pitanje otpornosti organizacija na krizu i sposobnost da upravljaju promenama. Kao i svaka kriza, i kriza izazvana pandemijom, ne može vremenski neograničeno da deluje, ali se sa njom može ograničeno upravljati unutar ili van organizacije (Vojnović B, 2014).

Pandemija koronavirusa je implicirala nove pozicije na tržištu, nov način rada, razmišljanja i kompletnog restrukturiranja organizacija. Pokazalo se da aktuelna pandemija ne predstavlja samo globalnu zdravstvenu krizu, već da dalekosežno utiče i na društvene i ekonomske tokove, proizvodeći višestruke posledice. Ona je uzrokovala krizu u ekonomiji, a posebno u javnom zdravstvu, i dodatno produbila nejednakosti i doprinela koncentraciji moći. Zato se svi trebaju na pravi način suočiti sa ovakvom krizom. Možda je jedini prihvatljiv odgovor “veliki reset” ekonomije, politike, društva, pa i menadžment praksi i načina organizovanja biznisa. Čini se da je ovo trenutak za preispitivanje vrednosti koje su se u vremenu pre pandemije smatrale svetinjama, ali i za odbranu mnogih vrednosti iz prošlosti. Tehnološki napredak omogućavao je da se uvek iznađu novi odgovori na krizu, što i ovog puta potvrđeno, zbog čega je važno nastaviti ulaganja u istraživanje, razvoj, obrazovanje i inovacije.

Globalizacija je uticala da nivo pretnji od širenja zaraznih bolesti, bilo novih ili već poznatih, dobije jednu sasvim novu kvantitativnu odrednicu. Oblikujući ljudsku istoriju hiljadama godina, zarazne bolesti su se ranije širile sa kretanjem trgovaca, putnika, osvajača, migracijom stanovništva i putem prirodnih nosilaca. Brzina i obim njihovog potencijalnog širenja danas, u jeku virtuelnog brisanja državnih granica i mobilnosti bez presedana u istoriji čovečanstva, meri se hiljadama kilometara po času (Nikolić S, 2017).

Odlučivanje menadžmenta u uslovima pandemije je zasnovano na intuiciji, pre nego na logici, i na iskustvu, pre nego na analitici, jer je u situaciji visoke neizvesnosti stepen pouzdanosti podataka takav da je oslanjanje na analitičke alate beskorisno, često i kontraproduktivno (Keković Z, 2020). U uslovima pandemije pokazalo se da je potrebno otvorenog uma preispitati postojeće menadžment prakse. Pandemija je pokazala da vlasti, kompanije i civilno društvo ne mogu samostalno delovati da bi odgovorili na globalne izazove. Zato je potrebna saradnja javnog i privatnog sektora. Potrebno je omogućiti postojanje individualnih identiteta u globaliziranom svetu. Prema ocenama mnogih autora, novi početak posle pandemije nije revolucija ili neka nova ideologija, već stvaranje održivijeg sveta.

Današnji menadžeri se suočavaju sa svetom u kojem se društvo i tehnologija menjaju brže nego sposobnost većine njih da se prilagode novoj realnosti. Aktuelna pandemija koronavirusa je ubrzala potrebu za digitalnom transformacijom, koja se već smatra najznačajnijim katalizatorom u evoluciji biznisa. *Piter Draker*, najveći menadžment mislilac u

istoriji je rekao: „najveća opasnost u turbulentnim vremenima nije sama turbulencija nego delovanje po jučerašnjoj logici”. U cilju smanjenja rizika od nastanka negativnih efekata pandemije po vitalne vrednosti organizacije, te povećanja stepena stabilnosti organizacije, potrebno je da menadžment preduzme neophodne preventivne mere, koje se ogledaju u donošenju više važnih akata u oblasti kontinuiteta poslovanja kao što su analiza uticaja na poslovanje, plan kontinuiteta poslovanja, plan odgovora na incident i sl. (Tadić V, 2020).

Poslovanje se menja ubrzano zajedno sa digitalnim tehnologijama čije je korišćenje pandemija koronavirusa još više nametnula i koje transformišu svaki aspekt života, društva, ekonomije i poslovanja. Mnoge organizacije nisu tretirale digitalizaciju kao hitno pitanje, barem ne dok digitalizacija nije postala nužna kao rezultat pandemije. Danas ona ne samo da menja način poslovanja, već neprestano stvara nove mogućnosti za rast i razvoj. Ona omogućava organizacijama da ostanu relevantne na tržištu i usmere svoje strategije ka inovacijama, povećavajući svoju konkurentnost. Digitalizacija omogućava upotrebu tehnologije, ljudi i procesa za poslovanje. Međutim, ona podrazumeva i mnogo više od potpune integracije digitalnih tehnologija - transformisanje mentaliteta organizacija tako da upotreba digitalnih alata i veština doda vrednost i stvori konkurentnu prednost (*Jashar E, 2020*). Pandemija je, između ostalog, promenila viziju i orijentaciju menadžmenta. U normalnim okolnostima, njihov fokus je bio na povećanju prihoda i udela na tržištu, dok se u ovoj do sada neviđenoj situaciji, većina organizacija bori da kontrolišu troškove, zadrže svoju likvidnost i opstanu. Sa ili bez želje menadžera, digitalizacija je prerasla u nužnost kako bi omogućila da se organizacije, u zavisnosti od restriktivnih mera i okolnosti, prilagode promenama, kao što su: rad od kuće, stvaranje kanala za onlajn poslovanje, korišćenje tehnologije u svakodnevnom radu, prilagođavanje tražnji i očekivanjima tržišta, iznalaženje prikladnih kanala za komunikaciju i raspodelu i druge promene koje su proizašle iz potrebe za prilagođavanjem novonastaloj situaciji (*Jashar E, 2020*).

Novi uslovi poslovanja zahtevaju uspostavljanje interakcija sa velikim brojem *stakeholdera* kroz mrežno povezivanje, što je postalo moguće korišćenjem savremene digitalne tehnologije. Takvim odnosima treba upravljati, odnosno i u okviru takvih odnosa treba primeniti funkciju vođenja. Ovakav način vođenja *Kinicki* i *Williams* nazivaju e-vođenjem (*Cf. Kinicki A, Williams B. K, 2013*) i ono podrazumeva istovremeno upravljanje odnosima sa pojedincima i grupama u organizaciji i izvan nje. Podrazumeva i koordinaciju zadataka, autoriteta i odgovornosti u svrhu ostvarivanja određenih ciljeva, ali i razvijanje strateškog usmerenja i uspostavljanje novih odnosa koji mogu unaprediti proces stvaranja vrednosti. Na taj način, organizacija postaje mreža isprepletenih unutrašnjih i spoljnih odnosa, razvijenih u svrhu zadovoljavanja trenutnih potreba te traženja prilika budućeg razvoja. Ovaj tip vođenja stoga je prikladan za organizacije koje se razvijaju kao “organizacije bez granica” (*Rupčić N, 2018*). Njega prati globalni pogled na poslovanje i visok stepen razvoja konceptualnih veština, sistemskog i strateškog razmišljanja. S obzirom da efekti ovog tipa vođenja proizlaze iz mogućnosti pronalaska kvalitetne osnove za razvoj organizacije kao sistema, važno je raditi na razvijanju saradnje sa različitim subjektima, što podrazumeva neprestanu komunikaciju i razmenu informacija. Na taj način se razvija zajednica pojedinaca, same organizacije i drugih organizacija, kao svojevrsni sistem usmeren na upravljanje složenošću okruženja razvijanjem odgovarajućih načina ponašanja. Istovremeno se nastoji održati visok nivo energije sistema zasnovan na razvijanju posticajne vizije, izazovnih ciljeva i kreativnog načina rada.

Pojedini autori su razvili model, sa pet ključnih faza, koji opisuje neželjeno ponašanje menadžmenta za vreme krize, a koji je uočljiv kod značajnog broja menadžera u vreme pandemije i nazvali ga “procesom propadanja” (*Vojnović B, 2014*):

- Faza zaslepljenosti (menadžment ne primećuje znakove koji ukazuju na moguću krizu izazvanu pandemijom i zbog toga ne može da donese nikakve preventivne odluke);
- Faza pasivnosti (menadžment postaje svesan opasnosti krize, ali ništa ne preduzima jer veruje da će se problemi rešiti sami od sebe, potcenjujući uticaj pandemije i njene posledice);
- Faza pogrešnih odluka (menadžment donosi odluke prema preduzimanju određenih akcija, ali se one baziraju na sopstvenoj percepciji i na jednostranim informacijama);
- Faza krize (krizu u organizaciji i uticaj pandemije primećuje i okolina, a menadžment obično još uvek donosi pogrešne odluke);
- Faza propadanja (položaj organizacije i njenog menadžmenta više ne može da se spasi, jer je suviše kasno).

U pandemijskom okruženju, transparentnost je ključna, jer postoji vitalna potreba za pouzdanim informacijama, kako bi se povratilo poverenje u neizvesnim vremenima. U takvim okolnostima, pojavljuje se više oblasti za diskusiju, ali pet pitanja se postavlja kao prioritet (*EY Global Multidisciplinary professional services organization, 2020a*):

- *Kontinuitet u poslovanju i likvidnost*: Ključni faktor je novčani tok - da li organizacija ima dovoljno novca da preživi narednih 6 do 12 meseci. Menadžment treba da proceni sposobnost organizacije da nastavi poslovanje kontinuirano i da li je pretpostavka o kontinuitetu odgovarajuća (treba da razmotri postojeće i očekivane efekte pandemije koronavirusa na aktivnosti u svojoj proceni);
- *Procena umanjenja vrednosti*: Nepovoljni uticaj prouzrokovan merama za zaustavljanje širenja pandemije koronavirusa, poput privremenih zatvaranja proizvodnih pogona i ograničenja putovanja i uvoza/izvoza, može se smatrati pokazateljem umanjenja. Prilikom procene umanjenja vrednosti, organizacije utvrđuju nadoknadive iznose sredstava (zahteva procenu očekivanih budućih novčanih tokova i očekivanja o varijacijama u novčanim tokovima);
- *Izmene ugovora*: Postoji mogućnost da će organizacije trebati da pribave dodatno finansiranje, izmene uslove postojećih ugovora, ako više ne zadovoljavaju ugovore o dugu moraće da zatraže dodatno finansiranje, izmene uslove ugovora o dugu ili potpuno odustanu u slučaju da više ne ispunjavaju uslove ugovora;
- *Merenje fer vrednosti*: Prilikom davanja procena za merenje fer vrednosti, menadžment treba da uzme u obzir ozbiljnost pandemije, uslove i odgovarajuće pretpostavke koje su poznate, ili su bile poznate na tržištu;
- *Pomoć države i porez na dohodak*: Deo odgovora vlada na pandemiju koronavirusa je uvođenje mera podrške za pojedine industrije, zajedno sa širim paketima ekonomskih stimulacija. Ove mere uključuju direktne subvencije, oslobađanje od poreza i javnih nameta ili njegovo smanjenje, produženi rok otplate kredita ili njihovo smanjenje, umanjenje zakupa i sl. Karakteristike bilo kakvih navedenih olakšica moraju se proceniti.

Kreiranje posebnog „plana za održanje kontinuiteta poslovanja“ u uslovima pandemije koronavirusa omogućava menadžmentu da proceni nivo rizika i ranjivosti organizacije i razvije delotvorni sistem rizika i rezervnih planova. Svrha ovog instrumenta je da uspostavi profil rizika za organizaciju i utvrdi nivo ranjivosti na pandemiju sa aspekta njenog uticaja na ljude (životi radnika i članova njihovih porodica), procese (poslovanje preduzeća), profit (stvaranje prihoda) i partnerstva (sredina povoljna za poslovanje) (*International Labour Organization, 2020a*).

2. Upravljanje ljudskim potencijalima u uslovima pandemije

Ljudi su jedan od najvažnijih resursa, a po mnogim autorima i najvažniji resurs, svake organizacije. Kao i u mnogim drugim oblastima, pandemija koronavirusa je ubrzala neke od trendova i primorala organizacije da se prilagode i u upravljanju ljudskim potencijalima. Međutim, ona je takođe otvorila i nove mogućnosti da organizacije kreiraju nove strategije za privlačenje i zadržavanje zaposlenih u periodu nakon pandemije i na taj način se diferenciraju od konkurencije.

U uslovima povećane neizvesnosti izazvane pandemijom još više se multiplikuju hronični upravljački problemi, poput nerazumevanja promena i prilagođavanja u nesigurnom i turbulentnom okruženju, kompetentnost u odlučivanju, nedostatak komunikacije, pitanja motivacije i sl. Tako se pokazalo da su mnogi menadžeri i dalje fokusirani na planove umesto na informacije sa terena; na rigidne birokratske procedure i protokole, umesto na ljude koji treba da ih primenjuju, na pretnje i resurse koje nemaju, umesto na skrivene prilike i mogućnosti koje imaju. Svi oni su zaboravili da planove, procedure i odluke primenjuju ljudi i da njihova podrška u situacijama visokog rizika ima presudnu ulogu.

Prvi korak koji menadžment treba da preduzme u cilju osiguranja kontinuiteta poslovanja u uslovima pandemije je analiza uticaja poremećaja na poslovanje kojom se identifikuju kritični procesi organizacije i njihov uticaj na poslovanje. Drugi korak je definisanje kritičnih resursa (ljudi, opreme, instalacija informaciono-komunikacione tehnologije i dr.) i alternativnih resursa za svaki od njih. Konačno, u narednom koraku potrebno je identifikovati krizne scenarije i definisati odgovore na njih. Tako npr. jedan krizni scenario može da znači nedostatak ključnih zaposlenih za obavljanje kritičnih funkcija, kao posledica bolesti ili mera izolacije koje su obuhvatale, između ostalog, nedolazak na posao i rad od kuće, restrikcije u putovanjima što bi se moglo odraziti na tekuće poslove, i sl. Drugi krizni scenario može da znači nedostupnost lokacije i primarnih objekata za rad. Odgovor na takav scenario mogao bi da bude planiranje rezervnih lokacija i prebacivanje zaposlenih na tu lokaciju. U sledećem scenariju može biti reči o nedostatku sistema, instalacija i aplikacija neophodnih za obavljanje kritičnih poslovnih procesa. Ukoliko su u pitanju informacione tehnologije, neophodno je da se planira budžet za alternativne informacione resurse. Jedan od čestih kriznih scenarija je nedostatak primarnih usluga, poput napajanja električnom energijom, a odgovor na ovakav scenario zahtevao bi pravovremeno obezbeđenje uređaja za besprekidno napajanje, alternativnih konekcija sa distributerima, kritičnih provajdera itd. Faza oporavka nakon završetka pandemije treba da obuhvati suočavanje sa posledicama krize i povratak u „normalno” stanje ili prilagođavanje novim okolnostima nakon krize. Ova faza može generisati nove rizike, pa čak i razbuktati novu krizu. Oporavak može predstavljati priliku za obnavljanje, restrukturiranje ili preuređivanje organizacije. Pored fizičke obnove, zamene infrastrukture i ulaganja u alternativne resurse na osnovu procenjenih scenarija oporavka, organizacija treba da nastoji da unapredi svoje performanse, kako bi spremnije dočekala nove ili slične izazove.

2.1. Fleksibilni oblici radnog angažovanja i rad od kuće u uslovima pandemije

Na početku suočavanja sa pandemijom koronavirusa odgovori većine organizacija bili su usmereni na zaštitu zdravlja ljudi, pa se donošenje odluka o fleksibilnijim oblicima radnog angažovanja i rada od kuće mogu oceniti kao korisne alternative. Mnoge organizacije po prvi put su primenile i oslonile se na rad od kuće. Neke u tome uspevaju, dok se druge teško prilagođavaju. Neke isprobavaju rad od kuće kao privremeni, druge kao alternativni

aranžman. Oni kojima priroda posla dozvoljava da rade od kuće to čine već skoro celu godinu, čime je ostvarena želja mnogih organizacija da zaposleni rade od kuće, a ne iz kancelarija, što sa jedne strane smanjuje troškove, a sa druge strane često produžava radno vreme, jer je raširena praksa da zaposleni koji rade od kuće budu raspoloživi svojim nadređenima tokom znatno dužeg vremena od uobičajenih 40 sati nedeljno (Bjelajac Ž, Filipović A, 2020).

Prema podacima Međunarodne organizacije rada, oko 68% ukupne svetske radne snage, uključujući 81% poslodavaca, u prvim fazama pandemije koronavirusa je živelo u zemljama sa preporučenim ili naloženim zatvaranjem radnih mesta (*International Labour Organization*, 2020b). Takođe, ova organizacija procenjuje da blizu 18% radnika ima zanimanja koja su pogodna za rad od kuće i žive u zemljama sa infrastrukturom koja omogućava rad od kuće. U takvom novom okruženju poslodavci su iznalazili nove mogućnosti da se prilagode i definišu planove za krizne situacije kako bi reagovali na nove mere kada se one pojave. Sa druge strane, prema studiji globalnih trendova talenata 2020. (*2020 Global Talent Trends Study*), samo 22% organizacija bilo je spremno za masovni rad na daljinu pre izbivanja pandemije (*Miaw Tiang Tang*, 2020).

Šta se zapravo podrazumeva pod pojmom rad od kuće? Najčešća definicija njega objašnjava kao radni aranžman u kojem zaposleni ispunjava osnovne obaveze svog posla, ostajući kod kuće, koristeći informaciono-komunikacione tehnologije. On zahteva zajedničku odgovornost i posvećenost i menadžmenta i zaposlenih, kako bi se osigurao kontinuitet poslovanja i održavanje zaposlenosti. Postoje neke razlike između pojmova „rad putem interneta“ i „rad od kuće“, uglavnom zato što je rad putem interneta širi pojam i ne mora uvek biti zamena za putovanje do posla i nazad, ali su te razlike relativno male. Važno je naglasiti i da iako je napredak informaciono-komunikacionih tehnologija omogućio rad od kuće, ne mogu se sve funkcije i zadaci obavljati izvan prostorija poslodavca, odnosno radnog mesta. Postoje organizacije, zanimanja i zadaci u kojima rad od kuće nije praktičan ili izvodljiv, ili se ne može primeniti u kratkom vremenskom okviru. Zbog toga je u uslovima pandemije potrebno istražiti i primeniti alternativni plan za radne funkcije i zadatke koji se ne mogu izvoditi na daljinu, ili za radnike koji imaju ograničenja kod kuće ili zdravstvene probleme i problem vezano za sigurnost koji onemogućavaju rad od kuće.

U nedostatku kontakta licem u lice, tradicionalni stil upravljanja „komanda i kontrola“ postaje manje relevantan i menadžeri mogu imati poteškoća da pronađu druge načine kako da osiguraju da zaposleni odrađuju svoj posao tokom rada od kuće. Ako zaposleni nemaju osećaj pripadnosti za vreme rada od kuće, oni mogu razviti nepoverenje prema menadžmentu. To može dovesti do gubitka kontrole od strane menadžera, a određeni zaposleni mogu i zloupotrebiti aranžman za rad od kuće. Stoga su samodisciplina zaposlenih i međusobno poverenje između menadžmenta i zaposlenih od suštinskog značaja u ovom radnom aranžmanu. Nadalje, delotvorno upravljanje radom od kuće zahteva pristup upravljanju koji je zasnovan na rezultatima. To podrazumijeva identifikaciju ciljeva, zadataka i dostignuća, a zatim praćenje i razgovor o napretku bez preterano složenih zahteva za izveštavanjem. Zaposleni koji rade od kuće treba da imaju ista prava i obaveze kao i kada posao obavljaju u prostorijama organizacije, pri čemu treba uzeti u obzir mere za održavanje kontakata i praćenje dobrobiti, bezbedne uslove za rad od kuće i ugovoreno radno vreme (Uprava za bezbednost i zdravlje na radu, 2021).

Organizacije koje su primenile koncept rada od kuće kao odgovor na pandemijske izazove, uglavnom iskazuju zabrinutost za produktivnost iz dva ugla. Neke se pitaju “da li takvi zaposleni uopšte rade?”, dok su druge više zabrinuti “rade li efikasno?” Ipak, merenje produktivnosti onih koji rade od kuće ne bi trebalo da bude ništa teže ili drugačije nego merenje fizički prisutnih zaposlenih. Dobro vođeni zaposleni koji rade od kuće mogu biti daleko produktivniji od zaposlenih koji su prisutni na radnom mestu, jer se od menadžmenta traži da meri produktivnost objektivnim merilima, a ne fizičkim prisustvom kroz “vreme provedeno u zgradi”. Pet je elemenata koje treba razmotriti prilikom merenja produktivnosti zaposlenih koji rade od kuće (*Miaw Tiang Tang, 2020*):

- Postaviti i komunicirati jasne ciljeve i rokove na isti način kao i sa zaposlenima koji su fizički prisutni na radnom mestu;
- Formirati planove za povećanje odgovornosti;
- Analizirati važne zadatke i pratiti napredak na osnovu definisanih vremenskih rokova;
- Oceniti kvalitet i kvantitet umesto vremena provedenog na radu prebaciti pokazatelje na “izvršene zadatke i njihov kvalitet”, a ne na “utrošene sate”;
- Pratiti dostignuća.

“Lepak” koji zajedno drži aranžmane za rad od kuće je poverenje. Menadžeri, zaposleni i njihove kolege treba da veruju jedni drugima. Rad od kuće ne može biti efikasan bez toga. Menadžeri bi trebalo da grade međusobno poverenje i uspostave zajedničku odgovornost sa zaposlenima kroz otvorenu i transparentnu komunikaciju o očekivanjima i rezultatima, uključujući (*Working from home during the coronavirus pandemic, 2020*):

- Kada će zaposleni biti na raspolaganju i biti u prilici da odgovore na potrebe menadžmenta;
- Kako će održavati kontakte, poput online i telefonskog kontakta;
- Kako će upravljati ravnotežom između poslovnog i privatnog života, na primer, kroz redovne pauze i isključenje sa posla na kraju dana;
- Kako će se upravljati merenjem učinka i izveštavanjem, uzimajući u obzir okolnosti samog zaposlenog, ako je to potrebno;
- Kome zaposleni da se obrate ako imaju bilo kakvih pitanja vezano za posao ili hitnu situaciju.

Mnogi autori ukazuju da postoji višestruka korist povezana sa radom od kuće, uključujući: smanjenje vremena putovanja na posao; veću autonomiju i fleksibilnost u organizaciji rada; bolji balans između radnog i privatnog života; povećanu motivaciju i smanjenje fluktuacije zaposlenih (jedni napuštaju organizaciju, a novi dolaze); povećana produktivnost i efikasnost. Međutim, u okolnostima pandemije koronavirusa mnogi menadžeri i zaposleni su pokazali fizičku, mentalnu ili infrastrukturnu nespremnost da odgovore na sve izazove koje donosi rad od kuće. Prema istraživanju koje je sproveo Društvo za upravljanje ljudskim resursima, 71% poslodavaca ima poteškoća da se prilagodi radu na daljinu; 65% poslodavaca kaže da je održavanje morala kod zaposlenih predstavljalo izazov; i više od trećine poslodavaca suočava se sa poteškoćama u vezi sa kulturom organizacije, produktivnošću zaposlenih i propisima vezano za odsustvo sa posla (*Better workplaces better world, 2020*).

Proces digitalizacije je omogućio i olakšao aranžmane za rad od kuće, ali tehnologija ne može prevazići svako ograničenje usled brzih promena trenutne situacije. Postoji niz softverskih alata koji olakšavaju komunikaciju, saradnju i transparentnost. Mnogi su besplatni ili podrazumevaju mali trošak. Međutim oni znače i veći rizik od sajber napada i povrede tajnosti/poverljivosti podataka. Sigurni procesi rada od kuće su neophodni, pogotovo ako

radnici koriste svoje privatne uređaje za obavljanje službenih dužnosti i povezivanje sa mrežom organizacije. Zbog toga, sve više organizacija intenzivno razvijaju politiku zaštite podataka, poverljivosti i bezbednosti u tu svrhu. Treba naglasiti i da fizičko distanciranje u uslovima pandemije koronavirusa ne zahteva i obaveznu društvenu izolaciju. Iako je važno da zaposleni pronađu nove načine rada i interakcije, menadžeri moraju prepoznati uticaj izolacije i usamljenosti te moraju biti spremni da pruže podršku i budu empatični, a zaposlene držati informisanim, povezanim i mentalno zdravima. U tom smislu, mnoge organizacije definišu smernice o radu od kuće, u kojima obrađuju i pitanje fizičkog i mentalnog zdravlja i dobrobiti zaposlenih.

Iako aranžmani za rad od kuće imaju veliki potencijal, stvarnost je često složenija, pogotovo kada se ovi aranžmani uvode kako bi se zaustavila pandemija, a ne kao nešto što je neophodno zato što su zaposleni to dobrovoljno izabrali. Održavanje ravnoteže između poslovnog i privatnog života može predstavljati poseban izazov za one koji imaju obavezu da se staraju o porodici, zbog zatvaranja ustanova za brigu o deci i škola, a u nedostatku alternativnih sistema nege. Rad od kuće često dovodi i do zamagljivanja granica između poslovnog i privatnog života, povećanja radnog vremena i intenziviranja posla. Tako istraživanje među zaposlenima na daljinu u Japanu pokazuje da je pitanje nemogućnosti jasnog razdvajanja radnog vremena i slobodnog vremena najviše rangirani nedostatak rada na daljinu. Zbog navednog menadžeri bi trebalo da:

- Postave jasna očekivanja od radnog vremena i podstaknu i osnaže zaposlene da postave granice u svom radnom rasporedu;
- Promovišu zdrav način života i ravnotežu između poslovnog i privatnog života, uključujući redovne pauze i odmor, vežbanje i svež vazduh;
- Pruže podršku za mentalnu dobrobit zaposlenih koji su suočeni sa sukobom između poslovnog i privatnog života.

Iako se neki poslovi ne mogu obavljati od kuće, pandemija ubrzava trend uvođenja rada na daljinu, moguće i na duži rok. Poslodavci i zaposleni će se verovatno prilagoditi radu od kuće i navići se na takav aranžman, naučiti da koriste informaciono komunikacione tehnologije za rad od kuće i razumeti prednosti rada od kuće. Imajući u vidu stečeno iskustvo, postavlja se pitanje da li je zaista neophodno koristiti poslovne prostorije u pojedinim oblastima poslovanja kada se i rad od kuće pokazao podjednako efikasnim (Popović G, 2020).

3. Inovativne organizacione strukture i menadžment prakse u uslovima pandemije

U uslovima pandemije koronavirusa, koji obiluju nepoznanicama i trendovima opadanja gotovo svih ekonomskih indikatora, menadžeri imaju značajnu i dodatnu odgovornost da razmotre sve relevantne aspekte i ponašaju se shodno njima stvarajući mogućnosti za ublažavanje posledica pandemije i njeno prevazilaženje (Stojadinović-Jovanović S, Krstić B, Marković M, 2020). Dobro korporativno upravljanje organizacijama omogućava da efikasno planiraju odgovore na pandemiju, da dodele jasno definisane uloge i odgovornosti, kao i da uspostave efikasnu strategiju komunikacije. Ove radnje organizacijama pomažu da se brzo oporave i svedu na minimum štetu po svoje poslovanje. Menadžment informacijama treba u prvom redu da omogući procenu informacija sa aspekta kvaliteta i relevantnosti za krizno odlučivanje u uslovima pandemije, a kako bi se sprečilo da se odluke donose na osnovu dvosmislenih i neproverenih informacija.

Iskustvo sa pandemijom koronavirusa u prethodnih godinu dana uči nas da su nam umesto revolucionarnih promena, potrebne postepene promene sa revolucionarnim posledicama.

Istraživanja konsultantske kuće *McKinsey & Company* vezana za važnost novih pristupa menadžmentu u doba pandemije imala su za cilj da prikažu u kojim oblastima unapređenja ljudskih resursa organizacije planiraju da ulože najviše, i na koji način da to isplaniraju. Ovo istraživanje je obuhvatilo pet osnovnih aktivnosti ljudskih resursa: regrutovanje novih talenata, učenje i razvoj zaposlenih, nagrađivanje zaposlenih, iskustvo klijenata i korisnika, i planiranje i izmene rada zaposlenih (Stojkov, 2020). Istraživanje je pokazalo da će u narednih godinu dana regrutovanje novih talenata imati najniži prioritet, dok će se najviše ulagati u planiranje i izmene u radu zaposlenih. Imajući u vidu izazove i ograničenja koje je pandemija koronavirusa donela, organizacije su prinuđene da pronalaze nove načine da se povežu sa talentovanim ljudima, a ovaj trend bi mogao da ostane aktuelan i nakon pandemije. Za očekivati je da se trend smanjenja zapošljavanja na neodređeno vreme nastavi i u narednom periodu, te da se zapošljavanje sa fleksibilnim ugovorima sve češće primenjuje. Što se tiče učenja i razvoja zaposlenih, navedeno istraživanje je pokazalo da organizacije planiraju da ulože u obuke zaposlenih kako bi se oni što bolje prilagodili novim uslovima rada. Neke od bitnih veština tokom, i nakon pandemije, su menadžment u doba krize i virtualni rad timova, kao i specifične veštine potrebne da bi se određeni posao uspešno obavljao i onlajn. Pohvale i nagrađivanje zaposlenih je uvek važno, ali je još važnije u situaciji kakva je sada, kada se često radi od kuće. Zbog toga, važno je da je *feedback* konstantan i jasan, kako bi zaposleni znali da li su na pravom putu ka cilju, ali i da bi bili dodatno motivisani.

Veoma je važno da organizacije identifikuju najbitnije pozicije i veštine za uspeh tokom, a i nakon pandemije koronavirusa, i da na osnovu toga planiraju na koji način mogu da ih dopune. Sledi prikaz određenih tema za razmišljanje koje menadžerima mogu biti korisne u suočavanju sa pandemijskim izazovima (*International Finance Corporation*, 2020):

- *Posvećenost upravljačkim, socijalnim i ekološkim pitanjima*: Demonstrirati liderstvo kroz jasnu i pravovremenu komunikaciju sa zaposlenima i ključnim *stakeholderima*. Potrebno je u realnom vremenu omogućiti komunikaciju o problemima sa (naj)višim nivoima menadžmenta. Zdravlje i sigurnost zaposlenih od ključne su važnosti, te je potrebno jasno preneti poruku o posvećenosti poštovanju smernica u pogledu javnog zdravlja vezanih za sprečavanje širenja pandemije.
- *Nadgledanje upravljanja krizom*: Održavati vanredne *ad hoc* sastanke menadžment tima. Iskoristiti te sastanke da bi se definisao “ton sa vrha” u vezi sa krizom i demonstriralo snažno liderstvo i nadzor. Razmotriti formiranje kriznog tima koji bi imao zadatak da prati efekte pandemije i u tim uključiti najviši menadžment, ljudske resurse, operativu, sektor informacione tehnologije. Razmotriti i podizanje stručnih kapaciteta ovog tima, kroz osiguranje spoljne podrške.
- *Osiguranje spremnosti menadžmenta da pruži sveobuhvatan odgovor na krizu*: Planirati u rezervi raspoložive ljude za ključne pozicije u organizaciji. Utvrditi koje su ključne osobe tokom pandemije i koje ključne veštine u slučaju krizne situacije mogu biti potrebne, i eventualno formirati timove koji rade sa različitih lokacija.
- *Stvaranje kontrolnog okruženja (interna kontrola/revizija, upravljanje rizicima i kontrola usklađenosti poslovanja)*: Potrebno je ažurirati plan kontinuiteta poslovanja, uvažavajući aktuelne pandemijske izazove i angažovati funkciju kontrole usklađenosti poslovanja da prati poštovanje politika i procedura predviđenih planom. Razmotriti funkcionisanje ključnih kontrolnih funkcija (adekvatnost politika i procedura, IT kontrole vezane za rad od kuće, sigurnost na radnom mestu, sigurnost informacionih tehnologija i dostupnost interneta itd.). Proceniti i pratiti faktore ublažavanja neposrednih rizika i dugoročnih implikacija pandemije.

