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Content

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1st Parallel Session

Can a shared service centre be major economic force in the southern hungarian region?

Csaba Roland Ruzsa

Abstract

The Shared Service Centres may lead to job creation in professional field in the less developed EU regions as well. In the CEE region, the number of employees in this sector exceeded 335 000 by 2015 and the trend tends to be increasing heavily. Looking at the actual numbers of the sector, we try to define the main decision making factors for a SSC to settle down in the region. My examination focuses on evaluating the chances whether the development of SSC sector can continue create jobs in this region.

1. Introduction

We can see that digitalization led to new form of company management aims, company structures and business models in the last decade. In most cases, a digitized company restructured its front and back office functions.

The transformation of back office functions created a new form of company structure by introducing Shared Service Centres (SSCs). In this case, the company functions are not present in one place, but in many cases the functions are geographically and physically divided and physically separated. The back office functions also start to operate as an individual company and lead to job creation in different regional areas at the same time.

Most of the literature is looking at how these centres work and contribute financially to the main goals of a company group, however, these new types of companies may also be seen as a new target for FDI inflow in different geographical areas. Of course, companies will put their first Shared Service Centres in a region where they already operate. However, should the quantity and quality of labour be insufficient in that region, which is crucial to an SSC, they open up new potential regions to relocate company functions and set up an SSC to a new region *(Dantons, 2015)*.

The availability of labour is crucial since the creation of an SSC is not a simple outsourcing process to a lower wage region, but the internal business procedures are usually restructured, often bundled and transformed into new functions as well. The digitalization and transformation open new horizon for FDI inflow into regions where this was not a possibility before. I take a look at the Hungarian possibilities, especially focusing on the Southern Hungarian region in order to define factors that could enhance its capability to attract new SSCs into the region.

2. Digitalization of companies: Shared Service Centre is "born"

From von Thünen to Krugman *(Bacsi, 2007)*, economists have sought to understand what types of economic activities are located at a given point in the world, and why *(Jean Dubé, 2015)*. From the outset, location theory has emphasized the role of distance, economies of agglomeration, and rent seeking in the location of firms and industries *(Lengyel I. 2005)*. In the last decade, we can see a new development of organizational and financial structures in the global due to digitalization and transformation of company functions *(Acuman, 2001)*.

In the last decade, we could see a new wave of transformation within and among companies with respect to new business models, operational models. This process is usually called digitalization.

Today, most of the company managers define the digital company as the main goal to reach. They hope to become more efficient, more profitable and at the end even more respective to consumer' needs by becoming digital.

As a general term, a digital company is used for organizations that have enabled core business relationships with employees, customers, suppliers, and different external partners through digital networks. These digital networks are supported by technological platforms that have supported critical business functions and services. Some examples of these technology platforms are customer relationship management, supply chain management, knowledge management system, enterprise content management and warehouse management system among others. The purpose of these technology platforms is to digitally enable smooth integration and information exchange within the organization to employees and outside the organization to customers, suppliers and business partners *(Chandon, Chedda, Eddlich, 2017)*.

In the last decade, companies have taken many routes to digitizing the front ends of their businesses to create nearly borderless and continuous customer interactions—for instance, building mobile apps that make it easier for customers e.g. to order clothing or open a bank account.

As a second step, companies also want to digitize their back-office functions, which in many companies are handled by so-called shared services organizations. These groups typically manage and deliver technical and administrative support in areas common to all business units in a company, such as finance, human resources, and IT *(Chandon, Chedda, Eddlich, 2017)*.

In many cases, companies focus on core business functions. In a financial-services setting, shared-services organizations may concentrate on processing loan applications or insurance claims. By incorporating automation, virtualization, advanced data analytics and digital technologies involved in daily operational procedures, shared services organizations may be able to create smooth and streamline processes. The technologies can assist them to make better decisions and improve the quality of internal and external customer services and interactions. Based on company researches, companies can achieve significant savings in both time and money—for example, up to 50 percent increases in efficiency in some back-office functions based on a recently published Mckinsey study *(Mckinsey annual report, 2016)*.

We can also look at the digital transformation of a financial services provider operating in several countries. The customer-onboarding experience has been largely automated with the new technological-supported platforms. Customers can create their own profiles and make lower-level transactions; in the meantime, shared-services centre colleagues work only on to check documents and manage the service request approvals if required. Managers of the shared-services organization can monitor employees' capacity in real time and allocate support assignments accordingly. The results have included a productivity increase of more than 40 percent, improvements in internal controls, and greater customer satisfaction. As a result of transformation, we can also add that customers' likelihood of recommending a product or service to new potential customers increased by more than 5 % points over a year. Reviewing the introduced functional changes in the daily operational structure of this financial provider, the company management came to the conclusion that this positive upward trend is mainly due to introduction of its new digital back-office capabilities.

3. Economic presence and impact pf SSCs today- literature review

Based on a survey method of literature, we can define five main aspects in the literature that are related to SSCs *(Richter, Brühl 2017)*. Looking at these factors, the following can be summarized:

- Fragmentation of SSCs in academic literature.

Richter and Brühl (2017) compiled a comprehensive literature analysis with respect to SSCs. In their research study, they could describe a significant fragmentation in the academic literature. In their conclusions, they created four research areas looking at the literature topics in this regard:

- goal-oriented perspective (driving motives, critical success factors)
- process-oriented perspective (organizational changes and restructuring),
- control-oriented perspective (leadership structure and management strategy) and
- outcome-oriented perspective (performance, efficiency, effectiveness).

We can quickly determine that the SSCs are examined and reviewed in many cases not only from scientific, but also from practical perspectives within the scope of literature.

The academic literature focuses on mainly managerial aspects and micro economical aspects (publications in scientific journals, academic dissertations, and electronic books). However, the daily economic publications also provide a significant amount of literature based on the work of consulting, research and auditing companies that publish surveys, reports. We can mention Deloitte studies, PWC studies, EY reports as well as Shared Services & Outsourcing Network (SSON) reports *(Deloitte annual report, 2016)*.

- SSC as an economic actor in the services sector FDI market.

We can see in many cases that that service and manufacturing sectors use the similar or same FDI theories. On the contrary, we can also retrieve academic opinions that the FDI on national economy can be different with respect to the economic sector. As a result, it might be necessary to check the main FDI factors by separating these processes into different economic activities *(Allio, 2016)*. All in all, we may summarize that SSC is a newly defined segment of services sector, therefore, the FDI impact needs to be looked at with a more detailed method. We can also see that the so-called practical literature, as mentioned in the earlier point, summarizes the main aspects of an SSC FDI analysis, while scientific literature does not provide an in-depth analysis in this respect.

- **Limited access to data in case of SSCs and separation from other services sector FDI data**

Looking at statistical resources, we can define that SSC data are not highlighted from the services sector, therefore, the relevant FDI research data can be only gained from aggregated FDI data. We can also rely on the practice-oriented literature as mentioned above. These articles are mainly based on surveys conducted by individual researchers. Based on these surveys, we can gather relevant date in a chosen geographic region *(Nasscom, 2015)*.

Access to research data is mainly limited since the internal restructuring and the economic changes within a company is handled as secrets of the companies. Another barrier to collect sufficient information on SSCs is that the aggregated FDI service sector data needs to be separated from the SSC statistical data. In many cases, it is difficult to separate between SSC data and the simple outsourcing data.

- Scientific literature analysis focuses on managerial and microeconomic aspects

The scientific literature focuses on to define microeconomic SSC implementation value. These academic studies do not focus on SSCs relating to macroeconomic indicators. As a result, these studies usually focus on microeconomic and managerial aspects. This conclusion is underpinned also in a comprehensive SSC scientific literature analysis made by Richter and Brühl mentioned above.

The main aspects focus on the changes in process restructuring, leadership changes, and mainly look at microeconomic aspects such as financial outcome aspects.

- **Insufficient literature on SSCs' possible economic multiplier impacts**

In general, we can summarize that the academic literature focuses on only a few economic aspects and does not evaluate the multiplier impact of an SSC. We can only see some practice-oriented literature (Invest in Lithuania, 2014-2016) that makes an analysis into macroeconomic indicators. The main aspects this report looked at is the labour market, learning and development aspects and regional economic development opportunities. We may also summarize that the so-called multiplier effect has not been thoroughly analysed with respect to SSCs. We can only find a detailed macroeconomic analysis on multiplier effect in the practice-oriented literature *(Dantons, 2015)*.

4. Description of methodology

Based on the above, I can summarize that only a limited scope of data is available from general, accessible economic databases. Since my main focus of this paper is to determine whether an SSC can be seen as an investment in a geographical region and whether it can underpinned that one of the main factors in an SSC site location decision is the sufficient amount of educated labour force, I can rely in my research on the analysis of secondary surveys and databases. Based on source research, I managed to find four main surveys that are relevant in this respect.

As a first one, I managed to retrieve sufficient amount of relevant data from the Deloitte Global Survey on Shared Services Centres published in 2017. The consulting company provides this report every second year and their sample includes more than 1100 companies. In addition, more than 330 experts are included in their questionnaire survey procedures. Companies in this survey reach sectors such as technology, IT and media. This survey reflects similar characteristics to the Hungarian SSC market. The survey provides geographically separated data and workforce requirement analysis from a company's perspective. We can also derive data from this survey with respect to site location decision processes *(Deloitte Global Survey 2017)*.

A valuable source was also another report from this consulting company as well, since Deloitte also provides a very thorough annual survey for Hungarian SSC market as well. The annual report for Hungarian SSC market is called "Hungarian Shared Services Survey 2017, Trends and Predictions". In this report, they reach much more participants with in-depth interviews and questionnaires than any other survey in this respect. This analysis was based on interviews with 27 business service centres employing approximately 19,000 people, representing approximately 47% of the total number of employees working in the sector *(Deloitte, Hungary, Trends and Predictions 2017)*.

For site location aspects, a survey of Hungarian Investment Promotion Agency (HIPA) and EY was provided significant amount of information. These organization also provided an annual survey on the Hungarian SSC market last year. This is called “360° view about the Hungarian Shared Services Market 2017”. The survey is based on interviews with company executives and employees currently working in shared services. The goal of survey is to retain accurate information with respect to actual market situation. The response rate is above 50%. As a result, the survey managed to reach 80% of the employees working in the industry in Hungary. The number of respondents exceeded 800 person.

In addition, there has been made an in-depth academic literature review analysis on Shared Services Centres published in 2017 by Philipp Clemens Richter and Rolf Brühl. The title is “Shared service centre research: A review of the past, present, and future”. This literature review gives an overview on academic literature reflecting main characteristics of SSCs published in articles, journals, surveys up to April 2015. In this process, information was gathered from 10 electronic databases: EBSCO, ScienceDirect, IEEE Xplore, JSTOR, Emerald, SAGE, Wiley, AISeL, ProQuest, and Taylor & Francis. The keywords in the research work were: shared service centre, shared service organization, shared service, and derived from literature: back office and in-house service *(Schulz and Brenner, 2010)*. All in all, the research contained 83 peer-reviewed articles distributed over 55 academic sources *(Richter, Brühl 2017)*.

To some extent, data relating to regional aspects could also be retrieved from a survey relating to my analysis from a PWC study published in 2014. This report focuses on SSCs in the Czech Republic and Slovakia. The survey had 29 participants from 2 countries, up to 3,000 employees in the main SSCs in these two countries. This survey included responses from SSCs in five industry sectors such as manufacturing, energy, technology & telecommunications. Most SSCs were established between 2005 and 2007.

4. Results of the analysis relating to economic weight of SSCs in Hungary

At the first glance, the Hungarian SSC market has to be reviewed shortly before going into the Southern Region of Hungary.

Based on results of the HIPA survey, the number of SSC companies in Hungary may have been above 100-120 and the number pf employed also exceeded 165 000. The major companies, their number add up to 54, employ nearly 20% of employees in this sector, roughly 31 000 persons *(HIPA Report, 2017)*.

The general scope of activity of these companies in Hungary is back-office services that they render to global headquarters. The major trend in this industry in Hungary was that higher and higher level of value added processes were located to the Hungarian SSC companies in the last couple of years. The labour market trends such as the permanent shortage of labour also had an impact on this sector. In the second quarter of the year nearly 6000 vacant positions were reported by SSCs. Nevertheless, this sector managed to keep the recruitment time on the previously low level of 45 days and the migration of labour was not drastic in this sector either due to the much better working conditions compared to that of different economic sectors.

As a result of labour shortage, SSC companies are constrained to hire employees who do not possess all the required skills: Therefore, SSC companies needs to simplify their processes in a way that an unskilled employee, from an SSC perspective, with the required language skills can learn these processes in a short period of time. These simplified processes can even be attached to financial services or IT, since a helpdesk job does not require programming skills or an IT project manager also does not need to have a special Microsoft exam either as experts mentioned during the HIPA survey *(HIPA Report, 2017)*.

Nevertheless, the ideal situation would be if the job positions were requiring special expertise would be managed by employees who hold the required skills, however, there is also a language barrier in the field of SSC workplaces. Therefore, the SSC companies prefer to hire a student with French or Dutch language skills, even if his was BA obtained in Humanities, instead of hiring a specialist without proper language skills. This kind of solutions do not assist companies to grow from a strategic perspective. These patterns can only be applied due to significant wage differences between western and Eastern European SSC companies. Should it become a routine, Hungary would only be a country of transfer based on a wage arbitrage phenomena instead of building up a capacity of labour to perform value added processes. However, the latter scenario may be in reach for Hungary based on the Hungarian education system *(Deloitte Hungarian Report 2017)*.

Based on the HIPA statistics, the SSC companies in Hungary employed people with more than 20 different language skills. English language is compulsory in each SSC, meanwhile, German and French languages show a declining tendency of use. The Hungarian language use improved its share with the SSC companies in the last three years, meanwhile, share of all major language use has declined except for Russian *(HIPA Report 2017)*.

Going into deeper analysis of the labour shortage, we can identify that the "main" factor was the insufficient level of employees with the required language skills. Two third of companies involved in the survey companied about this factor. The main challenges for the companies were the low number of people speaking Scandinavian and Slavic languages, the insufficient level of language skills of the applicants and the missing skills in the field of IT or business process operations. In many cases, none of these skills were present in case of the applicants.

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In 2017, we could see that more than 70% of responding companies introduced new types of services in Hungary. This process means that they introduce more and more complex and value added processes in their operations. Most of these new services were transferred from Western European companies. Approximately one-third of them came from the Central European region and a quarter of it came from the USA. The main reasons for transferring the services were effectiveness and productivity. The cost reduction came only after the previously mentioned factors.

There has also been a tendency to watch in Hungary regarding the move of processes out of Hungary as well. However, most of the companies did not transfer processes out of Hungary. Only 20% of the processes were moved out of Hungary, mainly in the category of bookkeeping and customer relations functions. These kind of functions were mainly moved to Far East countries or to different Central European Countries. In this case, cost reduction was the most important factor and the increase of effectiveness as a goal came only after that.

The main pattern in the operation of SSCs in Hungary is that the service providers transfer a process to Hungary for 5-6 years, then the processes is simplified and bundled with different services into a new restructured process. In the meantime, the new software is developed for these new services, and then the service may be transferred to India, Malaysia or even to Bulgaria (*Dantons 2015*).

In these countries there is a risk that new services always have to be "imported", since the current services may be transferred out of the country. Going up on the value chain, there is danger for the companies that the arbitrage advantage deriving from the wage differences can disappear since higher and higher value added services need to be rendered.

Nevertheless, we can see positive labour market trends in these new workplaces called Shared Service centres that support their long-term presence in Hungary. Most of the workforce employed are women (59 %), even half of the management are women also in these companies.

From a labour market perspective, the SSC sector is seen as new and fresh sector. These companies did not manage to get used to "some old habits" in the Hungarian labour market. Diversity is an advantage in this form of companies and the different skills of women and men are also demanded. These companies also provide a wide-range of job opportunities in the field of distance working and home office as well, so they a wide range of job forms that most of Hungarian companies do not apply yet *(HIPA Report, 2017)*.

A main characteristic of these companies is also that the number of foreign employees is also high compared to that of a "typical" Hungarian company. The share of foreign employees reached 13 % in 2017 compared to 9% in 2016. This phenomena indicates that more and more employees come from Western countries to the SSC companies in Hungary for work.

5. Opportunities in the SSC sector for the Southern Hungarian Region

Looking at the Southern Hungarian Ae we can conclude that two major University cities are present: Pécs and Szeged. In the past years, we could see an upward trend in both cities profiting from the SSC sector coming to these towns. EPAM, BP and NNG opened an SSC centre in in Szeged, while IT Services Hungary, buw and Hellmann settled in Pécs.

Based on my previous data collection and research analysis, I focus on the main challenges and opportunities that Pécs and as a potential "workforce provider", the University of Pécs can face up to.

Firstly, I review how an SSC site location decision is made and where the chances for Pécs are.

In a site decision process for a SSC, companies mainly choose places first where the company already has a strong and viable business presence or already own a site for several functions (e.g. production facility). In addition, a company in such a decision process also takes into account that how way of business is carried out in the chosen region, a company identifies first main business models, patterns *(Thomas R., 2013)*.

It is very important to note that not only costs of employing people is significant in such a decision process bout also the costs of renting a proper real estate is essential also, if any proper real estate is available at all. In this process, if these main factors are identified, a company will look at main infrastructural conditions as well (e.g. office buildings, IT infrastructure and additional services) *(Schulz, 2009.)*.

A company while setting up a new SSC intends to find a region where most of the conditions regarding local traffic, office spaces for rent are easy to find. Since most of these companies presume that if these preconditions are fulfilled, the sufficient labour is also available in such a city compared to a region where the conditions mentioned above are out of reach *(Allio, 2016)*.

In case of Pécs, we have to look at three main factors in order to determine how new SSC workplaces can be attracted in the near future. We need to analyse whether:

- Existing SSCs are ready to increase the number of employees, and how
- New SSCs can be settled in Pécs to create new jobs (available labour).
- We also need to review whether the additional functions are available either.

<u>5.1. Existing SSCs in Pécs – positive future prospects</u>

The first SSCs came to Pécs 3-4 years ago meaning that they will just reach their 5 year anniversary in the coming years. As mentioned above, SSC companies restructure their activities in every 5-6 years, upgrade the software and transfer these simplified services out of Hungary. At the same time, we can see a significant inflow of new services into Hungary as well *(Deloitte Report 2017)*.

The same business pattern is valid for SSC companies in Pécs. The oldest major company in this area is the IT Services Hungary. Based on interviews with the company's representatives, we can conclude that the general pattern is applicable to this company also. New value added services are brought into the location in Pécs, they increase the number of employees continuously. They also send services such as customer services functions out of Hungary as well. They managed to reach of 600 employees by today after opening up in 2014.

Most of the employees came from the University. Nearly half of employees are connected to the University of Pécs based on company' statistics. On one hand, the University informed students about job offers, on the other hand, the University also offered special courses for students and already graduated employees to get a job at ITSH.

Based on a close cooperation of the University and the Company set up a special ITSH department with the Faculty of Engineering and IT. In the framework of this department, the Company can directly decide on the contents of courses in order to prepare students to work for ITSH.

Based on a personal interview with the head of ITSH in 2017, ITSH plans to reach nearly 1000 workplaces in Pécs. Furthermore, they cooperate with NSC Global to settle in Pécs that may lead to new workplaces as well.

Looking at already existing SSC companies in Pécs, we can state that only buw came in 2005 as a call centre company and, since then, the company imported value added processes in the last decade and rose its number of employees as already an SSC company to 160.

Analysing the local market further, we can find newcomers as well, such as Hellmann and Viesmann. These companies just actually started. The number of employees do not exceed 50 yet.

<u>5.2. New SSC companies to attract to Southern Hungary and to Pécs</u>

We can find smaller SSC companies to plan to open up in the region as well like Photel in Szekszárd, which is only 60 km away from Pécs, but most of the companies tend to open in university cities where the labour is available.

In the last few years, looking at the in the site decisions of SSC companies, we can conclude that international companies tend to move outside capitals and open up new SSC plants in the so-called middle size cities at European scale *(EY, 2014, p. 11-38)*.

Based on similar international and Hungarian trends in the SSC market, we can see that labour markets, on one hand, are short of skilled labour for factories and assembly plants, on the other hand, the number of educated labour became also very low compared to that of a decade ago. As a result, should an SSC company plan to open up a new plant in a region, this company needs to find available educated workforce. Based on the example of ITSH above, we can conclude that the co-operation with universities can be the key to success in the labour market. *(Orion Partners, 2008.)*.

If the SSC companies start to get involved in education projects with universities, these companies may be able to produce the educated workforce with high-level skills for themselves as well. This process could also lead to a higher quality of service the SSC workforce could deliver.

This can be the example for the University of Pécs to follow as well, in order to attract more and more SSC companies to Pécs. The University needs to strengthen its openness to companies that are involved in educating and hiring labour for value added services. New form of co-operations need to be developed as well.

In addition, the University has a major labour force potential that needs further analysis. The University managed to reach a significant number of foreign students. Their number exceeds 4000 this year. However, most of them attend the medical school, but nearly 20-30% of them may be in reach for SSC companies to open up in Pécs. The language skills and the openness are already present in case of foreign students. This can be a huge potential for this region to attract more new SSC companies.