- *Obelodanjivanje i transparentnost*: Graditi poverenje kroz komunikaciju i održavati kontakte u odsustvu fizičkih sastanaka. Objaviti informacije o merama i postupcima vezanim za pandemiju na *web site* organizacije u slučaju postojanja diverzifikovane strukture *stakeholdera*. Pokrenuti i kampanju interne komunikacije, kojom se traži od zaposlenih da ostanu kod kuće ukoliko su bolesni ili da ne dolaze na posao do isteka određenog perioda.

Organizaciona praksa upravljanja u uslovima pandemije iskristalisala je dva tipa liderstva. Jedan je pristup povezan sa menadžmentom na daljinu. U pitanju je tradicionalni, instruktivni pristup - može se ilustrovati rečima: „To bi trebalo da uradite!” ili jezikom ratničke retorike: „Napred junaci!” Moderan pristup je responzivan, a liderstvo podržava operativne timove na terenu - može se ilustrovati rečima: „Za mnim junaci!” Razlika između tradicionalnog i modernog pristupa liderstvu ima ne samo moralne, već i praktične konsekvence. Što je donosilac odluke udaljeniji od mesta događaja, teže će razumeti prirodu problema, a rešenje neće odražavati njegovu prirodu i kompleksnost. Takođe, od momenta donošenja odluke do uspostavljanja mehanizama za njeno sprovođenje, situacija se može drastično promeniti. Kao što su bitne individualne veštine i sposobnosti lidera, organizaciona kultura ima najveći uticaj na sposobnost organizacije i pojedinca da prepoznaju potencijalnu krizu izazvanu pandemijom, da odgovor bude adekvatan i pravovremen, kao i da koncept organizacione otpornosti bude sastavni deo oporavka posle pandemije (Keković Z, 2020). Dakle, ono što bi moglo da bude normalan životni ciklus za jednu organizaciju može postati trauma za drugu. To uveliko zavisi od toga koliko slojeva zaštite ili štitova ima organizacija. Ti štitovi ili načini zaštite su: organizaciona kultura, dobro postavljena struktura, i adekvatni upravljački procesi (Horvat Z, 2020).

4. Zaključak

Nema sumnje da je pandemija koronavirusa ubrzala proces digitalne transformacije organizacija i primenu fleksibilnijih formi radnog angažovanja zaposlenih. Ona je imala je uticaj da menadžment digitalizaciju tretira ne samo kao dodatnu mogućnost, već kao realno rešenje za opstanak organizacije. Sagledavši digitalizaciju kao način da opstanu u poslu, ona se ne tretira kao proces kupovine novog tehnološkog uređaja, već kao proces transformacije i dobra prilika za smanjenje operativnih troškova i pripremu organizacija da budu konkurentnije na domaćem i stranom tržištu. Jedna od najvećih promena koje je pandemija donela je svakodnevno iskustvo zaposlenih rada u organizaciji. Za virtuelne zaposlene, socijalni aspekt više skoro da ne postoji, on se zamenjuje telefonskim, video pozivima i video konferencijama. Kao rezultat toga, bitno je da se uspostave nove norme i pravila, koje će odgovarati individualnim potrebama svake organizacije. Sve je očiglednije da rad od kuće postaje uobičajeni način obavljanja poslova za veliki broj zaposlenih, kako zbog razvoja informacionih tehnologija koje to omogućavaju, tako i zbog aktuelne epidemiološke situacije. On je postao jedan od sve češće primenjivanih načina rada, ali samo tamo gde je to moguće organizovati, uzimajući u obzir da se ne mogu svi poslovi i zadaci obavljati van prostorija organizacije, odnosno konkretnog radnog mesta.

Tokom pandemije pokazali su se brojni izazovi dobrog menadžmenta i liderstva na svim nivoima donošenja odluka, nedostatak obrazaca i kulture komunikacije, neuključivanje svih zainteresovanih strana od značaja za prepoznavanje problema i efikasnost sistema od početka razvoja krize itd. S obzirom na kompleksnost savremenog poslovnog okruženja potrebno je stalno razvijati i integrisati različite dimenzije menadžerskih aktivnosti prema holističkom razumevanju menadžmenta, kao sistema aktivnosti i procesa koji sinergijski integriše različite

aspekte ljudskog delovanja koji imaju ekonomsku, tehničko-tehnološku, sociološku i psihološku dimenziju. Stoga je zadatak teoretičara i praktičara da individualno, ali i u interakciji neprestano istražuju i preispituju utemeljenost i opravdanost određenih menadžerskih rešenja u odnosu na specifične uslove određenoga prostora i vremena. Svaku savremenu menadžersku odrednicu i praksu u uslovima pandemije važno je neprestano preispitivati i postavljati pitanje: Može li drugačije?

Pandemija koronavirusa se pokazala istovremeno i kao izazov i kao test za novu generaciju menadžera u globalnom društvu. Organizacije moraju uključiti opcije za pandemijsko planiranje u postojeće aktivnosti upravljanja i održavanja agilnosti kako bi pružili sveobuhvatan odgovor i obezbedili kontinuitet za svoje ključne aktivnosti. Tokom ovog izazovnog vremena, od presudnog je značaja da menadžeri igraju aktivnu ulogu u davanju konstruktivnih inputa sa preporukama definisanih kroz programske politike na svim nivoima upravljanja. Nedostatak pravih i previše lažnih informacija, u kombinaciji sa nesnalaženjem menadžera u takvim okolnostima mogu stvoriti ogromnu konfuziju koja utiče na rezultate poslovanja, više nego sama pandemija koronavirusa.

Konačno, i pored toga što je svakodnevica izmenjena u višeznačnom smislu, logično je pretpostaviti da je ovo tek početak, i da izmenjena svakodnevica prerasta u izmenjenu realnost. Činjenica da se susrećemo sa izazovom koji je teško uporediv sa bilo kojim presedanom iz prošlosti, može da opravda određeni stepen nesnalaženja u pandemiji, ali ostaje upitno zbog čega mnogi naši menadžeri, u doba svakovrsnih informacionih i drugih dostignuća teško prihvataju izmenjenu realnost i način života. Ukoliko se nova realnost ne uvaži, to će doneti nove izazove, rizike i pretnje, od kojih se neke verovatno još uvek ne mogu predvideti, posebno zbog toga što se radi o događaju (pandemiji) koji još uvek nije okončan.

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PRAVNA DEFINICIJA I OPOREZIVANJE INTERNET PLATFORME U KORPORACIJAMA

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Apstrakt

Autori u radu analiziraju razvoj i upotrebu pojedinih elemenata funkcionisanja informaciono komunikacionih tehnologija (IKT), primenu pravne regulative iz oblasti oporezivanja i definisanje novih pojmova. Internet mreža omogućila je istraživanja i primenu različitih programa u skoro svim oblastima. Novi izrazi i pojedine nejasne definicije doveli su do dilema u vezi primene poreskih pravila kod oporezivanja internet platforme, naknade za korišćenje servera kao i oporezivanja naknade po osnovu međunarodnih ugovora o izbegavanju dvostrukog oporezivanja. Osim različitih definicija i nejasnoća pravnog oblika, oko posedovanja pravnog subjektiviteta, trebalo bi konciznije definisati internet proizvode i odnose, svrstati ih pod ingerencije najviše dva zakonska oblika, čime bi se postigla efikasnost oporezivanja i ostavio prostor za razvoj novih tehnologija, koje kada se razviju i dožive masovnu primenu treba podvesti pod predviđene zakonske okvire. Široka lepeza zakonskih oblika i komplikovani načini obračuna, ostavljaju prostora za zloupotrebe ili različita tumačenja i dileme da li određeni proizvodi i usluge podležu oporezivanju u skladu sa usvojenim zakonskim odredbama. Novi oblici rada zahtevaju nove definicije i jasne odrednice u vezi plaćanja poreza, doprinosa i drugih obaveza.

Ključne reči: *internet platforma, informaciono komunikacione tehnologije, naknade, naknada za korišćenje servera, promet softvera.*

1. Sistemski i aplikativni softver

Softver (engl. software) je deo računarskog sistema koji sadrži sve računarske programe, strukture i baze podataka. Definiše se kao sistemski ili aplikativni softver za izvršenje različitih zadataka. Softver i hardver ne mogu da posluju jedan bez drugog, uzajamno su povezani, odnosno softver upravlja hardverom i može se podeliti na sistemski i aplikativni. Sistemski softver je pokretač računarskih funkcija i pod njim se podrazumevaju server, operativni sistem, drajveri, i ostali informatički alati. Operativne sisteme čine, kao kod nas najviše upotrebljavani Windows kao i Linuks, Unix, Macintosh OS X i drugi. Aplikativni softver srećemo kao Office paket (Word, Excel, Power Point i druge aplikacije), odnosno baze podataka, poslovne informacione sisteme, sa primenom u oblasti računovodstva, programi za projektovanje, grafički dizajn i drugi.

1.1 Internet Platforma kao operativni sistem

Internet Platforma u sistemu računara predstavlja osnovu hardver na kome radi operativni sistem, odnosno platforma je operativni sistem pod kojim rade softverske aplikacije. DOS i Windows su platforme za koju se prave aplikacioni programi kao i Intelovi ili AMD procesori koji čine platformu na kojoj se grade operativni sistemi.

Najveće platforme za internet oglašavanje nalazimo u digitalnim oglasima, sponzorisanim postovima i video-oglasima kod kojih se može zaustaviti prijem ili prihvatiti gledanje promotivnih oglasa u sklopu neke aplikacije nakon čega vam se nudi neka besplatna usluga.

Povećana upotreba platforme za internet oglašavanje i razvijena upotreba sponzorisanih oglasa predstavljaju cilj da se poveća prepoznatljivost brenda ili poslovnog sistema, odnosno da se ostvare direktni uticaji na prodaju proizvoda i usluga. Oba cilja podrazumevaju upotrebu digitalnih oglasa kako bi se povećao broj poseta prema web-stranici kompanije ili brenda.

Razvoj računarskih tehnologija je omogućio brže i lakše povezivanje ljudi, informisanje i deljenje poslova i ideja u mnogim oblastima, što je zainteresovalo mnoge učesnike i sa pravnog i sa ekonomskog aspekta. Internet aplikacije putem kojih se zaključuju ugovori o prevozu sa ekonomskim pristupom uspešno je primenjen u uber-u na međunarodnom nivou i sačinjenim CarGo ugovorima u Srbiji.

Brz razvoj digitalnih tehnologija usledio je i pojavu novih oblika fleksibilnog zapošljavanja uz podršku informaciono i komunikacionih tehnologija.

Online platforma Uber osnovana za pružanje usluga gradskog prevoza putnika izazvala je brojne kontradiktornosti u sferi radnog prava, odnosno novi oblici rada nastali pod uticajem procesa digitalizacije tržišta rada zasnivaju se na modelu grupnog zapošljavanja.

Postavlja se pitanje klasifikacije vozača Ubera, da li su oni radnici ili samozaposlena lica, da li u ugovornom odnosu između Ubera i njegovih vozača postoje bitni elementi radnog odnosa.

Ukazuje se na potrebu utvrđivanja jasnog i transparentnog (radno)pravnog okvira, pogodnog za razvoj novih oblika rada nastalih pod utjecajem digitalnih tehnologija. Primeri uključuju usluge prevoza (pružaju se preko platforme Uber), usluge u domaćinstvu poput čišćenja ili popravaka (primer platforma Helpling) ili računovodstvene usluge te usluge korisničke podrške (primer platforma UpWork). Uberovi vozači sami plaćaju sve troškove vezane uz pružanje usluge prevoza, što uključuje troškove benzina, osiguranja, održavanja vozila, plaćanje poreza i preuzimanje odgovornosti za nastalu štetu.

Nedorečenosti postoje, odnosno sporna je pravna kvalifikacija ovakvog vida prevoza i dilema da li je to javni ili privatni prevoz, kao i kakva je uloga Internet aplikacija u zaključenju i ispunjenju poslova. Treba utvrditi da li se radi se o klasičnom posredovanju ili o javnom prevozu. Treba obratiti pažnju na uticaj tehničko-tehnološkog napretka, razvoj ekonomije i saobraćajnih odnosa, odnosno na pravne probleme koji usled toga nastaju, a koje izaziva, pre svega, sličnost sa klasičnim taksi prevozom. Nakon prikaza pravnog režima taksi prevoza, objašnjava se način rada Uber-a i CarGo-a, kao i njihova pravna priroda.

Analizira se nejasnoća pravnog oblika ovih internet aplikacija, s obzirom da je, posebno u Srbiji, sporno da li imaju pravni subjektivitet, odnosno da li su privredno društvo ili udruženje nedobitna organizacija. Možemo izvesti zaključak, da je pomenuta vrsta prevoza samo tehnički unapređeniji klasični tip javnog prevoza bez redovne linije čiju uslugu pruža subjekt koji predstavlja kompaniju.

Kontrolom bi trebalo utvrditi kako je CarGo udruženje registrovano, da li je uskladilo svoje poslovanje sa odredbama Zakona o prevozu putnika u drumskom saobraćaju u Srbiji, koja mu je pretežna šifra delatnosti, da li je prihod koji ostvaruju oporeziv i drugo.

Tvrđenje da je taksi javni prevoz dostupan svim građanima, dok je CarGo privatna usluga dostupna isključivo članovima udruženja CarGo. Postoji razlika u načinu naplate usluga, u

taksi prevozu građani plaćaju uslugu vozaču na osnovu taksimetra, dok se u CarGo naplaćuje naknada za korišćenje softvera na osnovu aplikacije.

Po pravnoj formi udruženja građana, u skladu sa odredbama Zakona o udruženjima, su neprofitne organizacije i kao takve ne podležu poreskim obavezama. Finansiraju se od članarina, donacija, dotacija sa ciljem ostvarenja zajedničkih ciljeva organizacije. Udruženje stiče status pravnog lica danom upisa u registar.

1.2 Platforme za internet oglašavanje

Definisanje platforme za internet oglašavanje objasnićemo na tri velike i poznate platforme. Oglašavanje u Srbiji finansijski je povoljnije nego u drugim zemljama delom iz razloga korišćenja opcija koje nudi Facebook. Vremenom sve veći broj preduzeća oglašava svoje poslovanje, nudi usluge svih vrsta i nivoa koristeći povoljne uslove Facebook platforme. Nekada su se nabavka i prodaja sretale sa razvojem i prodajom novih proizvoda, sa granama privrede kojoj taj proizvod pripada i dr. Danas se koristi sasvim nova terminologija oglašavanja na internet platformama sa zadatkom da se ciljna grupa animira, obavesti i zainteresuje za određenu internet stranicu.

Privatan posao zahteva poznavanje internet oglašavanja i od kvaliteta postavljene stranice zavisice i broj komentara, šerova(deljenja), lajkova i povećanje ili smanjenje vezanosti korisnika za stranicu.

Jedan od vidova oglašavanja je sponzorisan post namenjen ciljnoj grupi uz budžetsku podršku izdvojenu za reklamu, njenu uspešnost kao i uticaj drugih faktora. Uspešnost zavisi od visine uloženi finansijskih sredstava, dužine oglašavanja kao i iznosa namenjenog svakom kliku (bid-u) korisnika. Facebook ima svoje interese i ciljeve oglašavanja i prati svakog oglašivača posebno od istorije oglašavanja, vezanosti korisnika za sponzorisane postove kao i broj korisnika koji su otvorili vašu reklamu.

Zaposleni u marketingu trebalo bi da poznaju načine oglašavanja na Facebook-u i da se uzdržavaju od objavljivanja neprimjenjivih, dosadnih i nejasnih sadržaja, odnosno da nastoje da lični ukus i mišljenje izostave, unaprede stranicu prikupljanjem informacija, zalaganjem za bolje predstavljanje i emotivno vezivanje korisnika. Zahtevi i želje potrošača, oslušivanje njihovih potreba, kvalitetni i dobro predstavljeni proizvodi ili usluge zadržace pažnju onih koji plaćaju ili troše svoje vreme na praćenje vaše stranice. Ukoliko je posećenost vaših postova niska, pratiće se kakav je performans ili vrednost tekstova i reklama za pratioce. Postoje stranice kod kojih je broj klikova veliki a učinak, zadržavanje na stranici mali. Svi sponzorisani postovi prolaze kroz postupak Facebook aukcije ukoliko su zadovoljili postavljene kriterijume.

Dalji napredak predviđa trend razvoja u video formatu u formi epizoda sa naglašenom slikom, zvukom, animacijom i pokretom koji će potisnuti tekstualnu formu oglašavanja koja će morati da se menja i usavršava.

Vodeće internet platforme Facebook, Instagram i Twitter vrednuju kvalitet i istinitost sadržaja sa izoštrenom procenom kvaliteta i izdvajaju prave vrednosti od kvantiteta ponuđenih stranica.

Google AdWords – platforma za oglašavanje na internetu u vlasništvu kompanije Gugl, jedna je od najvećih internet marketing platformi na svetu sa velikim izvorom prihoda i poslovnim poštenim odnosom prema korisnicima. Google AdWords pruža mogućnosti oglašavanja u okviru Gugl pretrage (Google Search), oglašavanje u okviru mreže sajtova koji podržavaju Google AdSense, zatim YouTube i Gmail oglašavanje. Platforma Google

AdWords je pogodna za početna oglašavanja i mogućnosti edukacije o ograničenjima i mogućnostima za procese kreiranja i vođenja kampanja internet marketinga. Pravilnim korišćenjem platforma predstavlja alat, sredstvo za ostvarenje cilja, instrument koji može nadomestiti slabe SEO performanse sajta, kao i tematsku specifičnost poslovanja određene kompanije. Google AdWords pomaže u ostvarivanju direktnih uticaja na prodaju proizvoda i usluga, kao i na povećanje prepoznatljivosti brenda, tj. poslovnog sistema.

Facebook Ads – platforma posluje u svetu internet marketinga, uveden je tiho i neprimetno bez agresivnog pristupa, sve dok nisu počeli da prikazuju oglase u obliku postova. Vremenom Facebook Ads platforma postala je sve ozbiljniji i korisniji alat za moderne marketing menadžere koji objavljuju različite oglase. Pored različitih mogućnosti oglašavanja u okviru društvene mreže Fejsbuk, u okviru Facebook Ads platforme možete podešavati i oglase na Instagramu, društvenoj mreži koju je pre nekoliko godina otkupila kompanija Fejsbuk.

Twitter Ads – treća, ali ništa manje bitna platforma za internet oglašavanje jeste Twitter Ads platforma. Tviter se postepeno razvijao u društvenu mrežu koja ima komercijalni pristup na način sličan Fejsbuku. Twitter Ads platforma se vremenski kasnije pojavila ali oglašavanje neformalnog karaktera i kratkih poruka vremenom postaje sve više u upotrebi marketing kompanija. Uzimajući pristup i postavke koje poseduje Facebook Ads platforma, Tviter je olakšao svojim korisnicima korišćenje još jednog kanala za sponzorisanе oglase pošto kampanje koje ova platforma nudi su praktično iste kao i kampanje koje se mogu naći na Fejsbukovoj platformi. Jedina razlika je u samim karakteristikama postova, kao i u demografiji korisnika ovih društvenih mreža.

Razvojem pojedine platforme za internet oglašavanje napreduju a druge gube svrhu u oblasti digitalnog marketinga kao LinkedIn Ads platforma koja je predviđena za B2B promociju i retargetiranje. AdRoll platforma se uglavnom koristi za remarketing kampanje kao i u kampanjama koje podižu svest o određenom brendu ili događaju. Httpool platforma se bavi otkupom prostora na posećenijim sajtovima u određenim zemljama i prodaje taj prostor zainteresovanim kompanijama.

Odabir platforme zavisi od želja i budućih poslovnih aktivnosti. Da bi se postigao uspeh bitno je da se budući korisnici prethodno dobro edukuju o prednostima, manama i njenim postavkama ili pravilima.

1.3 Elektronski portali i platforme

Pokretanjem elektronskih portala i primenom informacija koje oni sadrže u našoj zemlji, započet je proces pojednostavljenja i uprošćavanja svakodnevnih poslova koje pravna i fizička lica obavljaju primenom elektronskih servisa. Elektronski portali postavljaju korisnika u centar zbivanja i pružaju im velike mogućnosti u vidu skupa informacija sistematizovanih na jednom mestu, koje mogu da koriste pristupom računaru iz svog mesta poslovanja. Pomenute radnje ne bi bile moguće bez internet mreže i sistematizovanih baza podataka, elektronskih servisa, kao i elektronskih portala (postova). U novije vreme, u zemlji, data je prednost razvoju i povećana ulaganja u računare i računarsku tehnologiju. Modernizacija računovodstveno-knjigovodstvenih evidencija i prelazak sa dokumentacije u papirnom obliku na elektronske načine izveštavanja olakšao je i ubrzao poslovanje kako građanima (fizičkim licima) tako i preduzećima. Problemi koji se javljaju kod sačinjavnja dokumentacije u papirnom obliku su se svodili na lični kontakt prilikom dostavljanja, a razvojem informaciono komunikacionih tehnologija prešlo se na korišćenje programa specijalizovanih

za evidentiranje prihoda i rashoda, odnosno sačinjavanje finansijskih izveštaja u vidu bilansa stanja i bilansa uspeha.

Kako bi se na nacionalnom nivou razvijali načini elektronske komunikacije, potrebno je da različite države sa pravnog stanovišta definišu načine poslovanja.

Razvojem interneta, razvile su se i različite platforme koje predstavljaju izazov programerima i potrebu da usklade elektronske servise, omogućue rad svim platformama kako niko ne bi bio uskraćen pristupu elektronskim portalima. Uslov za funkcionisanje je posedovanje interneta i uređaja kojim se može pristupiti internetu. Za radnje na višem nivou, portali zahtevaju posedovanje elektronskog potpisa ili neku drugu vrstu potvrde vašeg ličnog identiteta. Postojali su otpori uvođenju javnih servisa u institucijama i javnim ustanovama. Usklađivanjem naših standarda rada sa standardima Evropske unije, u skladu sa pravnom regulativom i preporukama, pokrenuti su elektronski portali kao proces unapređenja poslovanja u zemlji sa smernicama Evropske unije, kako bi u budućnosti ulaz u evropsku zajednicu bio što efikasniji.

Pokretanjem elektronskih servisa i portala postoji mogućnost objedinjenja sistema, ubrzanja i pojednostavljenja procesa koje građani i preduzeća koriste. Svako javno preduzeće ili institucija sama sačinjava svoj elektronski servis, odnosno pojavljuje se problem što ne postoji jedan servis na nivou države koji bi poslužio kao centralni server i omogućio korisnicima lakše funkcionisanje elektronskih portala. Pokretanjem centralnog servisa koji bi umrežio ostale omogućila bi se brza i efikasna komunikacija različitih službi i unapredio rad institucija u sačinjavanju i izdavanju predviđenih dokumenata i potvrda koje se mogu dostaviti elektronskim putem.

Početne stadijume povezivanja elektronskih servisa možemo pratiti na primeru Poreske uprave i Zavoda za zdravstvenu zaštitu, gde zavod može proveriti da li je korisnik usluga izmirio predviđene poreze i doprinose.

Poreska uprava je postavila portal ePorezi kao skup elektronskih servisa i omogućila svim obveznicima predaju elektronskih obrazaca-poreskih prijava, praćenje statusa obrazaca, uvid u stanje finansijskih sredstava kao i oduzimanje statusa korisnika. Sistem zadovoljava visoke standarde bezbednosti u postupcima popunjavanja, potpisivanja i prosleđivanja poreskih prijava i omogućava siguran prenos podataka. Podatak se definiše kao elektronski memorisan zapis sadržan u elektronskom registru, dokumentu ili bazi podataka značajan za elektronske komunikacije i upravno postupanje.

Portal je postavljen sa ciljem bržeg, lakšeg i efikasnijeg komuniciranja sa Poreskom upravom. Pristup se ostvaruje instaliranjem aplikacije na lokalni računar korisnika unosom Kvalifikovanog elektronskog sertifikata (PIN koda). Za testiranje i proveru ispravnosti elektronskih poreskih prijava (provera obračuna, ispravnosti HTML fajlova i sl.) pristupa se „Testnom okruženju” posredstvom aplikacije ePorezi koja ne samo da vrši testiranje nego i obuku poreskih obveznika.

Republički fond za zdravstveno osiguranje definisao je posedovanje kartice zdravstvenog osiguranja kako bi osigurana lica ostvarila pravo na zdravstvenu zaštitu. Na sajtu ovog fonda osiguranici mogu da dobiju informacije u vezi sa ostvarivanjem svojih prava iz obaveznog zdravstvenog osiguranja ili posredstvom Nacionalnog kontakta centra RFZO-a informišu se o potrebnoj dokumentaciji za lečenje u inostranstvu, uslugama koje se pružaju na teret zdravstvenog osiguranja, kapitacionim tabelama po kvartalima i drugo.

Uvođenje kartice zdravstvenog osiguranja omogućava uvođenje sigurnih i efikasnih elektronskih servisa, kontrolu datuma overe kartice, zakazivanje pregleda, elektronsko upućivanje pacijenata iz jedne ustanove u drugu i slično.

1.4 Sistemi bezbednog plaćanja na internetu

Razvoj informaciono komunikacionih tehnologija doprineo je povećanoj kupovini i prodaji proizvoda posredstvom interneta. Usvajanjem odredbi Zakona o deviznom poslovanju definisane su inostrane institucije koje pružaju usluge posredovanja u procesima bezbednog plaćanja ili naplate posredstvom mreže interneta. Konstituisanjem centra za razvoj interneta legalizovana je upotreba PayPal servisa, Google Checkout, MoneyBookers/Skrill i drugih sličnih servisa koji omogućavaju kupovinu i naplatu prodatih proizvoda putem internet mreže. Legalizovanje poslovanja obezbeđeno je izmenama i dopunama zakona, odnosno izmene Zakona o deviznom poslovanju predstavljaju početak primene inovirane i usklađene pravne regulative u vezi primene platnog prometa na internetu. Obavljanje svakodnevnog platnog prometa i dalje je opterećeno raznim procedurama, potvrđama i proverama koje usporavaju protok novca u legalnim poslovnim transakcijama. Usvajanjem Zakona o platnim uslugama, u Srbiji, modernizovana je oblast trgovanja posredstvom interneta, osnovane institucije koje posluju sa elektronskim novcem i razvili su se načini elektronskog plaćanja uz primenu novih mobilnih i internet tehnologija. Znatan razvoj i ekspanzija zapadnih tržišta zasniva se na upotrebi mobilnih uređaja i informacijama o proizvodima, novim saznanjima i konačnim plaćanjima.

Uvođenje i korišćenje PayPal servisa na međunarodnom nivou predviđeno je istovremeno sa Crnom Gorom, Makedonijom, Gruzijom, Paragvajem i drugim zemljama, odnosno uređeno je izmenama i dopunama Zakona o deviznom poslovanju čijim odredbama su legalizovane usluge posredovanja u procesima plaćanja i naplate potraživanja. Uvođenje PayPal servisa trebalo bi da ponudi uslugu posredovanja u bezbednoj kupovini posredstvom internet mreže. PayPal servis trgovcima nudi uslugu bezbedne naplate proizvoda koje oni nude u svojim internet prodavnicama i kao servis na globalnom nivou je prepoznat kao pouzdano i jedinstveno rešenje za bezbednu internet kupovinu.

2. Oporezivanje prodaje internet platforme

Internet platforma za privredno društvo predstavlja prenosivu imovinu, odnosno privredno društvo koje razvija internet platformu u svojim računovodstvenim evidencijama utvrđuje cenu koštanja nematerijalnih ulaganja u pripremi, u skladu sa sačinjenom kalkulacijom (proračunom) i potvrdom procenitelja.

Ukoliko privredno društvo ima nameru da proda internet platformu sačinjava ugovor o prodaji imovine i u računovodstvenim evidencijama knjiži prodaju platforme, odnosno evidentira je (prenosi) na drugo društvo. U skladu sa odredbama Zakona o porezu na dodatu vrednost oba privredna društva su obveznici plaćanja poreza po opštoj stopi 20%. Privredno društvo prodavac internet platforme dužan je da na ugovorenu prodajnu cenu obračuna i plati porez i izda račun (fakturu) sa obračunatim porezom u skladu sa odredbama Zakona na dodatu vrednost.

Prilikom prenosa vlasničkih prava sa prodavca na kupca, treba razlikovati prenošenje celokupnih prava od prenosa prava korišćenja, odnosno zadržavanja vlasništva nad imovinom tj. interno razvijenom internet platformom.

Ukoliko je sačinjen ugovor o prenosu celokupnih prava sa prodavca na kupca, prodavac je u obavezi da obračuna i iskaže kapitalnu dobit u skladu sa odredbama Zakona o porezu na dobit pravnih lica.

Računovodstveni programi se smatraju autorskim delom uređeno odredbama Zakona o autorskim i srodnim pravima stoga, prodaja celokupnog vlasništva, odnosno na prodaju softverskog proizvoda internet platforme, obračunava se kapitalna dobit ili gubitak kao razlika prodajne i nabavne cene. Ukoliko su imovinska prava preneti u celini u oporezivu dobit se uključuje 20% kapitalnog dobitka ako se radi o deponovanom autorskom delu registrovanom kod nadležnog organa ili predmetu srodnog prava. Porez na dohodak građana plaćaju, u skladu sa odredbama ovog zakona, fizička lica koja ostvaruju dohodak

Ukoliko je prodajom internet platforme preneto samo pravo korišćenja u tom slučaju ne postoji obaveza prenosioca za obračun kapitalnog dobitka (gubitka) ali prodavac može da ostvari pravo na izuzeće od oporezivanja u skladu sa odredbama Zakona o porezu na dobit pravnih lica.

Odredbama Zakona o porezu na dohodak građana uređena su izuzimanja iz dohotka koji se oporezuje a odnose se na primanja ostvarena po osnovu propisa o pravima ratnih invalida, roditeljskog i dečijeg dodatka, naknada za tuđu pomoć i negu i naknada za telesno oštećenje, naknada za vreme nezaposlenosti, naknada iz zdravstvenog osiguranja, osim naknade zarade (plate) i druga izuzimanja od oporezivanja.

Ukoliko rezident Republike Srbije, obveznik plaćanja poreza na dohodak građana, ostvari dohodak u drugoj državi i tamo plati porez, u skladu sa odredbama Zakona odobrava mu se poreski kredit u visini iznosa poreza plaćenog u drugoj državi. Poreski kredit se definiše kao iznos za koji se umanjuje obračunati porez na dohodak građana.

2.1 Rezident i nerezident

Obveznik poreza na dohodak građana može biti rezident ili nerezident. Rezident Republike Srbije je fizičko lice za dohodak ostvaren na teritoriji zemlje ili u drugoj državi ukoliko na teritoriji Republike ima prebivalište ili centar poslovnih i životnih interesa. Rezident treba neprekidno ili sa prekidima da boravi na teritoriji Republike 183 ili više dana u periodu jedne poreske godine. Fizičko lice koje u momentu prvog ulaska na teritoriju Republike ima saznanja da će ispuniti uslove za sticanje zvanja rezidenta, smatraće se rezidentom prilikom prvog ulaska na teritoriju zemlje.

U skladu sa odredbama zakona rezident Republike je fizičko lice upućeno u drugu državu radi obavljanja poslova u diplomatskom ili konzularnom predstavništvu Republike, odnosno međunarodnim organizacijama. Obveznik poreza na dohodak građana je fizičko lice koje nije rezident, odnosno nerezident za iznos dohotka koji ostvari u Republici.

Ukoliko naknade koje rezident plaća nerezidentu za smeštanje i preusmeravanje podataka na serverima predstavljaju autorsku naknadu oporezivanje se vrši porezom po odbitku uređeno Zakonom o porezu na dobit pravnih lica.