The University has the necessary - Business, Humanities, IT and Engineering - faculties that give a chance to meet the requirements of SSC companies that are mainly active in the field of IT, Finance, Human Relations. Special joint courses need to be prepared by these faculties in order to meet the needs of SSC companies who intend to settle down in Pécs.

<u>5.3. Review of additional and auxiliary functions in Pécs</u>

As mentioned above, the SSC companies' site search procedures resulted in in so-called middle size cities at European scale. Pécs can be described as one of these cities *(EY Report, 2014)*.

Besides labour availability as discussed above, one of the main burdens in case of a new SSC plant decision project is the available office building. Most of these middle size European cities do not possess quality office buildings.

In many cases, there is a two-tier process in this respect. If the labour is available and the local financial incentives are favourable enough for a decision, then a temporary office is sought for one or two years. In the meantime, the quality office building has to be built for rent for the SSC company.

If we look at middle-sized Central European cities, we can conclude that quality business buildings were still a challenge outside capitals even a few years ago. Nowadays, in some cities significant real estate developments have been completed relating to business and technology parks and to numerous office buildings. In general, most of these cities provide office spaces are at reasonable costs *(Dantons, 2015)*.

However, we can still see a real burden in case of Pécs concerning quality office spaces. The older buildings were renovated by investors but huge new offices around 10000-12000 sqm were not built yet. These office numbers would be necessary to attract SSC companies to hire additional 1500-2000 people in Pécs.

This kind of investment requires also the Municipality to prepare long-term plans, to modify the city plans and to make pre-arrangements with banks and construction companies to be prepared to meet future SSC needs.

Looking at availability of auxiliary services and IT infrastructure, we can summarize that level of IT network services is sufficient, local transport and service are also sufficient from an SSC perspective in Pécs.

6. Conclusions

The global trend shows that SSC companies will continue its rapid growth in the near future and this trend will continue in the Central European region including Hungary, as well.

The future growth in this sector depends on the ability from companies' perspectives to set up centres that render more advanced and complex services. The main trends will work in favour of Central European region in this transition. We can expect a continuous growth in global market for outsourced business process services and the expected amount of growth may continue growing about 10 percent annually. Should this continue at this level, we can project a value of USD 100 billion in this sector by 2020 *(Orion Partners, 2015)*.

Not only globally, but also at regional level we can expect serious growth. This growth can also reach the level of middles size European cities. The expansion of this sector is mainly based on the sufficient number of educated workforce. In the last few years, we could see that many people moved from Eastern Europe to Western European countries, however, SSC companies managed to hire sufficient workforce. This is due to the westernized, modern working conditions and the high salaries they offer.

In last years, SSC companies tend to leave the capitals where they salaries went up and the labour markets became more –or less maturated. In the middle size European cities the university cities are preferred because these cities can provide continuously sufficient amount of educated labour to the SSC companies *(Orion Partners, 2015)*.

Pécs is a middle size European city and already managed to attract SSC companies. In order to continue the upward trend in this sector, the City and the University have to co-operate and provide similar examples they managed to do in case of ITSH.

The University has to provide special courses in order to meet SSC companies' needs, meanwhile the City has to be prepared to support the building of quality office buildings. The City needs to co-operate with banks and construction companies to prepare these quality buildings so these office spaces can be built in a short period of time if necessary.

Should these conditions be met, based on similar cities approximately 1500-2000 new jobs can be created in this sector in Pécs, provided that the international students as potential labour force can also be involved in this process.

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Brief Biography

Ruzsa Csaba Roland

Ruzsa Csaba Roland is a PhD student at University of Pécs, Faculty of Business and Economics, Hungary. He worked for Ernst and Young Advisory Kft., for the City of Pécs and now works for the University since 2011. Currently, he works in strategical department of the Rector's Office. He researches in strategic management, business simulations, digital transformation. He intends to receive his PhD title for a research of online and digital business models. He participated in many international conferences.

Rural Development in India through Entrepreneurship: An Overview of the Problems and Challenges

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Abstract

The main purpose of this study is to recognize the major problems faced by rural entrepreneurs in India and also find the impact of these problems on the working efficiency of those entrepreneurs who are living in rural part. This study attempts to reconnoitre various aspects of rural entrepreneurship as well as its emphasized on the profile of rural entrepreneurs, identifying the motivation behind their entrepreneurial career, and pinpointing the challenges they are facing with Indian perspective.

Nearly 73 % of the total Indian population live in rural areas where agriculture and agriculture associated activities are the main sources of their living. The economic growth of the country mainly depends on the progress of rural areas and the standard of peoples living in this area.

A rural entrepreneur is one of the great vital contributors in the economic development of a country. On the contrary, many rural entrepreneurs are facing various problems and challenges due to non-availability of essential amenities in the rural part of developing country like India. The paper implemented a descriptive research design using 125 randomly selected entrepreneurs from Vidarbha region, Data collected were analysed using descriptive statistics the data analysis indicated that lack of finance, insufficient infrastructures, lack of managerial skills were major challenges for rural entrepreneurs.

Keywords: rural, entrepreneurship, challenges, problems, Vidarbha, India.

Introduction

“Entrepreneurship is an activity that involves the discovery, evaluation and exploitation of opportunities to introduce new goods and services, ways of organizing, markets process and raw material through organizing efforts that previously had not existed” (Venkataraman 1997). “Entrepreneurship is an important process by which new knowledge is converted into products and services” (Shane and Venkataraman 2000). Entrepreneurship is the procedure where an entrepreneur’s forms a venture by considering the opportunity in the market, accept the risk by the support of effective innovative idea or procedure and gather revenue from the business. Several researchers in the field of entrepreneurship have not come up with single and unanimously acceptable definition for entrepreneurship (Gwija 2014). (Nafukho, Kobia et al. 2010) argue that the reason for not having a universal definition is because entrepreneurship has been studied in many disciplines, which has resulted in the rise of many opinions regarding its meaning.

Entrepreneurship development is an increasingly seen promising alternative to traditional economic development, as it unlocks the potential of local citizens to create jobs and serve local tastes and markets. However, while most of the literature in entrepreneurship is dedicated to high-growth, high-tech development and its job-generating qualities; rural entrepreneurship distinct from entrepreneurship as a discipline, presenting its own opportunities and challenges. Under, the rural environment economic conditions, the entrepreneurship and company management imply a set of distinctive features which originate in the development stage of the Indian rural area.

Rural entrepreneurship is currently a key opportunity for the people who migrate from rural areas to Urban areas for employment. India is one of the most populated countries in the word where around 73% of peoples living in rural area. But in current situation the percentage of peoples migrating towards urban area increase significantly which is not suitable economy of the country. Several economic, political, social and ecological difficulties in rural areas in developing countries such as India face various challenges for getting employment and results into in peoples migrate towards urban areas to earn their bread and butter as well as migration also affects declining agricultural production and increasing food scarcity. India is a country of villages. About three-fourth of India's population are living in rural areas out of which 75% of the labor force is still earning its livelihood from agriculture and its allied activities. Land being limited is unable to absorb the labor force in agriculture. Therefore, there is a need to develop rural industries to solve rural unemployment and rural migration to cities.

There were many problems face by entrepreneurs in their daily activities to run their enterprise. Rural entrepreneurs also face numerous problems from the state and council police since they do not have licenses or work from "illegal" spaces (Chigunta, Jammie, David, & Veronica, 2005). Capital constrictions also delay the development of rural entrepreneurship (Minniti & Le'vesque, 2008).

Research Objectives

The objectives of this study are divided into primary and secondary objectives.

Primary objective

The primary objective of this study is to examine whether poor financing, inadequate social infrastructures, lack of managerial skills create a major challenge in the performance of enterprises in Indian rural areas.

Secondary objectives

In order to achieve the primary objective, the following secondary objectives are formulated:

1. To provide an overview on the dynamics of Indian entrepreneurship and highlight the challenges for its development.
2. To understand the perception of rural peoples towards the entrepreneurship.

Research Hypotheses

With reference to above primary research objectives, the following null hypotheses were formulated:

1. H0**:** Poor financing create a major challenge in the performance of enterprises in Indian rural areas.
2. H0**:** Inadequate social infrastructures constitute a major challenge in the performance of entrepreneurship.

3H**0:** Lack of managerial skills creates a major challenge in the performance of Indian rural enterprises

Research Methodology

This research employed small medium entrepreneurship activities for development of rural areas of India, The researchers choose Vidarbha region as research area. The study is empirical and explanatory basically based on primary data collected survey. sample survey size was 125 participants from small and medium size enterprises registered with these District Industries Centre were selected on Simple Random sampling basis from Vidarbha region. Researcher use questionnaire and personnel interview as data collection tool and the data analyzed using non-parametric simple percentages while the z-test statistical technique was used in confirming stated hypotheses.

Table 1 Distribution of Sample Entrepreneurs

Sr. no	Districts/DICs	Block/ Taluka	No. of small units (Registered)	Sample entrepreneurs
1	Chandrapur	Warora	2451	20
2	Gondia	Tiroda	2250	30
3	Akola	Khamgaon	1220	10
4	Wardha	Pulgaon	1526	18
5	Amravati	Morshi	1020	13
6	Bhandara	Lakhani	1630	34
	Total		10097	125

Source: Annual Reports of the District Industries Centers , 2012

According to the Report of MSME, Government of India (2012), there were 10097 small units registered with the DICs Chanadrapur,Gondia,Akola.Wardha,Jalgaon and Bhandara.these entrepreneurs running their business at Wrora, Tiroda,Khamgaon,Pulgaon,Morshi and Lakhani taluka/ blocks. The reason behind for choosing entrepreneurs from block wise for survey because these blocks are the centers of various business activities

Results and Discussion

<u>Demographic findings</u>

Figure 1/A. Gender as demographic variable

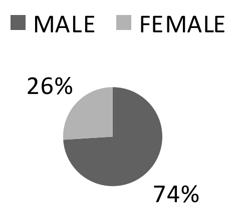


Figure 1/B. Age as demographic variable

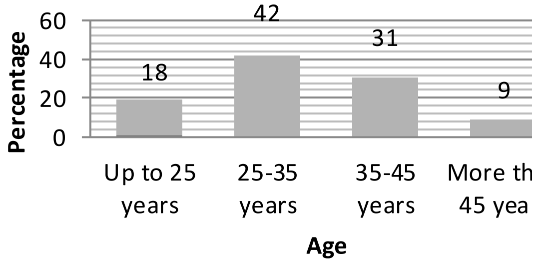


Figure 1/C .Education as demographic variable

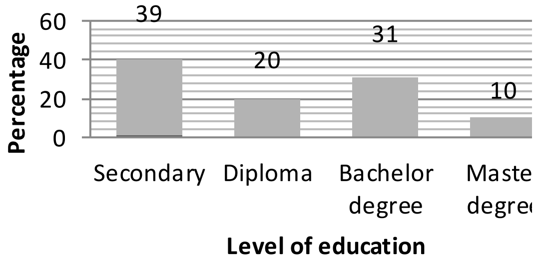


Figure 1/D. Business industry as demographic variable

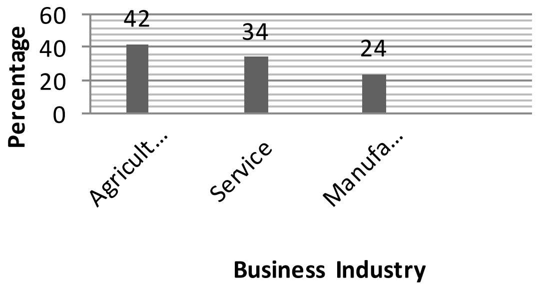


Figure 1/E. Income level as demographic variable

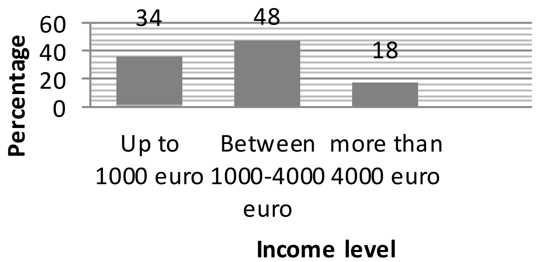


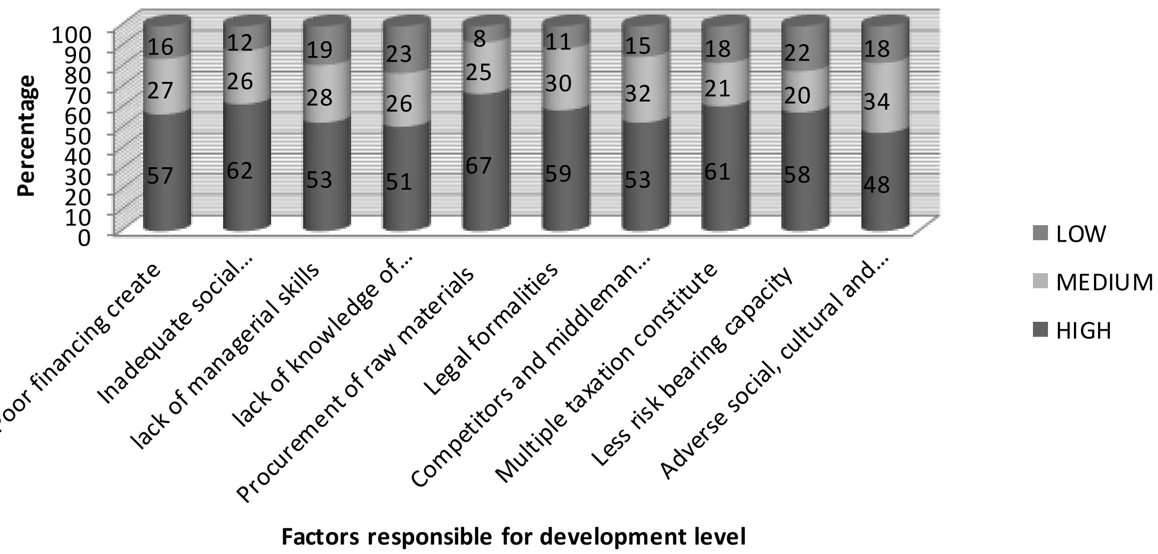
Figure 1/ABCDE-Source: Researcher's calculations based field survey

Above figures demonstrates that majority of the respondents i.e. 92 (74%) are males while females constitute only 33 respondents (26%). The implication of this result is that majority of those who engaged in entrepreneurial activities are males it shows woman dominating Indian culture, looking towards age structure the age of the majority 22 respondents (18%) of those entrepreneurs ranging up to 25 years age group, followed by age range 25-35 that is 52 respondents (42%), age group ranging 35-45 years recorded 39 respondents (31%) and the least being age range more than 45years and above found only 12 respondents (9%). The result implies that most of the respondents are in their active and productive age. According to education level variable Majority i.e. 49 respondents (39%) of the entrepreneurs are Secondary School Certificates, 25 respondents (20%) holds National Diploma while 39 respondents (31%) hold bachelor holder and only 12 respondents (10%) hold master degree. The implication is that majority of the entrepreneurs are non graduates. If we will discuss about where rural entrepreneurs were more active then result implies that majority of 52 respondents (42%) are from agriculture sector while 30 respondents (24%) from manufacturing sector, 43 respondents (34%) from service sector. The data regarding annual income of the entrepreneurs indicated that 34% had annual income up to 1000 euro, 48% of the entrepreneurs had annual income between 1000-4000 euro. Whereas 18% entrepreneur reported their annual income more than 4000 euro

Table 2 Distribution of Responses on Research Questions

Sr. no	FACTORS	FACTORS RESPONSIBLE FOR DEVELOPMENT LEVEL							Total score %
		High		Medium		Low		Total Score	
		Respondent	percentage	Respondent	percentage	Respondent	percentage		
1	Poor financing create	76	57	31	27	18	16	125	100
2	Inadequate social infrastructure	81	62	30	26	14	12	125	100
3	lack of managerial skills	71	53	32	28	22	19	125	100
4	Lack of Knowledge of information technology	68	51	30	26	27	23	125	100
5	Procurement of raw materials	87	67	29	25	9	8	125	100
6	Legal formalities	78	59	34	30	13	11	125	100
7	Competitors and middleman in marketing	71	53	37	32	17	15	125	100
8	Multiple taxation constitute	80	61	24	21	21	18	125	100
9	Less risk bearing capacity	77	58	23	20	25	22	125	100
10	Adverse social, cultural and industrial environment	66	48	39	34	20	18	125	100

Source: Researcher's calculations based field survey



Source: Researcher's calculations based field survey

From the responses received from rural entrepreneurs above results were evaluated on a scale of height, medium and low response. The first challenge poor financing showed that out of 125 respondents 57 gave a heighted response, 27 a medium response and 16 a low response. Similarly, for the other challenge inadequate social infrastructure 62 gave an above medium response, 26 a medium and 12 a low response respectively. For lack of managerial skills, a higher response on the upper side 53 was obtained; a medium response of

28 and low response of 19. For the lack of knowledge of information, a highly acclaimed heighted response with 51 compared to 26 and 23 was obtained for medium and low respectively.

In case of procurement of raw materials, 67 people gave a heighted response, 25 gave medium and 8 gave a low response. For legal formalities, a satisfactory evaluation was made, 59 people gave a heighted response, 30 medium and 11 gave a low response. Competitors and middlemen in marketing gave an above average response with more responses on the heighted side 53, with 32 medium and 15 low.

Multiple taxation constitutes had a highly appreciative evaluation of 61 height, 21 medium and 18 low. In case of less risk bearing capacity, a balanced response was obtained with nearly 58 people on upper side and 22 on lower side Adverse social, cultural and industrial environment more response on the upper side 48, 34 medium and 18 low.

Hypothesis testing

1) Test of the First Hypothesis

Ho: Poor financing does not constitute a major challenge in the performance of enterprises in Indian rural areas.

H1: Poor financing constitutes a major challenge in the performance of enterprises in Indian rural areas.

As shown in appendix 1 the calculated Z= 3.19 is greater than the critical Z = 1.96 Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected whereas the alternate hypothesis is accepted. This results thatpoor financing constitutes a major challenge in the performance of enterprises in Indian rural areas.

2) Test of the Second Hypothesis

Ho: Inadequate social infrastructures do not constitute a major challenge in the performance of entrepreneurship.

H1: Inadequate social infrastructures constitute a major challenge in the performance of entrepreneurship.

As shown in appendix 2 the calculated Z= 5.036 is greater than the critical Z = 1.96. thus, first hypothesis reject the null hypothesis and accept the alternative hypothesis. This proves that inadequate social infrastructures constitute a major challenge in the performance of entrepreneurship.

3) Test of the Third Hypothesis

Ho: Lack of managerial skills does not constitute a major challenge in the performance of Indian rural enterprises

H1: Lack of managerial skills constitutes a major challenge in the performance of Indian rural enterprises

As shown in appendix 3 the calculated Z= 2.392 is greater than the critical Z = 1.96. We thereby reject the null hypothesis while the alternative is accepted. This shows that lack of managerial skills constitutes a major challenge in the performance of Indian rural enterprises

Conclusion and Recommendations

The paper discussed challenges and factors affecting the performance of rural entrepreneurs in India. It undertakes that government intervention over the provision of financial assistance, social infrastructures and promising government policies will go a long in addressing the major problems and challenges of rural entrepreneurs

The four major findings of the research are as follows:

- Poor financing creates a major challenge in the performance of enterprises in Indian rural areas.
- Inadequate social infrastructures constitute a major challenge in the performance of entrepreneurship.
- Lack of managerial skills creates a major challenge in the performance of Indian rural enterprises

Arising from the findings of this paper, it is recommended that Indian government should take the following steps to address the major challenges of rural entrepreneurs of India.

- Provision of soft loans for new start-ups.
- Government guaranteeing of long-term loans to entrepreneurs
- Establishment of entrepreneurship funding agency
- Public/Private sector partnership in infrastructural provision
- Provision of tax incentives for SMEs operators
- Should arrange special training programmes for rural entrepreneurship.
- Rural entrepreneur should more competitive and efficient in the local & international market.
- We should invite successful rural entrepreneurs from other states of country.

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Brief biography

Dhanashree Katekhaye

At the outset, I, Ms.Dhanashree Katekhaye take this opportunity to introduce myself for your ready reference I am pursuing my Ph.D. from Szent Istvan University, Godollo, Hungary.

I have Blend of expertise in employee relations with a background in Human Resource management, management information system and administration to support business needs with astute planning, scheduling and resource management. Offers proven experience in various human resource processes viz. recruitment, performance management, employee engagement and providing accurate documentation, Management Policies as well as other core HR Operation.

"The effect of corporate governance and ownership structure on profitability of public shareholding companies listed in Amman stock exchange"

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Abstract

This study aimed to explore, investigate and critically discuss the impact of corporate governance and the ownership structure on the profitability of public shareholding companies listed on the Amman Stock Exchange. Throughout this study several well-established statistical methods were used to investigate variable characteristics, correlations and dependencies. These methods were mainly based on descriptive statistical analysis and regression-based techniques.

The study concluded there is a statistically significant positive relationship between corporate governance measured by the Remuneration and the Nomination committee members and ROE. and There is a statistically significant positive relationship between corporate governance measured by the Audit Committee members and the ROA, while there is a statistically significant negative relationship between non - duality of CEO/Chairman and the ROA, and a statistically significant negative relationship between (the non-executive members of the remuneration and the nomination Committee, board size, board independence, and CEO/Chairman duality and the GPM. Also the study concluded there is a statistically significant positive relationship between (government ownership, foreign ownership, major shareholders ownership) and ROA, and there is statistically significant positive relationship between (major shareholders ownership, the Board Directors ownership) and GPM. While there is a statistically significant negative relationship between the Arab ownership and GPM.