2.2 Oporezivanje naknade po osnovu međunarodnih ugovora o izbegavanju dvostrukog oporezivanja

Poreski karakter naknada i primena poreza po odbitku u sklopu međunarodnih ugovora uslovljeno je definisanjem zemlje sa kojom je ugovor sačinjen, značenjem pojedinih termina

u tekstu ugovora i drugo. Ukoliko izraz „autorske naknade” označava opšta plaćanja primljena kao naknade za pravo korišćenja ili upotrebu industrijske, komercijalne ili naučne opreme, u koju se ubraja i server, oporezivanje se vrši stopom poreza po odbitku (10%) uz blagovremenu i validnu potvrdu o rezidentnosti, koja se podnosi na godišnjem nivou, i stvarnom vlasništvu prihoda. Ukoliko se korišćenje odgovarajućeg softvera kao alata za pružanje usluge pristupa i smeštaja podataka na serveru posebno iskazuje, i u slučaju posebnog fakturisanja, naknada ima karakter autorske naknade i primenjuje se navedena stopa poreza po odbitku u skladu sa odredbama Zakona o autorskim i srodnim pravima. Kada se softver kupuje samostalno u vidu posebnog dobra odvojeno od računara i kupovinom licence sa pravom korišćenja, takav promet se smatra prometom usluga i oporezuje se opštom stopom u slučajevima kada se navedeni promet obavlja u Republici Srbiji.

3. Porez na dodatu vrednost

Oporezivanje i promet usluga u skladu sa odredbama Zakona o porezu na dodatu vrednost vrši se i na prenos i ustupanje autorskih prava, kao i prenos, ustupanje i stavljanje na upotrebu licenci, patenata, zaštitnih znakova, kao i drugih prava intelektualne svojine.

Ustupanje korišćenja licence za primenu određenog softverskog programa može se vršiti i bez naknade ali se tako izvršeni promet izjednačava sa prometom izvršenim uz naknadu i podleže obavezi plaćanja poreza na osnovicu koju čini nabavna cena ili cena koštanja ove ili slične usluge u trenutku prometa, koja u sebi ne sadrži porez na dodatu vrednost.

Računarski softver se svrstava u oblike nematerijalne imovine u skladu sa odredbama Zakona o računovodstvu i reviziji za koji se mogu izvršiti nematerijalna ulaganja. Ulaganje u računarski softver može se izvršiti istovremeno sa nabavkom računara ili nezavisno. Ukoliko računarski softver omogućava rad i kupuje se kao sastavni deo računara, odnosno predstavlja jednu celinu (sastavni deo računara).

U slučajevima kada se softver nabavlja nezavisno od kupovine računara, fizički je odvojiv i ulaganje sredstava za njegovu kupovinu predstavlja nematerijalno ulaganje. Softver predstavlja sistemska, aplikativna, razvojna i druga programska rešenja i dozvole za privremenu ili trajnu upotrebu u izvornom ili izvršnom kodu. Računarski softver se ugrađuje u računar korisnika ili se isporučuje preko komunikacionih mreža i putem medija svih vrsta.

U slučaju da se uvede plaćanje posebne naknade za korišćenje odgovarajućeg softvera radi pristupa i smeštanja podataka na serverima, naknada bi predstavljala autorsku naknadu, odnosno naknada za korišćenje kompjuterskog softvera oporezovala bi se porezom po odbitku primenom stope uređenom odredbama međunarodnog ugovora.

4. Zaključak

Novi načini komunikacije, kupovina i prodaja dobara posredstvom interneta, zabrane kretanja i prelasci granica između zemalja zbog pojave globalne pandemije Korona virusa i drugih zabrana primorali su vlade pojedinih zemalja na prilagođavanje.

Tako je i naša zemlja, poslednjih godina, pristupila prilagođavanju pravne regulative iz oblasti elektronske trgovine, e-usluga i e-imovini.

Usvajanje Zakona o elektronskoj imovini doprineće povećanju pravne sigurnosti zemlje, razvoju digitalnih tehnologija i konkurentnosti zemlje privrede na globalnom nivou. Pojava pandemije je ubrzala sveopštu digitalizaciju društva i poslovanja, odnosno precizno definisanje digitalne imovine. Cilj usvajanja regulative je da se poveća predvidljivost u

poslovanju digitalnom imovinom, njeno definisanje i promet virtuelnih valuta i digitalnih tokena, usvajanje regulative za poslovanje digitalnom imovinom posredstvom licenciranih pružalaca usluga, nadzora nad njenim poslovanjem i drugo. Vrednost digitalne imovine se globalno procenjuje na više od trista milijardi dolara i neophodno je olakšati uslove i načine njenog trgovanja.

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CONTROLLERSKO PLANIRANJE I OPERATIVNO VODSTVO U UVJETIMA COVID-19

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Abstract

Planiranje, kako strateško tako i operativno, *sine qua non* su uspješnog poslovanja. Postavljanje plana ujedno znači postojanje cilja, koji mora biti oblikovan vizionarski, a ne situacijski, što znači da cilj ne može biti, primjerice, „u narednoj godini ostvarit ćemo bolju naplatu“, i slično. Operativno planiranje rezultat je strateškog planiranja i predstavlja jedan njegov dio koji se uobičajeno promatra u okvirima računovodstvene poslovne godine. Oblik i dinamika planiranja mora prožimati cijelu tvrtku, što znači da je plan tvrtke suskus svih pojedinačnih planova, kako planova odjela, tako i planova svakog zaposlenika.¹ U uvjetima operativnog vodstva uloga *controllera* je presudna pa će u ovom radu *controller* i *controllersko* planiranje biti u fokusu istraživanja. *Controller*, kao „prodavatelj planova i ciljeva“,² kako ga A. Deyhle naziva, ima ključnu ulogu u uvjetima donošenja poslovnih odluka koje rezultiraju graničnom dobiti. U uvjetima COVID-19, koji je cijelu svjetsku ekonomiju gotovo bacio na koljena, uloga *controllera* presudna je u smislu risk menadžmenta i sukladno tome donošenja odluka. Nautički turizam, a u njemu poslovanje marina, dobar su primjer postupanja *controllera* koji na temelju rezultata 2020. mora projicirati sezonu 2021. Poslovna struktura marina pokazala je dijelove marine koji se dobro nose sa ugrozom, ali i dijelove koji su posve zakazali. *Controller*, kao dio vodstva marine, mora pristupiti analizi graničnih troškova kako bi predložio menadžeru marine mjere kojima će se štete u 2021. svesti na minimum.

Ključne riječi: *operativno planiranje, controllinško planiranje, vodstvo, COVID-19, poslovanje marina*

1. Uvod

Planiranje, kao funkcija menadžmenta, ključno je za tržišno usmjereno poslovanje gospodarskih subjekata. Postojanje planiranja ujedno znači postojanje cilja, a cilj i plan postavljaju se strateški da bi zatim bili operativno oblikovani u smislu operativnog planiranja. Operativno planiranje postavlja se sukladno kratkoročno postavljenom cilju, a prožima sve niveoe i subjekte gospodarskog subjekta. U uvjetima kada je operativno planiranje postavljeno na način da se operativni plan tvrtke sastoji od planova njenih izvršitelja, a uz to, kada se izvršenje plana stavi pod nadzor može se govoriti o *controllinškom* planiranju.

¹ Bateman, S. T. & Zeithaml, P. C.: „*Management, Function & Strategy*“, Second edition, IRWIN, 1993., str. 14.

² Deyhle, A.: „*Controller – Praxis*“, Band 1, Verlag für ControllingWissen AG, Offenburg, 2003.

Planiranje je ozbiljan posao, što je potrebno istaknuti, budući planiranje u ekonomijama u tranziciji nije shvaćeno, a niti korišteno na način koji bi zadovoljio svoju svrhu. To ujedno znači da ni cilj nije adekvatno postavljen pa se operativno planiranje subjekata u ekonomijama u tranziciji odvija nedovoljno kvalitetno, te je često samo sebi svrha. To se posebno očituje u makro planovima i strateškim dokumentima, koji su u biti oblik plana, a koje u velikom broju razvijaju administrativni državni sustavi ekonomija u tranziciji. Nedostatak *controllinga*, kao u teoriji tako i praksi ekonomija u tranziciji, očituje se u nestabilnosti i nedorađenosti makro ekonomskih sustava, kao i u niskoj poduzetničkoj razvijenosti.³

Hodogram planiranja, kvaliteta, razvijenost plana u smislu planiranja, kod svih gospodarskih subjekata u Hrvatskoj, kao ekonomiji u tranziciji, na niskom je nivou. Stoga odlučivanje, posebno u osnovnoj kategoriji poslovanja, profitu, zahtijeva viši nivo znanja čemu se pridružuje ovaj rad. Odlučivanje u smislu troškova, relativno je poznato, ali način operativnog funkcioniranja zahtijeva doradu, što će se u ovom radu obrazložiti, posebno u domeni graničnih troškova. Stoga je svrha ovog istraživanja analiza sustava planiranja, kao i procesa odlučivanja koje je ciljno usmjereno. Cilj istraživanja je valoriziranje značaja hodograma planiranja i odlučivanja na temelju graničnih troškova u procesu operativnog planiranja. Istraživačka hipoteza kaže da kvaliteta planiranja i odlučivanja na temelju graničnih troškova povoljno utječe na risk menadžment, koji je potrebno aktivirati u uvjetima COVID-19. Istraživanje će se provesti na primjeru jedne hrvatske marine.

2. Planiranje u funkciji vođenja

Planiranje nije samo funkcija menadžmenta. Planiranje je i snažan pokazatelj gdje se nalazi nacionalna ekonomija. Sukladno pristupu planiranju, vidljiva je podjela društava, odnosno, nacionalnih ekonomija, na tržišno usmjerene ekonomije i tzv. dogovorne ekonomije koja se još uvijek zadržava u ekonomijama u tranziciji pa tako i Hrvatskoj. Odnosno, definiranje pojma ekonomije u tranziciji, treba naglasiti, nema službeno priznatu definiciju. Ipak, kako profesor Edge Feigea svojim istraživanjima zaključuje, važno je sljedeće: „*A transition economy or transitional economy is an economy which is changing from a centrally planned economy to a free market.*“⁴ Prema jednom drugom istraživanju pojam ekonomije u tranziciji obilježavaju četiri osnovne ekonomske karakteristike nacionalne se ekonomije, sukladno planiranju, razlikuju po:⁵

1. procesu tranzicije od socijalizma do kapitalizma u bivšim socijalističkim ekonomijama,
2. ekonomijama koje se transformiraju iz ekonomija pod nadzorom vlade, u slobodno-tržišne ekonomije,
3. ekonomijama koje prelaze sa centralno planske ekonomije u slobodno-tržišnu ekonomiju,

³ GEM HRVATSKA 2018.: „Što čini Hrvatsku (ne)poduzetničkom zemljom?“, Cepar, 2018.

⁴ Feige, Edgar L.: „The Transition to a Market Economy in Russia: Property Rights, Mass Privatization and Stabilization“, Routledge. 1994, pp. 57–78.

⁵ Oblikovno prema Weitzman, M.: „Economic transition Can theory help?“ European Economic Review 37 (1993) 549-555. North-Holland

4. kompleksnom procesu ukupne društvene, socijalne, ekonomske i političke transformacije.

Dakle, radi se o tranziciji sa etatičkog netržišnog poslovanja, dogovorne ekonomije, na slobodno tržišnu ekonomiju.⁶ Tržišna se ekonomija, u pravilu, povezuje sa pojmom kapitalizma, kojemu su privatna imovina, kapital i poduzetništvo, stupovi temeljci.⁷ Dakle, planiranje ima veoma široko značenje i ključna je karakteristika gospodarstva i menadžmenta.

Razne su definicije planiranja. Najkraće rečeno, *plan je radni dokument koji menadžmentu zacrtava put do cilja*. Kao i u životu tako i kod planiranja, ne postoji jedan put, već mnogi, a svi vode do cilja, pa je potrebno iznaći najbolji, a pojam „najbolji“ relativan je. Ipak, *controller*, kao „prodavatelj planova i ciljeva“,⁸ ima obavezu oblikovati nekoliko opcija planova koje mora obrazložiti i ponuditi ih menadžeru. Poveznica planiranja i *controllinga* početak je *controllinga* planiranja. Odnosno, izbor najadekvatnijeg puta do cilja definiran je financijskim i drugim izračunima koji su u domeni *controllinga*.

U prilog definiranju plana, kao i planiranja, vrijedno je navesti definiciju američke „Encyclopedia of Management“ koja kaže: „Planiranje je funkcija menadžmenta koja uključuje postavljanje *objectives* i određivanje tijeka akcije za postizanje tih ciljeva. Planiranje zahtijeva da menadžeri budu svjesni prirodnih uvjeta okruženja. Ona također zahtijeva da menadžeri budu dobri kreatori odluka. Planiranje je proces koji se sastoji od nekoliko koraka. Proces počinje sa skeniranjem okoline, a što jednostavno znači da planeri moraju biti svjesni presudnih, nepredviđenih, promjena kojima trebaju prilagoditi svoju organizaciju u smislu ekonomskih uvjeta, njihovih konkurenata i njihovih klijenata. Planeri, također, moraju pokušati predvidjeti buduće uvjete. U tome, prognoze, čine osnovu planiranja. Planeri moraju uspostaviti *objectives*, koji su predstavljeni kao vrsta izvještaja o tome što treba postići i kada. Oni moraju identificirati alternativne pravce djelovanja za postizanje *objectives*. Nakon procjene različitih alternativa, planeri moraju donositi odluke o najboljim pravca djelovanja za postizanje *objectives*. Oni moraju formulirati potrebne korake i osigurati učinkovitu provedbu planova. Konačno, planeri stalno moraju ocjenjivati uspjeh svojih planova te poduzeti korektivne mjere kada je to potrebno.“⁹ Ono što je važno napomenuti je specifičnost američkog engleskog jezika, u čemu *objectives* označava zajedništvo plana i cilja. Pritom, ovoj se zajednici treba pridružiti „prognozu“ koja je, posebno u današnjim uvjetima, osnovica planiranja. Obzirom da predviđanje/prognoza predstavlja izleta u budućnost, u enciklopediji, vezano za planiranje, ističe se: „Planiranje u sebi nosi futurističko gledanje i postavlja predviđene rokove, čije se raspoređivanje fokusira na organizaciju svakodnevnih aktivnosti.“¹⁰ U modernom se menadžmentu prognoziranje, kao temelj planiranja, nalazi u pojmu *aggregate planning*, agregatno planiranje koje se definira kao:¹¹ „Agregatno planiranje je proces razvoja, analiziranja i preliminarnog održavanja

⁶ <https://hr.wikipedia.org/wiki/Tranzicija>

⁷ Feige, Edgar L.: „Perestroika and Ruble Convertibility“, Cato Journal, Cato Institute, 28 March 2011.

⁸ Deyhle, A.: „Controller – Praxis“, Band 1, Verlag für ControllingWissen AG, Offenburg, 2003.

⁹ *Encyclopedia of Management*, 6th edition, GALE Cengage Learning, United States of America, 2009., str. 518.

¹⁰ *Encyclopedia of Management*, 6th edition, GALE Cengage Learning, United States of America, 2009., str. 699.

¹¹ *Encyclopedia of Management*, 6th edition, GALE Cengage Learning, United States of America, 2009., str. 4.

približnog rasporeda ukupnog rada u organizaciji. Agregatni plan, općenito, sadrži ciljane prodajne prognoze, razine proizvodnje, razine zaliha, kao i aktualne kupce.....“

S obzirom da se proces planiranja bazira na procjeni budućnosti, to promovira industriju u okruženju kao i standarde konkurencije. Obzirom na okruženje Boone E. Louis & Kurtz L. David navode: „Učinkovito planiranje često predstavlja razliku između uspjeha, osrednjosti, i neuspjeha. To je kontinuirana funkcija koja usmjerava organizaciju kroz promjenljivo-orijentirano okruženje prema ostvarivanju utvrđenih ciljeva.“¹² Obzirom na učinkovito planiranje, u nastavku navode: „Postoje dva načela planiranja koja su u upotrebi, a koja utječu na promjenu smjera planiranja, (1) načelo fleksibilnosti i (2) načelo promjenljivog navigiranja. Što više fleksibilnosti može biti ugrađeno u planove, to je manja opasnost od gubitaka radi neočekivanih događaja, ali cijena fleksibilnosti treba biti sadržana u rizicima koji su uključeni u buduće dogovorenom (*commitment*) modelu.“¹³ Kako Boone E. Louis & Kurtz L. David ističu i povezuju sa *commitment*, postizanje dogovora ključno je za motivirani pristup planiranju, a što ukazuje na širinu planiranja. Obzirom na širinu planiranja Bateman, S. T. & Zeithaml, P. C. kažu: „Planiranje je u stvari analizira situacije, određivanje ciljeva koji će se provoditi u budućnosti, kao i odlučivanje o budućim radnjama koje će se poduzeti kako bi se postigli ti ciljevi. Planovi se razvijaju za čitavu organizaciju, za pojedine radne jedinice, kao i za pojedine menadžere i radnike.“¹⁴ Dakle, planiranje pokriva cijelu tvrtku, a ne samo njen menadžment, što ukazuje na „buket“ planova kojega čine svi zaposlenici, a koji se objedinjava kroz *commitment* svih sudionika planiranja.

Planiranje, koje je povezano sa funkcijom vođenja, podložan je promjenama, jer plan nije Sveto pismo, što znači da je podložan (ne)realizaciji. Nerijetko, posebno kod dugoročnih planova, dogodi se da se plan ne realizira. Ta činjenica ponekad razvija mišljenje o nepotrebnom planiranju pa razmišljamo: „Zašto planirati kad se plan često ne ostvari?!“ Ali ipak, potrebno je planirati, jer ako ne planiramo ne znamo kamo idemo, te je tada svaki put dobar, a svi ti putovi takvi neplansko vođenje čine brodarenjem bez kompasa. Stoga je *controlling* za potrebe vođenja razvio novu vrstu planiranja, *dispozitivno planiranje*, a koje se u američkoj literaturi navodi kao *contingency planning*¹⁵. Odnosno, u slučaju naglog odstupanja od zacrtanog plana uvodi se dispozitivno planiranje, kod kojega je opet ključan *controller* koji razvija nove opcije poslovanja. Sukladno nepromjenljivosti cilja, *controller* oblikuje opcije koje poslovanje vraćaju na put do cilja, a pri čemu *controller* kada ponudi opcija menadžeru koristi sistem „ako.., onda“.¹⁶ Sistem „ako.., onda“ ponuda je niz opcija kod kojih, obzirom na „uska grla“, *controller* manipulira sa resursima i učincima poslovanja kako bi ostvario bolje rezultate, o čemu, u konačnici, odlučuje menadžer.

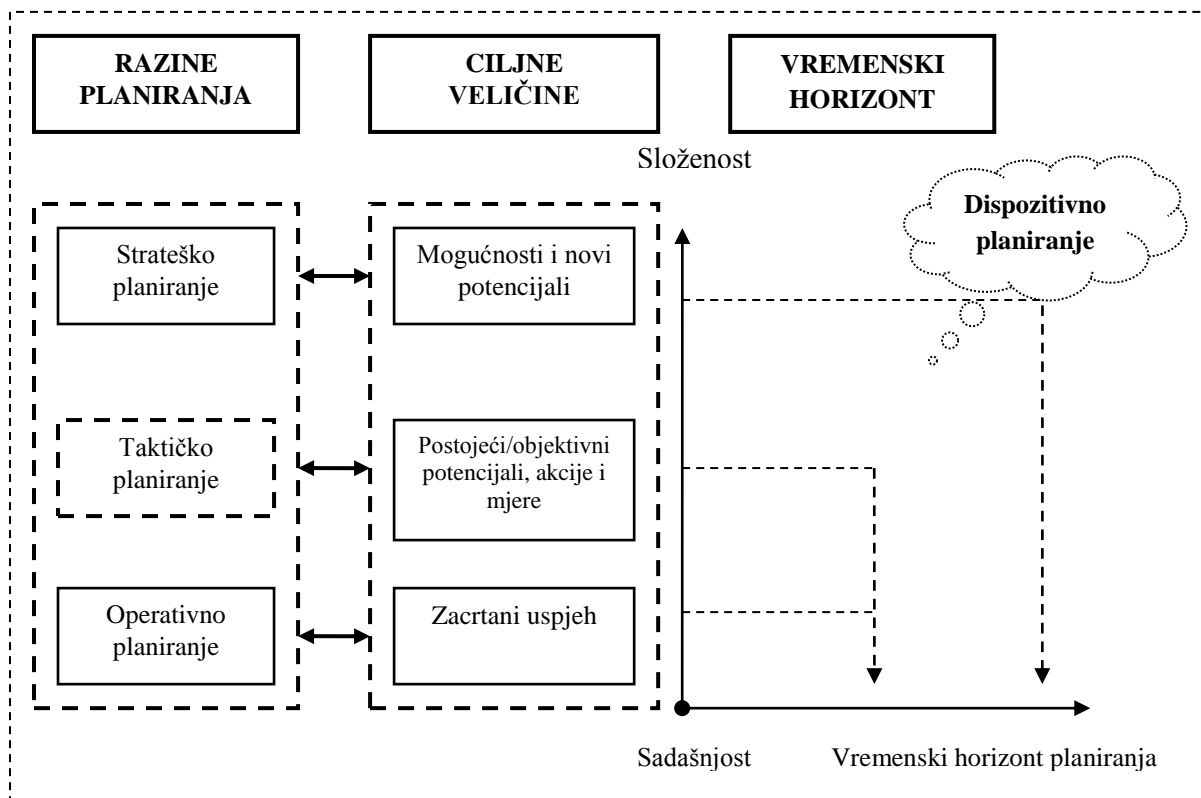
¹² Boone E. Louis & Kurtz L. David: *Management*, 4th edition, McGraw-Hill Inc., 1992., str. 119.

¹³ Koontz, H. & O'Donnell, C.: „Principles of management: An analysis of managerial functions“ 5th edition, McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1972., str. 132.

¹⁴ Bateman, S. T. & Zeithaml, P. C.: *Management, Function & Strategy*, Second edition, IRWIN, 1993., str. 14.

¹⁵ Luković, T. & Lebefromm, U.: „Controlling, planom do cilja, Druga knjiga“, Sveučilište u Dubrovniku, Dubrovnik 2014., str 31.

¹⁶ Luković, T. & Lebefromm, U., „Controlling, Konzept und Fälle, Erste Auflage“, Engelsdorfer Verlag, Leipzig, 2010., str 41.



Slika 1. Složenost sustava planiranja

Izvor: prilagodili autori prema Deyhle, A., *Controller-Praxis, Führung durch Ziele – Planung – Controlling*, Band II, Verlag für ControllingWissen AG Offenburg, 2003., str. a str 56

Sukladno situacijama, *controller* u funkciji operativnog vodstva ima ključnu ulogu. Odnosno, sve odluke su u domeni menadžera, ali *controller* pridonosi uspješnom ostvarenju cilja te je stoga nadležan za planiranje i ciljno usmjereno operativni menadžment. Pritom, važno je istaknuti da su svi procesi rizični bez sudjelovanja *controllera* u funkciji vodstva. Stoga se u svim situacijama očekuje *controllinški* način rješavanja svakoga od njih, a kako to *controller* obavlja pokazat će se na jednom primjeru u nastavku ovog istraživanja.

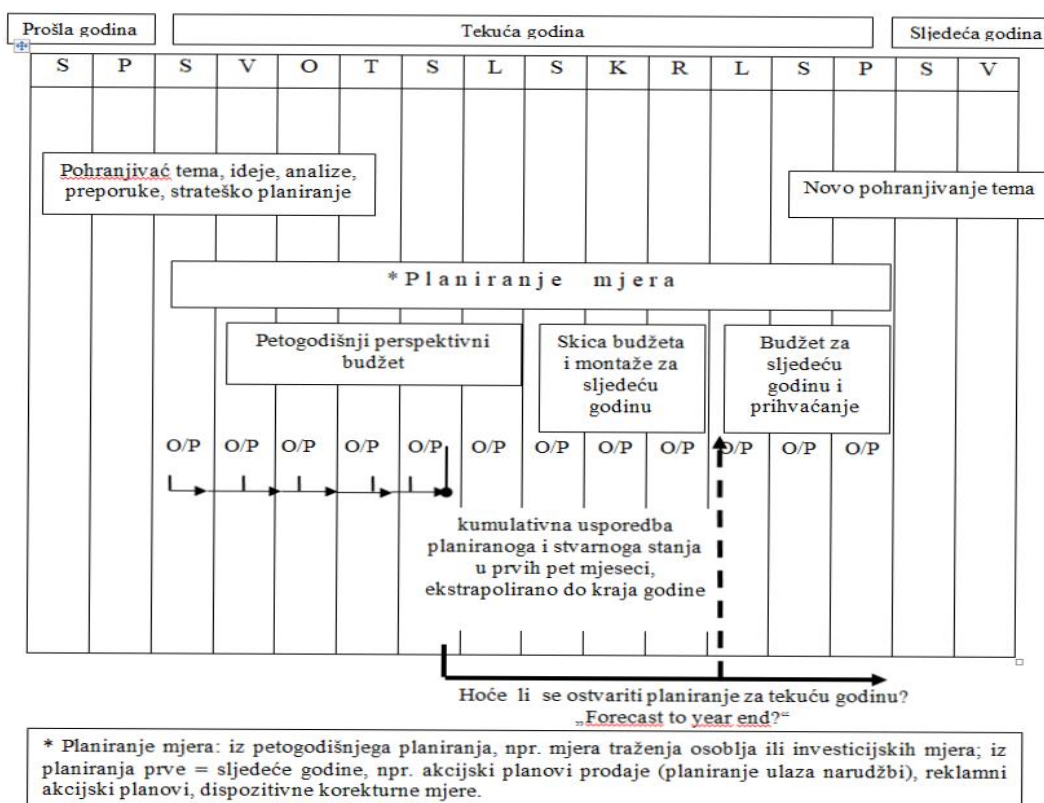
Obzirom da se planiranje odvija u vremenskoj dimenziji, odnosno, svaka odluka mora biti *on time*, to su proces i hodogram planiranja ključni činitelji uspješnog planiranja.

3. Hodogram planiranja

Planiranje je iterativni proces, a donošenje planskih odluka sastavni je dio funkcije menadžmenta i ne odnosi se samo na planiranje, već pokriva cjelokupni proces odlučivanja i vodstva tvrtke. Proces planiranja odvija se u koracima, a obzirom da je iterativan to nikad ne završava. Kod operativnog planiranja planiranje je podređeno operativnom cilju i svim segmentima poslovanja, a prije svega operativnog marketinga koji zajedno sa operativnim *controllingom* usklađuje internu okolinu, kao i mogućnosti tvrtke tržišnoj potražnji. Pritom, *controller* rješava problem uskih grla poslovanja, posebno u domeni resursa, što je sukladno

potrebi postavljanja kvantificiranog okvira poslovanja.¹⁷ Problematiku uskih grla controller razrađuje i pretvara u brojne opcije, od mogućnosti *outsourcinga* do investiranja u proširenje kapaciteta.

Dakle, proces planiranja odvija se u vremenu, a provodi se u koracima koji su jasno definirani, te se cijeli plan razrađuje i podređuje subjektima planiranja kako bi se oblikovali njihovi pod-ciljevi. Posebno na najnižim razinama planiranja, planiranjem po subjektima planiranja, postavlja se kalendar aktivnosti, te svaki subjekt planiranja ima jasan i transparentan pregled svojih aktivnosti i planskih zadataka. Na taj se način cijeli plan razrađuje i razlučuje po subjektima da bi se u konačnici sublimirao i oblikovao kao jedinstveni plan tvrtke, a cijeli proces planiranja provodi se tijekom godine.



Slika 2. Terminski kalendar planiranja

Izvor: modificirano prema Deyhle, A.: *Controller-Praxis, Führung durch Ziele – Planung – Controlling*, Band II, Verlag für ControllingWissen AG Offenburg, Germany, 2003., str. 28.

Kao što se vidi iz slike 2., proces planiranja započinje u ožujku, dakle u vremenu kada raspoložemo cjelokupnom dokumentacijom i rezultatima poslovanja protekle godine. Ta faza planiranja završava krajem listopada, kada započinje faza oblikovanja planova i operativnih mjera ciljno usmjerenih. Ovaj proces traje do prosinca, kada se oblikuje operativni plan nadolazećeg razdoblja. Početak godine, od siječnja do ožujka, obilježen je analizom strateškog plana i njegovim ostvarenjem, što je važno obzirom na operativni plan i njegovu

¹⁷ Luković, T. & Lebefromm, U.: *Controlling, Konzept und Fälle*, Erste Auflage, Engelsdorfer Verlag, Leipzig, 2010., str. 27

realizaciju. Završna faza planiranja odnosi se na oblikovanje ukupnog budžeta, a put planiranja odvija se kroz tri faze, i to:

1. izradba planskih skica
2. provođenje koordinacije planiranja
3. završetak planiranja.

Kao što smo kazali, planiranje je iterativan proces, ali i više od toga, jer obzirom na promjene, kao i primjenu dispoziitivnog planiranja, planiranje je samoučeći proces.

Obzirom na dinamiku planiranja, kao što je prikazano na slici 1., u donjem dijelu slike „O/P“ (ostvareno/planirano) analizira se taj odnos, a koji se obračunava u smislu očekivanog rezultata tekuće godine. Izvješće o tome vremenski je limitirano na sredinu svibnja, a obračuni se provode kvartalno. U tom vremenu raspolaže se sa izvješćem interne i eksterne revizije, koja u svojim izvješćima prikazuje i neka prognostička viđenja budućeg poslovanja. Sukladno tome, prvi nadzorni obračun tzv. „*rolling forecast*“, postavlja se do kraja rujna jer je tada potrebno znati kakva je ostvarivost plana naredne godine.

Uskrs, u gospodarstvu, ima važnu ulogu, jer ima ulogu pojašnjenja mnogih poslovnih problema, pa se primjerice tada raspravlja o *strateškom perspektivnom budžetu* temeljem kojeg se razvija baza podataka, po smjeru „*top down*“, a koja je potrebna za postavljanje operativnog plana. Pritom se terminski plan sljedeće godine budžetira, a za njega je potrebno postaviti tri osnovna segmenta, *Skicu/Provedbu/Donošenje*. Operativni budžeti, odnosno, budžeti u vremenu strateškog plana, moraju odgovarati strateškom cilju, što znači da su svi budžeti prilagođeni profitnim centrima i njihovim ciljevima, koji se u vremenu strateškog plana na kraju stapaju u strateški cilj. Prema tome, svaki pojedini odjel, koji je organiziran kao profitni centar, ima svoje mjerljive ciljeve, a što znači da ima i mjerljive troškove za koje se koriste *standards of performance*. U tome je analiza i postupanje sa graničnim troškovima svakog segmenta poslovanja od posebne važnosti, jer bitno utječe na vodstvo i poslovne odluke.

U tako postavljenom sustavu planiranja moguće je i potrebno razraditi i analizirati probleme koji ugrožavaju očekivane rezultate. Ipak, nenadane ugroze su moguće, kao što je to bio i jest slučaj sa COVID-19 koji je početkom 2020. u Hrvatskoj pogodio sve gospodarske subjekte. Pritom je ekonomija Hrvatske, poradi izrazite turističke orijentacije, doživjela značajne gubitke. Poslovni gubici su se različito manifestirali, zavisno o strukturi djelatnosti industrija i gospodarskih subjekata. Ovdje se postavlja pitanje, na koji je način COVID-19 pogodio pojedine industrije i njene subjekte, kao i odnos državne administracije prema njima.