The results also showed that the presence of corporate governance and ownership structure together have a positive impact on (ROA), Where government ownership is the most influential variable. And the corporate governance and ownership structure have a positive impact on (GPM), where the major shareholders ownership is the most influential variable. The results clearly indicated the need to activate Governance Guidelines by Jordanian Securities Commission. This is of paramount importance, in order to ensure that public share holding companies adhere to the requirements of corporate governance. This will indeed improve performance and increase confidence in return.

Introduction

The governance has become one of the requirements of good governance in companies and institutions, and one of the mechanisms to complete administrative reform. There has been growing interest in separating ownership from management, and investors have sought to invest their capital in companies which implements the requirements of governance.

In the other hand the ownership structure is important in corporate governance as one of the main cost control mechanisms in companies in corporate governance literature (Kumar, 2003). Which is defined by the distribution of ownership in terms of votes and capital. It is also an identity of shareholders and it is important because it defines incentives for managers and thus works to achieve the economic efficiency of their companies (Jensen & Meckling, 1976).

Problem of study

Some local and international companies suffer from the phenomenon of administrative and financial corruption, which leading to loss and bankruptcy, so it is necessary to seek tools to prevent such phenomena. One of these tools is the corporate governance system, it is a regulatory tool that has reduced corruption types (Mishal, 2008).

This study attempted to test whether there is an impact of both corporate governance in accordance with the requirements of the Code of Governance and the ownership structure on the profitability of public shareholding companies listed in Amman Stock Exchange.

Hence, the problem of the study is represented to answer the following questions:

1. Does corporate governance effect on the profitability of public shareholding companies listed on the Amman Stock Exchange?

2. Does the ownership structure effect on the profitability of public shareholding companies listed on the Amman Stock Exchange?

Importance of study

Since corporate governance and ownership structure have been given considerable attention in recent years by researchers and scholars to the importance of the role played by these factors in achieving effective performance in companies and business organizations, and since most of the previous studies included developed markets without emerging markets, and local studies in Jordan in this area are relatively few particularly.

So there is a need for further studies to determine the relationship between these two independent variables (corporate governance and ownership structure) and the profitability of companies. Therefore, this study derived it's importance by addressing the effect of these two variables on the profitability of public shareholding companies listed in Amman Stock Exchange by using three measures of profitability.

What is distinguishes this study

This study is distinguished by dealt the importance of implementing the corporate governance and the ownership structure in the public shareholding companies in Jordan and their impact on the profitability of these companies. This study is considered to be the first of these studies to examine the impact of these two variables on the profitability of companies in Jordan. The previous studies dealt with each variable separately, and this study is specialized in the industrial and service sectors in particular.

The most recent data was taken from the Amman Stock Exchange. Three accounting measures were used to measure the profitability, and 6 dimensions to measure the corporate governance and 6 dimensions to measure the ownership structure.

Most of the previous studies in Jordan attempted to examine corporate governance using questionnaires, and few studies in Jordan attempted to link corporate governance with profitability based on archival data for both the service and industry sectors.

Objectives of the study

The study is aimed to demonstrate the impact of both corporate governance and ownership structure on the profitability of public shareholding companies listed in Amman Stock Exchange.

The objectives of the study are:

1. Show the effect of corporate governance on the profitability of public shareholding companies listed on the Amman Stock Exchange.
2. Show the effect of the ownership structure on the profitability of public shareholding companies listed on the Amman Stock Exchange.

Methodology Study

Variable description: There are two types of variables

1. Dependent variable

2. Independent variable

Dependent variable:

Profitability: An important tool to measure the efficiency of management in use the resources (Subramanyam, 2009). The following are the most important indicators used to measure profitability in this study:

Return on Assets **(ROA)**: EBIT / Total Assets

Return on Equity **(ROE)**: Net Income / Shareholder Equity

Gross Profit Margin **(GPM)**: Gross Profit / Sales

Independent variable:

The independent variable are **corporate governance** and **ownership structure** given in following:

The Model of study

Model (1): This model measures the impact of both C.G and OWS on (ROE):

ROE= α + β1(NUMBOARD)+ β2(INDEPBOARD)+ β3(CAUDIT)+ β4(CGOV)+ β5(CNOM&REM)+ β6(CEOD)+ β7(LAROWN)+ β8(GOVOWN))+ β9(FOROWN)+ β10(AROWN) +β11(BOAOWN)+ €

Model (2): This model measures the impact of both C.G and OWS on (ROA):

ROA= α + β1(NUMBOARD)+ β2(INDEPBOARD)+ β3(CAUDIT)+ β4(CGOV)+ β5(CNOM&REM)+ β6(CEOD)+ β7(LAROWN)+ β8(GOVOWN))+ β9(FOROWN)+ β10(AROWN) +β11(BOAOWN)+ €

Model (3): This model measures the impact of both C.G and OWS on (GPM):

GPM= α + β1(NUMBOARD)+ β2(INDEPBOARD)+ β3(CAUDIT)+ β4(CGOV)+ β5(CNOM&REM)+ β6(CEOD)+ β7(LAROWN)+ β8(GOVOWN))+ β9(FOROWN)+ β10(AROWN) +β11(BOAOWN)+ €

Hypotheses of the study

In order to achieve the objectives of the study, the following main hypotheses were tested:

First main hypothesis

H01:"Corporate Governance does not effect on the profitability of public shareholding companies listed in the Amman Stock Exchange."

Sub -Hypothesis of the first independent variable (corporate governance):

H011: There is no statistically significant relationship between the number of members of Governance Committee and the profitability of public shareholding companies listed in (ASE).

H012: There is no statistically significant relationship between the number of meetings of Governance Committee and the profitability of public shareholding companies listed in the (ASE).

H013: There is no statistically significant relationship between the number of members of Remuneration and Nomination Committee and the profitability of public shareholding companies listed in the (ASE).

H014: There is no statistically significant relationship between the number of meetings of remuneration and nomination committee and the profitability of public shareholding companies listed in the (ASE).

H015: There is no statistically significant relationship between the number of non-executive members in the remuneration and Nomination Committee and the profitability of public shareholding companies listed on the (ASE).

H016: There is no statistically significant relationship between the existence of Remuneration and nomination committee composed of non-executive members and the profitability of listed public shareholding companies listed in the (ASE).

H017: There is no statistically significant relationship between the number of members of Audit Committee and the profitability of public shareholding companies listed in the (ASE).

H018: There is no statistically significant relationship between the number of meetings of Audit Committee and the profitability of public shareholding companies listed in the (ASE).

H019: There is no statistically significant relationship between the number of board members and the profitability of public shareholding companies listed in the (ASE).

H0110: There is no statistically significant relationship between the independence of board members and the profitability of public shareholding companies listed in the (ASE).

H0111: There is no statistically significant relationship between the non - duality of CEO/Chairman and the profitability of public shareholding companies listed in (ASE).

Second main hypothesis:

H02: "The ownership structure does not effect on the profitability of public shareholding companies listed in the Amman Stock Exchange"

Sub -Hypothesis of the second independent variable (Ownership structure)

H021: There is no statistically significant relationship between the percentage of largest shareholders and the profitability of public shareholding companies listed in the (ASE).

H022: There is no statistically significant relationship between the percentage of government ownership and the profitability of public shareholding companies listed in the (ASE).

H023: There is no statistically significant relationship between the percentage of foreign ownership and the profitability of listed public shareholding companies listed in the (ASE).

H024: There is no statistically significant relationship between the percentage of Arab ownership and the profitability of public shareholding companies listed in the (ASE).

H025: There is no statistically significant relationship between the combined percentage of Arab and foreign ownership and the profitability of public shareholding companies listed in the (ASE).

H026: There is no statistically significant relationship between the percentage of ownership of Board Directors and the profitability of public shareholding companies listed in the (ASE).

Population and data collection method

The population is composed of the public shareholding companies listed in Amman Stock Exchange (275) companies (July 2012). All the companies were selected from the first market were selected. (44) public shareholding companies including: (24) companies from industrial sector and (20) companies from service sector .

The study covered the period from (2007-2011). The latest available data during the study period

The data was collected from several sources, including the Amman Stock Exchange t (ASE) website for governance, ownership structure, ROA, ROE and GPM. A questionnaire was designed to collect data for some dimensions of corporate governance and ownership structure.

Data collection methods:

This study relied on two sources of data:

1. **Secondary sources**: Used as a basis for the theoretical framework of the study, which was obtained through conducting a desk survey of previous studies in periodicals, scientific books, Arabic and foreign references, journals, articles, scientific letters, and legislations related to the study and various websites.
2. **Primary sources:** Used to cover the practical framework of this study, which was obtained through Amman Stock Exchange (www.ase.com.jo), the available information on the profitability of companies was collected from the company guide that available on website and the financial reports issued by companies and available in Amman Stock Exchange.

Statistical analysis of the study

Statistical analysis was carried out in four stages:

Literature review

The relationship between Corporate Governance and Corporate Profitability (previous studies):

(Yihawi & Bouslima, 2012) pointed out that companies which implement corporate governance are more attractive to investors, which is leading to increase the incomes of capital markets, and greater credit, lower financing costs, raising the market value of the company, risk reduction and increase the competitiveness of the company.

Among the studies that conducted the role of corporate governance and its impact on corporate profitability (Kabajah, 2008) which showed a statistically significant relationship between the effectiveness of corporate governance and the ROE and

ROI. The study recommended that investors in the Palestine Securities Exchange (PSE) be able to adopt the level of effectiveness of corporate governance to make their investment decision due to the close relationship between the effectiveness of corporate governance and financial performance, As well the study recommended adoption indicator for corporate governance in Palestine to assess the level of effectiveness of corporate governance and performance continuously. (Malik, 2012) study showed that companies with best practices for governance it's stock prices tend to rise. This is due to the fact that better managed companies will perform better and as a result their stock prices will be higher.

Recent studies Relating to governance (Abatecola et al., 2012), Which was conducted on companies listed on the Italian stock exchange showed existence of different relationships between the same variables of corporate governance and different indicators of performance. And based on these conflicting results the study suggested conducting further research to find out the impact of governance practices on corporate performance for a complete understanding. As for the number of Board members and its impact on the effectiveness of Board Directors, previous studies did not provided clear evidence of the relationship between the size of Board and the profitability of companies.

(Dalton et al., 1999) indicate that a large board of directors provides benefits to the company through the diversity of its members' expertise and ability to deal better with the environment. (Castro & Beak, 2003) showed that accounting performance is not related to the composition of the board in companies. This is confirmed by (Al- Sherif, 2009) study which showed that there is no relationship between the profits quality and the size of Board of Directors. And (Tomar & Bino, 2012) study showed that size of Board has no impact on the bank performance, (Chahine & Safieddine, 2009) showed the Bank's performance is positively correlated with the size of Board Directors by studying corporate governance of the banking system in emerging market in Lebanon. And in the most recent studies in this area (Sheikh et al., 2012) study which showed the relationship between board size and company performance is mixed (inconclusive) and needs more empirical studies. And the study showed that the selection of the optimal size of the board differs from one company to another, depending on the nature of its operations.

As for the independence of Board of Directors, which plays an important role in the reducing the conflicts of interest between owners and managers, (Dechow et al.,1996) indicated that companies with a high proportion of non-executive members of board are less exposed to penalties imposed by the US Securities and Exchange Commission.(Chahine & Safieddine, 2009) showed that banks with high autonomy in their board of directors well perform, Where the ROA and ROE increases by Increasing of percentage of non-executive members in the Board of Directors.

According to the non - duality of CEO/Chairman, the process of separation between the Chairman and CEO plays an important role in the effectiveness and efficiency of the Board, and this is confirmed by the researchers in their studies (Jensen, 1993) and (Fama & Jensen,1983). However, (Malik, 2012) showed that there is no relationship between non - duality of CEO/Chairman and the share price in the banking sector. (Oqdeh et al., 2009) study confirmed the need to separate ownership and management in Jordanian enterprises, and to achieve a separation between the function of the chairman of Board Directors and the Vice-President of the board.

With regard to the specialized committees, it is necessary to provide efficiency and skill in the members of board directors that qualify them to deal with different aspects of activity, through the ability to make good decisions (Matar and Nour, 2007). This is shows clearly in the Board Committees. The Corporate Governance Committee monitors and evaluates the entity's compliance with the principles of corporate governance such as the independence of Board members and the independence of board directors from Executive Management (Ismail, 2010). There are many studies conducting the impact of the existence of corporate governance Committee such as (Dahmash and Hanini, 2008) that showed the existence of corporate governance Committee with independent members work to define the objectives and establishing an appropriate institutional governance system lead to improves the performance in the company and reduces the pressures that the executive management may exert on the auditor to influence his opinion. The study recommended necessity of focusing on the independence of the members of board directors of public shareholding companies, and the separation between of ownership and management in companies, and interesting for establishing special committees for internal auditing and corporate governance.

Due to increase the importance of forming audit committees in public shareholding companies because of its positive impact on the protection the rights of stakeholders through its supervisory and oversight role in the internal and external auditing and supporting the Board of Directors in carrying out its duties, Article (46 /A) of the Securities Law No. (76) of 2002 and the Code of Corporate Governance Rules of Listed Companies in the Amman Stock Exchange have committed to forming an Audit Committee. Besides that the latest studies (Hamdan et al.,2012) confirmed the positive impact of the number of Audit Committee meetings on improving the quality of profits in Jordanian industrial public Shareholding Companies.

The Remuneration and Nomination Committee reviews the applicable remuneration programs in the Company and determines the remuneration of the Executive Director and top Management. One of the studies examined this committee (Malik, 2012) which showed that there is a positive relationship between the existence of remuneration and nomination committee and the share price. These results are consistent with (Dahmash & Henini, 2008) in terms of the need for Forming a committee for remuneration and determining its functions.

Several studies have examined the impact of corporate ownership structure patterns on many aspects of performance, such as (Abu-Serdaneh et al., 2010) which examined the possibility that the ownership structure variables affect the performance of Jordanian industrial companies listed in the financial market for the period (2002-2006). The results show that performance is lower in companies where ownership is concentrated in the hands of the minority (The control of a few owners), and performance increases when corporate ownership is high. The study also showed that there is no relationship between profitability and ownership structure variables related to foreign ownership. The ownership of these companies is more concentrated, rather than being distributed among a large number of owners. Foreign ownership was constant during the five years by 14%, and the percentage of companies whose general manager was a member of board more than 5%. (Wang, 2005) showed that the ownership of family is associated with high profit quality. These results have been proved by (Al -Sherif and Abujaileh, 2009) that showed an inverse relationship between the quality of profits and the percentage of ownership of board directors.

On the other hand (Demsetz & Villanonga, 2001) examined the ownership structure and corporate performance. The study concluded that there is no statistically significant relationship between ownership structure and company performance. These result have been proved by (Al-Farooque et al., 2007) which examined the impact of the ownership structure represented by of ownership of board directors on corporate performance, the study concluded that ownership structure does not affect performance. Also (Al-Rawashdeh (2007) examined the impact of ownership of management on the performance of Jordanian industrial companies listed in Amman Stock Exchange (ASE) found that the agency's costs negatively effect on performance, and the role of ownership structure in influencing on performance through agency costs was contradictory, and the ownership of board directors and top management is negatively correlated with performance. While individuals and institutions with more than 5% of shares have no impact on performance. (Al-Fayoumi et al., 2010) examined the relationship between profit management and the ownership structure of sample of Jordanian industrial companies for the period (2001-2005) where three types of ownership were examined (ownership of internal individuals, ownership of external shareholders exceeding 5% , ownership of institutions), the study concluded that ownership of (internal) positively effect on profits management. This result is consistent with the hypothesis which states that ownership of (internal) can become ineffective in the case of neutralization the (internal) in decisions to maximize value. Also the study showed that there is little role for (external shareholders and institutions) in monitoring administrative behaviour in profit management, The results of the study encouraged the application of the principles of corporate governance to stimulate (external shareholders and institutions) to provide effective control by managers in Jordanian companies. As a result it can be strengthened reliability and transparency of declared profits. (Tsegba & Ezi-Herbert, 2011) showed that (Dominant Shareholding, Concentrated Ownership and Foreign

Ownership) have no significant impact on corporate performance, and (Insider Ownership) is inversely correlated with corporate performance.

Finally, (Tomar & Bino, 2012) showed that the best performing banks which the (institutions) have the majority of their shares, and the performance of bank becomes more effective as the greater ownership of the chairman and members of board in their shares. But the number of directors did not have a clear impact on bank performance.

The results of various previous studies was mentioned which examined the effect of ownership structure on many different aspects of performance indicate that studies were contradictory in the results. Some of them proved that there is a positive impact of ownership structure on the performance and the others proved a negative impact and others have shown there is no relationship, the reason may be due to different sectors or different environment.

Conclusion and Discussion

Results of testing hypotheses

To examine the relationship between the independent and dependent variables (corporate profitability), Analysis of correlation coefficient between independent and dependent variable has been done .The relationship between independent and dependent variables was tested by using the Pearson test.

Hypotheses of independent variable (corporate governance):

The results showed that there is a statistically significant positive relationship between the number of members of remuneration and nomination committee and the dependent variable (ROE) where significance level is less than 0.05 with value (0.031). While there is no statistically significant relationship between the other dimensions of corporate governance and dependent variable (ROE) where the significance level is greater than 0.05. This means rejecting the secondary null hypothesis and accept the alternative hypothesis: "There is a statistically significant relationship between the number of members of remuneration and nomination committee and the profitability of public shareholding companies measured by ROE."

While the null hypothesis of other dimensions will be accepted, which indicate that there is no statistically significant relationship between these dimensions and the profitability of public shareholding companies measured by the measured by ROE. These results are consistent with the results of (Yasser et al., 2011) ,(Tomar & Bin , 2012), (Al-Sherif and Abujaileh, 2009) and (Al-Far, 2006). While the results of this study differ with the results of (Chahine & Safieddine, 2009). Also the results showed that there is a statistically significant positive relationship between the number of members of Audit Committee and the ROA and a statistically significant negative relation between the non - duality of CEO/Chairman and the ROA at a significance level less than 0.05 with value (0.023) and (0.025) Respectively. While there is no statistically significant relationship between the other dimensions of corporate governance and ROA, at significance level greater than

0.05. This means rejecting the null hypothesis and accept the alternative hypothesis.

The hypothesis of the other dimensions will be accepted Which indicate that there is no statistically significant relationship between (the number of members of governance committee, the number of meetings of governance committee, the number of meetings of the reward committee, the number of members of Remuneration and Nomination Committee, the number of meetings of remuneration and nomination committee, the number of non-executive members in the remuneration and Nomination Committee, Remuneration and nomination committee composed of non-executive members, the number of meetings of Audit Committee, the number of Board Directors and the independence of Board of Director) and between the profitability of public shareholding companies measured by ROA.

These results are consistent with the results of a number of previous studies, such as (Tomar & Bino, 2012), which confirmed that there is no statistically significant relationship between the size of board directors and the independence of its members and the ROA, but these result differ with the results of (Chahine & Safieddine, 2009) Which showed that there is statistically significant positive relationship between the size of Board Directors and ROA. As well as (Zaidan, 2013) study which showed there is a relationship but not statistically significant between non - duality of CEO/Chairman and ROA.

As a result, Jordanian public shareholding companies do not pay attention to most dimensions of corporate governance, and because of this there is no impact of governance on ROA except the number of members of Audit Committee and the non - duality of CEO/Chairman. Therefore, Companies must adhere to the requirements of the Corporate Governance Guidelines. Where most studies have confirmed that corporate governance positively effects on ROA, such as (Zaidan, 2013) and (Qabajah, 2008).

As well the results showed that there is a statistically significant negative relationship between the number of non-executive members in the remuneration and Nomination Committee, the number of members of Board Directors, the independence of Board Directors and the non - duality of CEO/Chairman and GPM, at the significance level less than 0.05 with values (0.038, 0.015, 0.047, 0.000) respectively. This means rejecting the null hypothesis and accept the alternative hypothesis. While there is no statistically significant relationship between the other dimensions of corporate governance and GPM, at the significance level greater than 0.05. This means accept the null hypothesis for each dimensions.

These results are consistent with the results of (Bauer et al., 2003) which confirmed that there is a statistically significant negative relationship between corporate governance and GPM. Whereas (Yasser et al., 2011) showed that there is no statistically significant relationship between non - duality of CEO/Chairman and GPM, while there is a statistically significant positive relationship between the size and independence of board of directors and GPM.

The previous results indicate that the relationship between corporate governance and corporate profitability measured by GPM in Jordan was contrary to expectations.

Hypotheses of independent variable (ownership structure):

The results showed that there is no statistically significant relationship between the dimensions of ownership structure and the dependent variable ROE at the significance level greater than 0.05. Thus, the null hypothesis will be accepted for each dimension of the ownership structure. This result is consistent with (Zaidan, 2013) and (Tomar & Bino, 2012).

Also there is a statistically significant positive relationship between (percentage of largest shareholders, the combined percentage of Arab and foreign ownership, percentage of government ownership, and percentage of foreign ownership) and ROA at the significance level less than 0.05. Thus, the null hypothesis will be rejected and the alternative hypothesis accepted. While there is no statistically significant relationship between (the percentage of Arab ownership, the percentage of ownership of Board Directors) and ROA, at the significance level greater than 0.05. Thus, the null hypothesis will be accepted for Arab ownership and the Board of Directors.