4. Controller u ulozi vodstva, situacija postupanja sa graničnim troškovima

Razne su situacije u kojima se *controller* nalazi u ulozi vodstva. Obzirom na ugrozu COVID-19, koja je započela u Hrvatskoj 2020. godine, marine su se relativno nespremne našle u poslovanju u uvjetima ugroze. Obzirom na poslovnu strukturu, marine su u odnosu na druge industrije doživjele nešto niže gubitke, primjerice, u odnosu na charter, što je za marine bilo

posebno povoljno. Ipak, obzirom da se ugroza nastavlja i u sezoni 2021., a vjerojatno će se i nadalje nastaviti¹⁸, menadžment marine poseže za uslugama *controllera* koji treba pomoći da se onaj dio poslovanja koji je znatno izložen gubicima od COVID-19 svede na minimum. *Controller* će u tom poslu koristiti jednu posebnu tablicu koja pokazuje do kojeg se nivoa mogu smanjivati granični troškovi putem smanjenja cijena, čime bi se povećala prodaja.

a. *Ulazna situacija, marina Frapa, Rogoznica*

Marina Frapa, Rogoznica, jedna je od najboljih europskih i svjetskih marina. Tijekom godina postojanja, marina kontinuirano bilježi pozitivan rezultat kojeg koristi za stalno ulaganje i investiranje u kapacitete marine, njeno proširenje, kao i nove usluge. Poslovnu godinu 2020. marina je dočekala, obzirom na COVID-19, relativno nespremna, slično kao i druge marine u Hrvatskoj.

Tablica 1. Osnovni podaci marine Frapa, Rogoznica, stanje 2019.

	Osnovna obilježja	2019.
1	Broj vezova u moru	500
2	Broj vezova na kopnu	150
3	Površina koncesije (m ²)	166,062
4	Privatno zemljište (m ²)	17.772
5	Broj stalno zaposlenih	110
6	Sezonski radnici	50

Izvor: izradili autori temeljem podataka marine Frapa, Rogoznica

Marina Frapa, Rogoznica, u sastavu je krovne tvrtke „Laguna trade“ d.o.o. Zagreb, pod kojom su i nova marina Frapa Dubrovnik. U sastavu marine Frapa, Rogoznica, nalaze se i dva sidrišta koja će se ovdje izuzeti iz analize.

Marina Frapa ima u prostoru marine veliki broj usluga, kako svojih tako i usluga koje pružaju druge tvrtke u unajmljenim prostorima marine. Stoga su prihodi marine složeni, ali ipak osnovne prihode marine sačinjavaju prihodi od vezova, posebno od stalnih vezova, odnosno, od vezova na godišnji ugovor.

Tablica 2. Osnovni pokazatelji poslovanja marine FRAPA Rogoznica 2019.

	Djelatnosti	Marina Frapa				
		Prihodi	Zaposleni	Davanja državi	Struktura državnih davanja (u%)	Profit prije oporezivanja (EBIT)
1	Vezovi u marini	28.018.884	30	7.622.640	58,97	9.414.136
2	Sidrište	423.729	3	271.574	2,10	187.684
3	Servis plovila	8.756.339	25	2.312.552	17,89	2.240.988
4	Ugostiteljstvo	4.469.893	25	1.173.470	9,08	-1.603.984
5	Posebne usluge	699.964	6	177.690	1,37	349.982
6	Najam	3.898.259	2	1.037.521	8,03	1.500.000
7	Hotel	1.900.231	9	319.828	2,47	1.151.846
8	Kapetanski klub	36.974	0	9.982	0,07	3.600

¹⁸ Obzirom na procjene ključnih industrija povezanih sa turizmom, avio-promet i veliki svjetski cruising, tek se 2025 očekuje značajnije smirivanje i rješavanje problema pandemije COVID-19 kada se može očekivati poslovanje sa punim kapacitetima.

9	Mjenjačnica	102.988	1	2.060	0,02	60.000
10	Ukupno:	48.307.261	101	12.927.317	100,00	13.304.252

Izvor: izradili autori temeljem podataka marine Frapa, Rogoznica

Kao što se vidi iz tablice 2., marina Frapa, Rogoznica, ima veliki broj izvora prihoda, ali osnovni izvor prihoda čine vezovi. Uz vezove, osnovni prihodi marine dolaze od servisa, a slijedi ga ugostiteljstvo te najam prostora marine. Također, opterećenje od strane države, bez obzira na COVID-19, nije se smanjilo, što dokazuje nepoznavanje situacije od strane državne administracije kao i otklon od poduzetništva kojeg bi hrvatska država trebala podržavati.¹⁹ Ugroza COVID-19 koja je pogodila sve hrvatske marine, ali i sve europske marine, različito se očitovala na strukturu izvora prihoda, odnosno, na strukturu usluga koje pružaju marine. Stoga je važno analizirati poslovanje marine u domeni vezova koji su ključni za prihode i poslovanje marina.

Tablica 3. Prihodi i davanja državi 2019. (u 000 kn) i gubitak/dobit 2020.

	Vrsta prihodi	Prihodi	PDV (25%)	Koncesija		Gubitak/dobit 2020.
				Fiksni dio	Od prihoda	
1	Vezovi u moru, stalni	20.318	5.080	62	406	Značajna dobit
2	Kombinirano more/kopno	2.624	656	6	37	Mala dobit
3	Suhi vez	0,5	0,1	0	0	Oko nule
4	Tranzit	2.757	689	8	55	Veliki gubitak
5	Mjesečni vez	809	202	2	16	Gubitak
6	Zimski vez	350	87	0	0	Oko nule
7	Ostalo	1.584,5	1.085,9	143	48	Mala dobit
8	UKUPNO:	28.443	7.111	221	562	dobit

Izvor: izradili autori temeljem podataka marine Frapa, Rogoznica

Kao što se vidi iz tablice 3. osnovne prihode sačinjavaju vezovi u moru, a oni se sastoje od godišnjih, stalnih ili ugovorom definiranih vezova te vezova u tranzitu, kao i drugih vrsta vezova koji su u prihodima manje strukturirani. Ugroza COVID-19, koja je pogodila poslovanje marina, nije pogodila godišnje stalne vezove, ali je jako pogodila vezove u tranzitu, koji su 2020. prihodovno bili veoma blizu nule. Pritom, u brojnim uvalama na tzv. „divljem vezu“ usidrile su se brojne jahte kojima je pogodio kaos na pomorskom dobru, kao i nebriga države. Odnosno, temeljem loših zakona nadležnost nad uvalama, u smislu naplate sidrenja, u Hrvatskoj ne postoji, što su domaće i strane jahte iskoristile. Također, boraveći na „divljem vezu“ opasnost od zaraze COVID-19 svedena je na minimum što je pogodilo takvom obliku sidrenja. Obzirom, da slijedi nova turistička sezona, 2021. godina, kao i obzirom na lošu situaciju vezano za cijepljenje kao i novi val pandemije, marine moraju posegnuti za mjerama kako bi štete od vezova u tranzitu svele na minimum. Iako u turizmu vrijedi pravilo „ne dirajte cijene nego za iste cijene ponudite više“, pomoć *controllera* u smislu rezanja cijena, ipak je potrebna.

b. Granični troškovi marina i *controller* u ulozi vodstva 2020.

¹⁹ Luković, T. & Piplica D.: „Poslovanje marina u pristupima malog i srednjeg poduzetništva“, Naše more, časopis Sveučilišta u Dubrovniku, Dubrovnik 2021.

Kao što je prikazano u tablici 3., utvrđeno je da je najveći gubitak marine ostvaren kod vezova u tranzitu. Obzirom, da se ulazi u sezonu 2021., *controllerov* je zadatak riješiti taj problem. Svakako, mjere zaštite od COVID-19 podignuti će se u marini na najviši nivo, te su maske obavezne u svim prilikama. Sve što *controlleru* ostaje, vezano za saniranje stanja vezova u tranzitu, je smanjenje cijena, ali za to treba znati točnu kalkulaciju vezova da bi znao visinu graničnih troškova. Prosječna cijena dnevnog veza za jahte 12-15 metara je oko 100 eura, što je polazna veličina sa kojom marketing nastupa na tržištu ponude, a koja je *controlleru* ključna. Do pandemije COVID-19 ta je cijena bila prihvatljiva, ali *controller* ocjenjuje da ju je sada, u uvjetima COVID-19, potrebno korigirati na niže. U tome *controller* misli da cijenu od 100 eura treba korigirati, i na tržište izaći sa novom cijenom dnevnog veza od 80 eura po danu.

Kako *controller* marine rješava taj problem?

Ono što je najvažnije je kalkulacijski utvrditi prag graničnih troškova te ih usporediti sa predloženom nižom cijenom, a zatim utvrditi koliko je ta cijena iznad graničnih troškova. U slučaju da *controller* utvrdi kako je prodajna cijena ispod prihvatljivog nivoa graničnih troškova, predložena cijena od 80 eura neće se prihvatiti. Odnosno, u slučaju prihvaćanja niže cijene od 80 eura, koja je ispod nivoa graničnih troškova, uz uvjet realizacije većeg dolaska jahti na vez to bi značili ostvarenje visokog gubitka marine, umjesto dobiti. Utvrdi li se pak da su granični troškovi dnevnog veza 60 eura, nova niža cijena od 80 eura može se prihvatiti.

Kako *controller* postupa?

Cijene vezova u marini, kao i svi poslovi vezani za jahte, u nadležnosti su Recepcije i Kapetana marine. Svakako, njima pomaže služba analitike, ali konačne odluke su u nadležnosti kapetana marine. Stoga se *controller* dogovara sa kapetanom marine. U slučaju da kapetan marine zaključi da će sa novom cijenom dobro popuniti dnevni vez, taj zaključak ne može zadovoljiti *controllera*. Stoga *controller* autoritativno zahtjeva da se to što kapetan marine kaže kao: „dobro ćemo popuniti kapacitete dnevnog veza“, točno vrijednosno oblikuje te predlaže da će rezultat dnevnog veza 2021. biti tri puta veći nego 2020. Obzirom na iskustvo iz sezone 2020., kapetan marine odbija prihvatiti toliku kvantifikaciju dnevnog veza za 2021. godinu. Takva autoritativna komunikacija *controllera* naspram kapetana marine nije prihvatljiva, jer će izazvati sukob i problem se neće riješiti. Sa druge strane, blag i pomirljiv *controllerov* nastup može biti shvaćen kao distanciranje od problema, jer ne vjeruje u veliko povećanje prodaje dnevnog veza. Na blag nastup *controllera* kapetan marine reagira na način da shvaća kako *controller* uopće nije upućen u poslovanje marine i tržište potražnje, što opet ne bi bilo prihvatljivo. Stoga, *controllera* mora nastupiti sukladna njegovoj ulozi, to jest, on se mora postaviti kao *prodavatelj planova i ciljeva*. Sukladno toj ulozi, *controller* postavlja jasne i mjerljive ciljeve koji su kapetanu prihvatljivi. Tako koncipiran prijedlog započinje sa „zalihama dobiti“, odnosno, mora prikazati kapetanu marine da nova cijena ima barem jednaku visinu jamstvenih priloga kao i do tada. To znači da dosadašnja količina prodaje ostvaruje dobit ili je barem na „pozitivnoj nuli“, a sve iznad toga predstavljat će nad-dobit. Kada se među njima, na navedeni način, postigne suglasnost, *controller* i kapetan marine kao cilj postavljaju smanjenja dnevnog veza sa dosadašnje cijene od 100 eura na cijenu od 80

euru. Taj postupak *controller* provodi po sistemu „ako...onda“, za što može koristiti krivulju jamstvenog priloga²⁰. *Controlleru* je također na raspolaganju Deyhleova tablica cilja, koja je prikazana u narednoj tablici.

Tablica 4. Ciljna tablica povećanja prodaje ovisno od postotku graničnih troškova i postotku smanjenja cijena

Smanjenje cijene u %	Granični troškovi u % od „stare“ prodajne cijene								
	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90
1	1,12	1,27	1,45	1,95	2,04	2,56	3,45	5,26	11,12
2,5	2,86	3,23	3,71	4,34	5,27	6,67	9,08	14,28	33,33
5	5,88	6,67	7,69	9,08	11,11	14,28	20,00	33,33	100,00
7,5	9,08	10,34	12,00	14,30	17,65	23,08	33,33	60,00	300,00
9	11,11	12,69	14,67	17,67	21,95	29,05	42,85	81,80	900,00
10	12,50	14,29	16,67	20,00	25,00	33,33	50,00	100,00	Gubitak
12,5	16,10	18,50	21,70	26,30	33,33	45,40	71,40	166,67	
15	20,00	23,08	27,24	33,33	42,80	60,00	100,00	300,00	
17,5	24,10	28,00	33,33	41,20	53,80	77,80	140,00	700,00	
18	25,00	29,05	34,60	42,80	56,20	81,80	150,00	900,00	
20	28,58	33,33	40,00	50,00	66,67	100,00	200,00	Gubitak	
25	38,50	45,40	55,50	71,40	100,00	166,67	500,00		
27	42,90	50,90	62,80	81,80	177,40	207,50	900,00		
30	50,00	60,00	75,00	100,00	150,00	300,06	Gubitak		
33,33	58,70	71,20	90,80	125,00	200,00	500,00			
35	63,60	77,70	100,00	140,00	233,33	700,00			
36	66,67	81,80	105,90	150,00	257,00	900,00			
40	80,00	100,00	133,33	200,00	400,00	Gubitak			
45	100,00	128,50	180,00	300,00	900,00				
50	125,00	166,67	250,00	500,00	Gubitak				

Izvor: Deyhle, A., *Controller-Praxis, Führung durch Ziele – Planung – Controlling*, Band II, Verlag für ControllingWissen AG Offenburg, 2003, str. 148.

Deyhleova tablica povećanja prodaje, ovisno od postotku graničnih troškova i postotku smanjenja cijena, prikazuje relacije između cijena i graničnih troškova. Sukladno tome, dolazi se do prihvatljivog postotak povećanja prodajnih količina. Tom su tablicom sve ulazne veličine kvantitativno definirane, te će kapetan marine, uz pomoć i podršku *controllera*, postupno shvatiti problematiku postupanja sa cijenama sukladno graničnim troškovima. Na taj se način kapetanov prvi izričaj „dobro ćemo popuniti dnevni vez“, pretvara u jasnu ulaznu komponentu koju tablica pretvara u odgovor na pitanje da li je nova niža cijena prihvatljiva. Koristeći tablicu lako se može procijeniti rezultat smanjenja cijene, a što se od kapetana marine očekuje, kao i da provede novu cijenu. Novu nižu cijenu kapetan, sad već uvjeren u uspjeh, prenosi odjelu marketinga koji sa njom izlazi na tržište potražnje. Deyhleova tablica, kao i vrijednosti koje ona koristi, rezultat su naredne formule:²¹

²⁰ Jamstveni prilog, u rječniku *controllera*, predstavlja pojam kontributivne marže

²¹ Deyhle, A., *Controller-Praxis, Führung durch Ziele – Planung – Controlling*, Band II, Verlag für ControllingWissen AG Offenburg, 2003

Postotak povećanja prodajnih količina	=	$\frac{\text{postotak smanjenja cijene}}{100 - \text{postotak graničnih troškova} - \text{postotak smanjenja cijena}} \times 100$
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Kako *controller* koristi tablicu?

Prvi stupac tablice 4. „smanjenje cijene u %“, postavljen je kao postotak smanjenja cijena sa kojim *controller* ulazi u analizu. Naredni stupci, na desno, (10 do 90) označavaju udio graničnih troškova izračunatih kao postotak od stare prodajne cijene, koja je u primjeru marine Frapa iznosila 100 eura. Vrijednosti koje se prikazuju u tijelu tablice, izražene su u postotku, a odnose se na dotadašnju kvantitetu prodaje izraženu u jedinicama prodaje. Za tablicu 4., prekretnica počinje na veličini 50% okomito i paralelno, gdje započinje zona „gubitka“. Odnosno, ako neki proizvod sadržava postotak graničnih troškova od 60%, a uđe se sa smanjenjem cijene više od 40%, ulazi se u zonu gubitka, jer prihod ne može pokriti troškove.

U slučaju marine Frapa, Rogoznica, kapetan marine uz pomoć *controllera* želi smanjiti prodajnu cijenu za 20% te se od stare prodajne cijene dnevnog veza od 100 € dolazi do nove cijene veza od 80 €. Ono što je važno su granični troškovi koji iznose 60 €, a što predstavlja 60% od stare prodajne cijene. Tablica povećanja prodaje, ovisno od postotku graničnih troškova i postotku smanjenja cijena, kod retka od 20% smanjenja cijena i kod stupca 60% graničnih troškova, pokazuje vrijednost od 100,00. Vrijednost „100,00“ pokazuje da se prodaja sa novom cijenom mora minimalno povećati za 100% od toga koliko je u 2020. bilo dnevnih vezova u marini. Dakle, potrebno je ostvariti povećanje prodaje dnevnog veza dvostruko nego u 2020. godini. To je onaj pravi vrijednosno izražen odgovor na komentar kapetana marine koji je na početku kazao „dobro ćemo popuniti kapacitete dnevnog veza“, a što nije zadovoljilo *controllera*. Sada, kad je to riješeno, *controller* pita kapetana marine: „hoće li to smanjenje cijene ostvariti 100% povećanje prodaje dnevnog veza?“, obzirom da je to sad jasan cilj koji je postavljen kapetanu marine. Odgovor na to pitanje iziskuje od kapetana marine da napravi „*plan-commitment*“, a koji se bazira na krivulji potražnje, koja predstavlja odnos između nove prodajne cijene i potrebnih prodajnih količina.

Realnost krivulje potražnje za dnevnim vezovima zavisi od niza dodatnih informacija koje su potrebne kapetanu marine i *controlleru*, kao, primjerice: „Kako će nautičari reagirati na novu prodajnu cijenu?“, ili pak „Da li je dosadašnja potražnja za dnevnim vezom u marini Frapa dovoljno primamljiva nautičarima da uz smanjenu cijenu od 20% pokrene želju za korištenjem dnevnog veza u marini Frapa, umjesto divljeg veza u nekoj uvali?“, kao i pitanje „Da li je potražnja za dnevnim vezom dovoljno cjenovno elastična i koliko?“, ali i druga pitanja. Tek kada se dobiju odgovori na takva ključna pitanja, te kada kapetan marine prihvati da će uz pomoć službe marketinga uspjeti udvostručiti prodaju dnevnog veza u nadolazećoj 2021. sezoni, *controller* može biti zadovoljan. Načelno, posao *controllera* tu završava. Da li

je posao koji su obavili kapetan marine i *controller* bio uspješan vidjet će se tek na kraju sezone, u studenom 2021.

U praksi se ipak može pojaviti jedna nova situacija, odnosno, može se dogoditi da kapetan marine, nakon izračuna, shvati da nije u realnoj mogućnosti ostvariti zacrtanu dvostruku prodaju dnevnog veza sa novom cijenom od 80 eura. Usprkos tome on i nadalje inzistira na realizaciji zacrtanog plana, i to prvenstveno poradi većeg tržišnog udjela prodajnog programa koji je prihvatio pa je za njega i odgovoran.

Kako *controller* tada postupa i može li, i pod kojim uvjetima, kapetan marine ipak smanjiti cijenu dnevnog veza?

Zadatak kapetana marina koji je na čelu Recepcije, kao i odjela marketinga, je prodati sve vrste vezova, od godišnjih ugovornih vezova pa do dnevnog veza, tranzita.

Pritom, *controller* je samo „kopilot“, kao i *prodavatelj planova i ciljeva*, iz čega proizlazi njegova uloga i funkcija u sustavu vodstva i odlučivanja o prodaji. U tom sustavu, kao i novoj situaciji u kojoj kapetan marine ipak inzistira na uvođenju nove snižene cijene dnevnog veza poradi povećanja udjela na tržištu, njegova odluka mora biti zadnja. *Controller* mora jasno definirati cijenu u domeni odluke prodaje, a kapetan marine uz pomoć *controllera*, prije svega za sebe, a onda i šire, treba izračunati koliko jedinica *jamstvenog priloga* propušta, odnosno, gubi, zbog dodatnog tržišnog udjela. Sa time završava nadležnost *controllera* u ulozi vodstva i nastupa nadležnost kapetana marine. U tom procesu koji se nastavlja i u kojem kapetan marine odlučuje treba li povećani udjel na tržištu „platiti cijenom“ smanjenja jamstvenih priloga, kapetan marine je odgovoran. Ovdje treba istaknuti da ako kapetan marine, kao ključni menadžer cijelog sustava marine, dugoročno nije sposoban pratiti postavljeni cilj, kao i WEG sustav²², po sistemu *management by...*, ne može dugoročno obavljati funkciju kapetana marine. Stoga je prihvaćanje rizika odluke, vezano za novu cijenu dnevnog veza, za njega ujedno test njegovih menadžerskih kvaliteta. U situaciji visoko izražene sumnje u učinkovitost niže cijene dnevnog veza od 80 eura, a koja je suprotstavljena izračunima *controllera*, ne potvrđuje se dovoljnost njegovih kognitivnih menadžerskih sposobnosti za funkciju kapetana marine Frapa te je logično da ga vlasnik marine zamijeni.

5. Zaključak

Planiranje i *controlling* centralne su funkcije menadžmenta. U spoju, kao *controlling*sko planiranje moćno su oružje u nastajanju da se poslovanje odvija sa minimalnim rizikom. U tom je procesu uloga *controllera* presudna te je njegovo učešće u vodstvu izuzetno važno, kao „prodavatelju planova i ciljeva“, odnosno, ideja i opcija koje nudi menadžeru po sistemu „ako..., onda“. Obzirom da se poslovanje, a time i planiranje, odvijaju u vremenskoj dimenziji, to *controller* probleme treba promptno rješavati. Rješavanje problema, u sustavu vodstva, *controller* rješava zajedno sa menadžerom, a da bi njihova suradnja biti učinkovita oblik izražavanja i komunikacije mora biti poticajan i nimalo napadan. Pritom se *controller* služi brojnim alatima i vrstama izračuna od kojih je u ovom radu prikazano postupanje i korištenje

²² Pogledati WEG koncept Deyhle, A., *Controller-Praxis, Führung durch Ziele – Planung – Controlling*, Band I, Verlag für ControllingWissen AG Offenburg, 2003., str. 12.

graničnih troškova u revidiranju cijena dnevnog veza marine. Ugroza COVID-19 pokazao je brojne manjkavosti poslovanja mnogih subjekata te se za *controllera* otvara lepeza problema koje treba rješavati i sanirati. U tu svrhu Deyhle je izradio i svijetu ponudio posebnu tablicu koja je u ovom istraživanju naslovljena kao „ciljna tablica povećanja prodaje ovisno od postotku graničnih troškova i postotku smanjenja cijena“ čiji način korištenja prikazan na primjeru revidiranja cijene dnevnog veza marine Frapa, Rogoznica. Tablica koja je prikazana u ovom radu izuzetno je praktična i bitno skraćuje vrijeme izračuna koje *controller* mora provesti da bi došao do zaključna da li je predložena cijena iznad nivoa graničnih troškova i koliki obujam prodaje se mora ostvariti da bi sve bilo iznad granice gubitka.

Ostaje za vjerovati da će malobrojni hrvatski *controlleri* prikazano postupanje sa graničnim troškovima u sustavu vodstva primjenjivati na dobrobit hrvatskog gospodarstva. Pritom WEG koncept i sustav *management by...* znam pomaže u praksi u ciljno usmjerenom operativnom menadžmentu.

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IZAZOVI UVOĐENJA I PRIHVAĆANJA ZAJEDNIČKE EUROPSKE VALUTE

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Sažetak

Jedna od najviših razina integracije među zemljama uspostavlja se u obliku monetarne unije. Europska unija kao vodeća takva unija danas je djelomično pokrivena i Europskom monetarnom unijom. Trenutno nisu sve članice Europske unije prihvatile zajedničku valutu i zajedničku monetarnu politiku, pa je zajednička valuta prisutna u otprilike dvije trećine članica. U ovom radu analiziraju se razlozi za uvođenje zajedničke europske valute, ako i problemi i prepreke koje pritom nastaju. Ključno značenje ima i prihvaćenost eura od strane stanovnika Europske unije, pri čemu između 65 i 75 posto građana EU daje potporu zajedničkoj valuti. Za uspjeh valute ključni su njezina stabilnost i sigurnost. Za valutu koja zadovoljava takve karakteristike može se reći da je poželjna među stanovništvom i to u dva svoja temeljna svojstva: kao mjerilo vrijednosti i kao oblik štednje. Euro danas dobiva na značaju, Europska središnja banka provodi takvu monetarnu politiku da je svoju valutu pozicionirala kao stabilnu i čvrstu. Ovaj rad posebno je značajan u trenutku kada se Hrvatska priprema za prihvaćanje zajedničke europske valute, te se u široj javnosti razmatraju ključne prednosti i nedostaci takvog pridruživanja.

Ključne riječi: zajednička valuta, euro, monetarna politika, Hrvatska

1. Uvod

Jedno od ključnih područja harmonizacije unutar Europske unije je provedba zajedničke monetarne politike. Još od početaka europskih integracija to je bila jedna od ideja, za čiju realizaciju je trebalo proći otprilike pola stoljeća. Simbol zajedničke monetarne politike koja se provodi unutar Europske monetarne unije je njezina valuta euro.

Euro je naziv jedinstvene europske valute koja je u uporabi od 1. siječnja 1999. godine pri čemu je tek 1. siječnja 2002. postao platežno sredstvo u 12 zemalja. Trenutno je službena valuta 19 od 27 država članica Europske unije koje zajedno čine eurozonu koja se službeno naziva europodručje.

Države članice Europske unije, da bi postale dio tog europodručja, moraju ispuniti zadane gospodarske i pravne uvjete dogovorene 1992. godine ugovorom iz Maastrichta. Ti uvjeti nazivaju se kriteriji konvergencije, poznatiji kao kriteriji iz Maastrichta. Proces uvođenja eura nije isključivo političko, nego i ekonomsko pitanje. Uvođenje eura u Hrvatskoj, ali i u drugim zemljama, predstavlja kompleksnu temu koja je u zadnje vrijeme vrlo aktualna. Ulazak u eurozonu jedan je od ključnih ciljeva aktualne Vlade pri čemu je potrebno zadovoljiti postavljene preduvjete što često uzrokuje brojne probleme i nesuglasice.

Činjenica da je euro druga najveća i najsnažnija globalna valuta, odmah poslije američkog dolara te da se njime svakodnevno koristi više od 340 milijuna ljudi u europodručju kao i sve prethodno navedeno, ide u prilog aktualnosti ove teme.

Baš kao i svaki drugi proces, uvođenje eura kao zajedničke valute ima svoje prednosti, ali i pojedine nedostatke. U usporedbi s prethodnom situacijom u kojoj je svaka zemlja članica imala vlastitu valutu, euro kao jedinstvena valuta donosi brojne prednosti i koristi. Uvođenjem eura, nestat će rizici fluktuacije kao i troškovi razmjene valuta, doći će do jačanja jedinstvenog tržišta i bolje povezanosti država članica koje će zbog zajedničke valute u znatno većoj mjeri surađivati na stabilnoj valuti i gospodarstvu. No, potrebno je naglasiti i da unatoč brojnim prednostima eura kao zajedničke valute, postoje i različiti nedostaci koje on sa sobom nosi. Neki od njih su gubitak samostalne monetarne politike, rast opće razine cijena kao posljedica konverzije valute, zatim jednokratni troškovi konverzije, rizik prekomjernog priljeva kapitala te akumulacije svih makroekonomskih neravnoteža.

2. Pregled istraživanja

Brojni autori analizirali su europsku monetarnu uniju, neki još prije nego što je uspostavljena, a neki u svjetlu aktualnih problema s kojima se susreće. U ovom pregledu literature autori daju osvrt na ključne ideje, od kojih su neke vezane s eurozonom općenito, a druge u fokus stavljaju Hrvatsku. Pregled je prikazan kronološkim redoslijedom.

Afhüppe (2001) smatra da je uvođenjem eura nastao drugi po veličini gospodarski prostor u svijetu. Ipak, ovaj gospodarski prostor nije bez problema. Predviđa se da će tečaj eura porasti tek kad se poboljšaju uvjeti za ulaganje u zoni eura. Sve vlade u EU moraju raditi na strukturnim reformama tržišta rada i socijalne politike. U tom pogledu moguć je napredak kad euro postane međunarodno sredstvo plaćanja u rangu dolara. Kako bi se to ostvarilo, potrebno je stvoriti političku uniju u Europi, jer je za uspješnu valutu potrebna politička snaga.

Ulazak u uniju za svaku je zemlju jedinstven, kao i prednosti i nedostaci koje ona iz toga može izvući. Kako bi uopće stekle uvjete za priključenje Europskoj uniji, tranzicijske zemlje moraju ispuniti različite kriterije konvergencije. Proširenje EU nosi sa sobom brojne izazove koordiniranja politika i vođenja zajedničke monetarne politike. Nakon priključenja uniji od novih se članica očekuje sudjelovanje minimalno dvije godine u tečajnom mehanizmu 2 (ERM2) prije uvođenja eura. Bilas (2005) analizira kako ERM2 može biti fleksibilan i efikasan okvir za utvrđivanje pogodne razine neopozivog fiksiranja tečaja za euro te za ostvarivanje makroekonomske stabilnosti, no s obzirom na zahtjeve za potpunim ukidanjem kapitalnih kontrola i visoku mobilnost kapitala, fiksni tečaj s granicama fluktuacija od $\pm 15\%$ postaje ranjiv na tijekove kapitala i spekulativne napade.

Broz (2008) analizira korelaciju šokova ponude i potražnje između Europske monetarne unije i zemalja Srednje i Istočne Europe kako bi se provjerilo postoji li određeni stupanj koordinacije poslovnih ciklusa između njih. Glavni cilj je utvrditi postoji li korelacija s Hrvatskom i usporediti je s ostalim zemljama Srednje i Istočne Europe. Informacija o korelaciji šokova ponude i potražnje između Europske monetarne unije i zemalja Srednje i Istočne Europe je važna ako zemlja želi uvesti euro, budući da usklađenost poslovnih ciklusa ima značajan utjecaj na spremnost ulaska u monetarnu uniju. Kako bi se dobili rezultati, šokovi ponude i potražnje su izdvojeni iz podataka putem Blanchard-Quah metodologije, a

zatim su izračunate korelacije šokova između Europske monetarne unije i zemalja Srednje i Istočne Europe, kao i veličina šokova i brzina prilagodbe. Rezultati pokazuju da Hrvatska trenutno nije spremna za zajedničku monetarnu politiku s Europskom monetarnom unijom, dok među ostalim zemljama Srednje i Istočne Europe najbližu vezu svojih poslovnih ciklusa s Europskom monetarnom unijom imaju Slovenija i Latvija, koje su se zapravo i prve prijavile za uvođenje eura.

Eurozona trenutno uključuje 19 od 28 zemalja Europske unije. Redo (2016) analizira Poljsku koja je u manjini zemalja EU koje nemaju euro. Ako se uzme u obzir da Bugarska (valutni odbor), a također i Danska (službeno je to tečaj s vrlo niskom marginom oscilacije prema euru +/- 2,25%) imaju fiksni tečaj prema euru, ispada da je Poljska u maloj skupini zemalja EU čija su gospodarstva, građani i gospodarski subjekti u opasnosti od svakodnevnog kretanja tečaja. U ovu skupinu zemalja ulazi i Hrvatska.

Gabrielczak i Serwach (2017) provjeravaju utjecaj usvajanja eura na strukture dobara u slovenskom izvozu. Prema najboljim saznanjima autora, ovo je prva studija o posljedicama koje ukidanje nacionalne valute može imati za tu značajku trgovine. Prema modelima trgovine Ricarda i Hechscher-Ohlina, takva odluka o politici liberalizacije trgovine može dovesti do specijalizacije u proizvodnji više ili manje sofisticiranih dobara – ono što ovisi o tehnologiji i faktorima dodjele sredstava. Istodobno, povećani tokovi izravnih stranih ulaganja mogu učiniti određenu ekonomiju više angažiranom u međunarodnim proizvodnim lancima, s dvosmislenim utjecajem na složenost izvoza. S obzirom na činjenicu da je nemoguće teoretski predvidjeti utjecaj monetarne integracije na složenost, razumljivo je empirijski tražiti učinke integracije. Rezultati ukazuju da je članstvo u Europskoj monetarnoj uniji (EMU) dovelo do privremenog povećanja složenosti izvezene robe.