A statistically significant positive relationship was found between (the percentage of largest shareholders, the percentage of ownership of Board Directors) and GPM at a level of significance less than 0.01. While there is a statistically significant negative relationship between the percentage of Arab ownership and GPM. Thus the null hypothesis will be rejected that indicates that there is no relationship and accept the alternative hypothesis for each of them.

In the light of the above it can be inferred that whatever the composition of ownership ratios in Jordanian public shareholding companies, there is no statistically significant relationship with ROE. And a higher (percentage of largest shareholders, percentage of government ownership, and percentage of foreign ownership) lead to higher ROA. While there is no statistically significant relationship between (the percentage of Arab ownership, the percentage of ownership of Board Directors) and the ROA. These results are consistent with (Abu-Serdaneh et al., 2010) and (Tomar & Bino , 2012). Also A higher (percentage of largest shareholders, the percentage of ownership of Board Directors) lead to higher GPM, whereas there is no a statistically significant relationship between (the percentage of government ownership, and the percentage of foreign ownership) and GPM.

Results of testing models of study:

The study measured the effect of independent variables on the dependent variable by using (3) models, and the using the multiple linear regression coefficient to test the explanatory power of the assumed models.

Model 1: This model measures the impact of both C.G and OWS on (ROE):

The (Adjusted R Square) of this model (-0.023) this means that the (Adjusted R Square) of the model is low and the model does not explain any change occurs in the ROE. This is confirmed by (F) value of

(0.652) at the level of statistical significance greater than 0.05 with value of (0.819) so the results of this model showed that corporate governance and ownership structure did not effect on ROE and this result confirmed by (Tomar & Bino, 2012).

Model 2: This model measures the impact of both C.G and OWS on (ROA):

The (Adjusted R Square) of this model (0.120), which means that the model explains (0.120) of the change in ROA, while the value of (f) (3.138) at the level of statistical significance of (0.000) which means the (Adjusted R Square) of the model is statistically significant, so the results showed that corporate governance and ownership structure significantly effect ROA. These results are consistent with (Zaidan, 2013) while it's differ with (Tomar & Bino, 2012) which showed that (the ownership structure, the size of board and the independence of its members) did not effect on the ROA.

Model 3: This model measures the impact of both C.G and OWS on (GPM):

The results showed that corporate governance and ownership structure significantly effect on GPM. Where the (Adjusted R Square) (0.210) which means that the model interprets (0.210) of the change in the GPM**.**

Findings of study

The main findings of the study are summarized below:

1. Jordanian companies are not concerned sufficiently with the existence of the Remuneration and Nomination Committee and the Governance Committee. If it is there R & N Committee is not composed of non-executive members.
2. Although most companies are interested in the existence of an audit committee, some companies do not have an audit committee, which indicates that they are not commitment with the laws, regulations, instructions and decisions issued by regulators.
3. In recent years, there has been an increasing interest in holding frequent meetings of the Governance, Remuneration and Nomination Committees, which helps the Board of Directors in performing its duties and improving the Company's conditions.
4. Some public shareholding companies are not obliged to separate the CEO and Chairman of the Board of Directors in accordance with the Corporate Governance Guidelines.
5. Low percentage of government ownership in most Jordanian public shareholding companies. As well as low percentage of foreign ownership and Arabs, which indicates that the proportion of investment in stock companies is not attractive to the foreign investor, which requires the Jordanian government to encourage and stimulate foreign and Arab investment.
6. The ownership structure of most Jordanian public shareholding companies consists of Largest ownership shareholders who own (5%) or more.
7. The Percentage of the ownership of board directors in most Jordanian public shareholding companies is

concentrated in the members of board directors, with a good percentage with an average of 0.40.

8. There is a statistically significant positive correlation between the number of Remuneration and Nomination committee members and the ROE.
9. There is a statistically significant positive relationship between the number of Audit Committee members and the ROA.
10. There is a statistically significant negative relationship between the number of non-executive members in the R and N Committee, the number of members of Board, the independence of Board Directors and the non - duality of CEO/Chairman and GPM.
11. There is a statistically significant positive relationship between the percentage of government ownership, foreign ownership, largest shareholder ownership, and ROA. Therefore, the higher percentage of ownership, the greater ROA.
12. There is a statistically significant positive relationship between the percentage of largest shareholders ownership and percentage of Board Directors ownership and GPM. While there is a statistically significant negative relationship between the Arabs ownership and GPM.
13. The results of the study showed that the existence of corporate governance and the ownership structure together positively effect on ROA. The percentage of government ownership was the most influential variables. Also this model positively effecting on GPM. The percentage of largest ownership was the most influential variables.

Recommendations

In light of the results of study, the researcher recommends the following:

1. Compliance with laws, regulations, instructions and decisions issued by the regulatory bodies and related to the requirements of corporate governance. And the necessity of activating the governance guide by the JSC .And the necessity of activating the governance guide by JSC by obliging Jordanian public shareholding companies to implement the requirements of corporate governance in accordance with the Code of Corporate Governance of Listed Companies in the Amman Stock Exchange.
2. Necessity of commitment the Jordanian public shareholding companies by forming Remuneration and nomination committee composed of non-executive members.
3. The necessity of the commitment the Jordanian public shareholding companies to separate between the CEO and the Chairman of Board of Directors in accordance with the Code of Corporate Governance.
4. Strengthen the concept of corporate governance and the importance of its application through the implementation specialized training programs in public shareholding companies.

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Brief Biography

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The Impact of Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) on the Turkish economy

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Abstract

Purpose of this research is to measure numerically role of FDI and its effect on economic growth of Turkey with references of Economic Statistics of Turkey. I`m going to investigate and try to prove positive relationship between FDI and Economic Growth and find in which sector FDI is focusing more than the others, why FDI chose this sector for focusing and why FDI is interested in Turkey so much. That will make me to arrive at the point where given results can be tested to justify truthfulness of the claim that prioritizing FDI inflow to economy will increase potential of economic growth of Turkey. So, research will quantify the potential of FDI in the economy of Turkey, after which, using Regression analyzing model we will know which relationship between these two variables. Beside regression analyzing model, also time-series data are going using for analyzing in this research. Final results of this research work can be classified as the important theoretical base for improving economic development of Turkey.

Research motive

Before FDI inflow Turkey was poorly industrialized country. The main sector in Turkey was Agricultural sector. After FDI inflow the economy of Turkey develops so fast, and Turkey shifted from agricultural country to industrialized country. Also, Turkey has a comparative advantage for FDI inflow. These facts suggested me that Turkey has a big potential to expand FDI inflow to stimulate GDP growth. Due to this fact and in general harsh economic situation of Turkey exactly one step before the European-integration process made me to take on this research topic to contribute to this country economic development.

Keywords: Turkey, FDI inflow, Economic Growth, EU, Developing Country, Service sector, Industry sector.

Introduction

“Calling someone who trades actively in the market an investor is like calling someone who repeatedly engaged in one-night stands a romantic.”

“It's nice to have a lot of money, but you know, you don't want to keep it around forever. I prefer buying things. Otherwise, it's a little like saving sex for your old age.”

Warren Buffett

It is quite an actual topic nowadays. Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) is a flow of cash organized by a unit such as a company or an individual, which is aimed at the business located in another country.

The essential feature of foreign direct investment is that it is an investment that establishes an effective control of the decision-making of a foreign business or at least substantially influences it.

The reason that why this topic chosen for this thesis:

The role of foreign direct investment has been on the rise since the second half of the 1980s as countries have become increasingly important in economic development policies.

It is starting out. Due to the new technologies they have brought together, new management understanding and a number of possibilities, these investments have become demanded not only by the developing countries but also by the developed countries. The positive contributions made by foreign investments have made it possible for many countries, which previously considered foreign investment to be negative, to open their borders and to pay more attention to attracting more direct foreign investment. Turkey has adopted new policies and strategies in this regard as it has been witnessing the introduction of foreign direct investment into the country as well as the widespread view that the problems of the countries suffering from capital shortages will arise immediately and have a positive effect on other macroeconomic indicators. That is why this topic is chosen by me for the thesis.

The reason that why Turkey chosen like an example country:

The one of the reasons that my motherland Azerbaijan has very good relationship with Turkey. We always say the phrase: One nation two countries! Also, Turkey is candidate state for the European Union. The economy of Turkey is very strong and is developing every day. It was very interesting for me and I start my research. Turkey's economy shifted from the agrarian sector to the industrial one. One of the heavily industrialized countries in the world. Also, dates available in most of the statistics sources. Turkey is very profitable and suitable place for Foreign Direct Investment (FDI).

- **Graph 1.Geolocation of Turkey**

Source: ("turkey-and-its-neighbours-map | Ronmamita's Blog," n.d.)

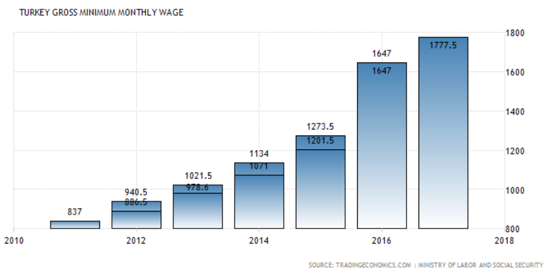
Turkey plays the role of the bridge between Europe and Asia. A very advantageous location surrounded by three Sea (Black, Marmara, Aegean and Mediterranean Sea). Due to this geolocation transportation cost of product is very low. And big terrirory of land.

- **Graph 2. Demographic ratio**

Source: (“The World Factbook — Central Intelligence Agency,” n.d.)

Due to this graph we can see that the majority of the population of Turkey is young people. This is one of the biggest reason for attracting FDI. Also, population of Turkey is 79 million . It is pretty much for FDI inflow.

- **Graph3. Average wage**

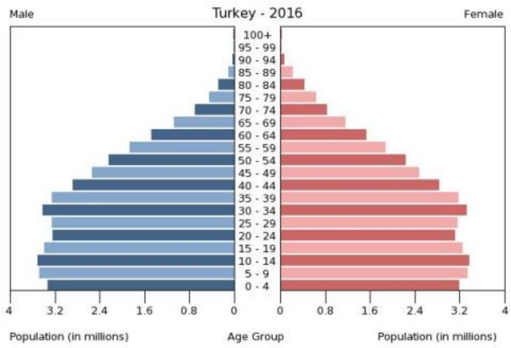


Source: (“TRADING ECONOMICS | 20 million INDICATORS FROM 196 COUNTRIES,” n.d.)

This graph shows us the average wage in Turkey with Turkish Lira (1777,5 TL is approx. 409 EUR) it is very convenient for FDI. Because in industry sector wages based on average wage and with comparison EU countries average wage in Turkey less. It is one of the most important conditions for FDI.

- **Declaring as a Candidate country for EU**

In the Helsinki Summit held on December 1999 candidate country status was given to Turkey and in the European Council Summit held on 17 December 2004 Turkey was declared as a candidate country and accession negotiations were started in October 2005



And this paper will show the role of Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) in the economy of Turkey. The Research questions: After impacting of FDI, is Turkish economy developing or not? Relation between GDP and FDI? Also, in which sector does FDI concentrate more? And in which sector FDI is more successful and why?

The purpose of the research is to investigate the impact of Foreign Direct Investment on the Turkey's economy. The way through which I am going to reach this goal can be construed in a following way:

- Literature review on current topic;
- Data collection and analysis;
- Final text writing and revision.

Concept of Foreign Capital Investments

A person in one country has the ability to invest in a capital flow in another country, these are two kinds of investments; these are a) Direct private foreign capital b) Portfolio investment. If it is necessary to explain these two capital investments, portfolio investments are said to buy securities from international capital markets in order to obtain a surplus value of the savings holders. The other one direct private financing investments, investments made in one country by an institution, organization or persons to another country to turn into financing investments.

Concept of Economic Growth

Indicators of economic growth show the increase and decrease in the level of an economy both at the economic and social welfare levels, and these indicators constitute the main debates on which economists work. The theories developed by economists have given direction to the economic and social life of countries, and in every period a different theory of economics has come to life in countries and has not been transformed over time. Now we will briefly refer to these changing theories of economics over time. Between 1450-1750 the Mercantilist economic growth model was influential. This model cares about foreign trade and emphasized that foreign trade, which advocated more exports than imports, should always be positive. 1750-1776 physiocratic economics the growth pattern is influential. The previous economic model has emerged as a reaction and the state should not intervene. The famous slogan 'Do it yourself, leave it alone' influences the whole world with your thoughts. The foundation of classical growth theory is based on Physiocratic opinion. The Industrial Revolution was the main factor in the emergence of classical conception. The most important representatives of this theory are Smith, Ricardo and Malthus. A. Smith acknowledges that the economy will enter the stagnation period in a certain period of time when he will not be able to grow continuously. He has stated that this short stagnation period is a period of transition, and he has been called optimistic classical economist. Ricardo and Malthus have stated that this recession is a very negative process for growth and they are called pessimistic economists. In addition, Malthus has developed the population theory which is very important for growth. Ricardo has examined indirectly the problem of growth.

In socialist growth theory, the ownership of many production vehicles involved in production belongs to the state. Most important the defender is K. Marx. According to this economist, labor forms the basis of both production and growth.

Another important socialist economist is Grigori Aleksandrovic Feldman. The two-sector growth theory of this economist was defended and developed by Alex-ander Erlich and Evsey Domar. From the Harrod-Domar (Post-Keynesian) growth model, the short-term Keynesian view emerged as a result of the long turn adaptation. There is an important difference between them, Harrod, the economy can grow steadily and steadily, but according to Keynes, it is impossible for the economy to grow this way. Serious arrangements are needed to know the magic. In the Rostow growth model, Rostow has stepped up the economic growth process of the countries. These are the stages; 1) Traditional community stage 2) Preparation stage 3) Movement phase 4) Economic maturity phase 5) Mass consumption stage. The Neo-Classical (Solow) growth model, Solow the effects of saving on labor, population growth, the impact of technological development on economic growth, and the effects of these three variables on each other. In addition, some countries have also worked on the underdevelopment of some highly developed countries.(Dunning, 1977)

Foreign Capital-Economic Growth Relationship

Foreign direct investments can be bought either by buying any firm in another country by providing capital to a newly established company or by increasing the capital of an existing company they are investments. (S. R. Karluk, 2007) Foreign capital can enter a country in different ways. First, financial are investments in the capital market that are developing. Another name of these investments is portfolio these are an investment. Portfolio investments include securities, such as bonds and stocks. Another the goods produced in the country are sold to another country and this is called export. Finally, foreign investors who want to enter the market in which the person in that country, institution, an organization it may use its own technology or brand name. Investor wants to enter the market in a country

it gives permission to use its own technology or brand name, ie the firms carry out a license agreement. Foreign Investments come directly to the countries in the first place, which is the capital accumulation and production oriented real investments. (ALPAR, 1978)

Direct foreign capital investments, production opportunities are cheap and much, domestic market demand high, infrastructural facilities and investment incentives made more favorable number of countries tend to. Direct foreign capital investors, as well as the economic situation of the countries they will invest in according to the resignation status for the country of states. As a final criterion, all service investors make investment decisions based on both the psychological and moral conditions of the countries they will invest in. (Alagöz, Erdoğan, & Topallı, 2008)Another feature of foreign direct capital movements is the transfer of intangible technology, brand and business text information and the ability to control the investment made by the investor (Kindleberger, 1969)(Dunning, 2000) (Caves, 1971) (Hymer, 1960).

According to the results obtained from these studies, direct foreign capital investments have been made in the long term it has been seen that the economic growth of the countries has been positively affected; but according to the results obtained were positively affected. On January 24, 1980, Turkey published a decree keeping pace with global development and taking the first step towards the period of economic liberalization. By decree 32, by removing the foreign exchange controls in 1989, move While Kararnaman is put into practice, there are problems in both banking and financial markets in Turkey and economical. it has become a turning point where there is no stability. After years of 1990s, Turkey has faced heavy capital movements. These living capital movements it has not been largely in the form of direct capital investments. More interest and fixed exchange rate (Acar, 2016) were in the form of capital movements. Benefit to analyze the relationship between growth and employment in direct trade for our country has. In analyzing this relationship, it is also possible to use the three steps of literature review, methodology and empirical findings it consists. The crisis of 1992, the age of Turkey, the time of Turkey until 2001, capital investments are at a very low level. To increase the level of foreign direct investment incentive policy was applied. Therefore, it is aimed to increase the inter-country savings.

Interest rates have also been released on the basis of this policy. In addition, the quota restrictions on imports have been lifted and the customs tax has been deducted. As a result of these reforms, significant amounts have been introduced directly into the country, foreign capital investments have started to enter the country (Aydemir, Arslan, & Uncu, 2012).

Direct foreign capital investments have been privatized, merged and purchased between 2004 and 2007 Turkey is also seen in the form. An example of this can be given; In 2005, a portion of the foreign capital of $ 2 US dollars, which should be directly elected by my country, is real estate purchase. In addition, $ 7.8 billion of this amount is comprehensive from the revenues of private companies such as Turkcell, Türk Telekom, Garanti Bank and Fortis Bank. When it comes to 2006, the situation is no different. The $ 13.4 billion portion of foreign direct investment belongs to privatization. Another type of diversity is income under company marriage, 2.9 Bull wheel. It is to be noted that capital investors tend to invest in new investments, ie "Greenfield" investments, or to enter the country in the form of joint investment or real estate investment.

Since the 1990s, world economies have become increasingly globalized. How does this result there has been a debate about the possibility that foreign capital investments may have negative consequences for the unification of investment. These negativities are in the main frame; 1) factor prices (especially wages) 2) factor productivity 3) knowledge and technology efficiency 4) host country exports 5) our framework that can form in the form of economic growth. Positive effects of foreign direct investment The OECD is divided into five main categories (Jenkins, 2005).

Literature review

It appears that there are a number of studies on the relationship between direct foreign capital inflows entering a country and macroeconomic indicators (growth, unemployment, etc.) in the economic literature. Some of these studies in the literature can be summarized as follows:

Alagöz et al., (2008), the relationship between direct foreign investment in Turkey and economic growth has been examined for the period 1992-2007. There was no causal relationship between direct foreign capital investments and economic growth in the study. The regression analysis for the 2002-2007 period was examined in the study. The elasticity coefficient of the model shows that the effect of foreign direct investment on economic growth is moderate.

Ekinci (2010) used data from 1980-2010 for the purpose of analyzing the long-term relationship between foreign direct investment and economic growth and employment in Turkey. Time series analysis was used in the study, and as a result, there was no relationship between foreign direct investment and employment, although there was a long-run relationship between direct foreign investment and economic growth. Moreover, the causality relationship between direct foreign investments and economic growth seems to be bi-directional.

Şen and Saray (2010) analyzed the effect of direct foreign capital investments on economic growth in Turkey. Panel data regression analysis was used in the study.

As a result of the analyzes made, direct foreign capital investments coming to Turkey have been achieved as a result of contributing positively to economic growth.

Yılmaz et al. (2011), the effects of foreign direct investment on economic growth have been analyzed for the Turkish economy for the 1980-2008 period. In the analysis, two variables were used as gross domestic product and foreign direct investment. Time series analysis method was used in the study. As a result, there is a one-way causality relation from foreign direct investment to economic growth. It is also seen that the variables are cointegrated. Estimation results show that foreign direct investments have positive effects on economic growth.

Awan et al. (2012) analyzed for selected South Asian countries (Bangladesh, India, Pakistan and Sri-Lanka) for the period 1973-2010, with respect to foreign direct investments, exports, imports, domestic investments and economic growth. The relationship between variables was tested by Granger causality analysis. Findings from the study show that export-oriented growth and foreign-capital growth hypotheses are valid for selected Asian countries. As a result of different delay lengths, imports caused economic growth, but imports did not have a causal relationship to economic growth. Moreover, causality analysis does not support economic growth from commercial openness or vice versa. It is seen that there is a two-way causality between commercial openness and foreign direct investment.

Gürsoy and Kalyoncu (2012) analyzed the impact of direct foreign investment on economic growth between 1977 and 2010 in Georgia. Engle-Granger cointegration test and Granger causality analysis were used in the study. As a result, it is seen that the two variables are cointegrated, that is, they act together in the long run. It is also seen that direct foreign investment is the reason for economic growth.

Söylemez and Yılmaz (2012) investigated the relationship between economic growth and international capital inflows in the financial liberalization period in Turkey. In the study, there were 82 observations covering 1992: 1-2012: 2 for variables of capital inflows / GDP and GDP growth rates. The results show that the growth of foreign capital flows in Turkey is the cause of granger. Finally, an econometric model that can reveal the dynamic interaction of the two series shows that a significant part of the fluctuations in economic growth in Turkey can be explained by the shocks experienced in international capital flows.

Sichei and Kinyondo (2012) analyzed the determinants of direct foreign capital inflows in 45 African countries for the period 1980-2009 by panel data method. As a result, agglomeration economies, natural resources, real GDP growth, and international investment agreements have been seen to affect direct foreign capital inflows in Africa.

Arik et al. (2013) examined the factors affecting foreign direct investments from Brazil, China, India, Russia, Mexico, Indonesia and Turkey from the emerging economies in 1990-2011 period by panel data analysis. As a result of the analysis, it has been found that the market size, openness and economic stability of the host countries affect foreign direct investments.