Ćorić i Deskar-Škrbić (2017) analiziraju različite aspekte pristupanja Hrvatske europodručju i ocjenjuju trenutačnu spremnost Hrvatske za ulazak u tečajni mehanizam ERM 2. Sažeto prikazuju potencijalne troškove i koristi od uvođenja eura kao nacionalne valute. Koristeći metodu deskriptivne statistike, autori utvrđuju trenutačnu poziciju Hrvatske u odnosu na konvergenzijske kriterije te određuju potencijalni trenutak ulaska u tečajni mehanizam ERM 2. Analiziraju iskustva usporedivih zemalja članica Nove Europe, Slovenije i Slovačke, prije i nakon ulaska u ERM 2 te ističu ključne pouke za nositelje politike u Hrvatskoj. Budući da je Hrvatska visoko euroizirana, mala, otvorena ekonomija, snažno integrirana u trgovinske i financijske tokove europodručja te da već ima ograničen suverenitet monetarne politike, potencijalne prednosti uvođenja eura nadmašuju sve potencijalne troškove.

Primjenom teorije optimalnih valutnih područja, Brkić i Šabić (2018) analiziraju je li Hrvatska spremna za uvođenje eura. Ta teorija predlaže nekoliko kriterija koje bi neka država trebala zadovoljiti da bi mogla uspješno funkcionirati u uvjetima zajedničke monetarne politike. Većina kriterija odnosi se na utvrđivanje stupnja ekonomske integracije između pojedine države i monetarne unije, s obzirom na to da snažna ekonomska integriranost implicira manji rizik asimetričnih šokova. Analiza pokazuje da je hrvatsko gospodarstvo trgovinski i financijski vrlo integrirano s europodručjem, poslovni je ciklus usklađen s poslovnim ciklusima najvećih država članica europodručja, a pristupanjem EU-u povećao se i

stupanj političke integracije između Hrvatske i ostalih članica. Prema tim kriterijima može se zaključiti da će Hrvatska učinkovito funkcionirati u uvjetima zajedničke monetarne politike. Nasuprot tome, relativno su slaba ostvarenja Hrvatske kada je riječ o kriteriju diverzificiranosti gospodarstva. Osim povoljnih ostvarenja Hrvatske prema većini kriterija teorije optimalnih valutnih područja, postoje i drugi važni argumenti u prilog uvođenju eura u Hrvatskoj. Naime, uvođenjem eura nestao bi problem visoke euroiziranosti hrvatskoga gospodarstva, kao i niz drugih rizika i ograničenja koji proizlaze iz tog problema. Uvođenjem eura Hrvatska bi stoga napravila važan korak u smjeru dugoročnog očuvanja makroekonomske stabilnosti.

Rezultati brojnih istraživanja pokazuju da je učinak konverzije nacionalnih valuta u euro na rast potrošačkih cijena u zemljama europodručja u pravilu bio blag i jednokratian. Nešto izrazitiji rast cijena zbog konverzije zabilježen je kod manjeg dijela proizvoda, pretežno uslužnog sektora kao što su, primjerice, usluge u restoranima i kafićima. U skladu sa spomenutim iskustvima, očekuje se da će učinak konverzije kune u euro na povećanje ukupne razine potrošačkih cijena u Hrvatskoj biti blag. Pufnik (2018) razmatra glavne determinante rasta percipirane inflacije u razdoblju nakon konverzije te mjere koje su se pokazale efikasnim u ograničavanju učinka uvođenja eura na rast potrošačkih cijena i percipirane inflacije.

Bukovšak, Ćudina i Pavić (2018) prikazuju rezultate izabranih empirijskih istraživanja o utjecaju uvođenja eura na robnu razmjenu, inozemna izravna ulaganja i turizam te daju kratak analitički pregled iskustava pojedinih zemalja europodručja, posebice novijih članica i turističkih zemalja. Na osnovi toga, a uzimajući u obzir visok stupanj povezanosti Hrvatske s europodručjem, ocjenjuje se da bi uvođenje eura, zbog nižih transakcijskih troškova i lakše usporedivosti cijena te smanjenja valutnog rizika, moglo blago pojačati hrvatsku razmjenu robe i usluga, posebice turističkih, te pogodovati privlačenju inozemnih ulaganja.

Čehulić i Hrbić (2019) analiziraju utjecaj usvajanja eura na hrvatsko gospodarstvo putem iskustava drugih zemalja koje su već prošle kroz ovaj proces te su usporedive s Hrvatskom u mnogim aspektima. Proces usvajanja valute drugačije od one koja se koristila više od dvadeset godina predstavlja važno ekonomsko pitanje za svaku zemlju. U ovom razdoblju koje prethodi usvajanju eura leži prilika za analizu procesa u zemljama koje su kroz taj proces već prošle. Rezultat ovog rada prikazuje utjecaje usvajanja eura u europskim zemljama. Odabrane zemlje adekvatne za analizu utjecaja usvajanja eura su: Portugal, Irska, Grčka, Španjolska, Slovenija, Slovačka, Estonija, Litva i Latvija. Navedene su zemlje odabrane iz više različitih razloga. Većina ovih zemalja ima sličnosti s Hrvatskom, koje su prikazane u ovom radu putem relevantnih ekonomskih pokazatelja. Dobiveni rezultati su značajni za Hrvatsku te pokazuju dugoročno pozitivan utjecaj na hrvatsko tržište.

Stoffels (2019) se bavi intrigantnim, aktualnim, ali i slabo istraženim pitanjem trebaju li države članice EU-a, nakon pristupanja EU, biti obvezne uvesti euro. Nakon zaključka kako bi uvođenje eura u načelu trebalo biti obvezno, pobliže proučava kriterij konvergencije tečaja. Zaključuje da je službeno sudjelovanje zemlje u ERM II nužan, ali nedovoljan uvjet da bi ta zemlja ispunila kriterij konvergencije tečaja. Međutim, budući da je članstvo u ERM II

dobrovoljno, to također znači i da je odluka zemlje da uvede euro u potpunosti dobrovoljna. Sukladno tome, država članica poput Švedske ima pravo jednostavno zaobići uvođenje eura jednostavnim suzdržavanjem od sudjelovanja u ERM II.

Izvan njemačkog akademskog sektora snažno se podupire ideja da bi porast novčane mase Europske središnje banke neizbježno doveo do visoke inflacije ili čak hiperinflacije. Lechner (2020) istražuje pitanje bi li se i koliko visoka inflacija mogla dogoditi u eurozoni. Teza je da najveća opasnost za eurozonu dolazi od mogućeg izlaska Italije i/ili Španjolske. Covid-19 povećao je rizik zbog vrlo različitih gospodarskih kretanja u različitim zemljama eurozone, a Italija i Španjolska moraju računati s dramatičnim porastom javnog duga, slabim gospodarskim rastom i pogoršanjem na tržištu rada. Glavni problem nije u tome što euro zona ne bi pomogla Italiji ili Španjolskoj, već što ljudi u tim zemljama mogu osjetiti da pomoć nije dovoljna. Stoga bi izlaz mogao postati ozbiljna opcija. Ako ove zemlje napuste euro, tada bi se vjerojatno odlučile za uredan izlazak, što znači da bi se Italija i/ili Španjolska pridružile EMS II nakon jednokratne devalvacije i ne bi napustile EU. Međutim, ako se te zemlje ne odluče za uredan izlazak, neuredan izlazak rezultirao bi velikim rizikom od hiperinflacije.

Uvođenje eura imalo je za cilj poboljšati učinkovitost ekonomske integracije u EU. Od 2002. godine euro je zauzeo drugu najsnažniju poziciju na međunarodnim tržištima novca nakon dolara. Nakon uvođenja eura, uspostavljena su tri glavna novčana sidra na međunarodnim novčanim tržištima, i to dolar, euro i jen. Pokazalo se da je uvođenje eura pozitivno utjecalo na stvarne kamate, dohodak po stanovniku i stopu inflacije u zemljama članicama Europske monetarne unije (EMU). Neizbježno će ovi pozitivni učinci utjecati i na trgovinu u zemljama članicama EMU. Odzeser (2021) istražuje utjecaje eura na trgovinu u eurozoni. U studiji analizira utjecaje eura na trgovinsku bilancu tri najveća gospodarstva, a to su Njemačka, Francuska i Italija.

3. Zajednička europska valuta danas

Prije svega postavlja se pitanje zašto se unutar Europske unije javlja potreba za uvođenjem zajedničke valute. Razlog je prvenstveno želja za dubljom europskom integracijom, što je na neki način i očekivano, budući da je takva želja u velikoj mjeri opravdana ekonomskim interesom. Trenutna politička i ekonomska integracija između država članica nije jednolika, nego se razlikuje po razinama, ali ipak većina njih odabrala je veći stupanj integracije. Potpisivanjem Schengenskog sporazuma većina država članica dobrovoljno se obvezala na viši stupanj integracije i to ponajprije u aspektu prelaska državnih granica i sigurnosti.

Pristupanjem Europskoj uniji neke države članice prihvatile su euro kao zajedničku valutu i samim tim se odrekle svojih dotadašnjih valuta. Za razliku od njih, neke nove članice to još nisu učinile jer nisu zadovoljile potrebne kriterije. Iako još nisu prihvatile euro kao službenu valutu, samim ulaskom u Europsku uniju obvezale su se da će ga u jednom trenutku prihvatiti (Vlada RH; HNB, 2018). Na taj način, postale bi dio jedinstvene zajednice te bi kao takve imale lakši pristup jedinstvenom tržištu, bolju priliku za gospodarski napredak i brojne druge pogodnosti.

Grafički simbol za euro inspiriran je grčkim slovom epsilon što je izravna poveznica na kolijevku europske civilizacije, a također upućuje i na prvo slovo riječi Europa. Dvije paralelne linije koje prolaze simbolom označavaju njegovu stabilnost (Kljajić, 2012).

U financijskom i trgovinskom poslovanju službena kratica koja se upotrebljava za euro je EUR te je registrirana u skladu s Međunarodnom organizacijom za standardizaciju – ISO. U optjecaju je sedam euro novčanica od 5, 10, 20, 50, 100, 200 i 500 eura. Novčanice prikazuju arhitektonske stilove sedam razdoblja europske kulturne prošlosti, posebno naglašavajući tri glavna arhitektonska elementa – prozore, vrata i mostove. Prozori i vrata predstavljaju duh otvorenosti i suradnje, a dvanaest zvjezdica Europske unije označavaju ideale harmonije, jedinstva i solidarnosti. Mostovi su simbol komunikacije među Europljanima te komunikacije između Europe i ostatka svijeta. Osim toga, na naličju novčanica eura nalazi se i potpis predsjednika Europske središnje banke (ESB-a).

4. Međunarodno značenje eura

Više od 340 milijuna stanovnika koristi euro kao službenu valutu te se za europodručje može reći da je drugo gospodarsko područje na svijetu. Istovremeno, euro kao valuta na globalnoj razini jača, a Europska unija pruža sigurnost za svoje građane, ali i poduzeća. U procesu međunarodne trgovine euro prednjači, a zemlje članice europodručja posluju kao trgovinski partneri s brojnim drugim zemljama diljem svijeta. Zbog uloge eura kao svjetske valute, države članice europodručja imaju zaštitu za slučaj da nastupi ekonomska ili financijska kriza.

Euro kao globalna valuta u kriznim okolnostima investitorima pruža sigurnost jer u pravilu takva valuta ne bi trebala gubiti na vrijednosti.

U slučaju deprecijacije deviznog tečaja eura, države članice ne bi trebale osjetiti veliku štetu. Razlog je činjenica da su one, prilikom međunarodnog trgovanja, usmjerene jedna na drugu, osim toga i gospodarski subjekti europodručja zadužuju se pretežito u eurima. Tako se smanjuje važnost kretanja deviznog tečaja eura u odnosu prema ostalim valutama iz razloga što teret otplate duga ostaje unutar europodručja, točnije u eurima (Vujčić, 2003). Euro kao svjetska valuta uživa i znatno veće pogodnosti što je posebno izraženo u uvjetima krize i sloma financijskog tržišta, točnije u situacijama kada je državama članicama najpotrebnija pomoć ili potpora. Tada su najčešće u prednosti upravo zemlje koje imaju euro koji se svojom snagom i sigurnošću ističe nad ostalim, manjim valutama.

Preuzimanje funkcija svjetske valute donosi znatne koristi u različitim aspektima, počevši od izravnih financijskih transfera pa sve do mogućnosti eliminacije utjecaja tečajnih fluktuacija, odnosno eliminacije tečajnog rizika. Unatoč svemu, titula izdavatelja svjetske valute ipak nije u potpunosti savršena jer iziskuje određeni teret i veliku odgovornost. Naime, izdavatelj svjetske valute mora brinuti za stabilnost svjetskog monetarnog sustava koji lako može biti ugrožen ukoliko dođe do zloupotrebe ili pretjeranog iskorištavanja pogodnosti (Vujčić, 2003). Također, izdavatelj svjetske valute ima vodeću ulogu i u slučaju drugih opasnosti, poput ulaska svjetskog gospodarstva u recesiju pri čemu ima presudnu ulogu u pokretanju cjelokupnog oporavka.

5. Koristi i problemi uvođenja zajedničke valute

Ukidanje valutnog rizika koji je povezan s tečajem kune prema euru navodi se kao glavna korist uvođenja eura u Hrvatskoj. Na primjer, ukoliko pojedinac ili određena tvrtka imaju kredit u eurima, a prihode u domaćoj valuti, odnosno kunama, značilo bi da će u slučaju znatnog slabljenja kune doći u nepovoljnu poziciju jer će se dug tada povećati pa će ga biti teže otplatiti. Hrvatska je visoko eurizirana zemlja, veliki dio kredita i štednje već je iskazan u eurima. Sklonost štednji u stranoj valuti razvila se još u prošlosti, u razdoblju visoke inflacije. Ljudi su imali više povjerenja u stranu, svjetski priznatu valutu, nego domaću, vjerujući da je u znatno većoj mjeri izložena različitim tržišnim oscilacijama. Velik dio štednje ljudi su pretvarali u euro koji se uvijek činio kao snažnija i sigurnija valuta posebno za veće iznose štednje, a isto je vrijedilo i za kredite. Iz tog razloga se u posljednjih 20-ak godina udio deviza u depozitima kretao na visokim razinama, dostižući čak i visokih 90% i to unatoč niskoj stopi inflacije, stabilnom tečaju kune te višim kamatama na kunske depozite u odnosu na devize. Do velikog udjela štednje u stranoj valuti, prvenstveno u euru, došlo je i zbog priljeva deviznih doznaka i štednje radnika iz inozemstva, a tome je doprinio i turizam. Većina kredita također je vezana uz stranu valutu jer općenito vrijedi da banke nastoje uskladiti valutnu strukturu aktive i pasive, odnosno kredita i štednje.

Osim toga, očekuje se i pad kamata na kredite, jer nakon što Hrvatska prihvati zajedničku valutu trebalo bi doći do značajnog smanjenja kamatnih stopa na kredite, drugim riječima predviđa se smanjenje troškova zaduživanja. Kamatne stope ovise o nizu različitih faktora poput rizika države, regulatornog troška, rizika zajmoprimca, trošku izvora ili marži koju banka uračunava u kamatnu stopu na kredit (Šonje, 2019). Uvođenje eura, trebalo bi se u što višoj mjeri povoljno odraziti na sve te faktore, dovodeći do nižih kamata, a to bi odgovaralo i pojedincima i poduzećima kojima bi se povećala konkurentnost na tržištu.

Proces uvođenja eura u Hrvatskoj dovest će i do nestanka troškova zamjene kune u euro i obrnuto. Troškovi zamjene javljaju se radi prevelikih razlika u kupovnom i prodajnom tečaju te zbog naknada banaka i mjenjačnica pa bi se moglo reći da se očekuje nestanak troškova mjenjačnica. Uz jedinstvenu valutu, poslovanje u europodručju postalo bi ekonomičnije i manje rizično. Kao velika pogodnost uvođenja eura ističe se i činjenica da Hrvatska dobiva i pristup Europskom mehanizmu za stabilnost čija je kratica ESM i koji pomaže svakoj državi članici koja se nađe u financijskim problemima u okviru svog djelovanja.

S druge strane, kao glavni problem uvođenja eura u Hrvatskoj smatra se gubitak monetarnog suvereniteta. Protivnici uvođenja eura upravo to navode kao glavni nedostatak jer time Hrvatska gubi samostalnu monetarnu i tečajnu politiku. Nacionalna valuta, gledajući s aspekta tradicije, predstavlja osnovni simbol suvereniteta i nacionalnog identiteta i baš iz tog razloga trebalo bi se protiviti takvom potezu. Gubitkom samostalne monetarne politike devizni tečaj više ne može biti korišten u svrhu povećanja konkurentnosti gospodarstva. Budući da se sve zemlje ne nalaze u istim fazama poslovnog ciklusa, uvijek postoji mogućnost da zajednička monetarna politika neće djelovati na sve zemlje u jednakoj mjeri. Moguće povećanje cijena također se navodi potencijalnim nedostatkom uvođenja eura. Uzimajući u obzir dosadašnja saznanja, uvođenjem eura, najveći rast cijena vidljiv je u cijeni

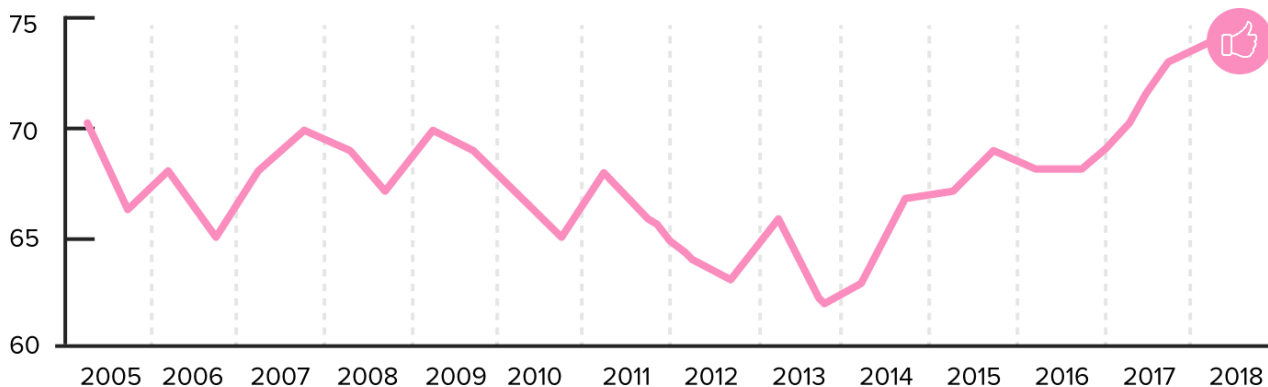
usluga u restoranima i kafićima, frizerskim salonima, ali i rast u cijeni kemijskog čišćenja i popravaka. Bilježi se i porast cijena pekarskih proizvoda i cijena novina i sve to kao posljedica zaokruživanja.

Također, država koja ulazi u europodručje svoja dotad stečena sredstva mora prenijeti na Europsku središnju banku. Takva obveza istovremeno utjelovljuje i korist i trošak. Stvar je u tome da, s jedne strane, ima pravo da u slučaju financijskih kriza koristi sredstva iz proračuna, ali s druge strane i obvezu da na godišnjoj razini uplaćuje određeni iznos u taj fond, a to bi trebao biti postotak proporcionalan njezinom bruto domaćem proizvodu.

Kada je riječ o kritikama oko uvođenja eura, potrebno je istaknuti i problem krivotvorenog novca. Krivotvorine eura sve se češće pojavljuju u optjecaju. Dodatni problem je i njihova kvaliteta zbog koje prilično sličie originalnim novčanicama pa ih je teško raspoznati. Tu se postavlja pitanje kako pravovremeno upozoriti i educirati građane da bi izbjegli problem krivotvorenog novca. Kao rješenje predlažu se interaktivne aplikacije na pametnim uređajima ili izrada zaštitnih obilježja koja bi već po samom primitku krivotvorene novčanice privukla pozornost i spriječila daljnju štetu.

Unatoč svim nedostacima i opasnostima koje proces uvođenja eura sa sobom nosi, veliki broj Europljana dijeli pozitivno mišljenje o euru, podržavajući ga kao jedinstvenu valutu. Njegova popularnost je velika te i dalje neprestano raste. Gledajući brojčano, prema podacima iz 2018., 74% građana EU podržava Europsku ekonomsku i monetarnu uniju i euro kao njezinu jedinstvenu valutu, Slika 1.

Slika 1. Podrška euru među građanima EU

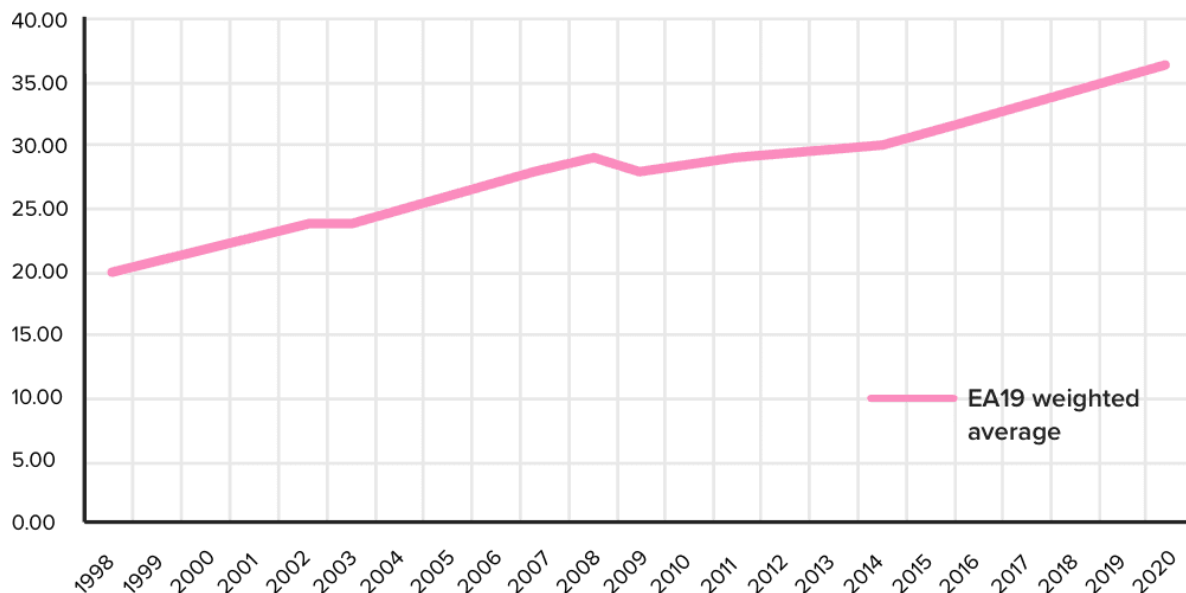


Izvor: Eurobarometar, proljeće 2018.

Euro potiče trgovinu u Europi, ali i šire. Stabilnost je njegova temeljna prednost u odnosu na druge slične valute i upravo ona čini Europu poželjnim trgovinskim partnerom za poduzeća diljem svijeta koja u okvirima svog poslovanja prihvaćaju cijene iskazane u eurima. Ovo je ujedno i razlog zašto su europska poduzeća oslobođena troškova povezanih s tečajnim kretanjima i troškova konverzije eura u druge valute. Nadalje, međusobna trgovina zemalja koje koriste euro znatno je jeftinija i neusporedivo jednostavnija. Euro je doveo i do znatnog poboljšanja životnog standarda i porasta zapošljavanja. To potvrđuje činjenica da je od 1999.

kada je euro uveden, prosječni dohodak u europodručju porastao sa 20900 EUR na 33900 EUR u 2018. godini, Slika 2.

Slika 2. Nominalni BDP po stanovniku u europodručju, u tisućama EUR



Izvor: Europska komisija/baza podataka AMECO

Upotreba eura u međunarodnim plaćanjima izuzetno je velika. Naime, euro je zajednička valuta čak 340 milijuna Europljana, u 2018. godini u optjecaju je bilo više od 21 milijarde novčanica eura i to u vrijednosti od oko 1,1 bilijuna EUR (Europska komisija). Osim toga, u optjecaju je i gotovo 130 milijardi kovanica u ukupnoj vrijednosti više od 28 milijardi EUR, a zanimljiva je i činjenica da je novčanica od 50 eura najčešće upotrebljavana novčanica u europodručju te je u optjecaju više od 10 milijardi takvih novčanica.

Što se tiče budućnosti eura, važno je naglasiti da je on stvoren s ciljem da ispuni tri nade, a to su nada da će približiti europske zemlje međusobno i biti korak prema europskim integracijama, zatim nada da će bolja ekonomska integracija prouzročiti brži ekonomski rast i razvoj te nada da će veća ekonomska integracija pogodovati boljoj političkoj povezanosti i time omogućiti mir u Europi. Ako se analiziraju koristi od veće međunarodne upotrebe eura onda se prvenstveno ističu niži troškovi i manji rizik za europska poduzeća koja posluju na međunarodnoj razini. Trgovanje u eurima, umjesto u nekoj drugoj valuti, dovodi do situacije u kojoj nestaje valutni rizik, ali i svi ostali povezani troškovi, posebice ako je riječ o malim i srednjim europskim poduzećima. Omogućit će se i veća mogućnost izbora za različite subjekte diljem svijeta te veća neovisnost europskih potrošača i poduzeća što im nudi mogućnost financiranja uz manju izloženost zakonskim propisima i mjerama koje su poduzele treće zemlje. Također, stvara se i znatno sigurniji pristup financiranju za europska poduzeća i vlade u normalnim, ali i u uvjetima financijske nestabilnosti.

6. Zaključak

Jedna od značajnijih karakteristika snažne valute je povjerenje ljudi u njezinu sigurnost i stabilnost. Euro je međunarodna valuta koja je u izravnoj vezi sa područjem Europe te je druga svjetska valuta i to sa konstantno rastućom ulogom. Budući da je prethodno već stvoreno zajedničko tržište bez carinskih prepreka, zamišljena je ideja da bi bilo znatno jednostavnije kada bi na području Europske unije svaki Europljanin mogao kupovati jednom valutom. Tako je cilj formiranja zajedničke valute bio stvoriti snažnija i efikasnija gospodarstva koja će Europljanima ponuditi veću mogućnost izbora radnih mjesta i na taj način istovremeno doprinijeti i ekonomskom blagostanju. Iako nije definiran točan datum, Hrvatska je preuzela obvezu da će uvesti euro kao službenu valutu. Vlada je izdala dokument pod nazivom *Eurostrategija* čime najavljuje početak procesa uvođenja eura. Unatoč tome, velika većina stanovništva i dalje nije suglasna s takvom idejom. Mnogi smatraju da hrvatsko gospodarstvo nije spremno na taj korak.

No, iako se vode rasprave oko potrebe uvođenja eura u Hrvatskoj, može se reći da su prednosti uvođenja eura kao službene valute puno veće od nedostataka. Jedinostvena valuta zapravo je logična dopuna jedinstvenom tržištu te pridonosi poboljšanju njegove učinkovitosti.

Uzimajući u obzir da je i trenutno velika većina kredita, kao i štednje građana iskazana u eurima, prihvaćanjem eura kao službene valute sve bi postalo jednostavnije. Kao ključne prednosti uvođenja eura ističu se uklanjanje valutnog rizika i niža razlika kamata u Hrvatskoj u odnosu na prosjek europodručja pa bi upravo to Hrvatskoj moglo pomoći da ide u korak s vremenom i neprestano teži boljitku. U svakom slučaju, uvijek je bolje ići prema naprijed i težiti poboljšanju pa tako i po pitanju prihvaćanja eura kao službene valute u Republici Hrvatskoj.

U trenutku pisanja ovog rada, Republika Hrvatska je u poziciji u kojoj vlada zagovara uvođenje eura, a Hrvatska narodna banka planira datum uvođenja. Samom tom činjenicom, ograničenje istraživanja je u nemogućnosti ispitivanja stavova u trenutku u kojem je sasvim

izvjesno da će se euro kao valuta uvesti i u Hrvatsku. Međutim to je i jedan od mogućih smjerova u daljnjem istraživanju zajedničke europske valute.

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PREHRAMBENA SIGURNOST ZA VREME PANDEMIJE U REPUBLICI SRBIJI

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Apstrakt

Od početka proglašene pandemije 11. marta 2020., u R. Srbiji postoji puna prehrambena sigurnost stanovništva. Ukupna vrednost poljoprivredne proizvodnje je oko 4,7 milijardi dolara. Snabdevanje stanovništva brašnom, šećerom, uljem, suhomesnatim proizvodima je sada uobičajeno, za razliku od povećanja tražnje u periodu ograničenog kretanja. Proces primarne poljoprivrede i agroindustrijske prerade po obimu i kvalitetu se uspešno obavlja, dolazi i do rasta viškova u proizvodnji svinjskog i junećeg mesa. Beležimo i neke ekonomske nelogičnosti u sektoru mesa - imamo niske cene u svinjarstvu i nesrazmerne cene u maloprodaji svežeg mesa i prerađevina. Slično je i sa junećim mesom. R. Srbija u gotovo svim sektorima proizvodnje hrane ima samodovoljnost i nesklad između cena ulaznih inputa i cena gotovih proizvoda. Zbog toga, neposredni proizvođači očekuju da se uvede ombudsman za hranu kao poslovno moralni arbitar. Kada su bile vanredne mere za stanovništvo (policijski čas), pokrenuta je on-lajn prodaja raznih proizvoda i to je zadržano, a porastao je obim organske proizvodnje na više od 6.200 gazdinstava, uz podršku Ministarstva poljoprivrede, šumarstva i vodoprivrede. Državne mere prema gazdinstvima u stočarstvu i intervencije na tržištu su, u osnovi, doprinele održivosti ove grane poljoprivrede. Međutim, isplata podsticaja od strane države kasni prema registrovanim gazdinstvima, dok zemlje u okruženju povećavaju premije i redovno isplaćuju, što može uticati na konkurentnost srpske poljoprivrede. U radu se osvrćemo na primarne i sekundarne podatke koji su u skladu sa trenutnom situacijom, a čiji je krajnji cilj proizvodnja zdravstveno-bezbedne hrane radi prehrambene sigurnosti stanovništva.

Ključne reči: *pandemija, prehrambena sigurnost, potrošači, državne mere.*

1. Uvod

Za poljoprivredu Srbije i njen održivi razvoj, potrebna je poljoprivredna politika koja će stimulisati povećanje produktivnosti, rentabilnosti i ekonomičnosti, promenom postojeće proizvodne strukture. Poljoprivreda Srbije pokazala je solidnu otpornost na zdravstvenu krizu u odnosu na druge evropske zemlje izazvanu pandemijom covid-19, gde je pad BDP-a u 2020. godini iznosio oko 1%. Ovo je znatno manje u odnosu na zemlje u Centralnoj i Istočnoj Evropi, gde je pad BDP-a iznosio 3,9%, dok je u čitavoj Evropskoj uniji on iznosio 6,2%. Cene na svetskom tržištu u prošloj godini, bile su povoljne za Srbiju, jer su cene proizvoda koje su uvožene (nafta) značajno opale, a cene proizvoda koji su izvoženi (poljoprivredni proizvodi i metali) su porasle, što je uticalo na smanjenje spoljnotrgovinskog deficita. Poljoprivreda i agroindustrija zadržale su učešće u BDP-u od 12% (<https://fren.org.rs/vesti/kvartalni-monitor-br-63/>).

Sa modernizacijom agroindustrije, modernizovala se i primarna poljoprivredna proizvodnja, koja će i ubuduće prednjačiti na našim prostorima, a što se odnosi na intenzivne ratarske kulture. S tim u vezi, Lazić Branka i saradnici (1998.), ističu da je proizvodnja hrane uslovljena i nivoom usklađenosti poljoprivrede i prerađivačke industrije. U Srbiji se od 50% do 80% poljoprivrednih proizvoda prerađuje. Međutim, kapaciteti prerade, koji su ostali, posle obavljene privatizacije ili novi koriste se samo sa 40-70%. Intenzivnije otvaranje manjih kapaciteta prerade, pre svega u privatnom vlasništvu, doprinosi (uz neophodnu kontrolu)

raznovrsnosti i većem korišćenju sirovina iz primarne proizvodnje, zatim razvoju kvalitetnog pakovanja, širenju asortimana roba i novim trendovima marketinga.

Za proizvodnju zdravstveno-bezbedne hrane u celom svetu, potrebno je i ubuduće zadržavanje postojećih obradivih površina. Bez obzira na probleme koje donosi ova pandemija, broj stanovnika i životni vek na Zemlji neće se bitno smanjiti i ostaće povećana potreba za poljoprivredno-prehrambenim proizvodima. Brojne studije su pokazale da je ishrana jedan od najvažnijih činilaca, gde svetski trend postaje sve veće insistiranje na kvalitetu života, pa su i preporuke da se živi u skladu sa prirodom, a da se u ishrani koristi zdravstveno-bezbedna hrana. Na taj način rastu i zahtevi za svežim voćem i povrćem, posebno u velikim gradskim centrima. Izmenjeni uslovi u poljoprivredi, agroindustriji i trgovini prehrambenih proizvoda u periodu pandemije i vanredne situacije u Srbiji su pokazali sledeće (Gajdobranski, Krmpot, Latković, 2020): omogućeno je kretanje za obavljanje svih sezonskih poslova u ratarstvu, povrtarstvu, voćarstvu i na farmama; obavljena je prolećna setva na oko 1,5 mil/ha površine i zaštita ozimih kultura na oko 700 hilj/ha; ograničen je rad tržnica i velikih potrošačkih centara; sprovedena je dostava zaštitnih hemijskih sredstava za useve, semena, rezervnih delova za mašine na adrese gazdinstava; proizvođačima je ponuđeno korišćenje internet prezentacija koje su nudile pojedine kompanije za prodaju svojih proizvoda.

2. Metode istraživanja i izvori podataka

U radu je postavljen zadatak istraživanja zahtevao primenu različitih metodoloških postupaka, koje se najvećim delom zasnivaju na tzv. „istraživanju za stolom” (desk research), i na prikupljanju raspoloživih primarnih i sekundarnih podataka. Istraživanje je izvršeno za vremenski period od februara 2020. godine pa nadalje. U radu će se koristiti sledeće naučne metode: analitičko-sintetička, induktivno-deduktivna, metoda apstrakcije i konkretizacije, metoda generalizacije i specijalizacije, metoda komparacije i klasifikacije, metoda uopštavanja i statističke metode. U radu će biti korišćene tabele u kojima će se prezentovati sažeti podaci za najvažnije poljoprivredne regione i prehrambene proizvode.

Na osnovu ovih kvantitativnih statističkih kalkulacija, izvedeno je rangiranje regiona i država u međunarodnom prometu poljoprivredno-prehrambenih proizvoda, kao i mesto Srbije u odnosu na evropske i druge države sveta (Gajdobranski i grupa autora, 2016).

Osnovni izvori podataka koji su korišćeni u ovom naučno-istraživačkom radu su statistički godišnjaci Srbije, interni materijal Privredne komore Srbije, studije o konkurentnosti poljoprivrede Srbije, podaci prikupljeni putem Interneta, kao i istraživanja autora objavljena u knjigama, drugim časopisima i publikacijama.

3. Hipoteze (pretpostavke) istraživanja

U radu se polazi od pretpostavki (hipoteza) koje treba da budu zasnovane na logičkom zaključivanju, i to:

- od poljoprivredne proizvodnje u izmenjenim uslovima i sa dovoljnom ponudom hrane za stanovništvo, uz korišćenje postojećih obradivih površina;
- od dostupnosti poljoprivredno-prehrambenih proizvoda sa novim marketinškim pristupom gde je manje posrednika u plasmanu robe „od njive do trpeze”;
- izvoza agroindustrijskih proizvoda na svetska i tržišta EU;
- snižavanje troškova poljoprivredno prehrambenih proizvoda i povećanje kvaliteta, odnosno povećanje konkurentnosti;
- potrebe za unapređenje mera agrarne politike kroz podsticanje i subvencionisanje poljoprivredne proizvodnje;

- uloge medija u afirmaciji i prikazivanju novih puteva robe do potrošača u vanrednim okolnostima;
- odgovornosti državnih i privrednih institucija u oslobađanju viška roba koje obezbeđuju samodovoljnost u prehrambenoj sigurnosti nacije i u uređenju tržišta – cenovne politike.

4. Primarna proizvodnja i potrošnja osnovnih prehrambenih proizvoda u Srbiji

Ukupna vrednost bruto poljoprivredne proizvodnje u 2020. godini iznosila je 5,81 mlrd/\$ što je za 4,61% više od realizacije u 2019. godini. U protekloj godini biljna proizvodnja je vredela 3,93 mlrd/\$ za 6,96% više nego 2019. godine, što je učešće u vrednosti ukupne poljoprivredne proizvodnje 67,7%. Povrtarska proizvodnja i dalje je niska u ukupnoj biljnoj proizvodnji, beleži pad i iznosi svega 11,9%. Industrijsko bilje ima rast proizvodnje za 4,71%, dok je voćarska proizvodnja porasla za 7,94%. U odnosu na 2019. godinu u 2020. godini, potrošnja svežeg mesa je opala, i to u proizvodnoj godini koja je bila uspešna kada se posmatra tov. Potrošnju mesa nije povećalo ni premiranje svakog stanovnika sa 100 evra u dinarskoj protivvrednosti, što je kao meru za zaštitu standarda u vreme pandemije isplatila država. Za ovu zaštitnu meru je iz državne kase isplaćeno 78 mlrd/din. U tabeli 1. prikazani su rangirani poljoprivredni proizvodi prema ostvarenoj bruto vrednosti agrarne proizvodnje u 2020. godini (izraženo u mil/\$).

Tabela 1: Rangirani poljoprivredni proizvodi prema ostvarenoj bruto vrednosti agrarne proizvodnje u 2020. godini (izraženo u mil/\$)

Naziv proizvoda	Vrednosti proizvoda	Udeo u ukupnoj bruto vrednosti	Rang proizvoda
Kukuruz	1.280	22,0	1
Svinjsko meso	641	11,0	2
Pšenica	487	8,4	3
Kravlje mleko	449	7,7	4
Goveđe meso	321	5,5	5
Soja	300	5,2	6
Krompir	217	3,7	7
Suncokret	197	3,4	8
Jabuka	168	2,9	9
Živinsko meso	156	2,7	10
Malina	153	2,6	11
Ovčije meso	141	2,4	12
UKUPNO	4.510	77,56	

Izvor: <https://publikacije.stat.gov.rs/G2021/Pdf/G20213003.pdf>

U okviru tabele 1. imamo rangiranih 12 poljoprivrednih proizvoda, koji u ukupnoj bruto vrednosti poljoprivredne proizvodnje učestvuju sa 77,56% u procenjenoj vrednosti za 2020. godinu, što ukazuje na još nedovoljnu diversifikovanost poljoprivredne proizvodnje u Srbiji. Na samom vrhu rang liste u okviru date tabele nalaze se četiri proizvoda stočarskog porekla, i pored toga što je položaj stočarstva nepovoljan u ukupno ostvarenoj vrednosti poljoprivrede. Ovi rezultati ukazuju da stočarstvo daje proizvodnju sa najvećom dodatnom vrednošću u agrarnoj proizvodnji. Prema datoj analizi, kod rangiranih biljnih proizvoda prema ostvarenoj vrednosti u ukupnoj biljnoj proizvodnji, nema značajnijih promena. Proizvodnja kukuruza

dominira sa učešćem od 22% u procenjenoj vrednosti agarne proizvodnje, što predstavlja izuzetno visoko učešće s obzirom na smanjenu domaću potrošnju zbog krize u stočarskoj proizvodnji. Kao motiv za povećanom proizvodnjom kukuruza su i visoke otkupne cene zbog relativno visokog učešća ove žitarice u izvozu. Na rang listi visoko se kotiraju uljarice (soja na šestom mestu a suncokret na osmom mestu) dok je udeo voća i povrća pored značajnih investicija u nove zasade skroman (krompir na sedmom mestu, jabuke na devetom mestu, malina na jedanaestom mestu).

U 2020. godini, poljoprivrednici su imali i posebne pogodnosti. To su bili simbolični iznosi od 30 hilj/din za gazdinstva koja se bave stočarstvom, a sprovedene su i tri akcije otkupa junadi putem razmene za kukuruz. Ova razmena koju su stočari ocenili kao korisnom, obavljena je putem državnih Robnih rezervi, čijom realizacijom su ostvarena dva cilja. Prvo, farmeri su u trenutku potpunog zastoja prodaje junećeg mesa dobili sigurnog kupca sa prihvatljivom cenom od 2,10 do 2,35 €/kg žive mere junadi. Drugo, država je preradom ovog mesa iz razmene za kukuruz obezbedila nekoliko miliona konzervi uskladištenih za intervencije u vanrednim situacijama.

Pouzdaniji pokazatelj o prometu i ceni namirnica koje čine potrošačku korpu nema, pa smo se opredelili za analizu cena i proizvodnje svinjskog i junećeg mesa pridajući značaj rizicima koje farmeri imaju u dužem periodu, a najveća je nesigurna prodaja. Potrošnja žive junadi, za različite potrebe je oko 85.000 junadi ili oko 4,5 kg junećeg mesa po glavi stanovnika godišnje. Cena junećeg mesa u Srbiji je na 71 mestu među 103 zemlje u svetu, i iznosi 7,70 \$/kg (6,60 €/kg).

Kada je najavljeni izvoz junadi za Tursku prekinut, i kada je na izmaku 2020. godine oko 16.000 kvalitetnih junadi stajalo na farmama, država je donela novu meru, i to: odvojena su dva mil/evra za podsticaj u prodaji, odnosno 20 hilj/din po grlu kao dodatna premija. Po ovom modelu nije smanjena ponuda, jer su izvoznici prvo utovarili svoju junad, gde je od prodatih 6.850 junadi svega 2,850 bilo mimo "kruga izvoznika". Oni koji su u minuloj godini uspeali da prodaju junad domaćim klaničarima i izvoznicima, pored vanredne premije od 20 hilj/din po grlu, ostvarili su pravo na već utvrđenu premiju od 15 hilj/din po grlu (<https://agrosmart.net/2020/08/25/izvoz-junadi-u-tursku-na-vidiku/>).

Nakon tri intervencije putem otkupa državnih Robnih rezervi i premiranja prodaje junadi od strane Vlade sa dva mil/evra, anketirali smo tovljače junadi. Ta anketa pokazala je da oni svoj posao i dalje, smatraju nesigurnim, i da su na granici odustajanja od njega, a kao razlozi u većini iskaza su sledeći: nemaju poznatog kupca za utovljenu junad, visoke su cene teladi i koncentrovane hrane, nepovoljna je otkupna cena, prisutan je tov bez ugovora po otkupu, izražen je monopol velikih klaničara... Tovljači izražavaju nezadovoljstvo što i u periodu nestabilnog tržišta kada junad prodaju, ne dobijaju državne premije i po godinu dana. Na kvalitet junećeg mesa utiče nedostatak tovnih rasa i vrlo neselektivno ukrštanje u proizvodnji teladi. Junad od mlečnih krava su česta ponuda i kupci ih ne žele ili ih plaćaju veoma malo. Pitanje selekcije i ukrštanja među rasama je stručno pitanje, ali se retko ko time organizovano bavi, sem udruženja "Agroprofit" iz Novog Sada. Iz Proizvodne grupe pomenutog udruženja 147 gazdinstava predalo je klaničarima 1.550 junadi, prosečne težine 600 kg, čime su ostvarili pravo na preuzimanje oko 16.000 tona merkantilnog kukuruza. Prema nepotpunim podacima, u razmeni je ukupno učestvovalo 330 gazdinstava. U prodaji umesto junećeg mesa nudi se često govedina (meso od krava), što pojedini potrošači i ne prepoznaju. Manja prodaja junećeg mesa u Srbiji je prisutna i zbog retke kontrole prodajnih objekata, polutrajnih i trajnih proizvoda, kao i konzervi gotovih jela, ali i nekontrolisanog uvoza. Neki klaničari u proizvodnji prerađevina koriste sojino brašno, emulgatore, meso lošeg kvaliteta, mlevene

kosti, kukuruzni sirup, i druge surogate. Ozbiljan uticaj na domaću prodaju junetine ima i uvoz smrznute i nelegalne robe iz luke Bar (<https://www.makroekonomija.org/poljoprivreda/tovno-govedarstvo-u-srbiji-u-tursku-krece-700-tona/>).

Za iskorak prema potrošačima, potrebne su dve promene: prvo – kvalitet junećeg mesa i to garantovani, i drugo – kontinuirana stalna ponuda prema potrošačima i što je moguće bliža. Kada je reč o kvalitetu, udruženje “Agroprofit” je pokrenulo niz stručnih poslova, iz razloga da definišu sadržaj i standarde potpuno nove ponude koju su nazvali “junetina iz prirode – SR”. Reč je o kvalitetu mesa proizvedenog po posebnim hranidbenim pravilima i hranom iz prirode uz poštovanje pravilne veterinarske zaštite u uzgoju junadi. Farme sa ovakvim pristupom tehnologiji tova, stiču pravo na certifikat - Farma dobre poljoprivredne prakse, ali i pravo na prodaju uz marketinško obležje “junetina iz prirode – SR”. Ovo je dobar povod i za postizanje veće cene u prodaji žive junadi i junećeg mesa – smatraju tovljači. Uzgoj junadi sa pomenutim certifikatom otvara mogućnost za izgradnju tj. investiranje u male klanične kapacitete za konfekcioniranje mesa kao i novi način prodaje, i to po dva modela (<http://www.agroservis.rs/tovno-govedarstvo-10>): 1. za poznatog kupca sa pakovanjem po certifikaciji ili dostavljanje junećih četvrti u maloprodaji; i 2. da se uspostavi mobilna prodaja po naseljima sa opremljenim hladnjačama kao mini mesarama.

5. Tržišno pozicioniranje Srbije u vreme pandemije

Smanjenje ili potpuno nestajanje turističke sezone u zemljama sa sadržajem i ogromnom ponudom prouzrokovala je pad potrošnje mesa pogotovo junećeg. Najsigurnija prodaja bila je prema domaćinstvima, ali nedovoljna. Srbija se u novonastaloj situaciji nije uspjela tržišno pozicionirati, a tradicionalni kupci iz prošlog veka su pronašli nove dobavljače. S obzirom da u proizvodnji junećeg mesa učestvuje oko 13.000 gazdinstava sa 350-400 hiljada grla, ovaj posao je ozbiljan potencijalni izvor prihoda.

Iako je ponuda utovljenih svinja u Srbiji u prošloj godini bila veća za 1.500.000 komada u poređenju sa potrošačkim potrebama, to se nije osetilo na umanjenju cena u trgovinskim lancima. Klaničari su u proseku kvalitetne tovljenike plaćali 1,55 evra za kilogram žive mere, ali su kao osnovnu cenu za prodaju mesa i prerađevina uzeli iznos od 1,85 €/kg. Tako potrošači nisu imali povoljnije cene u snabdevanju, pa je zbog skraćenog ili obustavljenog rada ugostiteljskih objekata opala ukupna potrošnja svinjskog mesa. Potrošnja svinjskog mesa po stanovniku je 16 kg na godišnjem nivou. Broj gazdinstava koja za sopstvene potrebe iz svojih tovilista ili kupovinom kolju svinje za obitelj je smanjena 20% u odnosu na 2019. godinu. Snabdevanje putem sindikalnih organizacija umesto mesom (polutkama), sada je svedena na kupovinu zimnice, konzervi i suhomesnatih proizvoda. Državni podsticaji gazdinstvima za utovljene svinje prodate klaničarima iznose 1000 din po komadu, što ukupno iznosi 1.100.000 mil/din. Ministarstvo poljoprivrede, šumarstva i vodoprivrede u pomenutoj godini ukinulo je vakcinisanje svinja protiv klasične svinjske kuge, čime su otpočele pripreme za izvoz svežeg junećeg mesa u EU.

Prvi dani pandemije u Srbiji i ograničena kretanja pribavljanje dozvola za rad u polju i na farmama izvan mesta stanovanja, u terminu policijskog časa počev od 15. marta 2020. godine, nisu uticali na setvu šećerne repe, a nešto kasnije i kukuruza. Tako je i pored otežanog kretanja šećernom repom zasejano oko 40 hilj/ha, ali je za vađenje korena plod ostao na 37.418 ha. U odnosu na 2019. godinu je zabeležena manja prodaja šećera, ali je ponovo i tržište stalo. Prodaja šećera od repe čini svega 20% od ukupne ponude na svetskom tržištu, jer je jeftinija proizvodnja šećera od trske. Ratari u Srbiji smanjuju setvu šećerne repe, ali gube i usev bitan za pravilan plodored. Razlog za smanjenje površina je i visoka cena proizvodnje, a šećerane se ne uklapaju u prodaju da bi povećale cenu šećerne repe. Sa 350 evra/t koliko

mogu dobiti za proizvedeni šećer, dve šećerane u Vojvodini razmatraju mogućnost da trajno ili privremeno obustave rad. U EU je 2000. godine radilo 257 šećerana, a 2020. godine samo 96 fabrika.

Država je pred samu setvu suncokreta poručila ratarima, što do sada nije bila praksa, da će ova uljarica biti tražena, tako je i bilo, pa je povećan obim setve za 5.800 ha, odnosno na ukupno 225.204 ha. Suncokretovog ulja nakon ovako uspešne setve i žetve, Srbija ima i za izvoz, jer se u četvoročlanoj porodici godišnje potroši oko 30 litara ulja. Cena ulja u prodaji je od početka pandemije postepeno rasla, i tako je od 112 din/litru dospela i do 148 din/litru. Na ove cene nisu reagovali potrošači već ratari, jer su ubeđeni da je za ukupan plasman na tržište jedne litre ulja potrebno 2,6 kg suncokreta koji je u proseku neposrednim proizvođačima isplaćen u iznosu od 33 do 37 din/kg. Srbija ima potpunu prehrambenu sigurnost kada je reč o korišćenju brašna za hleb, suncokretovog ulja i kukuruza za potrebe stočarstva. Potrošnja hleba na godišnjem nivou kreće se od 96 do 102 kg po stanovniku.

Povremeno ograničeni rad zelenih tržnica u vreme pandemije, super marketa i specijalnih trgovina podstakao je uspostavljanje on-lajn trgovine - prodaju na kućnom pragu: voće, povrće, mlečne proizvode, ali ne i proizvode od mesa - izuzetak su pilići. Ovaj vid saradnje proizvođača i potrošača zadržao se i danas posle najstrožijih mera - policijskog časa, i to predstavlja novu vrednost u poslovanju malih i srednjih gazdinstava. U vanrednoj situaciji u proteklom periodu, povrtari su se međusobno povezivali da bi obavili prodaju svojih proizvoda, dok su, recimo, proizvođači voća i mlečnih proizvoda delovali svako za sebe i uglavnom su tragali za kupcima koje su donedavno imali na tržnicama.

Da bi proizvođači u poslovanju svežim voćem i povrćem u Srbiji bili što bolje pripremljeni u smislu usklađivanja regulative i propisa s EU, neophodno je da se na vreme upoznaju i započnu proces implementacije UNECE standarda. Ovi standardi odnose se na kvalitet i kontrolu proizvoda, kao i moguće oblike udruživanja po modelu proizvođačkih organizacija koje funkcionišu u EU, s obzirom da se na taj način pruža mogućnost smanjenja troškova proizvodnje, lakšeg plasmana i apliciranja evropskim fondovima za razvoj poljoprivrede u izmenjenim tržišnim uslovima (Jauković, 2019).

Krompir se u Srbiji već 2 godine proizvodi na više od 35 hilj/ha, i beleži veći prinos od 19% a ukupan rod je veći za 44% u odnosu na 2018. godinu. S obzirom na prosečan prinos od 60 t/ha, Srbija ima velike zalihe, a i pored toga izvršen je uvoz. Sve ovo će uticati na sadnju krompira u 2021. godini. Krompir se sve više prodaje u marketima po nižoj ceni nego na pijacama, ali i putem kućne dostave. Gajenjem krompira se bavi 165.555 gazdinstava, što je trećina od ukupno registrovanih.

U prodaji mleka i povrća, delimično su se ustalile isporuke proizvoda sa gazdinstava na kućni prag. Međutim, broj malih proizvođača mleka u selima je za godinu dana smanjen za 30%, jer je osnovno stado krava prodato zbog niske otkupne cene mleka.

Potrošnja mleka i mlečnih proizvoda na godišnjem nivou iznosi oko 180 litara, iako je od 2008. godine do 2021. isporuka svežeg mleka prerađivačima smanjena sa 1,1 mlrd/litara na 860 mil/litara. U godini pandemije prodaja mleka i mlečnih proizvoda iz seoskih domaćinstava (bez termičke obrade) povećala se za svega 5%. Udruženje proizvođača mleka kao i pojedini farmeri za bolju prodaju svežeg mleka, vide u instaliranju automata za ovaj proizvod, i to od manjih naselja do većih gradova.

Proizvođači povrća uspeali su da pojačaju svoju ponudu, i mnogi od njih su tokom pandemije stekli stalne kupce kojima dostavljaju plodove na kućni prag. Naše istraživanje je pokazalo da

su najbolji plasman povrća u doba pandemije ostvarili proizvođači u okruženju Beograda jer su svoju ponudu plasirali putem elektronske ponude i na društvenim mrežama. Ovo iskustvo je bio i dovoljan razlog da se savetodavne poljoprivredne službe u Srbiji uključe u osnovnu edukaciju poljoprivrednika u korišćenju računara.

Da bi se uspostavio što jednostavniji model povezivanja proizvođača u prerađivačke grupe potrebno je da državna administracija utvrdi pravila i formu organizovanja i da za njihovo funkcionisanje, kao što je to slučaj u EU, predvidi odgovarajući novac. Proizvođačke ili proizvodne grupe okupljanjem određene vrste proizvodnje doprinele su da pojedini sektori (od voćarstva, povrtarstva do stočarstva), efikasno udruže interese u nabavci sredstava za rad, repromaterijala i prodaje proizvoda, i to bez mnogo administrativnih mera. Prema podacima iznesenim u studiji *“Association of farmers in the Western Balkan countries”* Gorana Živkova, u Srbiji postoji 724 udruženja poljoprivrednika, od kojih je, međutim, čak 409 neaktivno. Više od 80% ovih udruženja nastalo je u periodu od 2000, pa se neka od njih mogu posmatrati i kao beg poljoprivrednika od pravne nesigurnosti koja postoji u sektoru zadrugarstva. Udruženja su, za razliku od zadruga, najčešće specijalizovana, a od svih po organizovanosti prednjače pčelarska udruženja (<https://uploads-ssl.webflow.com/Knjiga-preporuka-Nacionalnog-konventa-o-EU-2015-web.pdf>).

U Srbiji trenutno postoji samo jedna proizvodna grupa koja okuplja gazdinstva koja se bave tovnim govedarstvom, i koja je veoma liberalno organizovana. Velika udruženja poput “Unije poljoprivrednika” sa sedištem u Sremskoj Mitrovici (ima podružnice u 23 Opštine) imaju predlog i inicijativu za efikasniju i jeftiniju prodaju mesa i ekonomičniju proizvodnju sa više uvažavanja kupaca gotovih proizvoda. Radi održive proizvodnje oni predlažu liberalizaciju prodaje na kućnom pragu, kao i uvođenje referentnog arbitra - ombusmana za hranu, za promet hrane od "njive do trpeze". Proizvođači svinja u ovom udruženju u anketi koji smo sprovedi, kao izlaz iz zastoja u prodaji i prevazilaženje niskih cena, vide u dozvoli da registrovane male farme mogu da prodaju 1.500 tovljenika godišnje bez PDV-a, kroz sveže meso i proizvode na sopstvenom gazdinstvu.

Udruženje “Agroprofit” u analizi poslovanja poljoprivrede za 2020. godinu kao glavni razlog za gomilanje tržišnih viškova roba i sirovina u gotovo svim sektorima poljoprivrede vidi u nedostatku upravljanja - samodovoljnošću sa kojom se susreće nacija. Ovu odgovornost potrebno je da preuzme Privredna Komora Srbije (PKS) i da se taj posao definiše kao značajno nacionalno ekonomsko pitanje. Kada je reč o plasmanu viškova junećeg i svinjskog mesa, analize ovih sektora pokazuju sledeće (Prvi poslovni list poljoprivrednika i savetodavaca u Srbiji, 2021): zbog kasno ukinute vakcinacije protiv klasične svinjske kuge ne postoji dozvola da se ovo meso izvozi u zemlje EU, dok je plasman u zemlje CEFTE simboličan. I junetinu za izvoz u EU opterećuju prelevmani od 0,35 evra/kg do 1,40 evra/kg uz carinu od 2,5% od vrednosti fakturisane robe. Uvoz mesa i mesnih prerađevina u Srbiju je bez prelevmana i carina, što omogućuje domaćim prerađivačima mesa da dođu do jeftinijih sirovina. Pojedine zemlje iz EU su podsticale posebnim premijama izvoz živih svinja pa su prerađivači u Srbiji koristili njihove nisko prodajne cene, i uvozom su u 2020. godini gušili domaću proizvodnju.

6. Diskusija i zaključak

Pandemija prouzrokovana virusom covid-19 u 2020. godini u Srbiji, nije uticala na smanjenje niti oscilacije u snabdevanju prehrambenim proizvodima. U primarnoj poljoprivrednoj proizvodnji kao i agroindustriji, ostvaren je rast. Poljoprivredna proizvodnja je u 2020. u odnosu na 2019. godinu povećana za 4,5%, dok su komunalne usluge i drugi servisi za građane povećali kvalitet i obim rada.

Dokazano je da proizvodnja u ratarstvu, voćarstvu, povrtarstvu i stočarstvu u Srbiji dostiže samodovoljnost u odnosu na potrebe prerađivačke industrije i stanovništva, i to u celini. Ovakav obim primarne proizvodnje reflektuje se, uglavnom, na niže otkupne cene roda tokom žetve i berbe, ali ne i na jeftiniju prodaju proizvoda u trgovačkim lancima, pogotovo u sektoru mesa, mleka i mlečnih proizvoda. I pored obimne proizvodnje mesa, mleka, voća i povrća, uvoznici su na domaće tržište nudili u protekloj sezoni veće količine navedenih roba, što je uticalo na smanjenje prodaje domaćih proizvođača. Taj trend se nastavlja i u 2020/2021. godini u kojoj se beleži i rast cene poljoprivrednih inputa, što po pravilu, stvara neizvesnost u računicama za isplativost primarne proizvodnje u ratarstvu, ali i u proizvodnji mesa i mleka.

Stočarska proizvodnja je opterećena naglim rastom cene merkantilnog kukuruza, soje i suncokreta, ali i kabastih hraniva.

Prema ostvarenoj proizvodnji u sektoru mesa, mleka i brašna, i još nekih prehrambenih roba (ulje i šećer) potrošači u Srbiji mogu očekivati u 2021. godini potpunu prehrambenu sigurnost. Primarna proizvodnja predstavlja potencijal za izvoz polupreradevina.

Mere države u zaštiti od širenja virusa covid-19, koje su sadržale i ograničena kretanja ljudi i policijski čas u 2020. godini, nisu uticale na proizvodne cikluse i produktivnost ni u jednom sektoru.

Uvideli smo da u sektoru cena postoji blagi rast, izuzev kod žitarica, gde su povećanja berzanskih roba iznosila i do 25 do 30 odsto, što u 2021. godini može značajno uticati na smanjenje obima proizvodnje u stočarstvu ili enormno povećanje cene mesa, mleka i mlečnih proizvoda.

Naše istraživanje je pokazalo, da se ni jedna institucija u zemlji nije sistematski bavila traganjem za kupcima, istraživanjem tržišta i ponudama. Inicijativu je jedino pokazalo Ministarstvo poljoprivrede, šumarstva i vodoprivrede u čijoj nadležnosti i nije sektor trgovine.

Primećeno je da postoji nesklad između dobrih prijateljskih odnosa Srbije, NR Kine i Ruske Federacije kada je reč o plasmanu junećeg i svinjskog mesa u ove zemlje. Izvozi ovih proizvoda u pomenute države su simbolični i ne prelaze 3 mil/\$. Na vrhuncu najveće ponude junećeg mesa NR Kini, nije došlo do izvoza, jer su kineski partneri procenili da u jeku pandemije iz Srbije ne treba da uvoze ovu robu. Međutim, istovremeno oni su realizovali veliki uvoz iz Argentine, koja je takođe pogođena koronom.

Vlada Srbije kontinuirano je donosila i donosi odluke koje pored zdravstvene zaštite stanovništva doprinose i redovnom snabdevanju prehrambenim proizvodima, a nesmetano rade i sve službe u javnom sektoru.

Država je putem Robnih rezervi intervenisala u sektoru proizvodnje junećeg mesa, a rad trgovinskih lanaca prilagođen je potrebama stanovništva da bi se sprečilo bespotrebno gomilanje hrane u domaćinstvima. Prodavnice hrane su radile bez vremenskog ograničenja.

U doba ograničenog kretanja ljudi, počeo je da se uspešno ostvaruje elektronski način prodaje, kao i uspostavljanje modela prodaje na kućnom pragu. Ovo je zapaženo među proizvođačima povrća.

Pokazane vrednosti prodaje poljoprivrednih proizvoda na kućnom pragu, navele su poljoprivrednike da upute zahtev Vladi za nove vrste podsticaja (bespovratnih sredstava) za kupovinu vozila sa rashladnim komorama (pokretna prodaja), s kojima bi svoje proizvode prodavali u mnogim naseljima širom zemlje.

Komercijalna poljoprivredna gazdinstva su uspela da nametnu zahtev Narodnoj skupštini da se razgovara o Zakonu koji će regulisati zaštitu tržišta njihovih proizvoda. Kao novinu poljoprivrednici ističu važnost uvođenja poslovnog arbitra - ombusmana za hranu, da bi efikasnije ostvarili sprečavanje monopola u pojedinim sektorima agroindustrije i nedozvoljeno usaglašavanje cena među otkupljivačima sirovina (žitarice, utovljene svinje i junad, pojedine vrste voća...).

Kao nedostatak u radu državne administracije, poljoprivrednici su naveli zakašnjenje u isplati podsticaja registrovana gazdinstva za investicije, tov, kupovinu opreme i duge potrebe.

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MJERENJE KVALITETE KORPORATIVNOG UPRAVLJANJA: PREGLED I ANALIZA METODOLOŠKIH PRISTUPA

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Sažetak

Mjerenje kvalitete korporativnog upravljanja proces je koji omogućuje poduzećima da kontinuirano preispituju i unapređuju svoju poziciju u odnosu na postavljene standarde i ostala poduzeća u okruženju. Instrumenti za ocjenu kvalitete pritom ne služe samo kako bi poduzeća detektirala loše upravljačke prakse već pružaju i vrijedne informacije potencijalnim investitorima te ostalim interesno-utjecajnim skupinama. Cilj ovoga rada je pružiti sveobuhvatan uvid u relevantne metodološke pristupe za mjerenje kvalitete korporativnog upravljanja na globalnoj razini. U radu je stoga pružen pregled odabranih mjernih instrumenata (10 razvijenih u znanstvenoj literaturi i 7 od strane stručnih tijela) koji su međusobno uspoređeni prema svojim ključnim dimenzijama. Temeljem rezultata provedene analize u radu su identificirana glavna područja ocjene te istaknute prednosti i ograničenja postojećih metodoloških pristupa. Predstavljeni rezultati pridonose boljem razumijevanju praktičnih izazova u procesu mjerenja kvalitete korporativnog upravljanja.