In Carp and Popa (2013), Romania and Bulgaria, the relationship between economic growth, direct foreign capital and trade was analyzed for the period 1990-2011. As a result, direct foreign investment by Bulgaria and Romania was found to have an impact on economic growth. Moreover, exports have not had a strong impact on economic growth.

Çeştepe et al., (2013), the data for the period 1974-2011 used for the direct causal relationship between foreign direct investment, growth and foreign trade in Turkey. The long-term causality between the variables was investigated by following the Toda-Yamamoto method in the study. Findings obtained; "Growth based export", "export dependent FDI" and "import dependent export" hypothesis. These findings can be interpreted as the fact that the import-based export structure and FDI inflows do not change this, so the export-based growth hypothesis can not be verified in Turkey.

Doğan (2013) examined the relationship between foreign direct investment and economic growth for Turkey in the study using time series analysis. For this reason, in the analysis, foreign direct investments and annual data for gross domestic product are used for the period 1979-2011 for Turkey. As a result, there is a long positive positive relationship between economic growth and foreign direct investment. The Granger causality test shows that there is a two-way causality relationship between foreign direct investment and economic growth.

Leitao and Rasekhi (2013) analyzed the relationship between economic growth and foreign capital investments in Portugal. Panel data analysis was used in the study. Convergence between Portugal and its trading partners has been seen. It is also seen that direct foreign investment and bilateral trade have increased economic growth. Growth is inversely related to inflation and per capita GDP.

Sghaier and Abida (2013), direct foreign investment, financial development and economic growth have been analyzed for the period of 1980-2011 for four countries in North Africa (Tunisia, Morocco, Algeria and Egypt). Panel data analysis method was used in the study. As a result, a positive relationship was found between direct foreign investment and economic growth. The development of the domestic financial system has been seen as a precondition for the positive influence of foreign direct investment on economic growth.

The relationship between Awosusi and Awolusi (2014), foreign capital inflows in Nigeria, economic growth and trade has been analyzed for the period 1970-2010. The length between variables Johansen cointegration test was performed for the analysis of the cyclical relationship. For the analysis of the short-term relationship, Granger causality test and error correction model analysis were performed. As a result, it has been found that there is a long-run relationship between the variables in the study. It is also seen that there is a causal relationship between variables.

Göçer and Peker (2014), effects of foreign direct investment on employment Carrion-i Silvestre et al. (2009) multi-structural fractured unit root test, Maki (2012) multiple structural fracture cointegration test and dynamic least squares method for Turkey, China and India , analyzed with the data of 1980-2011 period. As a result, the series are not stable at the level and there is a cointegration relationship between the series. According to long-term analysis, a 10% increase in foreign direct investment has reduced employment by 0.3% in Turkey while it has increased by 0.3% and 0.2% in China and India respectively.

Younus et al. (2014) analyzed the impact of foreign direct investment in Pakistan on economic growth for the period 2000-2010. The two-step least squares method is used in the study. As a result, there is a positive relationship between economic growth and foreign direct investment. Domestic investment, exports and political stability have been found to be very important in the selection of foreign direct capital in Pakistan.

Gülmez (2015) analyzed the effects of direct foreign investment from foreign financing sources of development in Turkey and short and long term effects of foreign portfolio investments on economic growth, using annual data for the period 1986-2014. Findings from the ARDL boundary test approach show that foreign direct investment positively affects economic growth in the long term and that a lagged value of foreign portfolio investment affects the economic growth in the short term positively. The

Toda-Yamamoto causality test results show that direct foreign economic growth from capital investments, economic growth from portfolio investments, and one-way causality from portfolio investments to direct foreign capital investments.

Research questions and hypotheses

Hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1.
There is a positive correlation between FDI and Economic growth in Turkey.

Hypothesis 2.
Prioritization of FDI in economic development policy will lead to stimulation of economic growth.

Hypothesis3.
EU and Turkey relationship stimulates FDI inflow to Turkey economy.

The Research questions:

- After impacting of FDI economy of Turkey is developing or not?
- Why does FDI start to interest in Turkey so much?
- Also, analyze and try to find in which sector FDI concentrates more?
- And in which sector FDI is more successful and why it is?

Research aims/objectives

The main objective of this research is to provide the reader with an in-depth analysis focusing on the role/impact of the FDI inflow solely on Turkey's economic growth. According to the research topic, following objectives are set to meet the research purpose:

- Analyzing factors influencing the value of FDI inflows.
- Analyzing consequences of FDI inflow.
- Analyzing factors influencing the value of a country's economic growth.
- Shaping the relationship between FDI and economic growth.
- Studying focusing areas of FDI in Turkey: Sectors;
- Studying specifics of FDI`s growth tendency and factors influencing on it.
- Shaping correlation between FDI inflow and economic growth.

Significance/Scientific contribution

Significance of the current research can be defined with following aspects:

- Research will cover Turkey's potential for FDI
- New approach to economic growth policy of Turkey
- The research will pioneer its topic
- Full coverage of FDI inflow on Turkish economy
- Scientifically proved hypothesis about positive correlation between the two variables: FDI and Economic growth;

Research Methods

Many socio-economic theories and practices, because in some ways they are so break existing suppositions and paradigms, can only be understood in depth by active participation and immersion. This is a methodological choice that provided me with excellent results in the past, leading to a master's thesis that achieved a unanimous highest grade by the department's examination board.

Conducting research about the role of FDI inflow in stimulating economic growth in Turkey requires to bear in mind the process of Turkey-EU integration. European integration process has an exceptionally deep influence on Turkey's economic growth and in particular on all areas of society, therefore a purely economic analysis maybe will not be enough or an adequate tool to reach the research goal. For that reason, it is possible my thesis to change the research methods during the process and also use interdisciplinary knowledge which includes both economic and political aspects of the topic.

This study will be largely interpretive, and therefore vital role will play quantitative method, generally by manipulating pr-existing statistical data using computational techniques, however, a qualitative aspect maybe also be necessary, in order to address the research questions and objectives. Regression analysis model will allow full coverage of the different research objectives and questions. Research will begin with data collection from different authorized sources. Secondary data from scientific research/working papers will be used to build the whole picture of FDI inflow and economic growth relationship. On the base of data collected, comparative analysis will be made, in order to shed a light for several research questions.

In order to better understand the correlation between FDI inflow and economic growth, an in-depth reading of the relevant historical economic literature will be required too, also to comprehend some other aspects of Turkey's current economic situation.

Here we can see detailed steps regarding methods used while conducting research:

- **Literature review** on current topic (review existing materials about FDI- economic growth, factors effecting economic growth, potential of Turkey to attract FDI)

- **Data collection and analysis** (collecting, sorting, filtering the literature reviewed and preparing structure for dynamic data analysis)

- **Analysis and interpretation of preliminary data** (systematization of the statistical data, data cleaning and modeling)

Theoretical resources about FDI and economic growth will be reviewed by using different research papers mostly collected through Google Scholar (https://scholar.google.com/) and from Turkish sites which can provide wide range of theoretical bases for my research topic. Other sources will include public libraries.

Secondary statistical data for current research will be mainly collected from the following authorized sources:

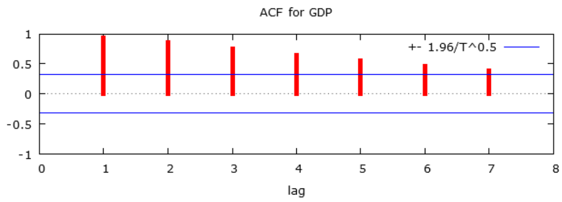
- TCMB(Turkiye Cumhuriyyeti Merkezi Bankasi) http://www.tcmb.gov.tr/wps/wcm/connect/tcmb+en/tcmb+en
- Ekonomi Bakanligi https://www.ekonomi.gov.tr/portal/faces/home;jsessionid=yXsDJaHD7t5JcQsh29sabbHFw0wTAkelFCGjSPzC8y9xUcDWC12l!-1871818537?_afrLoop=6829507122561074&_afrWindowMode=0&_afrWindowId=null&_adf.ctrl-state=1buperxqgm_1
- Turkish Statistical Institute http://www.turkstat.gov.tr/Start.do;jsessionid=cJPTZbxdLHy2vWFVTbQxPhn7PPWQPGvLcGxtKCkMfm4clBTxs63f!-1264733994
- Trading Economics https://tradingeconomics.com/turkey/gdp
-

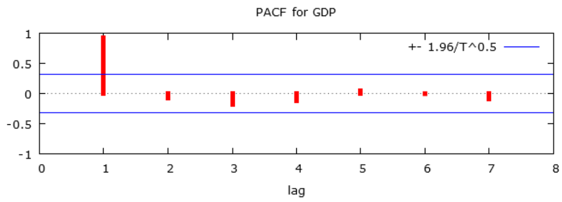
Analyzing data with using Gretl program

Autocorrelation – to see how close each year is connected with each other.

Correlogram for GDP

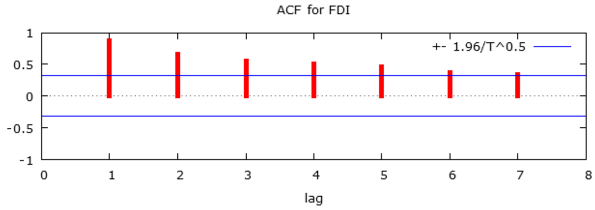
```
Autocorrelation function for GDP

 LAG      ACF            PACF             Q-stat.  [p-value]

   1   0.9287  ***    0.9287 ***        34.5736   [0.000]
   2   0.8519  ***   -0.0774            64.4948   [0.000]
   3   0.7553  ***   -0.1844            88.7094   [0.000]
   4   0.6487  ***   -0.1234           107.1121   [0.000]
   5   0.5546  ***    0.0511           120.9838   [0.000]
   6   0.4664  ***   -0.0009           131.1072   [0.000]
   7   0.3778  **    -0.0880           137.9719   [0.000]
```

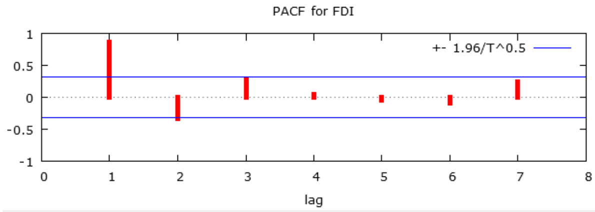




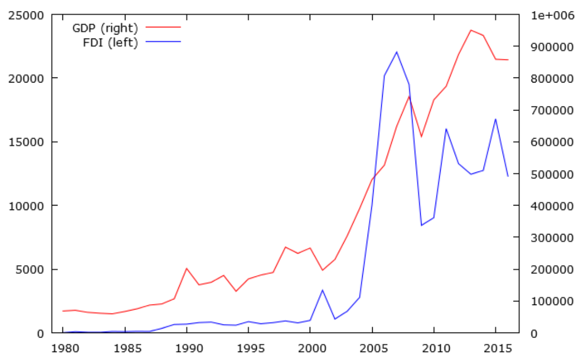
ACF shows lesser lags. First lag is 0.92, which shows a strong correlation between the first year (1980) and the next year (1981), then this relationship gets weaker, but not significantly, thus, according to ACF for GDP, a relationships is significant, since all the lags exceed the blue line. The same results are for FDI, the relationship between years is significant.

```
Autocorrelation function for FDI

 LAG      ACF            PACF             Q-stat.  [p-value]

   1   0.8647  ***    0.8647 ***        29.9680   [0.000]
   2   0.6646  ***   -0.3290 **         48.1786   [0.000]
   3   0.5446  ***    0.2904 *          60.7655   [0.000]
   4   0.4988  ***    0.0500            71.6444   [0.000]
   5   0.4565  ***   -0.0444            81.0412   [0.000]
   6   0.3760  **    -0.0869            87.6203   [0.000]
   7   0.3359  **     0.2454            93.0484   [0.000]
```





Time-series plot for GDP and FDI on a single plot.



OLS – we can use time-series analysis, if there is no autocorrelation present. First, build an OLS model (Model – ordinary least squares).

```
Model 1: OLS, using observations 1980-2016 (T = 37)
Dependent variable: GDP

             coefficient     std. error     t-ratio      p-value
  ---------------------------------------------------------------
  const      156819          31166.3         5.032      1.46e-05  ***
  FDI            37.5780         3.61974    10.38       3.15e-012 ***

Mean dependent var   351993.1   S.D. dependent var   301112.4
Sum squared resid    8.00e+11   S.E. of regression   151201.5
R-squared            0.754856   Adjusted R-squared   0.747852
F(1, 35)             107.7735   P-value(F)           3.15e-12
Log-likelihood      -492.7483   Akaike criterion     989.4966
Schwarz criterion    992.7185   Hannan-Quinn         990.6325
rho                  0.679264   Durbin-Watson        0.657173
```

The estimation formula is:

GDP = 156819 + 37.57 * FDI

it means, with the increase in FDI by one unit, there is an increase in GDP by 37.57 units, which shows a positive relationship between GDP and FDI. Durbin-Watson criteria lies between 0 and 2, where 2 is the ideal value. We have 0.65, so we might suspect autocorrelation. Test for autocorrelation using Durbin-Watson p-value test.

```
Durbin-Watson statistic = 0.65717
p-value = 4.10106e-007
```

Null-hypothesis: autocorrelation is not present. We have extremely low p-value, less than 0.05, thus we reject null-hypothesis. In other words, autocorrelation is present and OLS model we built is not correct and we need to switch to a time-series model (based on our previous OLS model). Cochrane-Orcutt is suitable for that purpose.

<u>Cochrane-Orcutt analyzing</u>

```
ITER      RHO          ESS
  1     0.67926   2.87193e+011
  2     0.95437   1.10548e+011
  3     0.96892   1.07064e+011
  4     0.97477   1.0594e+011
  5     0.97827   1.05346e+011
  6     0.98068   1.0497e+011
  7     0.98247   1.04708e+011
  8     0.98388   1.04513e+011
  9     0.98502   1.04363e+011
 10     0.98597   1.04363e+011

Model 2: Cochrane-Orcutt, using observations 1981-2016 (T = 36)
Dependent variable: GDP

             coefficient   std. error   t-ratio   p-value
  --------------------------------------------------------
  const      1.75630e+06   662929        2.649    0.0121   **
  FDI        4.90176            2.81830  1.739    0.0910   *

Statistics based on the rho-differenced data:

Mean dependent var   359859.9   S.D. dependent var   301502.9
Sum squared resid    1.04e+11   S.E. of regression   55370.83
R-squared            0.967915   Adjusted R-squared   0.966972
F(1, 34)             3.025031   P-value(F)           0.091037
rho                 -0.054015   Durbin-Watson        2.102994
```

In this model, the relationship is less significant, but still quite strong. Our final model is:

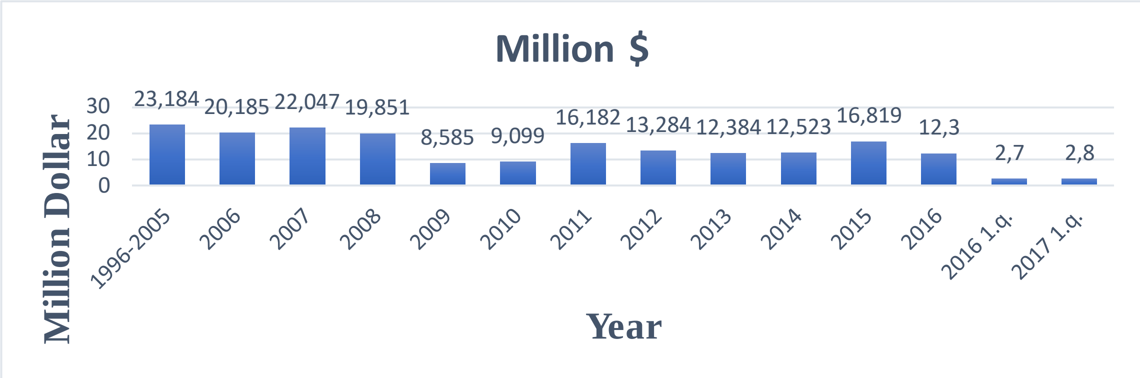
GDP = 1.75 + 4.9 * FDI

This model is better than the first model, because autocorrelation was corrected.

Analyzing period of Turkish Economy in 2017

For analyzing FDI impact on Turkish Economy I chose 3 last years (2015-2017). There are for 2015 and 2016 data available for whole year. Only, for 2017 there is available first quarter data. Firstly, this graph below will show us FDI inflow by year from 1996 till first quarter of 2017. ("Dış Ticaret Müdürlüğü," n.d.)

Graph 4. FDI inflow on Turkish economy in the period of 1996-2017 1.q

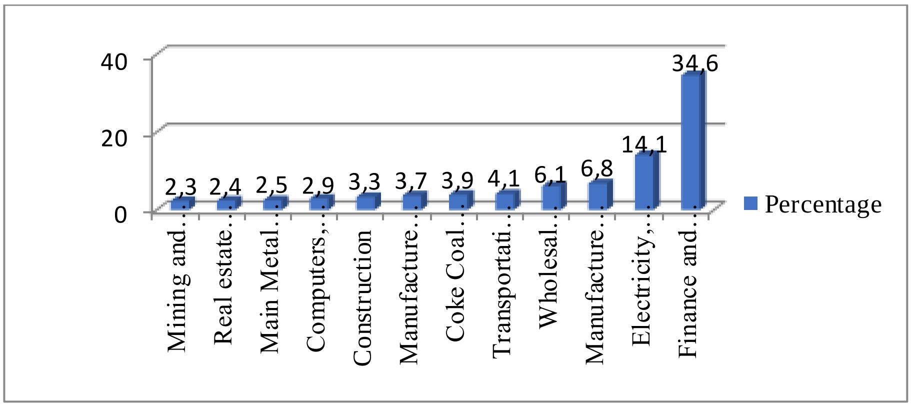


Source TCMB (Central Bank of Turkey Republic) ("TCMB," n.d.)

Explanation of Graph 1: In 2004 Turkey was declared as a candidate country for EU. This influenced for attraction of FDI on Turkish Economy. Turkey government finally can encourage foreign investors. You can see in graph FDI inflow started to increase with every year with privatization process. There were four biggest companies that State was owner (Turkcell, Türk Telekom, Garanti Bank and Fortis Bank) that sold to Foreign Investors for encouraging them. And it was in this period. From 2008-2011 you can see FDI decline. The Worldwide Recession was the reason for this. After 2010 Turkey State can recover the economy. Due to this from 2011 till 2017 you can see increasing in FDI.("YASED Uluslararası Doğrudan Yatırım Raporları | Yased - Uluslararası Yatırımcılar Derneği," n.d.)

These graphs in below answers for research questions: In which sector FDI focused more? And why these sectors are chosen by FDI?

Graph 5. Sectors Intensified by Foreign Direct Investment in the Last 10 Years (%)



Source: TCMB (Central Bank of Turkey Republic) (“TCMB,” n.d.)

The graph above shows as percentage of the sectors invested by FDI in the last 10 years. Due to this graph Finance and Insurance and Industry sectors are leading. That is why I chose these two sectors to analyze in this paper.

Graph 6. The Sectoral Distribution of FDI

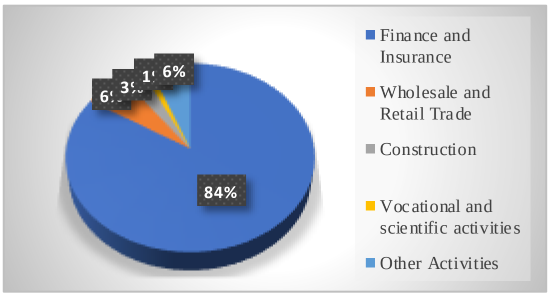
Sectors (million $)	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2016/1.q.	2017/ 1.q.
Capital Inflow	**10.761**	**9.89**	**8.631**	**12.074**	**6.888**	**1.188**	**1.898**
1. Agriculture	**43**	**47**	**61**	**31**	**26**	**8**	**1**
2. Industry	**5.48**	**4.757**	**4.258**	**5.772**	**2.669**	**542**	**525**
Manufacturing	4.519	2.209	2.742	4.225	1.711	300	213
Electricity, Gas	773	1.795	1.131	1.338	740	235	89
Mining	188	717	382	207	216	7	223
Water Supply, Waste Management	0	36	3	2	2	0	0
3. Services	**5.238**	**5.086**	**4.312**	**6.271**	**4.193**	**638**	**1.172**
Finance and Insurance	2.084	3.415	1.47	3.516	1.705	89	990
Wholesale and Retail Trade	221	379	1.136	598	602	61	68
Transportation, Storage	130	364	594	1.524	544	127	14
Real estate activities	174	128	252	171	277	13	7

Construction	1.427	178	232	106	308	48	36
Human health and social services activities	546	106	204	58	273	212	10
Information and communication	134	120	214	150	91	21	1
Accommodation and Food	16	59	24	11	235	46	5
Other services	53	58	56	22	21	7	16
Capital outflow	**633**	**568**	**261**	**364**	**609**	**74**	**109**
Other Capital	**864**	**525**	**137**	**1.684**	**2.133**	**570**	**153**
Real estate	**2.636**	**3.049**	**4.321**	**4.156**	**3.89**	**1.068**	**1.061**
Total	**13.628**	**12.896**	**12.828**	**17.55**	**12.302**	**2.752**	**2.803**

Source TCMB (Central Bank of Turkey Republic) (“TCMB,” n.d.)