Ključne riječi: korporativno upravljanje, kvaliteta korporativnog upravljanja, indeksi korporativnog upravljanja

1. Uvod

Korporativno upravljanje je složena mreža odnosa između ključnih aktera u okolini poduzeća koja stvara okvir za načine na koji dobavljači financijskih i ostalih ključnih resursa ostvaruju povrate na svoja ulaganja (Shleifer i Vishny, 1997; La Porta i sur., 2002).

Kao socijalni sustav s pluralističkim interesima i ciljevima, poduzeće mora usklađivati raznovrsne i različite interese kako bi lakše ispunilo svoju osnovnu ekonomsku svrhu. Korporativno upravljanje pritom pomaže kako bi se lakše pomirili suprotstavljeni ciljevi - individualni nasuprot organizacijskih te ekonomski nasuprot društvenima (Thomsen, 2004).

Kvalitetan sustav korporativnog upravljanja rezultira smanjivanjem troškova kapitala i efikasnom uporabom resursa od strane poduzeća. Nerijetko je jedan od nužnih uvjeta za postizanje održive konkurentske prednosti i stvaranje veće vrijednosti za dioničare, ali i izgradnju povjerenja u odnosu s investitorima, osnaživanje odnosa sa zaposlenicima te uspostavu čvrstih i dugoročnih veza s lokalnom zajednicom (Brown i Caylor, 2006; Black i sur., 2017; Chan i sur., 2014; Rahman i Khatun, 2017).

Dobro korporativno upravljanje također smanjuje agencijske troškove u upravljačkim strukturama, sprječava oportunističko ponašanje vrhovnih menadžera, pruža okvir za zaštitu interesa dioničara, potiče poslovnu izvrsnost i optimalno korištenje raspoloživih resursa, te

traži da se organizacijom upravlja na načelima društvene odgovornosti kako bi se osigurala njezina utkanost u socijalnu sredinu u kojoj djeluje.

Potreba jasnog i konzistentnog distingviranja između manje dobrog i dobrog korporativnog upravljanja usmjerila je pozornost stručne i znanstvene javnosti prema pitanjima praćenja i mjerenja kvalitete. Interes za mjerenjem kvalitete zamjetno je porastao uslijed brojnih korporativnih skandala koji su narušili povjerenje građana u efikasnost regulatornih okvira.

Premda pojedini autori pružaju uvid u neke od metodoloških pristupa mjerenju kvalitete korporativnog upravljanja (van der Berghe i Levrau, 2003; Tipurić i sur., 2014; 2015; Rahman i Khatun, 2017) u recentnoj literaturi ne postoji sveobuhvatan pregled kao ni međusobna usporedba postojećih metoda.

Cilj ovoga rada je pružiti sveobuhvatan uvid u relevantne metodološke pristupe za ocjenu kvalitete korporativnog upravljanja na globalnoj razini. U radu su prikazane odabrane metode za ocjenu kvalitete te provedena analiza zasnovana na međusobnoj usporedbi njihovih ključnih dimenzija. Temeljem rezultata provedene analize identificirana su osnovna područja obuhvata i kategorije korisnika promatranih metoda. Provedena analiza omogućila je također identifikaciju ključnih metodoloških ograničenja i izazova u procesu mjerenja kvalitete korporativnog upravljanja.

Rad je organiziran u pet poglavlja. Nakon uvodnog poglavlja pružen je pregled relevantne literature u području te su predstavljene ključne odrednice koncepta mjerenja kvalitete korporativnog upravljanja. U središnjem dijelu rada prikazani su rezultati analize odabranih metodoloških pristupa dok su doprinos i zaključna razmatranja izneseni u posljednjem dijelu rada.

2. Važnost kvalitetnog korporativnog upravljanja

Kvaliteta korporativnog upravljanja je složena kategorija koju nije lako jednoznačno odrediti. Razlikuju se mišljenja o tomu što određuje kvalitetu korporativnoga upravljanja i na koji je način treba mjeriti. Obično se poima kao razina ispunjavanja zahtjeva koji se smatraju relevantnima u nekom korporativnom sustavu (Lokman i sur., 2014; Louizi i Kammoun, 2015), ali ne postoji usuglašeni pogled na skup zahtjeva koji se u ocjeni kvalitete trebaju postaviti.

Istraživanja provedena u različitim sustavima korporativnog upravljanja pokazuju kako se poduzeća koja posluju u istom okruženju mogu uvelike razlikovati po kvaliteti. To znači da ambijent ne određuje kvalitetu korporativnog upravljanja za cijelu populaciju poduzeća, nego svjesna nastojanja upravljačke elite kako bi njihova poduzeća prosperirala na tržištima, pribavila dodatni kapital, imala konkurentsku prednost i opstala u svijetu sve većih konkurentskih izazova u brzo promjenljivoj okolini (Black i sur., 2006).

Snažnim odrednicama razine u kojoj poduzeće ulažu u unapređenje kvalitete korporativnog upravljanja smatraju se njegova veličina, faza životnog ciklusa i potreba za kapitalom. Prvo, pretpostavka je kako će veća poduzeća te ona u kasnijim stadijima životnog ciklusa

demonstrirati bolje prakse korporativnog upravljanja u odnosu na svoje manje i mlađe konkurente i to zato što se, zbog kompleksnosti svojih poslovnih operacija, suočavaju s većim agencijskim troškovima pa su i izložena snažnijim pritiscima da implementiraju prakse usmjerene na njihovu redukciju (Klapper i Love, 2004). Empirijske dokaze da je veličina poduzeća povezana s kvalitetom korporativnog upravljanja pružili su primjerice Silveira i Dias (2010), Samha i sur. (2012) te Black i sur. (2006).

Nadalje, poduzeća koja su usmjerena na rast i širenje na nova tržišta te koja zbog toga imaju veliku potrebu za financiranjem prepoznaju korist usvajanja boljih upravljačkih praksi kako bi pridobila povjerenje investitora. Empirijski dokazi također pokazuju kako poduzeća ulažu više u unapređenje kvalitete korporativnog upravljanja kada posluju u okruženju u kojemu za njih postoje prilike za rast i širenje u budućnosti (Silveira i sur., 2007).

Uz navedeno, neki autori predlažu kako na spremnost poduzeća da uloži u unapređenje korporativnog upravljanja utječe i stupanj vlasničke koncentracije, vrsta poslovnih operacija i razina diversifikacije (Durnev i Kim, 2005). Slično, Anand i sur. (2006) pokazuju kako je postojanje jednog većinskog dioničara negativno povezano s razinom kvalitete korporativnog upravljanja.

Kvalitetno korporativno upravljanje je nužno kako bi se stvorila klima koja potiče vrhovne menadžere da rade u interesu (svih) dioničara, a da se pritom ne ugrožavaju interesi društva i zajednice. Ono usto pridonosi efikasnoj upotrebi organizacijskih resursa što za posljedicu ima smanjivanje troška kapitala (Drobetz i sur., 2004; Errunza i Miller, 2000).

Postignuta razina kvalitete korporativnog upravljanja određuje također i mogućnost poduzeća za rast i razvoj u budućnosti. Dobro korporativno upravljanje snažan je signal investitorima da se poduzećem upravlja efikasno te da su interesi menadžera i vlasnika usklađeni (Verschoor, 2004). Ono je također i signal integriteta, održivosti poslovanja te poslovnog okruženja koje karakteriziraju transparentnost i poštena pravila igre zbog čega će postojeći investitori očekivati odgovarajuće povrate za preuzeti rizik i nastaviti ulagati u poduzeće (Picou i Rubach, 2006; Bauer i sur., 2004).

Osim u krugu postojećih i potencijalnih investitora, dobro korporativno upravljanje pridonosi izgradnji korporativne reputacije i među ostalim važnim skupinama i širom okolinom poduzeća. Poduzeća s dobrim upravljačkim praksama tako su u mogućnosti izgraditi dugotrajne i snažne odnose sa svojim zaposlenicima, kupcima i lokalnom zajednicom (Arora i Dharwadkar, 2011).

Nadalje, inzistiranje na usklađivanju poslovanja ne samo sa zakonskim i regulatornim odredbama već i preporukama nacionalnih kodeksa umanjuje mogućnost neprimjerenih poslovnih praksi koje mogu eskalirati u velike korporativne skandale. Posljedično, poduzeća su suočena s manjim troškovima koji proizlaze iz saniranja posljedica takvih praksi kao što su troškovi sudskih sporova ili troškovi povezani s ponovnom izgradnjom korporativne reputacije (Aguilera i sur., 2009).

Zanimljiv je uvid u istraživanja u kojima se postulira snažna povezanost kvalitete korporativnog upravljanja s poslovnom uspješnošću. Istraživanja u ovom području vođena su premissom da tržište nagrađuje poduzeća koja unapređuju kvalitetu korporativnog upravljanja pa su zbog toga u mogućnosti postići superiorne poslovne rezultate.

Pregled rezultata izabranih istraživanja u području nalazi se u Tablici 1.

Tablica 1. Pregled istraživanja o odnosu kvalitete korporativnog upravljanje i poslovne uspješnosti

Autori	Uzorak	Ključni nalazi
Black (2001)	21 poduzeće, Rusija	Pozitivna povezanost s poslovnom uspješnošću.
Klapper i Love (2004)	374 poduzeća iz 14 zemalja u razvoju	Pozitivna povezanost s ROA.
Durnev i Kim (2005)	859 poduzeća iz 27 zemalja	Pozitivna povezanost s poslovnom uspješnošću.
Black i sur. (2006)	515 poduzeća, Koreja	Pozitivna povezanost s tržišnom vrijednošću poduzeća.
Gary i Gonzalez (2008)	46 poduzeća, Venezuela	Pozitivna povezanost s poslovnom uspješnošću.
Gompers i sur. (2003)	1.500 poduzeća, SAD	Pozitivna povezanost s cijenom dionice.
Drobetz i sur. (2004)	91 poduzeće, Njemačka	Pozitivna povezanost s tržišnom vrijednošću poduzeća.
Brown i Caylor (2006)	1.868 poduzeća, SAD	Djelomični empirijski dokazi o pozitivnoj povezanosti s poslovnom uspješnošću.
Hodgson, Lhaopadchan i Buakes (2011)	Tajlandska poduzeća, 2001-2006	Pozitivna povezanost financijskim pokazateljima uspješnosti poduzeća
Renders, Gaeremynck i Sercu (2010)	14 europskih zemalja, 1999-2003	Utjecaj kvalitete korporativnog upravljanja na uspjeh poduzeća je veći u zemljama gdje su zakoni o zaštiti prava dioničara slabiji.
Newell i Wilson (2002)	188 poduzeća u 8 zemalja	Pozitivna povezanost s tržišnom vrijednošću poduzeća.
Haniffa i Cooke (2005)	139 poduzeća, Malezija	Pozitivna povezanost s razinom primjene društveno odgovornih praksi poslovanja.
Chan i sur. (2014)	222 poduzeća, Australija	Pozitivna povezanost s razinom primjene društveno odgovornih praksi poslovanja.

Izvor: Izrada autora.

Dosadašnja istraživanja potvrđuju postojanje pozitivne veze između razine kvalitete korporativnog upravljanja te različitih tržišnih i ne tržišnih pokazatelja poslovne izvedbe čime pružaju potporu tezi da je kvaliteta korporativnog upravljanja važna odrednica uspjeha poduzeća. Newell i Wilson (2002) tako primjerice pokazuju da se kada poduzeće prijeđe iz kategorije lošeg u kategoriju dobrog korporativnog upravljanja njegova tržišna vrijednost u prosjeku poveća 10 do 12 puta. Slično, Durnev i Kim (2005) pokazuju da kada se kvaliteta korporativnog upravljanja poveća za 10 poena poduzeće u prosijeku bilježi rast tržišne vrijednosti od 13%. Istovjetne empirijske dokaze istovremeno nalazimo u istraživanjima iz

otvorenog (Gompers i sur., 2003; Brown i Caylor, 2006) i zatvorenog sustava korporativnog upravljanja (Drobotz i sur., 2004; Renders, Gaeremynck i Sercu, 2010).

U fokusu dosadašnjih istraživanja nalazila su se samo poduzeća čije dionice kotiraju na burzi, a rezultati sugeriraju kako utvrđeni odnos vrijedi neovisno o industriji, vlasničkoj koncentraciji i veličini poduzeća. Nadalje, rezultati također ukazuju na to da je utjecaj kvalitete korporativnog upravljanja na poslovnu uspješnost poduzeća veći u zemljama u razvoju u usporedbi s razvijenim tržišnim ekonomijama (Renders, Gaeremynck i Sercu, 2010). Klapper i Love (2004) tako primjerice dokazuju da je kvaliteta upravljačkih praksi to važniji činitelj poslovne izvedbe što je razvijenost institucionalnog i pravnog okvira u promatranoj zemlji manja.

Rezultati također ukazuju na to da poduzeća koja sustavno rade na unapređenju kvalitete korporativnog upravljanja ne postižu samo bolje poslovne rezultate već često nadmašuju svoje konkurente kada je u pitanju razina implementacije i izvještavanja o praksama društveno odgovornog poslovanja (Haniffa i Cooke, 2005; Chan i sur., 2014).

3. Mjerenje kvalitete korporativnog upravljanja

S obzirom na poteškoće da se koncept kvalitete korporativnog upravljanja jednoznačno odredi, u akademskoj su se literaturi te za potrebe različitih stručnih tijela razvile različite metode i instrumenti za mjerenje kvalitete.

Potaknute sve brojnijim skandalima proizašlim iz loših praksi korporativnog upravljanja regulatorne su institucije inicirale reforme kako bi pomogle poduzećima da povrate povjerenje investitora i šire javnosti. Jedan od ishoda takvih reformi pojava je nacionalnih kodeksa korporativnog upravljanja u kojima su sadržane preporuke usmjerene na unaprjeđenje upravljačkih praksi unutar nekog poslovnog okruženja (Zattoni i Cuomo, 2008; Aluchna i Kuszewski, 2020; Cuomo i sur., 2016). Prva europska zemlja u kojoj je takav kodeks donesen bila je Ujedinjeno Kraljevstvo (Cadbury Report, 1992), a nedugo zatim njezin su primjer počele slijediti i druge zemlje. Temelje za donošenje kodeksa u većini europskih zemljama postavila je Organizacija za ekonomsku suradnju i razvoj izdajući 1999. godine *Načela korporativnog upravljanja* namijenjena zemljama koje su započele s evaluacijom i unapređivanjem svojih pravnih, regulatornih i institucionalnih okvira. Premda su kodeksi primarno oblikovani na način da ocrtavaju specifičnosti poslovnog okruženja pojedine zemlje, brojni dokazi upućuju na trend konvergencije među preporukama najboljih praksi upravljanja na globalnoj razini (Larsson-Olaison, 2020). Glavna područja kodeksa pritom uključuju efikasan nadzor, transparentnost poslovanja i društvenu odgovornost (Mallin, 2004; Aguilera i sur., 2009; Lipman, 2017).

Po donošenju ovakvih kodeksa nadležne su se regulatorne institucije suočile s velikim izazovima kako bi postigle da poduzeća usvoje njihovu primjenu. Uz to, formalno usvajanja kodeksa regulatorima nije pružalo dovoljno čvrsto jamstvo da će poduzeće svoje poslovanje uistinu uskladiti s propisanim smjernicama.

S ciljem da potaknu poduzeća da svoje poslovne prakse usklade s usvojenim kodeksima ali bez da se pritom koriste zakonskim mehanizmima, regulatorne su institucije počele s oblikovanjem odgovarajućih instrumenata za praćenje razine usklađenosti stvarnih i preporučenih praksi, oblikovanih kao kartice postignuća koje su poslužile za ocjene kvalitete korporativnog upravljanja (engl. *corporate governance scorecards*).

Jednu od prvih kartica postignuća predstavilo je početkom stoljeća Njemačko udruženje za financijsku analizu i upravljanje imovinom (njem. *Der Berufsverband der Investment Professionals - DVFA*). Kartica postignuća je primarno bila oblikovana za potrebe investitora kako bi ocijenili financijsku izvedbu poduzeća prilikom donošenja investicijskih odluka, a u jednom od svojih segmenata instrument je također omogućavao da se ocjeni razina pridržavanja odredbi poduzeća s njemačkim Kodeksom korporativnog upravljanja.

Slični instrumenti zasnovani na takvoj metodologiji uskoro se pojavljuju i u mnogim drugim razvijenim zemljama. Važnu ulogu u stvaranju mjera za ocjenjivanje kvalitete korporativnog upravljanja imali su Međunarodni monetarni fond i Svjetska banka koji su posebno poticali izradu nacionalnih kodeksa i kartica postignuća u manje razvijenim i tranzicijskim zemljama (primjerice u Bugarskoj, Bosni i Hercegovini, Hrvatskoj i Srbiji).

Izrada kartica postignuća razvijenih od strane različitih stručnih tijela zasniva se na sličnim načelima. Polazište su „najbolja praksa“ odnosno ono što autori instrumenata smatraju da bi trebalo postaviti kao skup standarda dobre prakse korporativnog upravljanja koji su uglavnom predstavljeni smjernicama nacionalnih kodeksa (ukoliko takav u zemlji postoji) ili propisa donesenih na međunarodnoj razini (Donker i Zahir, 2008). Instrumenti dakle mjere razinu pridržavanja neobveznih smjernica glede korporativnog upravljanja, a ne zakonskih propisa koji imaju obligatorni karakter. Skup ocjena pojedinih mjera u kartici postignuća najčešće se iskazuje u obliku jedinstvenog indeksa kvalitete koji omogućuju usporedbu između poduzeća (ili između zemalja) (Rahman i Khatun, 2017).

Ključna korist od mjerenja kvalitete korporativnog upravljanja prvenstveno se očituje u tome što podiže svijest o važnosti uspostavljanja dobrih poslovnih praksi kako na razini poduzeća tako i na tržišnoj razini (Bassen, 2005). Kao korisnike instrumenata za ocjenu kvalitete tako je moguće identificirati različite skupine iz interne i eksterne okoline poduzeća (Tablica 2).

Tablica 2. Korisnici instrumenata za ocjenu kvalitete korporativnog upravljanja

Korisnik	Korist
Vlasnici/dioničari	<ul style="list-style-type: none">▪ Razumijevanje kako menadžeri zastupaju interese vlasnika▪ Zaštita interesa manjinskih dioničara
Kreditori/Investitori	<ul style="list-style-type: none">▪ Transparentan uvid u poslovne procedure▪ Podrška u donošenju investicijskih odluka
Menadžeri	<ul style="list-style-type: none">▪ Razumijevanje trenutne pozicije poduzeća▪ Smjernice za unapređenje trenutne pozicije poduzeća

Nadzorni odbor / neizvršni direktori	<ul style="list-style-type: none">▪ Evaluacija rada odbora / individualnih članova▪ Smjernice za poboljšanje rada odbora / individualnih članova
Burze	<ul style="list-style-type: none">▪ Praćenje razine pridržavanja propisanih smjernica kroz vrijeme▪ Osnaživanje suradnju između burze i uvrštenih poduzeća
Regulatorne institucije	<ul style="list-style-type: none">▪ Praćenje usklađenosti s regulatornim propisima▪ Razumijevanje učinkovitosti regulatornog okvira
Sindikati/radništvo	<ul style="list-style-type: none">▪ Razumijevanje kako se poduzećem upravlja▪ Zaštita interesa radnika
Lokalna zajednica i šira javnost	<ul style="list-style-type: none">▪ Razumijevanje utjecaja poduzeća na okolinu▪ Jačanje suradnje između poduzeća i okoline

Izvor: Izrada autora prema Rahman i Khatun (2017), Bassen (2005), Strenger (2004), Black i sur.(2006), Gompers i sur. (2003) i Bebchuk i sur. (2004).

Promatrano na razini poduzeća, kartice postignuća su snažan analitički alat koji pomaže identificirati nedostatke, a potom i oblikovati smjernice za unapređivanje poslovnih praksi. Velika prednost ovakvih instrumenta očituju se u standardiziranom formatu i jednostavnosti primjene, a dobiveni rezultati pružaju ocjenu veće objektivnosti no što bi to bili u mogućnosti pružiti upitnici razvijeni od strane poduzeća (Bassen, 2005). Uz to, kontinuirano ocjenjivanje omogućuje poduzeću da preispituje i unapređuje svoju poziciju u odnosu na postavljene standarde i ostala poduzeća u okruženju.

Promatrano na razini pojedinog tržišnog sustava, kartice postignuća se mogu smatrati dijelom dugoročne inicijative koja pridonosi razvoju tržišta kapitala. U nekim slučajevima mogu služiti i u svrhu promicanja regionalnih integracija. Savez država Jugoistočne Azije tako je oblikovao ASEAN karticu postignuća s ciljem promicanja razvoja integriranog tržišta kapitala među zemljama pripadnicama saveza.

4. Analiza odabranih metoda za ocjenu kvalitete korporativnog upravljanja

Postojeće metode za mjerenje kvalitete korporativnog upravljanja u prvom se radu razlikuju prema vrsti inicijatora i razini primjene. S obzirom na inicijatora razlikujemo metode oblikovane od strane različitih stručnih tijela kao što su konzultantske kuće, regulatorne institucije ili asocijacije koje se bave praćenjem praksi korporativnog upravljanja u nekoj zemlji te metode razvijene u znanstveno istraživačkim radovima. S obzirom na razinu primjene, postojeće se metode dijele na one razvijene za potrebe specifičnog poduzeća, namijenjene korištenju u okviru nacionalnog ili tržišnog konteksta te primjenjive na široj, međunarodnoj razini.

4.1. Usporedba odabranih metoda za ocjenu kvalitete korporativnog upravljanja

U Tablici 3 nalazi se pregled odabranih metoda za ocjenu kvalitete korporativnog upravljanja razvijenih od strane stručnih tijela.

Tablica 3. Metode za ocjenu kvalitete korporativnog upravljanja razvijene od strane stručnih tijela

Metoda	Izdavatelj	Područje primjene	Područja ocjene
GMI score	Governance Metrics International	Međunarodno	450 stavki u 14 kategorija
Corporate governance quotinet (CGQ)	Institutional Shareholder Services (ISS)	Međunarodno	61 stavka u 8 kategorija
Deminor rating	Deminor	Međunarodno	300 stavki u 4 kategorije
DVFA indeks	Der Berufsverband der Investment Professionals	Njemačka/ zemlje kontinentalnog sustava	55 stavki u 5 kategorija
SEECGAN indeks	South East Europe Corporate Governance Academic Network	Jugoistočna Europa	98 stavki u 7 kategorija
ICRA score	Information and Credit Rating Agency India	Indija	50+ stavki u 7 kategorija
TRIS score	Thai Rating and Information Services Co.	Istočna Azija	40+ stavki u 4 kategorije

Izvor: Izrada autora.

Ključna opažanja proizašla iz usporedbe prikazanih instrumenata su iduća. Prvo, svi su instrumenti zasnovani na sličnoj metodologiji koja podrazumijeva pridruživanje brojanog pokazatelja uz stavku koja označava pojedini aspekt kvalitete. Ljestvice za ocjenu pritom se najčešće kreću u rasponu od 1 do 10, pri čemu 1 označava neispunjenost promatranog kriterija/nezadovoljavajuću ocjenu dok 10 označava izrazito visoku razinu ispunjavanja kriterija/najbolju ocjenu. Nadalje, premda se broj stavki za ocjenu među promatranim metodama uvelike razlikuje (TRIS *score* se sastoji od tek nešto više od 40 stavki dok ih GMI *score* ima više 400), moguće je identificirati tri osnova područja ocjena u koja su one razvrstane: (1) prava i obveze vlasnika, (2) rad i struktura odbora te (3) kvaliteta izvještavanja i transparentnost poslovanja.

Izvori i metode prikupljanja podataka kod promatranih instrumenata primarno uključuje informacije dostupne u poslovnim izvještajima, a potom i informacije dobivene od strane zastupnika poduzeća (prikupljene metodom anketnog upitnika ili strukturiranog intervjua). Razina kvalitete odnosno konačna ocjena korporativnog upravljanja kod ovih se metoda utvrđuje kao indeks dobiven na temelju prosjeka svih ocjena pridruženih promatranim kriterijima. Pojedini kriterijima pritom mogu biti pridruženi različiti ponderi stoga oni mogu imati veći ili manji utjecaj na konačnu ocjenu kvalitete. Kod većine promatranih metoda veća

vrijednost finalnog indeksa ekvivalentna je većoj razini kvalitete. Jedina iznimka je ICRA *score* kod kojega minimalna vrijednost indeksa (vrijednost 1) označava prvoklasno korporativno upravljanje, dok maksimalna vrijednost (vrijednost 6) ukazuje na najnižu razinu kvalitete korporativnog upravljanja.

Gotovo usporedno s pojavom instrumenata koje su inicirala stručna tijela, različite metodologije za ocjenu kvalitete korporativnog upravljanja počele su se oblikovati i u znanstvenim radovima. Prvu od takvih metodologija, namijenjenu javnim poduzećima u SAD-u (G-indeks) oblikovali su Gompers, Ishii i Metrick (2003). Interes znanstvene i stručne javnosti za ovim indeksom posebno je porastao nakon korporativnih skandala koji su potresli američku javnost, a spoznaje koje u svom radu iznose Gompers, Ishii i Metrick (2003) pokrenule su novi pravac istraživanja u znanstvenoj literaturi.

Pregled odabranih metoda za ocjenu kvalitete korporativnog upravljanja razvijenih u znanstvenoj literaturi prikazan je u Tablici 4.

Tablica 4. Metode za ocjenu kvalitete korporativnog upravljanja razvijene u znanstvenoj literaturi

Autori	Oznaka	Područje ocjene
Gompers i sur. (2003)	G-Indeks	24 kriterija koji se odnose na odnos menadžera i dioničara te zaštitu poduzeća od neprijateljskog preuzimanja
Bebchuk, Cohen i Ferrell (2004)	E-Indeks	kriteriji koji se tiču zaštite vrijednosti dioničara (stepenasti odbor, zlatni padobran, glasovanje kvalificiranom većinom o preuzimanjima i spajanjima)
Drobetz, Schillhofer i Zimmerman (2004)	CGR	predanost uspostavljanju dobrih upravljačkih praksi, prava dioničara, transparentnost, odnos nadzornog odbora i uprave i revizija
Black, Jang i Kim (2006)	KCGI	39 kriterija u 5 kategorija (prava dioničara, struktura odbora, prakse rada odbora i izvještavanje)
Brown i Caylor (2006)	Gov-Score	51 kriterij koji odnose na interne i eksterne faktore
Karpoﬀ, Schonlau i Wehrly (2017)	O-Indeks	odabrani kriteriji iz G-Indeksa (Gompers i sur. (2003) i E-Indeksa (Bebchuk, Cohen i Ferrell (2004)
Biswas (2012)	Indeks	148 kriterija u 5 kategorija (prava ulagača, kvaliteta financijskog izvještavanja i objava informacija, udovoljavanje regulatornim

Autori	Oznaka	Područje ocjene
		zahtjevima, struktura tima vrhovnog menadžmenta i revizija)
Turrent i Ariza (2016)	Indeks	43 kriterija u 5 kategorija (djelotvornost odbora, prava vlasnika, sukob interesa i etički standardi i izvještavanje)
Waweru (2014)	Indeks	51 kriterij u 6 kategorija (rad odbora, struktura članova odbora, zakoni, izvještavanje, vlasništvo i progresivne prakse)
Durnev i Kim (2005)	Indeks	6 kategorija (discipliniranje menadžmenta, transparentnost, pravovremenost i jasnoća izvještavanja, nezavisnost odbora, odgovornost prema zajednici i zaštita manjinskih dioničara)

Izvor: Izrada autora.

Slično kao i kod metoda razvijenih od strane stručnih tijela, ključna područja ocjene ovdje prikazanih metoda odnose se na vlasnička prava, prakse izvještavanja te strukturalna obilježja i procedure rada odbora.

Razlike između ove dvije skupine metoda u prvom se redu očituju u načinu njihove konstrukcije. Za razliku od metoda koje su inicirala stručna tijela, metode iz znanstvene literature nisu umjerene na razinu usvajanja propisanih smjernica već objedinjuju različite kvantitativne pokazatelje pojedinih segmenata korporativnog upravljanja identificirane kao važne temeljem relevantne literature u području. Nadalje, dok je kod metoda koje su razvila stručna tijela najčešće slučaj da različito vrednuju pojedine kriterije, metode u znanstvenim radovima sastoje od kriterija kojima se pridaju jednaki ponderi pri izračunu konačne ocjene kvalitete (Daines i sur., 2010). Veličina pondera pridruženih kriterijima u metodama koje koriste stručna tijela pritom je odraz tržišnih zbivanja u okruženju. Uz to, ove se metode redovito revidiraju u skladu s promjenama u okruženju dok se one u znanstvenim radovima nastavljaju koristiti u prvobitnom razvijenom obliku (Bhagat i sur., 2007).

Razlika između ove dvije skupine metoda očituje i u načinu iskazivanja konačne ocjene kvalitete. Mjerenje kvalitete u znanstvenim radovima rezultira brojčanim pokazateljem koji označava razinu kvalitete predloženu od strane autora dok kod mjera stručnih tijela konačna ocjena ponekad može biti i samo rang u odnosu na ostala poduzeća u industriji, zemlji ili nekom širem geografskom području. Za mjere iz znanstvenih radova također je karakteristično da se oslanjaju na manju količinu podataka koja je uobičajeno prikupljena iz jednog izvora dok stručna tijela najčešće primjenjuju različite vrste podataka (kvantitativne i kvalitativne) iz interne i eksterne okoline poduzeća (Daines i sur., 2010).

4.2. Metodološki izazovi mjerenja kvalitete korporativnog upravljanja

Unatoč istaknutim koristima koje praćenje kvalitete ima na različitim razinama promatranja, prikazanim je metodama moguće uputiti dvije ključne kritike s metodološkog gledišta.

Prvo, dosadašnja literatura pruža slabo teorijsko uporište za donošenje odluke o tome koji kriteriji bi trebali biti dijelom ukupne ocjene kvalitete korporativnog upravljanja (što uključiti, a što izbaciti prilikom ocjene). Uz to, znanstvena i stručna literatura također pružaju vrlo malo konkretnih smjernica o tome kakvi bi trebali biti težinski udjeli pridruženi pojedinim kriterijima.

Jedno od često predloženih rješenja za unapređenje postojećih metoda jest njihova simplifikacija (odabiranje manjeg broja kriterija na kojima će se temeljiti ukupna ocjena kvalitete) (Bhagat i sur., 2008; Bebchuk i sur., 2009). No veliki izazov kod takvog pristupa jest odabir ključnih kriterija koji će se promatrati odnosno opasnost da će neki od važnih kriterija biti izostavljeni.

Umjesto toga, konfiguracijski pristup (engl. *Bundle approach*) oblikovanju instrumenta za ocjenu kvalitete potencijalno bi mogao biti primjerenije rješenje (Aguilera i sur., 2012; Fiss, 2007). Temeljna premisa ovog pristupa jest da djelovanje pojedinih mehanizama korporativnog upravljanja nije toliko bitno kada se svaki od njih promatra zasebno, već je važno razumjeti njihove međusobne odnose (Aguilera i sur., 2012; Larcker i sur., 2007; Schnyder, 2012). Iz toga proizlazi da jedinica promatranja ne bi trebao biti pojedini mehanizam korporativnog upravljanja već istovremeno međusobno djelovanje više mehanizama.

Kao jedan od problema povezanih s mjerenjem kvalitete ističe se i pitanje validnosti mjernih skala odnosno pitanje mjere li oblikovani kriteriji konstrukte koje bi trebali mjeriti kao i mjere li ih na odgovarajući način. Prema Blacku i suradnicima (2017) problem validnosti posebno je izražen kod metoda koje su oblikovane za primjenu na međunarodnoj razini odnosno onih koje se primjenjuju u različitim sustavima korporativnog upravljanja. Problem validnosti vidljiv je primjerice prilikom vrednovanja kriterija kojima se utvrđuje stupanj nezavisnosti odbora. Problem s vrednovanjem kriterija nezavisnosti proizlazi iz toga što u pojedinim zemljama postoje zahtjevi koji određuju minimalnu zastupljenost nezavisnih članova u odboru, dok u ostalima postoje samo preporuke i smjernice usmjerene na ovo pitanje. Također, zahtijevana odnosno preporučena razina zastupljenosti nezavisnih članova među pojedinim se zemljama uvelike razlikuje. Tako je primjerice u Norveškoj i Nizozemskoj propisano da odbori trebaju imati najmanje 50% nezavisnih članova dok je u mnogim drugim europskim zemljama smjernicama nacionalnih kodeksa samo predloženo da odbori u svojoj strukturi trebaju imati određeni udio nezavisnih članova (taj se udio najčešće kreće u intervalu od 30 do 50 %) (OECD, 2019). Iz toga proizlazi kako kvalitetno oblikovani instrumenti za ocjenu kvalitete trebaju uvažavati činjenicu da pojedini aspekti kvalitetnog korporativnog upravljanja nemaju isto značenje u svim poslovnim okruženjima.

Primjer instrumenta za ocjenu kvalitete korporativnog upravljanja koji je oblikovan na način da uvažava specifičnosti zemalja u kojima je njegova primjena namijenjena pružaju Black i sur. (2017). Prilikom konstrukcije svog indeksa autori su prvo temeljem relevantne literature identificirali osnovne kategorije kvalitete korporativnog upravljanja za promatrane zemlje (Brazil, Indija, Korea i Turska). Te su kategorije (1) struktura odbora, (2) izvještavanje, (3) prava dioničara, (4) transakcije s povezanim osobama i (5) vlasnička struktura. Nadalje, unutar definiranih kategorija autori su za svaku zemlju identificirali mjerljive elemente koji

zajednički reflektiraju razinu kvalitete kategorije. Na taj način oblikovan je indeks koji omogućuje laku usporedbu među promatranim zemljama, a da pri tome uvažava specifičnosti zakonodavnog i institucionalnog okvira koji ih obilježava.

Nadalje, Bassen (2005) predlaže kako bi se oblikovanje metoda za ocjenu uz (1) uvažavanje specifičnosti nacionalnog konteksta trebalo također temeljiti i na (2) jednostavnosti upotrebe te (3) brzom pružanju rezultata. Uvažavajući kriterij jednostavnosti upotrebe, metode bi trebale biti oblikovane tako da svi kriteriji budu definirani na razumljiv i konzistentan način kroz cijeli instrumenta. Uz to, po provedenom bi vrednovanju instrument trebao omogućiti ne samo brz izračun finalne ocjene kvalitete već i okvir za razumijevanje dobivenih rezultata i njihovo pozicioniranje i interpretaciju u odnosu na šire okruženje u kojemu subjekt ocjenjivanja posluje. Konačno, važno je da proces ocjenjivanja kvalitete bude proveden od strane nezavisnog tijela. S tim u skladu, Donker i Zahir (2008) posebno ističu potrebu da se pažljivo pristupi rezultatima koje pružaju konzultantske kuće koje istovremeno evaluiraju i savjetuju poduzeća o unapređenju upravljačkih praksi.

Konačno, očekivanja u vezi kvalitete korporativnog upravljanja, a time i prakse oblikovanja instrumenata za ocjenu pod utjecajem su promjena u interesima i zahtjevima različitih skupina. O'Kelley i sur. (2018) tako ističu pet ključnih trendova koji će bitno utjecati na način kako će evaluatori u budućnosti pristupati ocjenjivanju kvalitete: (1) snažniji interes za kvalitetu interakcija među članovima odbora, (2) naglašavanje važnosti nematerijalnih resursa poduzeća kao što su ljudski kapital, organizacijska kultura i korporativna reputacija, (3) orijentacija na interese šireg spektra interesno-utjecajnih skupina, a ne samo većinskih vlasnika (4) dugoročna orijentacija i donošenje odluka u skladu s konceptima održivosti i društvene odgovornosti te (5) sve izraženiji interes i konstruktivni naponi aktivista da se njihovi prijedlozi uvažavaju prilikom donošenja dugoročnih odluka.

5. Zaključak

U ovom je radu pružen dubinski uvid u metodološke pristupe za ocjenu kvalitete korporativnog upravljanja. U našoj smo se analizi usredotočili na usporedbu između dvije skupine metoda - metode oblikovane u znanstvenim radovima nasuprot onima koje su oblikovane od strane stručnih tijela. Nalazi provedene analize upućuju na visoku razinu podudaranja u pogledu sadržaja (područja ocjene kvalitete) analiziranih metoda pri čemu ključna područja ocjene čine (1) vlasnička prava, (2) prakse izvještavanja te (3) obilježja strukture i procedure rada odbora. Razlike između ove dvije skupine metoda primarno se očituju u njihovoj formi, načinu primjene te način iskazivanja rezultata (konačne ocjene kvalitete korporativnog upravljanja).

Doprinos rada prije svega se očituje u identificiranju ključnih ograničenja i metodoloških izazova u mjerenju kvalitete te iznošenju smjernica za unapređenje postojećih metoda kako u konceptualnom tako i u aplikativnom smislu. U osnovi se ograničenja promatranih metoda svode na postojanje slabog teorijskog uporišta za određivanje obuhvata područja ocjene i relativne važnosti pojedinih kriterija kvalitete.

Uz to, nalazi provedene analize pridonose boljem razumijevanju praktičnih izazova u procesu mjerenja kvalitete te ukazuju na važnost kontinuirane kritičke evaluacije dostupnih metoda. Premda obuhvatna naša analiza nije uključila sve dostupne već samo odabrane metode. U budućim bi istraživanjima svakako bilo vrijedno proširiti opseg analize na način da se promatraju ne samo metode za ocjenu ukupne razine kvalitete već i one namijenjene evaluaciji pojedinih segmenata korporativnog upravljanja (primjerice metode za ocjenu rada odbora). Također, vrijedne spoznaje pružile bi i analize usmjerene na konzistentnost rezultata dobivenih primjenom različitih metoda na istom poduzeću.

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UTJECAJ TALENT MENADŽMENTA NA KONKURENTSKU PREDNOST PREDUZEĆA

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Apstrakt

Svako preduzeće teži ostvarenju vlastitih organizacijskih ciljeva, te postizanju konkurentske prednosti i sveukupne organizacijske uspješnosti. Ostvarenje navedenih težnji ovisi o resursima koje posjeduje preduzeće, a vremenom se pogled na važnost pojedinačnih resursa mijenjao. Nekada davno najvažniji je bio fizički rad, potom industrijskom revolucijom, najvažnije su postale mašine, zatim informacione tehnologije, a danas su to zaposlenici, odnosno kako Navarro, et al. (2011), navode, najveća vrijednost kompanije danas je znanje, kreativnost, sposobnost, inovacija i želja za učenjem.

Ključne reči: menadžment, talent menadžment, konkurentska prednost

1. Uvod

Svako preduzeće teži ostvarenju vlastitih organizacijskih ciljeva, te postizanju konkurentske prednosti i sveukupne organizacijske uspješnosti. Ostvarenje navedenih težnji ovisi o resursima koje posjeduje preduzeće, a vremenom se pogled na važnost pojedinačnih resursa mijenjao. Nekada davno najvažniji je bio fizički rad, potom industrijskom revolucijom, najvažnije su postale mašine, zatim informacione tehnologije, a danas su to zaposlenici, odnosno kako Navarro, et al. (2011), navode, najveća vrijednost kompanije danas je znanje, kreativnost, sposobnost, inovacija i želja za učenjem.

Pojam „talent menadžment“ se prvi put spominje 1998. godine, kada grupa konsultanata iz McKinsey-a objavljuje istraživanje pod nazivom „Rat za talente“, u kojem kako prenose Gallardo, et al. (2013), iznose važnost talenata u postizanju organizacijske izvrsnosti. Od tada do danas, ova oblast dolazi u epicentar istraživanja i interesovanja, ne samo teoretičara, već i praktičara menadžmenta ljudskih resursa, jer kako navode Rabbi, et al. (2015), talent menadžment je neophodan za izgradnju pobjedničkih timova koji će organizaciju dovesti do liderske pozicije na konkurentskom tržištu. Važnost talent menadžment ističe i Bahtijarević-Šiber (2014) jer navodi da danas, talent menadžment postaje djelotvorna strategija osiguravanja konkurentske prednosti jer su talenti njezin jedini preostali izvor u savremenim poslovnim uslovima.

2. Talent menadžment

U današnjem poslovnom svijetu, talent menadžment predstavlja jedan od ključnih strateških zadataka menadžmenta ljudskih resursa, jer savremene organizacije sve više talente razumijevaju kao ključan izvor konkurentske sposobnosti, a uspješno upravljanje njima kao način ostvarivanja konkurentske prednosti (Bahtijarević-Šiber, 2014). Različiti autori su dali različite definicije ovog pojma, pa tako Creelman (2004) smatra da je talent menadžment proces privlačenja, regrutovanja i zadržavanja nadarenih pojedinaca. Sličnu definiciju daje i Knez (2004) koji razdvaja talent menadžment na interne i eksterne kontinuirane procese, i uz privlačenje u skup eksternih dodaje i selekciju, a uz zadržavanje, kao važan interni segment, navodi i razvoj. Collins i Clark (2003) pored privlačenja, zapošljavanja, zadržavanja i razvoja, kao ključni element talent menadžment navode i identificiranje ključnih pozicija u preduzeću, koje bi naknadno trebale biti popunjene talentovanim pojedincima. Bahtijarević-Šiber (2013) kaže da je talent menadžment obuhvatan i integriran sistem niza međupovezanih aktivnosti menadžmenta ljudskih potencijala radi privlačenja, motiviranja, razvoja i maksimalnog korištenja svim potencijalima ljudi iznimnih znanja i sposobnosti koji za organizaciju imaju stratešku važnost u ostvarivanju održive konkurentske prednosti, daljeg razvoja i uspješnosti. Leisy i Pyron (2009) najjednostavnije definiraju ovaj pojam i kažu da talent menadžment predstavlja postavljanje pravih ljudi s pravim vještinama na pravo mjesto u pravo vrijeme. Sličnu konstrukciju definicije daje i Cappelli (2008) kada kaže da talent menadžment obuhvata dobijanje pravih ljudi, s pravim vještinama na pravim poslovima. Berger i Berger su talent menadžment su prikazali u vidu modela koji se nalazi na sljedećem grafikonu.

Grafikon 1. Talent menadžment



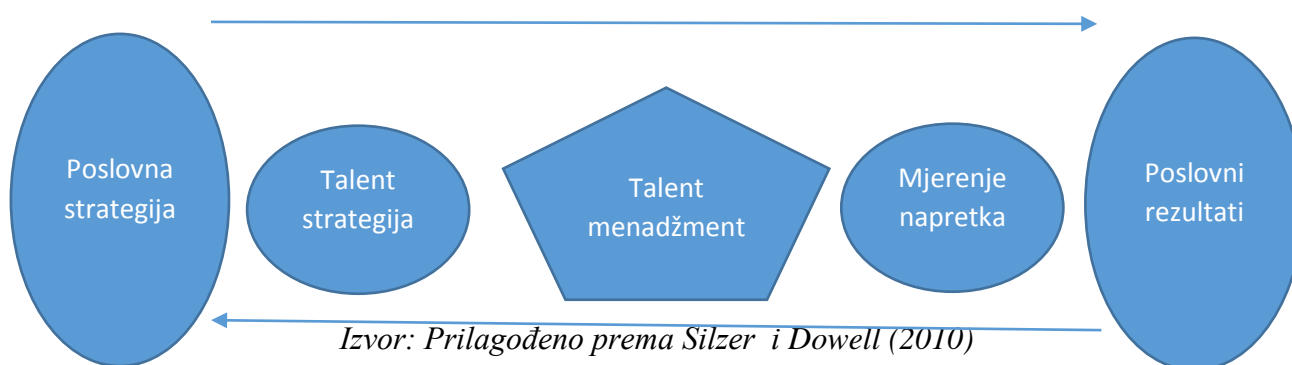
Izvor: (Berger i Berger, 2011, navedeno u Katić, et. al. 2016, str. 145)

Silzer i Dowell (2010) sugeriraju da model talent menadžmenta treba da se sastoji od pet osnovnih procesa i to:

1. Privlačenja i selekcije talenata za organizaciju,
2. Procjene kompetencija i vještina talenata,
3. Analiziranja talenata i planiranja aktivnosti talenata,
4. Razvijanja i implementiranja (iskorištavanja) talenata i
5. Angažiranja i zadržavanja talenata.

Bez obzira kako izgledao model talent menadžmenta, da bi bio uspješan, on ne može biti izolovan od drugih organizacionih sistema i programa preduzeća. Silzer i Dowell (2010) navode da se talent menadžment nalazi u centru okvira talent menadžmenta gdje je poslovna strategija pokretač modela, a da su krajnji ishod poslovni rezultati što je prikazano na narednom grafikonu.

Grafikon 2. Okvir talent menadžmenta



Bez obzira na različite percepcije autora, iz prethodnih definicija se vidi da se u središtu talent menadžment nalaze talenti, koje Caligiuri i DiSanto (2001) smatraju najvažnijim zaposlenicima, odnosno inovativnim i kreativnim radnicima znanja. Tansley, et al. (2007), talente definiraju kao osobe koje mogu napraviti pomak u organizacijskoj performansi, bilo da se radi o njihovom direktnom djelovanju ili gledajući dugoročno, iskazivanjem visokog nivoa potencijala. Santhoshkumar i Rajasekar (2012) talentima smatraju individualce koji imaju visoko razvijene vještine i velika znanja, i to ne samo o poslu nego i o načinima funkcioniranja organizacije. Također, talentima se smatraju i individualci koji ostvaruju visoku performansu, odnosno kako Smart (2005) navodi – talenti su oni najbolji u klasi.

Bahtijarević-Šiber (2014) navodi da u organizacijskom i poslovnom kontekstu riječ talenat ima više značenja jer obilježava ključne ljude u organizaciji, ljude velikih vještina, znanja i razvojnih potencijala, kao i izvrsne radnike koji postižu iznimne učinke, te dodaje da talent menadžment suštinski predstavlja poboljšanje pristupa i ukupnog upravljanja ljudskim resursima, unutar čega je nužno identificirati ključne pozicije, ljude i vještine koji daju presudan doprinos ostvarivanju strateških ciljeva.

Objedinjući sve navedene definicije, može se reći da su talenti osobe koje imaju velika znanja, vještine, kompetencije i koji ostvaruju visoku performansu, i koji, ukoliko se rasporede na prave (ključne) pozicije, mogu doprinijeti poboljšanju sveukupne organizacijske uspješnosti i ostvarenju konkurentske prednosti. U tom slučaju talent menadžment bi se mogao definirati kao skup svih neophodnih aktivnosti kojima će se identificirati ključne pozicije u preduzeću, zatim prepoznati potrebna ljudska znanja, kompetencije i vještine, potom iste pronaći i adekvatno iskoristiti, s ciljem ostvarenja organizacijskih ciljeva, uspješnosti i konkurentske prednosti, uz istovremeno obezbjeđivanje okruženja za razvoj i zadržavanje talentiranih pojedinaca koji ta znanja, vještine i kompetencije donose organizaciji.

3. Konkurentska prednost

Konkurentska prednost se nalazi u srži poslovanja preduzeća na konkurentskim tržištima i ukoliko je održiva, najznačajniji je uslov za dugoročne natprosječne rezultate. Ona predstavlja osnov poslovnih rezultata preduzeća, te u suštini nastaje iz dodatne vrijednosti koje je firma sposobna da stvori za svoje kupce. Dodatna vrijednost se može ostvariti na dva načina i to ako preduzeće za nižu cijenu ponudi jednaku korist za kupca, ili ako nudi jedinstvenu korist za kupca koja neutrališe visoku cijenu. (Porter, 1998, 2007)

Rahimić (2006) kaže da je konkurentska prednost osnova svih poslovnih odnosa i da nju čine sve one karakteristike, uslovi ili varijable, koje imaju signifikantno djelovanje na uspjeh preduzeća. Pomenuta autorica navodi da konkurentska prednost treba dozvoliti preduzeću da u poređenju sa konkurencijom ostvari natprosječne rezultate.

Izgradnja konkurentske prednosti je kontinuiran proces jer jednom postignuta konkurentska prednost nije garant preduzeću da će i u narednom periodu postići uspjeh. Konkurentske prednosti se mogu zasnivati na povoljnim uslovima u okruženju i na specifičnim snagama i sposobnostima preduzeća. Pošto su povoljni uslovi u okruženju dostupni i konkurenciji, onda takve prednosti ne mogu biti osnova za postizanje dugoročnog uspjeha. Stoga je izgradnja dugoročno održive konkurentske prednosti preduzeća moguća samo na osnovu ključnih kompetentnosti. (Rahimić, 2006)

Porter (2007) kaže da postoje dvije osnovne vrste konkurentske prednosti koje preduzeće može da posjeduje i da su to niski troškovi i diferencijacija. Ta dva osnovna vida konkurentske prednosti, zajedno s nizom aktivnosti u okviru kojih se firma trudi da ih ostvari, vode do tri generičke strategije za postizanje natprosječnih rezultata u nekom privrednom segmentu: troškovnog liderstva, diferencijacije i fokusiranja.

Svaka generička strategija podrazumijeva potpuno različit pristup ostvarivanju konkurentske prednosti, odnosno kombinaciju izbora određene vrste konkurentske prednosti kojoj teži i širinu strategijskog cilja u okviru kojeg ta konkurentska prednost treba da se ostvari. (Porter, 2007)

Tablica 1. Tri generičke strategije (Porter, 2007., str. 31)

	Konkurentska prednost	
	Niski troškovi	Diferencijacija
Zadovoljavanje potreba više segmenata	Liderstvo u troškovima	Diferencijacija

Konkurentni obim	Zadovoljavanje potreba jednog segmenta	Fokus na troškove	Fokus na diferencijaciju
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Porter (2007) smatra da sticanje konkurentske prednosti dovodi firmu pred izbor – ako namjerava da ostvari konkurentsku prednost, da mora da se opredijeli za vrstu konkurentske prednosti i obim u kojem želi da je ostvari, te da će „svažtarenje“ dovesti do rezultata koji su ispod prosjeka, te da tako preduzeće neće imati nijednu konkurentsku prednost.

Preduzeće koristi strategiju diferencijacije kada pruža nešto jedinstveno, što je kupcima vrijednije od same ponude niskih cijena (Vrdoljak, Tolušić, 2012). Ovakva preduzeća se opredjeljuju za jednu ili više karakteristika koje mnogi kupci proizvoda tog privrednog segmenta smatraju važnim i na taj način teže da steknu jedinstven položaj u svom privrednom segmentu. Diferencijacija se u svakom privrednom segmentu drugačije ostvaruje i može biti zasnovana na samom proizvodu, sistemu prodaje, marketinškom pristupu ili nekim drugim faktorima koji omogućavaju posebnost u odnosu na konkurenciju, a nagrada preduzeću za takvu posebnost je premijska cijena. (Porter, 2007).

Strategiju troškovnog liderstva koriste preduzeća koja nastoje postati proizvođač s najnižim troškovima u svojoj industriji (Vrdoljak, Tolušić, 2012). Preduzeća koja žele biti troškovni lideri imaju širok obim djelovanja, pokrivaju mnoge privredne segmente i teže da iskoriste sve izvore troškovne prednosti, te najčešće prodaju proizvode bez ikakvih dodataka, posebno se oslanjajući na obim.

Bez obzira koju strategiju odabrali, preduzeća ne smiju u potpunosti isključiti osnovne elemente one druge strategije, pa tako čak ni preduzeće koje zauzima leaderski položaj u pogledu troškova ne smije da ignoriše osnovne elemente diferencijacije, jer kupci moraju dati proizvod smatrati uporedivim s konkurencijom, te zbog toga mora ostvariti tzv. paritet (bliskost) u odnosu na konkurente što podrazumijeva ponudu identičnih proizvoda konkurentskim ili proizvoda čije su karakteristike različite, ali ih kupci podjednako cijene. Isto tako, preduzeća koja se žele diferencirati u odnosu na konkurenciju, ne smiju ignorirati svoje troškove, jer cijena njihovog proizvoda/usluge mora biti viša od dodatnih troškova kojim se preduzeće izlaže da bi bilo jedinstveno, te stoga moraju tragati za načinima diferencijacije koji će omogućiti da njena cijena bude viša od troškova diferencijacije. (Porter, 2007)

Što se tiče strategije fokusiranja, ona predstavlja primjenu jedne od navedenih strategija na ciljanom segmentu, pa tako kod fokusiranja na troškove, preduzeće nastoji ostvariti troškovnu prednost u svom ciljanom segmentu, dok kod fokusiranja na diferencijaciju preduzeće teži diferenciranju u svom ciljanom segmentu. (Vrdoljak, Tolušić, 2012). Ova strategija se razlikuje od prethodnih zato što se zasniva na izboru jednog uskog segmenta ili grupe segmenata u okviru privredne grane, pri čemu se ostali isključuju. Ova strategija se primjenjuje kada određenim segmentima ne odgovaraju konkurenti koji istovremeno zadovoljavaju i njihove potrebe i potrebe drugih segmenata. (Porter, 2007).

Kao što je prethodno spomenuto, konkurentna prednost preduzeća se zasniva na ključnim kompetentnostima preduzeća koje predstavljaju kombinaciju sposobnosti i resursa (opipljivih i neopipljivih) koje doprinose izgradnji i dugoročnom očuvanju konkurentskih sposobnosti preduzeća. One predstavljaju osnovu za definisanje i izbor odgovarajućeg temeljnog oslonca (bloka) konkurentskih prednosti. (Rahimić, 2006)

Rahimić (2006) navodi da su efikasnost, kvalitet, inovativnost i reagibilnost na želje i zahtjeve kupaca četiri temeljna oslonca konkurentne prednosti, gdje prvi predstavlja količinu resursa potrebnih za proizvodnju jedinice outputa. Za jedno preduzeće se može reći da je efikasnije od svojih konkurenata ukoliko postiže isti nivo proizvodnje sa manje resursa. Na toj osnovi preduzeće gradi troškovnu konkurentnu prednost.

Kvalitet predstavlja jedan od temeljnih oslonaca konkurentne prednosti i definira se kao usaglašavanje sa zahtjevima kupaca u pogledu funkcije, cijene, vremena isporuke, sigurnosti, pouzdanosti, zaštite okoliša, garancije, troškova, savjetovanja itd i ne posmatra se samo kao faktor troškova, nego može doprinijeti profiliranju preduzeća naspram konkurencije. (Rahimić, 2006)

Za postizanje konkurentskih prednosti u prošlosti je preduzećima bilo dovoljno da proizvode više, jeftinije, bolje i brže od svojih konkurenata, međutim danas moraju da uključe i inovativnost ako žele da pobjede u borbi za očuvanje i poboljšanje konkurentne pozicije preduzeća na domaćem i internacionalnom tržištu. Zbog toga, inovativnost predstavlja jedan od temelja konkurentne prednosti, a po definiciji inovativnim se smatraju ona preduzeća koja reaguju na iznenadne promjene u okruženju, ali i sama izazivaju promjene. (Rahimić, 2006)

Za izgradnju i dugoročno očuvanje konkurentskih prednosti nije dovoljan razvoj ključnih kompetentnosti sa ciljem da preduzeće bude samo brže i bolje od svojih konkurenata. Da bi preduzeće dugoročno bilo uspješno potrebno je, u prvom redu, da se fokusira na razumijevanje problema svojih kupaca. Zbog toga, reagibilnost na želje i zahtjeve kupaca predstavlja temeljni oslonac konkurentne prednosti i vezuje se za strategiju diferencijacije. (Rahimić, 2006)

S obzirom da je velika učestalost izučavanja pojma konkurentne prednosti, u literaturi su razvijene različite metode za njeno mjerenje. Sachitra (2016) navodi da postoje brojne metrike za mjerenje konkurentne prednosti, a neke od njih su tržišno učešće, produktivnost, troškovi proizvoda, bruto marža, prinos na imovinu, neto prihod, profit, rast prodaje, povrat investicija, zadovoljstvo potrošača, rast i razvoj zaposlenih, benchmarking, Balanced Scorecard sistem itd.

4. Utjecaj talent menadžmenta na konkurentnu prednost preduzeća

Ekonomski, društveni i tehnološki razvoj, navode Cheese, et. al. (2008) izuzetno je povećao važnost talenata za organizacije u 21. stoljeću. Novi trendovi razvoja u svim područjima privrede i društva, donijeli su novu, tzv. „eru talenata”, čiji se utjecaj ogleda u zahtjevima da

se organizacije koje prate trendove i teže ka napredovanju i razvoju, aktivno bave talentima. (Heifetz et al., 2009)

Mnogi autori smatraju da postoji pozitivna veza između ostvarivanja pozitivnih poslovnih rezultata i zapošljavanja talenata. (Lawler, 2008; Michaels et al., 2001, navedeno u Silzer i Dowell, 2010).

Bahtijarević-Šiber (2014) povezuje talent menadžment i konkurentsku prednost i, kao što je već spomenuto, kaže da savremene organizacije sve više talente razumijevaju kao ključan izvor konkurentске sposobnosti, a uspješno upravljanje njima kao način ostvarivanja konkurentске prednosti. Whelan i Carcary (2001), također smatraju da talent menadžment pozitivno utječe na konkurentsku prednost preduzeća.

Važnost talent menadžmenta naglašavaju i McDonnell, et. al (2010) i kažu da otkrivanje, razvoj i zadržavanje talenata će biti presudno za uspjeh poslovanja u svim djelatnostima, dok Rabbi, et al. (2015), smatraju da je talent menadžment neophodan za izgradnju pobjedničkih timova koji organizaciju dovode do liderske pozicije na konkurentskom tržištu.

Do prije desetak godina, upravljanje talentima se ograničavalo samo na top menadžere dok danas, upravljanje talentima podrazumijeva razvoj svih predhodno navedenih aktivnosti, na svim nivoima organizacije, jer za postizanje konkurentске prednosti i sveukupne organizacijske uspješnosti, ne smije se zanemariti doprinos ostalih zaposlenika. Jakovljević, et al. (2012) navodi da se talentirani zaposlenici mogu pronaći na svim nivoima preduzeća, te da osim radnika na upravljačkim funkcijama, to mogu biti i zaposlenici koji se bave logističkim operacijama, zaposlenici koji su u direktnoj vezi s kupcima, radnici koji rade u proizvodnji i sl. Organizacija se nikako ne smije samo fokusirati na pribavljanje talenata na više hijerarhijske nivoe, jer, kako navode Hagel et al. (2009), potpuni fokus na top zaposlenike može naštetiti moralu cjelokupne organizacije, te rezultirati slabom performansom.

Pored utemeljenosti u teoriji, povezanost upravljanja talentima i konkurentске prednosti također je potvrđena i brojnim istraživanjima. Latukha (2016) je u svoje istraživanje fokusirala na tržišta u nastajanju na području Rusije i potvrdila da se talent menadžment može smatrati temeljem konkurentске prednosti.

Wandia (2013) je provela studiju slučaja u preduzeću Symphony (K) Ltd. u Keniji i dala zaključak da u ovom preduzeću talent menadžment predstavlja izvor održive konkurentске prednosti preduzeća, dok je do istog zaključka došao i Moturi (2013), provodeći istraživanje u drugom preduzeću u Keniji (Data Networks Ltd).

Al-Hadid (2017) je na osnovu istraživanja provedenog u jordanskim telekomunikacijskim preduzećima, potvrdio značajan utjecaj upravljanja talentima na postizanje konkurentne prednosti.

Alma'aitah et al. (2013) su isti utjecaj istraživali u najuspješnijim preduzećima na području Jordana i dokazali su značajan utjecaj upravljanja talentima na konkurentsku prednost ovih preduzeća i to naročito u pogledu brzine odgovora zahtjevima kupaca, kvaliteta proizvoda i inovativnosti.

Važnost talent menadžment u ostvarenju konkurentske prednosti podupire i istraživanje koje su 2008. godine proveli IBM Global Business Services i Institut za ljudski kapital je 2008 godine na 1900 ispitanika iz preko 1000 različitih preduzeća koja posluju u 11 različitih industrija. Cilj ovog istraživanja bio ispitati najbolje prakse iskorištavanja upravljanja talentima u svrhu ostvarenja konkurentske prednosti preduzeća. Ovo istraživanje je ukazalo i na značajne razlike u primjeni upravljanja talentima između privatnog i javnog sektora, te dalo jasne smjernice za moguća poboljšanja. (IBM, 2008)

Nekoliko istraživača je posmatralo vezu između praksi talent menadžmenta i finansijskih performansi, pa tako je Danielle McDonald iz Hewitt Associates proveo istraživanje na 432 preduzeća klasificirajući ih na ona koja imaju formalizirane prakse talent menadžmenta, ona koja imaju neformalne aktivnosti talent menadžmenta i ona koja ne provode nikakve aktivnosti usmjerene prema talentima, pri čemu je utvrdio značajnu povezanost formaliziranih praksi talent menadžmenta i većeg povrata na kapital (ROE), povrata na imovinu (ROA), povrata na ulaganja (ROI), ukupnog povrata dioničarima, prodaju po zaposleniku, kao i dohodak po zaposleniku, i to u periodu od tri godine. Donesen je zaključak da preduzeća s tačno određenim praksama talent menadžmenta ostvaraju veće profite, imaju bolje novčane tokove, snažnije tržišne performanse i veću vrijednost dionica. Također, istraživač je posmatrao promjene u pokazateljima prije i poslije implementacije talent menadžmenta pri čemu su identificirana statistički značajna povećanja i to kroz ukupni povrat dioničara (povećanje 24,8%) i prodaju po dionici (povećanje 94,2%) tokom trogodišnjeg perioda. (Silzer i Dowell, 2010)

Nakon izvornog istraživanja „Rat za talente“ konsultantska agencija McKinsey je nastavila istraživati ovaj fenomen, objavljujući nekoliko veoma opsežnih istraživačkih studija. Jedna od njih, objavljena 2001. godine, uključivala je 6.900 menadžera i službenika u 56 američkih preduzeća, i tada je zaključeno da preduzeća koja imaju najbolje prakse talent menadžmenta (20% preduzeća s najboljim praksama) nadmašuju prosječni povrat na dionice za 22% u odnosu na prosjek industrije. (Silzer i Dowell, 2010).

5. Zaključak

Talent menadžment predstavlja jednu od novijih oblasti menadžmenta ljudskih resursa, kojoj će se sve više u budućnosti pridavati pažnja, kako s naučnog, tako i praktičnog aspekta. Ne samo zbog toga što je oblast neistražena, nego zato što talent menadžment, već dokazano, donosi brojne benefite za preduzeće, izmeđuostalog, poboljšanje njegove konkurentske pozicije na tržištu.

S obzirom da u Bosni i Hercegovini, ova tema još uvijek nije dobila na značaju, postoji mnogo prostora za dalja istraživanja. Osim empirijskih istraživanja o utjecaju talent menadžmenta na organizacije u praktičnom smislu, bilo bi poželjno izvršiti sumiranje svih dosadašnjih teorijskih saznanja iz ove oblasti, naročito s aspekta modela talent menadžmenta, te dati doprinos u vidu kreiranja jednog jedinstvenog modela, koji bi bio univerzalno primjenjiv na preduzeća u Bosni i Hercegovini.

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