Also with Sectoral distribution of FDI inflow we can realize which sectors are focused more than the others. These graph mentioned above, also, shows us that Finance and Insurance and Industry sectors FDI interested more than the others.

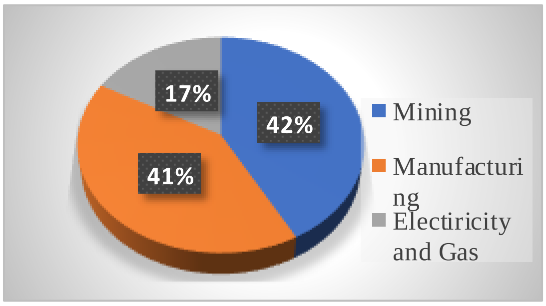
Graph 7. Distribution of Foreign Direct Investments in Service Sector in 2017 1.q.



Source TCMB (Central Bank of Turkey Republic) (“TCMB,” n.d.)

The graph mentioned above shows that with comparison 2016 in 2017 1.q. the percentage of Finance and Insurance increase.

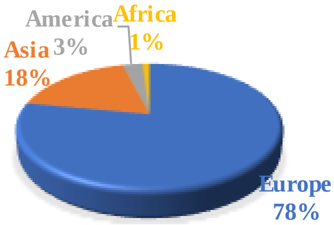
Graph 8. Distribution of Foreign Direct Investments in Industry Sector in 2017 1.q.



Source TCMB (Central Bank of Turkey Republic) (“TCMB,” n.d.)

This Graph mentioned above shows that with comparison 2016 in 2017 1.q Mining is leading in Industry sector.

Graph 9. Foreign Direct Investment Inflows by Regions in 2017 1.q



Source TCMB (Central Bank of Turkey Republic)("TCMB," n.d.)

This graph shows that with comparison 2016 in 2017 1.q. investment coming from Europe increases and investment coming from Asia decreases, also investment start to come from Africa.

Graph 10. Foreign Direct Investment Inflows by Countries.

2017			
Rank	**Country**	**FDI inflow (million $)**	**Percentage (%)**
1	Spain	939	0.49
2	Azerbaijan	193	0.1
3	Netherlands	106	0.06
4	Austria	95	0.05
5	Germany	60	0.04
6	Japan	45	0.04
7	Qatar	30	0.04
8	Switzerland	29	0.03
9	Canada	27	0.02
10	USA	22	0.01
	Others	**352**	**0.19**
	Total FDI Inflow	**1.898**	**100**

Source TCMB (Central Bank of Turkey Republic)("TCMB," n.d.)

This graph mentioned above shows us the main Investor Countries.

Reasons for growth in Service Sector

Graph 11. Reasons of Growth in Service Sector

Increase your wealth	**More demand for services such as gardening and carpet cleaning, which people have earlier fulfilled**
More free time	More demand for travel agencies, hotels and adult training courses
Increase in female labor force	Daytime child care, cleaning, more demand for out-of-home catering services
Expected life expectancy	More demand for care homes and health services
Products become more complex	Greater demand for qualified specialists to care for complex products such as cars and home computers
Increased complexity of life	More demand for income tax preparers, marriage counselors, legal advisors and employment services
To attach importance to the scarcity of ecology and resources	More demand for services that are purchased or leased. Like renting instead of door-to-door bus services or car ownership
Increasing number of new products	The development of computer based services such as programming, repair and time sharing.

Source: (Guiltinan & Schoell, 1992)

As you can see from the table above, the growth of the service sector has many reasons. The first of these is the increase of your wealth. With the increase in wealth, people have already done some work they have done using other sources.

The second reason is that there is more free time. Thanks to developments, people can finish their work earlier and have more leisure time. Trends in service sectors have increased.

The third reason is the increase in female employment in the workforce. Increasing number of women working day by day, cleaning, child care, etc. the need for services.

The fourth reason is the expectation of life. As people age, health, shelter, etc. they want to meet their needs and get guaranteed gold. It expects the care homes to be made or health services to be offered on better terms.

The fifth reason is that the products are more complex. Thanks to the developing technology, different products are presented to the market. The demand for qualified experts to understand these products is increasing.

The sixth reason is the increasing complexity of life. Because of this complexity, service needs have increased.

The seventh reason is that more attention is paid to the scarcity of ecology and resources. The scarcity of resources in the economy has increased the demand for people to buy or lease services.

The last reason is the increase in the number of new products. The development of computer-based systems is the driving force behind growth in the service sector.

Growth in the service sector in recent years has also led to an increase in the number of employees in the sector. In the United States, for example, this field workforce accounts for 77% of total employment. 70% of the gross national product is also provided from services. It is estimated that 90% of new establishments will be created by service enterprises in the next decade (Yücenur, Demirel, Ceylan, & Demirel, 2011).

Conclusion

Analyzing part of paper and the facts that are mentioned in this paper approved that increasing of FDI inflow to Economy is leading to Economic Growth of Turkey. But it doesn`t mean that FDI inflow always leads to Economic Growth.

The reasons that why Turkey attracts attention of FDI is:

1. Location advantages: Turkey is located between Europe and Asia. And playing a Gate role for them. Turkey is surrounded with Black, Marmara, Aegean and Mediterranean Sea. Due to the transportation cost of products is really low for FDI companies. Also, this convenient location has a very good impact for Tourism sector.

2. Population advantages: Turkey is one of the highly populated countries. Most of the percentage of population are young people.

3. Salary advantages: average salary is low than Europe Countires (1777.5 TL is approx. 409 EUR).

4. Declaring as a candidate country for European Union.

Due to these advantages that I mentioned above Turkey has very convenient conditions for FDI inflow.

The results of this paper show that, in recent years, industry and the services sector has been one of the leading sectors, especially trade and financial services, in foreign direct investment.

The manufacturing industry and the services sector are sectors in which the foreign capital is most interested in sectoral distribution. Especially in manufacturing industry the most important reason for this is that the profitability ratios of these sectors are high. In the manufacturing industry, more foreign investment is made in the food industry, ready-to-wear industry, chemical industry, iron and steel industry, cement industry, electronics and automotive subcontracting industries, sub sectors of banking, commerce, communication and tourism attract more foreign capital in services sector. It is clear that sectors that implement more capital-intensive technology function decisively in economic growth. At the forefront of these sectors is the industrial sector as it is known. However, this assessment is basically for developed economies that have completed the industrialization process. Because in developing countries, this sector is quite old, with less productive and less productive production methods. There are many reasons for this. At the beginning of these reasons, the accumulation of capital in this sector is very limited. The limited capital accumulation within the industrial sector also affects the foreign capital that this sector will lead; even preventing this orientation. Because the first stages of capital accumulation will go to high-cost infrastructure investments. Moreover, since R & D researches are much lower in these countries, they will not be willing to bear this expenditure naturally in foreign capital, industrial sector and its manufacturing sub-sector. Because of such reasons, the foreign capital industry sector is more oriented towards the services sector in these countries. Within this sector, tourism, trade (marketing) and free zones have the highest priority among the sub-sectors that foreign capital invests in. As a result, economic growth in emerging economies is creating a gap between tourism, trade (marketing) and foreign capital inflows into the free zones. On the other hand, the developments provided by the repatriation of the foreign capital in these sub-sectors have important functions in economic growth by creating significant externalities. Agriculture, mining and energy sectors are among the sectors in Turkey where foreign capital is not much interested. Turkey has very good conditions to improve these sectors just mentioned before. They just should make a reform and encourage Foreign Investors to put investment into these sectors. Since foreign investments come with privatization and portfolio investment, employment relations are not very visible.

In the case of reducing unemployment rate: it is also important in the sector where FDI is developed and produced. If the foreign firm is merged with an existing domestic company or if the domestic company is fully purchased, it will not be possible to create additional employment. Besides, the employment to be created will be limited when the FDI comes to the mining sector to operate natural resources. In this case, employment of foreign companies will have a positive contribution indirectly(S. Rıdvan Karluk, 1983). Investments in sectors that use intense labor, such as services and food, are likely to reduce unemployment. It can be said that the foreign capital coming to the industrial sector can make a positive contribution to the employment of the country. However, the technology used here will also determine whether the employment effect of investment, which is labor or capital intensive, is broad or limited. The Developed Countries also draw considerable distress on the accumulation of good capital. Lack of qualifications, population density, inadequate education, brain drain, low wage levels is some of these troubles. By educating companies with foreign capital, labor force and managers, it will provide a positive contribution to the closure of the labor force and manager position in the economy and thus the development of the management technique.

In my opinion acceptance of Turkey like a member country of EU will increase FDI inflow massively on Turkish Economy.

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Brief Biography

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2nd Parallel Session

Investigating the link between the competitiveness of sub-national regions and the firms within – The case of Hungary

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Abstract

Based on the empirical findings of the recent decade, differences in subnational regional competitiveness could be caused by various factors. However, do these factors directly affect the competitiveness of the firms located in the given area? Is there a connection between the competitiveness of a region and that of the local companies? Comparing average performance measures from the period 2010-2014 of firms located in various areas of Hungary with the regional competitiveness scores of the European Union little evidence emerges that such a connection exists. Based on the findings, the EU index excludes some essential influencing factors while not all of the included variables seem to have a specific relationship with the firm-level performance. Based on these results we may need to review how and why current regional competitiveness measures are considered in the national economic policy and local governance.

Keywords: efficiency, profitability, growth, export, spatial differences

1. Introduction

Sub-national regional inequalities are one of the fundamental problems to overcome not only in most of the EU countries but also in US, China, or Russia. The website of EU (EU, 2017) states that "regional policy targets EU regions and cities, boosting economic growth and improving quality of life through strategic investment." This is why the European Commission developed a regional competitiveness index (RCI) (European Commission, 2017) measuring the performance of sub-national regions within the EU. The value of RCI is calculated based on three sub-indices that integrate eleven pillars. (Table 1) These pillars are calculated based on altogether 78 individual measures. (Annoni et al., 2017) The index values are currently available for 2010, 2013, and 2016.

Table 1 Factors of the EU Regional Competitiveness Index

Sub-index	Pillars
Basic sub-index	Institutions, Macroeconomic Stability, Infrastructure, Health, Basic Education
Efficiency sub-index	Higher Education and Lifelong Learning, Labor Market Efficiency, Market Size
Innovation sub-index	Technological Readiness, Business Sophistication, Innovation

Source: European Commission (2017)

Would maximising the RCI index help us to get closer to the EU development targets and boost economic growth? To answer this question links among RCI scores and the competitiveness of firms operating in the given region has to be analysed. As an illustration, Hungary and its seven regions were picked.

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2. Literature review

Literature lists a wide range of factors influencing regional level competitiveness. Chan, Makino, and Isobe (2010) highlight the importance of the economic development of the country (they assume regional disparities to disappear as the economy strengthens). Raluca, Goschin, and Gruiescu (2010) also underline the importance of historical events like the outcome of the privatisation processes several decades earlier.

Other factors mentioned include local social trends (alcohol and tobacco consumption, criminality) (Demchuk and Zelenyuk, 2009); shadow economy (Schrieder, Munz, and Jehle, 2000); population, income level, and industrial development (Jovanović, Bošković, and Manić, 2012); the quality of the infrastructure, the availability of cheap and qualified workforce (Raluca, Goschin, and Gruiescu, 2010); general level of work force education (Neagu, 2011); cultural traits and habits (Bardy, 2010); quality of institutions (Di Liberto and Sideri, 2015); local governance (Blume, 2006); level of urbanisation (Kourtit, Arribas-Bel, and Nijkamp, 2012); availability and intensity of local networks (Gellynck and Vermeire (2009); knowledge generation and number of start-ups (González-Pernía, Peña-Legazkue, and Vendrell-Herrero, 2012); peripherality (Webber, Boddy, and Plumridge, 2007); and geographical proximity of more developed regions (knowledge spillover, the proximity of markets, competitive pressure) (Braun and Cullmann, 2011). In addition, business-government connection and (regional and local) tax regimes (Remington, 2016) are mentioned. Juhász (2017) offers a summary of those factors (Table 2).

It is clear that not all of these variables are integrated into RCI. Particularly proximity effects of more developed areas are missing. Bilbao-Terol et al. (2017) highlight another shortcoming of RCI emphasising the lack of the sustainability components. They propose to include three more factors: (1) CO_2 emission, (3) Waste and (3) Environmental Expenditure and Investment. Aiginger and Firgo (2015) at the same time propose even a different approach. They underline that regional performance is beyond just generating GDP, and intend to measure competitiveness by focusing both on its inputs and outcomes. Based on that, they use 12 indicators on outcome and 42 on input competitiveness.

Table 2 Factors behind regional differences in competitiveness

Factors	Major elements
Infrastructure	Transportation, telecommunication, utilities, e-mobility, level of urbanisation
Proximity to more developed areas	Competitive pressure, distance to markets, spillover effects, cultural similarities/differences
Regional public administration	Institutions, regulations, development policy, taxation, incentives, criminality, support to local networks
Workforce	Level of training, availability, wage level, culture, ethnic characteristics, entrepreneurial attitude, labour mobility
Local demand	Population trends, income level, size of shadow economy, residential mobility
Stimulating business environment	Concentration of large firms, existence of large enterprises with developed technology relying on local suppliers, vivid start-up activity, nearby venture capital companies and knowledge sources (universities, R&D centres), well-operating business networks

Source: Juhász (2017)

Just like some countries in the CEE region, Hungary (Fig. 1) also suffers from regional economic differences. Katona (2014) underlines that Central Hungary region including the capital (Budapest) was above 160 percent of the national average GDP per capita in 2012 (Budapest alone showed a remarkable 217 percent value) while three of the other six regions did not even reach 70 percent of the Hungarian average.

The differences mentioned are well reflected in the RCI (Table 3). Central Hungary (Közép-Magyarország) ranks first regarding all (sub-) indices, Central Transdanubia and Western Transdanubia always come second or third. The other four regions lag far behind.

Figure 1 Regions of Hungary

Source: KSH (2017)

Table 3 Competitiveness of the Hungarian regions

Region	RCI 2016		Basic sub-index		Efficiency sub-index		Innovation sub-index	
Central Hungary (Közép-Magyarország)	49.09	174%	34.44	125%	60.85	129%	56.63	197%
Central Transdanubia (Közép-Dunántúl)	30.90	109%	29.81	108%	51.05	108%	27.62	96%
Western Transdanubia (Nyugat-Dunántúl)	30.58	108%	31.88	115%	49.56	105%	28.12	98%
Southern Transdanubia (Dél-Dunántúl)	22.89	81%	24.31	88%	43.31	91%	24.93	87%
Northern Hungary (Észak-Magyarország)	20.07	71%	23.06	83%	40.78	86%	21.91	76%
Northern Great Plain (Észak-Alföld)	19.77	70%	25.75	93%	39.71	84%	19.68	69%
Southern Great Plain (Dél-Alföld)	24.30	86%	24.19	88%	46.08	97%	22.18	77%
National average	28.23	100%	27.63	100%	47.33	100%	28.72	100%
EU average	53.38	189%	61.75	223%	61.27	129%	49.30	172%

Source: European Commission (2017)

Based on the RCI data, we may expect to find significant differences in firm-level average competitiveness across these regions. As two of the eleven pillars of RCI (Macroeconomic Stability and Basic Education) have the same value for all regions within a given country, the investigation will only focus on the remaining pillars.

3. Sample and methodology

For to be in line with the RCI 2013 and 2016 data, the database was set up from 2010 to 2014. Financial performance data of Hungarian companies together with information on employment and headquarter location were received from Bisnode Hungary. The sample included all non-financial private firms with at least twenty employees in 2010, publishing full annual reports according to Hungarian Accounting Standards. Only companies with ongoing operations, positive equity book value, and without off-shore owners were considered. Businesses that went through legal transformation were excluded. Due to all these restrictions, the sample is very likely to significantly over-perform the total average of the Hungarian corporate sector.

Finally, 1522 companies remained in the sample, of which 717 were foreign-owned. In 2010, 17.6 percent of the firms in the sample had more than 250 employees, while 57.4 percent employed 50 to 249 people. (See Table 4) For to assure a multidimensional approach, competitiveness was measured using various yearly ratios listed in Table 5. Rates were calculated for each year from 2010 to 2014.

Table 4 Sample structure (number of firms)

Employment (2010)	Foreign-owned	Locally owned	Total
20-49	121	260	381
50-249	393	480	873
250+	203	65	268
Total	717	805	1522

Table 5 Competitiveness measures used

Factor	Measure
Growth	Annual percentage change in employment, Sales, EBIT*, and profit after tax*
Export performance	Export/Sales, growth of export income
Level of technology	Wage/Employee
Productivity	Sales/Employee, EBIT/Employee, Added Value/Employee
Profitability	EBIT/Sales, Added value/Sales
Efficiency	EBITDA/Invested capital (ROIC)*, Profit after tax/Equity (ROE)*

*To remove extraordinary effects, values outside the range -100% – +100% were excluded.

The database was extended by adding the standardised factor data of the EU index for both 2013 and 2016. (RCI 2013 index mainly builds on information from the years 2010-2012, while 2016 index relied on 2013-2015 data.) For to control for connections, first, regional averages of all performance measures in Table 5 were calculated for all the years in the period examined. Then Spearman's bivariate rank correlation was calculated for all possible pairs of regional and firm-level ratios. (As there are only seven regions in Hungary, Pearson correlation coefficient assuming normally distributed data could not be used.)

Zero hypotheses state in all case no connection between the ranks established based on a given pair of measures. Only relationships (refused zero hypothesis) significant at least 5 percent were considered.

Based on the literature, several internal factors (e.g. culture, technology, size) and industry characteristics may contribute to differences among competitiveness of firms. For to evade distortions in the results caused by these other factors, the analysis controlled for the type of shareholders (foreign/Hungarian, a proxy for management culture), size (based on employment) and in one case even for sub-industry influence. A step-by-step analysis was performed to remove the possible distortions possibly caused by these factors.

As theoretically a regional effect should last for several years, only significant connections that appeared in at least three of the five years examined were identified to have a regional source. Still, the definition of regional effects is vital. (1) We may look at all effects that are caused by regions as regional (harder to separate statistically) (e.g. bigger firms or companies of a given industry prefer one region over the other). On other option is (2) to limit the definition to differences across regions that are to explain only by spatial variables (less exact) (e.g. firm of the same size, ownership, industry perform differently in one area).

The latter definition would neglect all regional factors that influence business behaviour by affecting the control variables. Former papers identified several regional characteristics changing the distribution of size, ownership or sub-sectors of the firms (e.g. preference of FDI, the concentration of large enterprises, sector-specific regulations). Thus, this paper reviews regional differences both with and without the control variables.

4. Key results

An earlier examination of the same sample (Juhász, 20017) using paired T-tests concluded that the existence of regional effects can not be refused statistically, though those are present only for very few of the competitiveness measures used (export ratio, wage level, and efficiency). Even in case of those, the regional effects were different for sub-industries, size categories, and ownership types. No significant link to profitability (ROI, ROE) was present in any of the cases.

This time, when considering the total sample of manufacturing firms, only three firm-level performance measures showed significant rank correlation with any of the regional factors. Average wage over number of employees, added value per employee and return on invested capital (ROI) all seem to be linked to regional competitiveness. (Table 6 lists all the significant connections.)

While the limited number of firm-level variables with significant association might not be a surprise based on the earlier research results, those are the signs of the correlations that are extraordinary. Counterintuitively, firms in regions that are more competitive from one point or the other seem to be underperforming those companies active in less competitive regions. However, it is hard to explain, e.g. why better health tends to decrease average wage, or why better technological conditions and a higher level of innovation decrease labour efficiency (added value/employee).

It is likely that the joint effect of the many omitted factors influencing the competitiveness of firms hide the real connections. Therefore, the database was divided into two sub-samples based on the majority ownership. This step should clarify how different management cultures were supported by regional factors.

Table 6 Significant links for the total of the sample

Firm-level ratio	Regional measure	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014
Wage /employee	Health 2013	-,821*	-,821*	-,821*	-,821*	-,964**
	Labour Market Efficiency 2013	-,821*	-,821*	-,821*	-,821*	-,893**
	Labour Market Efficiency 2016	-,929**	-,929**	-,929**	-,929**	-,857*
	Technological Readiness 2013	-,893**	-,893**	-,893**	-,893**	-,964**
	Technological Readiness 2016	-,893**	-,893**	-,893**	-,893**	-,964**
	Efficiency sub-index 2016	-,857*	-,857*	-,857*	-,857*	-,929**
	Innovation sub-index 2016	-,857*	-,857*	-,857*	-,857*	-1,000**
	RCI 2016	-,857*	-,857*	-,857*	-,857*	-,929**
Added value / employee	Labour Market Efficiency 2013		-,821*		-,857*	-,821*
	Labour Market Efficiency 2016	-,857*	-,929**	-,857*	-,893**	-,929**
	Technological Readiness 2013	-,893**	-,929**	-,893**	-,857*	-,929**
	Technological Readiness 2016	-,893**	-,929**	-,893**	-,857*	-,929**
	Efficiency sub-index 2016	-,821*	-,893**	-,821*	-,821*	-,893**
	Innovation sub-index 2016	-,786*	-,857*	-,786*	-,821*	-,857*
	RCI 2016	-,821*	-,893**	-,821*	-,821*	-,893**
	Health 2016	-,786*	-,857*	-,786*	-,821*	-,857*
ROI	Innovation 2013	-,893**	-,821*	-,786*		

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Indeed, telling apart companies based on ownership makes a difference. For foreign-owned entities, four ratios showed significant connections with the regional measures. (Table 7) ROI does not appear here anymore, but two more efficiency measures show up on the list: sales/employee and added value per sales. Unfortunately, only these later connections have the theoretically correct sign.

When considering locally owned firms only, we receive a slightly different picture. (Table 8) Because of all sings being negative, it is doubtful that these connections would be casual or at least realistic and the phenomenon may signal that other factors still not included in the investigation play a significant role in determining the firm-level competitiveness.

Thus, even sub-samples of homogenised ownership were further divided based on size (employment). As in both cases, the middle size (50-249 employees) category had the highest number of entities. That is why, as a next step, mid-sized foreign and locally owned companies were separately analysed.

For foreign enterprises (Table 9), wage/employee and sales/employee showed significant connections once again, but for this sub-sample also the growth of employment and Export/Sales appeared to be linked to regional competitiveness. It is first at this step that we find positive connections in line with theoretical expectations. Mid-sized foreign manufacturers in more innovative, efficient, and generally more competitive regions increased employment faster, while export intensity was higher in areas with a more efficient labour market. The remaining correlations are even at this level counterintuitive.

Table 7 Significant links for foreign-owned companies

Firm-level ratio	Regional measure	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014
Wage / Employee	Health 2013		-,786*	-,786*	-,857*	
	Labour Market Efficiency 2016	-,893**	-1,000**	-,893**	-,964**	
	Technological Readiness 2013	-,821*	-,929**	-,929**	-,964**	
	Technological Readiness 2016	-,821*	-,929**	-,929**	-,964**	
	Efficiency sub-index 2016	-,857*	-,964**	-,857*	-,929**	
	Innovation sub-index 2016		-,857*	-,821*	-,893**	
	RCI 2016	-,857*	-,964**	-,857*	-,929**	
Added value / Employee	Labour Market Efficiency 2016	-,857*		-,821*	-,857*	-,821*
	Technological Readiness 2013	-,857*		-,821*	-,786*	-,821*
	Technological Readiness 2016	-,857*		-,821*	-,786*	-,821*
	Efficiency sub-index 2016	-,821*		-,786*	-,821*	-,786*
	RCI 2016	-,821*		-,786*	-,821*	-,786*
Sales / Employee	Labour Market Efficiency 2016	-,893**	-,893**	-,821*	-,821*	-,821*
Added value / Sales	Labour Market Efficiency 2016	,929**	,929**	,821*		

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).
** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 8 Significant links for locally owned companies

Firm-level ratio	Regional measure	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014
Wage / Employee	Basic sub-index 2013	-,821*	-,786*	-,821*		-,786*
	Efficiency sub-index 2013	-,857*	-,857*	-,857*	-,786*	-,857*
	Efficiency sub-index 2016	-,857*	-,857*	-,857*	-,821*	-,857*
	RCI 2013	-,857*		-,857*	-,786*	
	RCI 2016	-,857*	-,857*	-,857*	-,821*	-,857*
	Health 2013	-,929**	-,786*	-,929**	-,857*	-,786*
	Health 2016	-,857*		-,857*	-,786*	
	Labour Market Efficiency 2013	-,929**	-,929**	-,929**	-,893**	-,929**
	Labour Market Efficiency 2016	-,821*	-,893**	-,821*	-,857*	-,893**
	Technological Readiness 2013	-,893**	-,821*	-,893**	-,857*	-,821*
	Technological Readiness 2016	-,893**	-,821*	-,893**	-,857*	-,821*
	Innovation sub-index 2016	-,964**	-,857*	-,964**	-,893**	-,857*
Sales / Employee	Institutions 2013		-,810*	-,926**	-,926**	-,810*
	Institutions 2016		-,810*	-,926**	-,926**	-,810*
Export / Sales	Infrastructure 2016			-,929**	-,857*	-,857*

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).
** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

In case of the locally owned mid-sized firms (Table 10), unfortunately, no positive correlations were found. It looks like the regional indices measure precisely the opposite of what the companies experience. At the same time, it becomes evident that competitiveness of the locally owned businesses is influenced by different regional forces than that of the foreign-owned firms. This result hints to local entities operating separately from the foreign counterparts, a signal for the existence of the dual-economy phenomenon. This finding is in line with results of several earlier investigations. (Lengyel – Szakálné 2014, Gál – Juhász 2016, Juhász – Reszegi 2017, Lux – Páger – Kovács 2017)

Table 9 Significant links for mid-sized foreign-owned companies

Firm-level ratio	Regional measure	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014
Wage / Employee	Labour Market Efficiency 2016	-,857*		-,857*	-,964**	-,893**
Sales / Employee	Market Size 2016	-,786*	-,821*	-,786*		
	Innovation 2016	-,821*	-,786*	-,821*		
Change in Employment	Basic sub-index 2013		,786*	,893**		,929**
	RCI 2013		,857*	,821*		,857*
	RCI 2016	,786*	,857*			,857*
	Efficiency sub-index 2016	,786*	,857*			,857*
	Innovation 2016		,857*	,786*		,857*
Export / Sales	Labour Market Efficiency 2016			,786*	,821*	,786*

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).
** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 10 Significant links for mid-sized locally owned companies

Firm-level ratio	Regional measure	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014
Wage / Employee	Basic sub-index 2013	-,893**	-,929**	-,786*	-,786*	-,786*
	Basic sub-index 2016			-,857*	-,857*	-,857*
	Efficiency sub-index 2013	-,964**	-,964**	-,893**	-,893**	-,893**
	Efficiency sub-index 2016	-,964**	-,857*	-,929**	-,929**	-,929**
	RCI 2016	-,964**	-,857*	-,929**	-,929**	-,929**
	Health 2013	-,893**		-,821*	-,821*	-,821*
	Health 2016	-,821*		-,893**	-,893**	-,893**
	Labour Market Efficiency 2013	-,929**	-,821*	-,964**	-,964**	-,964**
	Labour Market Efficiency 2016	-,893**	-,786*	-,857*	-,857*	-,857*
	Technological Readiness 2013	-,929**		-,893**	-,893**	-,893**
	Technological Readiness 2016	-,929**		-,893**	-,893**	-,893**
	Higher Education and Lifelong Learning 2016	-,857*		-,893**	-,893**	-,893**
Added value / Employee	Basic sub-index 2016	-,857*	-,786*	-,857*		
	Efficiency sub-index 2013	-,821*		-,821*		-,786*
	Efficiency sub-index 2016	-,893**		-,786*		-,821*
	RCI 2013	-,929**	-,893**	-,929**	-,821*	
	RCI 2016	-,893**		-,786*		-,821*
	Health 2013	-,964**	-,929**	-,964**	-,857*	-,857*
	Health 2016	-,821*	-,857*	-,821*	-,786*	-,929**
	Higher Education and Lifelong Learning 2013	-,893**	-,929**	-,893**	-,857*	
	Technological Readiness 2013	-,964**	-,786*	-,857*		-,857*
	Technological Readiness 2016	-,964**	-,786*	-,857*		-,857*
	Innovation sub-index 2016	-,929**	-,857*	-,929**	-,786*	-,929**
	Business Sophistication 2016	-,821*		-,786*		-,786*
Export / Sales	Higher Education and Lifelong Learning 2016		-,786*	-,786*	-,786*	

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Based on these results, size and ownership need both to be controlled when estimating regional effects. Due to this, economic policy should focus on different fields to develop for to boost the business performance of a specific group of firms.

5. Conclusions and limitations

This paper investigated the connection between regional competitiveness measures of the EU Commission and the firm-level competitiveness measures used in the literature. To identify significant links Spearman's rank correlation coefficient was used at a minimum of 5 percent significance. Results are often counterintuitive, but support earlier research results on the structure of the Hungarian economy. The main conclusions could be summed up as follows.

(1) While regional competitiveness is measured in a very sophisticated way (11 factors, three sub-indexes, and an overall main index), none of the significant connections had the expected positive sign when considering the manufacturing industry in general. This result implies that an economic policy only focusing on boosting the regional competitiveness factors of the EU can not be successful.

(2) Controlling for the potential influence of ownership type and size, the list of the significant connections between regional factors and firm-level competitiveness measures changes radically. This means that to enhance the competitiveness, we have to use tailor-made tools, dedicated to the targeted group of companies.

(3) Connections with a sign in line with the theoretical expectations were only to find when not only controlling for ownership but also for firm size. This result suggests that the EU competitiveness factors have either very different or no effect at most of the locally owned firms. This phenomenon could be a sign of the existence of dual economy where the success of some players depends on another factor than that of the rest of the economy.

Due to these findings, economic policymakers have to be more careful when selecting target variables to focus on, and should not just automatically aim at scoring better at the EU-wide regional competitiveness index. It seems that analysing why a country or a region is less competitive based on a specific measure will not necessarily offer a mean to figure out how to boost the business performance of the companies in the given area. While these findings might be counterintuitive, those are in line with the opinion of Aiginger and Firgo (2015) who also highlight that regional competitiveness is neither a disaggregation of the national competitiveness nor the sum of the competitiveness of individual companies within the region.

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Brief biography

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He is associate professor of Finance at the Corvinus University of Budapest, where he earned his PhD in 2005. His field of research covers corporate finance, business valuation, financial modelling, competitiveness of firms and enterprise risk management. Beside of his academic career he also regularly acts as a business consultant and trainer not only locally but also in the CEE and Middle East region. Since 2005, he is a board member of the CFA Society Hungary, where he also serves as secretary since 2012.

Family Buisness in Lebanon and its Continuity

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Abstract

Family business is a major source of employment and an effective engine of economic growth in several countries. In Lebanon these companies has withstood despite the wars, the conflicts and various economic crises, what is the secret behind keeping the family business? And how they succeed in managing family and managing business as same as well?
In this study, we started the study on the Lebanese experience from a continuity problem. We sought to draw conclusions in a scientific way. We conducted extensive interviews in which we sought to understand the components of the family business, its consequences and how it passed through the generations?
The study will focus on several variables including ownership, management, family values, legal form, strategic planning, succession, power transmission variables, administrative complexity by measuring growth and expansion indicators and the number of workers (Hashash, Hisham, 2010).

We have also to highlight the role of traditions and norms in the transmission of power from generation to generation.

The sample was randomly selected from all Lebanese regions and from various economic activities. The Lebanese family businesses which established before 1950 to 2000.

Keywords: family business, economic growth, companies, ownership, management, the number of workers,, generation, economic activities.

Introduction

Family businesses are old-fashioned society. The labor force of the ancient kingdoms was family. And with the scarcity of historians to the contribution of these companies to the prosperity of society, but we find that history has saved us a document proving that the first lending for interest has emerged four thousand years ago. Since then, family businesses have become the backbone of the world's most powerful economic system. Not only that, but family companies were the mechanisms of renewal in those systems. They were offering products and services to the consumer.

Family businesses flourished in all the countries of the ancient world, among the Arabs, the Babylonians, the Egyptians, the Jews, the Greeks, the Phoenicians, Romans and Indians. Small family businesses spread civilization all over the world; during their commercial travels they carried

Babylonian astronomy, Greek philosophy, Jewish calendar, and Roman law. These companies had a set of industrial and commercial laws and rules governing product quality. The growing number of family businesses in the 20th century has played a major role in the early stages of industrialization throughout the world. Industry and trade historians see small family businesses as preserving the old. The emergence of capital has helped the emergence of family businesses (AlHayat, 2014), (Bizri, 2015), (Tharawat Magazine, 2014).

In the Arabian Gulf, most family businesses have not gone on for forty-five years; they are newly established companies.
As for the simplicity of establishing a family business, these companies will not disappear or stop establishing new ones in different parts of the world. Whatever the challenges posed by economic transformations in the world, these kinds of companies stay with people who are able to achieve commercial and economic success attributed to them, and move to their children or grandchildren to inherit (Hashash, Hisham, 2010), (Qasar, 2017), (Hakim, 2014).

The current global economy is based on family businesses, accounting for 80% of those companies to Britain's economy and 99% of Italy's economy and 90% of Lebanon's economy. Family business founded by the idea and grow slowly, and sometimes become a multinational company (Hashash, Hisham, 2010), (Bechara, 2013).

In Lebanon these companies has withstood and pass through generations despite the wars, the conflicts and various economic crises. Lebanese family businesses were established in a society where the factors of change are rapid. Family businesses in Lebanon are an important pillar of the Lebanese economy. They represent 80% of the productive sectors and employ workers from different social groups (Family Business Network of the Gulf Cooperation Council, Aug 2016), (Qasar, 2017), (Hakim, 2014).

Family businesses is an important factor in the Lebanese economy business, where it goes beyond just profit maximization and income, to be interested in family values and traditions for forming a small project that will develop and nourish between generations. And To be large entrepreneurship, and perform an ideal story of success.

In this article, we review the results of the field study that reflects the reality of some Lebanese family companies in terms of size and establishment, which reached the second generation by 50%.

Research question

What is the secrets behind keeping the Lebanese family business? And how they succeed and passed through the generations?

Methodology

The sample was randomly selected from all Lebanese regions and from various economic activities. The Lebanese family businesses which established before 1950 to 2000.

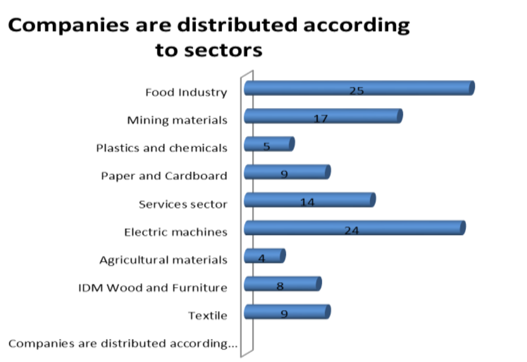
In this study, we started the study on the Lebanese experience from a continuity problem. In addition, various types of dependents and independents variables in order to achieve the objective of this study and to conclude the success factors of the Lebanese family.

We sought to draw conclusions in a scientific way. We conducted extensive interviews in which we sought to understand the components of the family business, its consequences and how it passed through the generations?

Primary data: interview

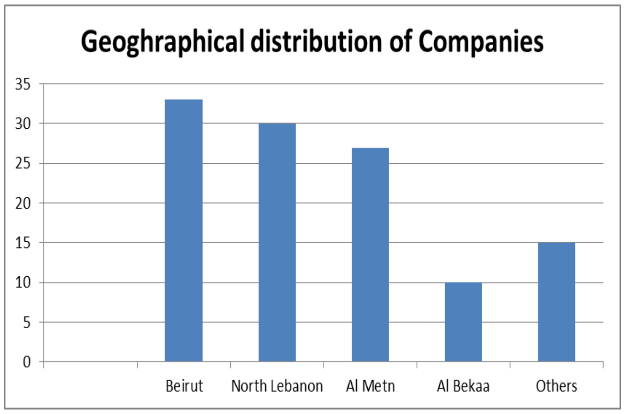
Methods applied: Qualitative method: analysis of documents. Quantitative method: analysis of tables and charts Secondary data: Research Papers

Companies are distributed according to sectors:



Source: Lebanese Science Journal, Vol. 15, No. 2, 2014 Fig. (1)

Companies are distributed geographically



Source: Lebanese Science Journal, Vol. 15, No. 2, 2014 Fig. (2)

These family businesses were established in a society where the factors of change are rapid. They also experienced wars, security incidents and various economic crises in their impact, depending on the location of the business and its geographical proximity to the seam zone or the battlefield. Some of these businesses established since 1857, but the study focused on the period from 1950 to 2000 because most of the family businesses established at the end of the 19th century were characterized by craftsmanship and simplicity at its beginning, but despite its own family-oriented development, traditional inheritance has been able to pass through generation. Its modernity and mastery of modern art and technological development, and its proud of its long established history, it was enabled to be reestablished in the 1950s (Family Business Network of the Gulf Cooperation Council, Aug 2016).

Family businesses in Lebanon are an important pillar of the Lebanese economy. They represent 80% of the productive sectors and employ workers from different social groups (Family Business Network of the Gulf Cooperation Council, Aug 2016), (AlHayat, 2014), (Bizri, 2015), (Tharawat Magazine, 2014).

In this article, we review the results of the field study that reflect the reality of some Lebanese family companies in terms of size and establishment, which reached the second generation by 50%.

The study shows that family work is a series of psychological, scientific and administrative tests and bold decisions that sharpen individuals and gain experience through daily experiences.

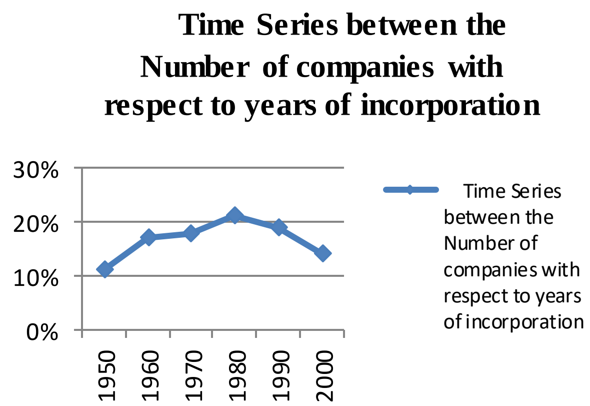
Interactions and collaboration between generations is a necessity for evolution

Day after day and with different circumstances, management changes and decisions are influenced by experience and age, and this is evidenced by the shifts and transformations experienced by the family company through the multiplicity of roles played by the decision makers. The company often runs two or three generations as a result of generations succession, making it an environment where family members come together through their own methods 'that may be congruent or sometimes contradictory. The rule of (repetition makes success) is no longer correct, because society is constantly changing, so decision makers should realize that intergenerational interactions are a fact and an imperative necessity for the company's evolution (Qasar, 2017), (Hakim, 2014).

The main problem that family businesses may face lies in their continuity and their transition from one generation to another. It is a joint work between individuals who are related to one another and are united by strategic goals. The first is the continuity and prosperity of the company. Today, modern societies are thinking about the system of corporate governance. To the effectiveness of this trend as it maintains the continuity of the family company with minimal differences (Qasar, 2017), (Hakim, 2014).

According to Barach and Ganitsky (1995) have confirmed the succession of the transfer of family business from one generation to another will success with avoiding the conflicts that will occur among the family members.

Number of companies with respect to years of incorporation:



Source: Lebanese Science Journal, Vol. 15, No. 2, 2014 Fig. (3)

Administrative structure

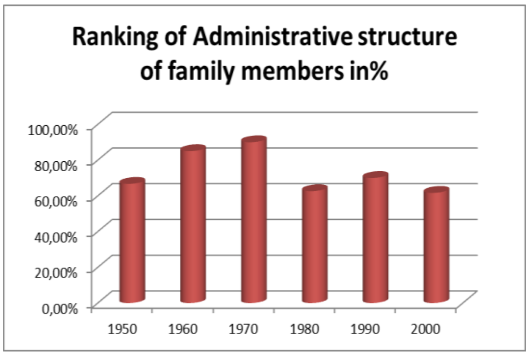
The distribution of administrative work on family members represents family relationships within a practical framework aimed to the continuation of the family business and the adoption a management strategy with clear objectives.
The joining of the family members in the business is considered a fundamental indicator of the importance of continuity (Family Business Network of the Gulf Cooperation Council, Aug 2016), (Salman, 2012). The cooperation between the two generations describes the establishment of exciting projects and forming a leading businesses. This collaboration promises a bright future as the generation of children joins parent businesses, because the new generation has more technical knowledge than the previous generation, and a mechanism for scientific change to meet challenges with enthusiasm and energy. This is why parents have involved them, developed their capacities and loaded them the management responsibility. They have also set up dialogues to create a balance between the expectations of the traditional parents and their interests and development according to new technical possibilities (Qasar, 2017), (Hakim, 2014).

In light of the technological, scientific and administrative revolutions today, the family adopts the concept of dialogue and cooperation between the generations, in order to achieve compatibility between the administrative requirements in the company, and this concept is accepted between the generation of children.

Family businesses today can absorb about 75% of their children and their grandchildren in employment compared to 20% since three or four decades ago, because the concepts that governed the work and linked it to the concept of masculinity and eliminate the role of women in family businesses were quickly eliminated, as well as the concept of the priority of the eldest son, who has become the concept of the one who possesses the knowledge, in other words, age no longer means family members but only a number, ability and sense of responsibility more than others; the growth and expansion of the family business has become an attraction for the young generation in the family (Qasar, 2017), (Hakim, 2014).

In the field research, we found that each department's manager is a family member. The family member has a certificate and competence in this field, and he has specialized managers in industrial engineering, financial management, accounting, business administration and marketing (Family Business Network of the Gulf Cooperation Council, Aug 2016).
The analysis of the research form shows that the proportion of family members who occupy administrative positions in the company reached 76%, especially with increasing administrative complexity in large companies that require more specialists from the family (Family Business Network of the Gulf Cooperation Council, Aug 2016).

Administrative Structure of family members:



Source: Lebanese Science Journal, Vol. 15, No. 2, 2014 Fig. (4)

Wages

Wages Chart

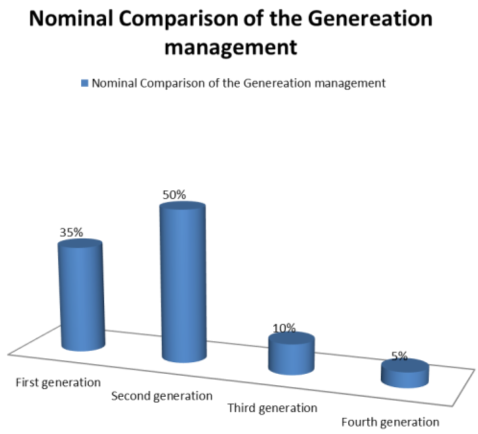
Source: The researcher Fig. (5)

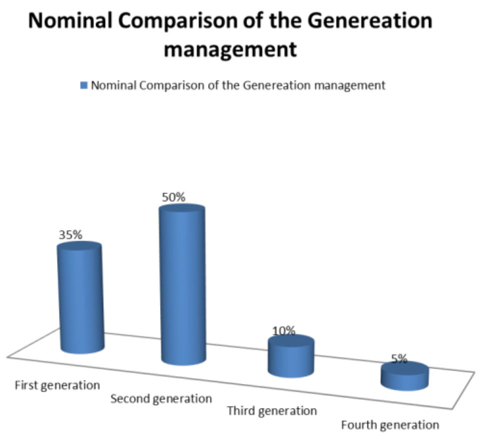
This indicator is a useful indicators at the level of the actors of the family, since equal pay is different from the equal profits that require taking into account the seniority in the work.

The wage criteria for family members- differs from one company to another, as some distinguish between newly joined children and those who have worked for years. These standards appear to be fair from the administration's point of view. If equality occurs, in cases of emotional arousal, it produces a sense of resentment and discomfort among the children, which results in a low level of performance in the family members and a hidden conflict that soon will appear after a first collision (Family Business Network of the Gulf Cooperation Council, Aug 2016), (salman, 2012).

.The ratio of equal pay in Lebanese family businesses reaches 62.54%. And it is skillfully linked to 66.83% and profits are equally distributed by 70.42%.

Generation management Chart



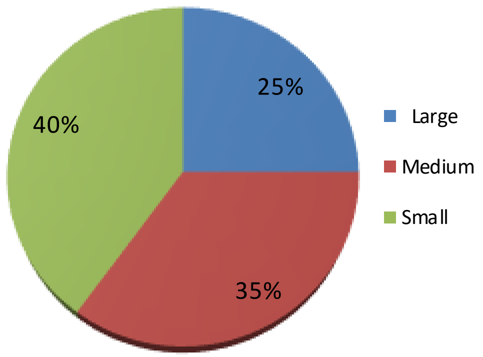


Source: Lebanese Science Journal, Vol. 15, No. 2, 2014 Fig. (6)

The chart shows the percentage of generation management:
The first generation 35%.
The second generation 50%.
The third generation 10%. And the fourth generation 5%.

These percentages confirms the succession of generations in Lebanese family businesses (Family Business Network of the Gulf Cooperation Council, Aug 2016), (AlHayat, 2014), (Bizri, 2015), (Tharawat Magazine, 2014).

The size of Lebanese family businesses: Companies relative to size



Source: Lebanese Science Journal, Vol. 15, No. 2, 2014 Fig. (7)

Companies relative to size(number of workers)	
Large	>100
Medium	between 20 and 100
Small	10 to 20

This chart shows the size of the company relative to the number of workers:
Small: 10 to 20 workers
Medium: employing between 20 and 100 workers
Large: employing more than 100 workers
The chart shows that the size of large companies reached 25%, where more than 100 workers work in it.

And there are two large companies of food industry sector which is the sector at the top of other industrial sectors, we found 250 workers in the first and 500 workers in the second company.

There is no doubt that the number of workers, is a good measure of the size of the company, and it is a great variable in terms of its significance on the contribution of Lebanese family businesses to economic _and social development. We found 40% of small businesses employing between 10 and 20 workers. It should be noted that the scale of the number of workers in Lebanon is defined by eight workers as a measure for small businesses. But we have taken it from a scale of ten to twenty.

In the study sample, we found that medium-sized companies, employing 30 to 100 workers and its 35% and it returns to the 50's, 60's and 70's. This ratio is good compared to the age and size of the company. Medium-sized companies are the most prevalent in the Lebanese economic system.

The size of large companies with more than 100 workers is 25%. It is considered a large company compared to the size of Lebanon and its population, which have branches scattered and spread across the Lebanese territory. These companies date back to the period (1950-1980).

Interviews

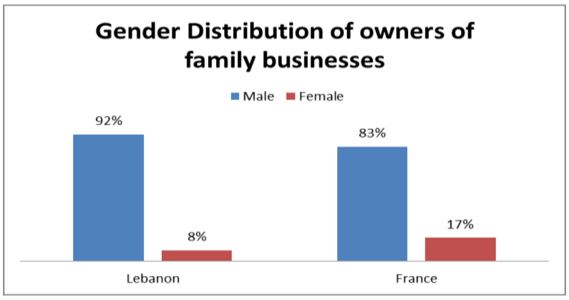
When asking Jean Marc Inga the Executive Director in Elcir and the founding partner in Inco Capital explaining his career in the family Elcir company founded by his father in the year 1956 without any investment family: "my father worked very hard and he know two people older than him, own capital and were prepared to establish an industry dealing with wood. The company generated as a result of a friendship between these several people, but every day, it is very important to put friendship aside. In 1976, the company expanded and became known in Lebanon. But this year has been hard on us because of war and conflict, where the factory was destroyed. Under these circumstances, it was supposed to quit, but my dad insisted on rebuilding the factory, borrowed from 14 banks to secure funds. In 1990, the company is able to pay the funds borrowed. Once again, the factory was destroyed, and again, my dad borrowed money from banks and rebuilt the factory. In the year 2014, our company began to export goods to the Gulf and Egypt, France and Switzerland.

As he drew that "family businesses keep more successful because a sense of responsibility brings to its members and work harder and better planning in order to maintain the family company. In tough times, more excited to keep their company alive because they pay out of their own pockets."

Turning to the difficulties faced by family businesses, noting that "it is necessary to convince the individual to work on his family and that he loves and not advise him to get away from her because he put his future. And requires work within a family company dealing with family members who may have another vision of the world and how it works. And may receive cash from other family members, so you will have to create harmony and a high level of tolerance of criticism. In Union is continuity. Everyone respects each other and focused responsibilities and forgets itself and thinks exclusively in the interest of the company. My advice is having consultants from outside the family to put forth new ideas and strategies to improve the company.

And when asking Dr. Fadi El-Gemayel, the president of the Association of Industrialists and the Director General of Gemayel Freres, explained the important role played by family businesses globally has always been a strong drive for the economy and remains to this day in terms of revenues and employment and their contribution to high proportions of gross domestic product. And many such examples, the most successful companies in various sectors in family companies. Perhaps the most prominent challenges facing companies is the need to keep abreast of changes in the various details of our lives and move quickly to keep up with the existing innovation while maintaining a central decision contrary to what some thinks, knowing that no one can expect the results of changes to our lives.

Comparison between the Lebanese and France system according to gender distribution of owners of family Business



Source: Lebanese Science Journal, Vol. 15, No. 2, 2014 Fig. (8)

The chart shows: In Lebanon, the female owners represent 8% and 92% for males, while in France the female owners represent 17% and 83% for males (El-Chaarani, H. 2012).

Governance is one of the most important solutions to the problems of family business continuity

Governance is defined as a form of discipline and organization of social work that combines contradictory: society and family (Qaroub, 2014), (Bechara, 2014) (Saidi, july 2012).

Family businesses may have some conflict issues such as ownership, profit ratios, hiring a family member, and other matters that make governance urgent, even if the company is behaving like an institution and still in the first and second generation (Qaroub, 2014), (Bechara, 2014) (salman, 2012), (Family Business Network of the Gulf Cooperation Council, Aug 2016), (Saidi, july 2012) (Hakim, 2014), (Qasar, 2017).

Governance comes as a result of the transformations and changes undergone by the family company, because this transformation leads to the partnership of the sons or brotherhood partnership, and since the real actors are the source of authority and decision and realize that the partnership between relatives should continue, They must move towards goals and systems that keep pace with development and draw a regulatory framework that keeps the family and society from collapse and disintegration (Qaroub, 2014), (Bechara, 2014), (Saidi, july 2012).

These transformations in a family company can elevate the society that is governed by a voice into a society governed by several voices, moving it from unilateralism to pluralism, to form a state of integration that is in keeping with modernity, to put the dominant class in a position of confrontation with distant vision, Family company (Qaroub, 2014), (Bechara, 2014).

Traditionally, large family businesses that have reached or are in the third generation tend to adopt a governance system that controls all processes and challenges faced by the family, whether in conflicts over ownership, leadership, how family members are employed, Family, or even the establishment of family and administrative councils (Qaroub, 2014), (Bechara, 2014).

Over time, a company seeking maturity is bound to develop its management and embrace the principle of transparency and clarity over its breadth. It can be said that the arrival of the company to the threshold of the second generation is a strong motivation to activate the system of corporate governance, and this is closely linked to the age of the company and the size of the known growth and expansion of markets and geographical spread, which calls for greater clarity and transparency in administrative processes , (Saidi, july 2012), (Qaroub, 2014), (Bechara, 2014), (AlHayat, 2014), (Bizri, 2015), (Tharawat Magazine, 2014), (Bechara, 2013).

Governance in Lebanese Family Businesses

Lebanese family businesses have reached a level of growth and administrative complexity of 48%, which necessitates the adoption of the principle of good governance to maintain its continuity. Thus, 52% of our Lebanese companies did not reach this stage because they did not reach the stage that requires such procedures or expansion and growth in the size of the business. It is important to note that this does not negate the existence of professional management, administrative structure and organization, but at the level of size, especially since the size of Lebanese family businesses is 43% average and average age is 40 years (Qaroub, 2014), (Bechara, 2014), (Saidi, july 2012).

The more the company grew and the family grew and became more complex, the need arose for a system of governance that lay out frameworks and structure for matters related to work and organized the family relationship with the company (Qaroub, 2014), (Bechara, 2014), (Saidi, july 2012).

An example of Successful Lebanese Family Business

Al Rifaee Roastery company profile

Company Name:	**AL Rifai Roastery**
Business Type:	**Manufacturer**
Product/ Service:	**AL Rifai's mission is to become a world leader in the nuts industry, and a top of mind brand name when thinking of nuts and savory products.**
Company Address:	**675 Saeb Salam Avenue, Beirut, Greater Beirut, Lebanon**
No. of Total Employees:	**101 - 500 People**
Year Established:	**1948**
Legal Representative/Business Owner:	**Mr. Mohamed Al Rifai**
Main Markets:	**Mid East and Europe**
Total Annual Sales Volume:	**US$10 Million - US$50 Million**
No. of R&D Staff:	**5 - 10 People**
Contract Manufacturing:	**"Our manufacturing plant is now registered by QMI under certificate # 0008402:1033821 to HACCP standards thanks to Management practices and to our robust manufacturing team. OEM Service Offered**

Source: The researcher Fig. (9)

Results Lesson learnt from the paper

- The nature of male inheritance was predominant.
- Family businesses sustain success and survive more because of the sense of responsibility and willingness to run the business.
- In tough times, more excited to keep their company alive because they pay out of their own pockets.

- Using of emotional intelligence and using of professional HR practices from top level to the lower level through spreading the responsibility inside the business. Which in turn drives earnings to the family business.
- Family business cannot be isolated from the external environment
- During crises or financial problems Lebanese family businesses have to minimize the use of debt, which is considered as a negative key factor.

Conclusions

I considered this article focus on main source of Human Resource Capital composed of family members who put their skills and will to run their business and drives earnings and success to the family business.

Family businesses in Lebanon have succeeded despite the period of unrest in Lebanon and the region as a whole, and it continues to this day. These companies have always looked for opportunities to grow their business and to look at long term.

The family business has become an attraction for skilled family members who has certificates and specialized in industrial engineering, financial management, accounting, business administration and marketing.

We emphasize the need to update the governance structure every three years. And that Lebanese companies adopt the principle of governance at an early stage, based on advanced management science and the stage of collective work in organized and disciplined ways to avoid any disputes in the future.

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Brief biography

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He was the Chairman of the Library and Heritage Committee of the Association of Social Work for two years 2014-2015.

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He worked in Middle East Airlines AirLiban in Commercial Department in reservations Section 2008-2012.

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The Family Business Attributes
(Case study: Urban Family Business in South Jakarta)

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Abstract

Jakarta has long been described as 'melting pot' of Indonesia, in which millions of people from all over the country pursuing their fortune here. Some of those new urban dwellers make a living from business ranging from small food stall to big housing construction company and, eventually, the business is transformed into a family business when they start to include their family in the management. However, the family business research which conducted in Jakarta is still scant and overly focused on case studies. This condition would create difficulties in conducting large-scale analysis due to lack of generalization. This paper would explore the general attributes of the family business as the basis of future family business research in Jakarta. South Jakarta is selected as the location of the study due to the area is known as the center of commercial activities in Jakarta. The study would employ the modified framework of Nam and Herbert (1999) family business characteristics and key success factor. The study reveals that even though the majority of family business owners in Jakarta are migrants, they are more integrated into the general society. Besides that, even though the group collectivism of the family business owners in Jakarta exists, they are not possessing less organizational professionalism. Finally, the respondents believe that their success is the result of their own personal capabilities rather than as a result of business management related practices.

Keywords: General Attributes, Key Success Factors, Urban Area, Family Business, South Jakarta

Introduction

The idea of 'Jakarta dream' has attracted many people from all over Indonesia for a long time (Harahap, 2017). As the capital of Indonesia, Jakarta promises abundant opportunity for many people to have a better life. Therefore there has been a great influx of migration to this metropolitan city from time to time (Wajdi, Van Wissen, and Mulder, 2015). They come to the city to seek better employment opportunity and even business opportunity. Some of them successfully established their own business and this phenomenon has made Jakarta as a vibrant multiethnic business city (Handaru, Parimita, and Subekti, 2014). There is a significant number of these business people who employ their family members as part of the management thus their business could be classified as a fully functioned family business. Family businesses are playing a crucial role in shaping Indonesian economy. The number of family business in Indonesia is staggering. It is recorded that 95 percent of Indonesian company could be classified as a family business (Pricewaterhouse Coopers, 2014). Moreover, family businesses account for approximately 40 percent of the market capitalization of the top 125 Indonesian listed companies. They dominate key industries, especially real estate, agriculture, energy, and consumer goods (Koh, Tong, and Walterman, 2012). Surprisingly almost all of the large family business corporation in Indonesia are establishing headquarter in Jakarta since their founder operated their business for the first time in this city. Besides that, there is an abundant number of family-based micro, small, and medium enterprise which also operate here.

Despite of strong presence of family business in the city, previously conducted research only examine specific case study in the level of company (Tsamenyi, Noormansyah, and Uddin, 2008) or financial analysis of Indonesian large family business corporation (Achmad, Rusmin, Neilson, and Tower, 2009; Jiang and Peng, 2011; Noordin and Law, 2008). Thus it can be concluded that the family business research which conducted in Jakarta is still scant and overly focused on presented case studies which cause difficulties in conducting large-scale analysis due to lack of generalization. In experimental and survey research, generalizing claims are straightforward and represent the explanation or generalization schema which served as the basis of scientific reasoning (Payne and Williams, 2005). In order to generalize family business in Jakarta as an appropriate observation object, the general attributes or characteristics of the family business are need to be defined. The problem would lead to the main research question in this study; what are the general attributes or characteristics of the family business in Jakarta?

The study would be beneficial for the researcher as the basis of analysis of any case study in the lower level of analysis (company, ethnic group, business type, etc.). Hence, an exploratory study is needed to identify the general family business attributes in Jakarta. The exploratory study would need an acknowledge framework in family business research and, after conducting a review of the prominent family business journals, the research framework from Nam and Herbert (1999) is selected as the benchmark. The framework is selected because the study put a strong emphasis on cultural characteristics which relevant to the case of Jakarta since Jakarta is a multicultural city and family businesses in Jakarta also owned by people from different ethnicity.

There is a minor modification of the original study in order to adapt to Indonesian respondent culture due to some of the original questions would be considered ‘too personal’ for them. The object of this study is the family business owners which operate their business in South Jakarta. South Jakarta is selected as the location of the study because the area is considered as the important commercial center in Jakarta (Handaru et al., 2014). The study would employ survey research method which presents primary data from a questionnaire survey of 101 family business owners in South Jakarta. The data would be exhibited by using descriptive statistics method to provide the description of the attributes and key success factor of South Jakarta's family business. Besides that, the chi-square test is also included in the analysis to test the important attributes of the family business which have a significant correlation towards net income. The structure of this paper also includes literature review as the theoretical foundation, research methodology, analysis of the survey, as well as research conclusion and implication.

Literature Review

The family business research in Asia Pacific region is essential due to several reasons; the economies in this region are influenced by family business, each country own their unique characteristics, the countries are at the stage of institutional development, and the economic growth in the region is high (Sharma and Chua, 2013). Each country in the region exhibits their own special characteristics as a result of the moderating effect of cultural influence (Gupta and Levenburg, 2012). Previous research has shown that ethnicity, as the manifestation of cultural influence, is affecting the entrepreneurial process of a family business (Harris, 2009). The sense of collectivism in a certain ethnic group may create solidarity and readiness to sacrifice for supporting in-group family member (Marin and Marin, 2009). The support itself could be manifested as moral support in term of venture preparation, decisions to start a business (Chang, Memili, Chrisman, Kellermanns, and Chua, 2009), and even financial support (Csákné Filep and Karmazin, 2016).

The theoretical framework of cultural influence in a family business is relevant in the context of family business in Jakarta. As a diverse and multicultural city, Jakarta is a multiethnic city which composed of a different migrant ethnic group from all over the country in which some of them are establishing their business here with a strong connection to their own ethnic group (Laquian, 1996). Thus it can be concluded that the theoretical framework is relevant and applicable to the family business research in Jakarta. Based on the aforementioned explanation, the general characteristics or attributes of the family business in Jakarta are affected mostly by the cultural factors. Hence it is essential to develop measurement instruments which could capture the cultural elements of a family business. Nam and Herbert (1999) have conducted an exploratory study on Korean family business in the United States and they have developed the instruments to identify the characteristics of family businesses with a strong emphasis on cultural aspect. They categorized their study into ethnic business, general family business, ownership and succession planning, strategic planning, as well as conflict and communication.

The ethnic business component in the research has depicted the dynamics of a migrant family business owners which captures inter-ethnic relationship as mentioned by Gomez (2007). Besides ethnicity feature, the general family business characteristics component in this research also mention participation level of family members. The participation of family members in the business has long been agreed by researchers as the main differentiator from a non-family business. However, Chua, Chrisman, and Sharma (1999) posit that vision and intention to shape and pursue the vision is the main theoretical differentiator of family business and their research instruments have captured the level of family participation along with goals and vision altogether. In addition to that, the other research instruments which considered relevant are gender and succession planning. Both aspects also emerge in previously conducted research by Gupta and Levenburg (2012) and Lussier and Sonfield (2004). Finally, the key success factor analysis is the last essential element which included in the study. A family business may define their own success according to them and they may perceive their success factor differently from each other (Petlina, 2016).

Based on the aforementioned review, the study would adapt Nam and Herbert (1999) research framework due to their research instruments has captured numerous essential elements of family business characteristics. Hence, the framework would able to describe the characteristics of family business owner thoroughly with a strong emphasis on cultural aspect.

Methodology

The study would adapt Nam and Herbert (1999) research to describe the attributes of the family business in Jakarta by using survey research method. The first stage of the research adaptation is by translating the questionnaire from English (as the original language) to Indonesian. The translation itself supervised by language expert to avoid misinterpretation. After conducting questionnaire pre-test to Indonesian respondent, it was found that the translation was easily understood and the respondents have provided the desired response. Hence, the questionnaire questions could be used in the study. The next step would be adapting the research context to the Indonesian setting. After consulting with research expert from Indonesia, there were several original research questions and responses which modified or omitted to adapt to Indonesian socio-cultural context. Some of the irrelevant questions such as English language ability is omitted due to the research is targeting Indonesian citizen who speaks Indonesian language, while some modification also conducted in the questionnaire responses such as the original response on business purpose is changed from 'to contribute to Korea's economy' to 'to contribute to homeland economy' (refer to original homeland of business owner).

The questionnaire of the survey itself comprises of three sections. The first section would describe the personal and business profile followed by the second section which describes all attributes of family business and the last section would describe the key success factor in their family business. This survey would use both close-ended and open-ended questions in the questionnaire. The majority of survey questions are closed-ended while the open-ended questions are used specifically to identify the key success factor of their business and firm's net income. The description of variables can be seen in Table 1.

Table 1 Description of Variables

Variable	Sub-Variable	Measurement Instruments
Profile	Personal Profile	1. Age of owners
		2. Education level
		3. Generation of business
		4. Owner's gender
	Business Profile	1. Type of business
		2. Age of family business
		3. Number of employees
		4. Type of ownership
Family Business Attributes	Ethnic business	1. Ethnicity background
		2. Business purpose
		3. Source of funding
		4. Employee's ethnicity
		5. New employee hiring traits
		6. Company's main stressor
	General Family Business	1. The existence of unpaid family
		2. Family members who work in the business
		3. Treatment of women
	Strategic Planning	1. Target customer
		2. Main competitor
		3. Where to get important information
		4. Possession of goals or objectives
		5. Possession of written vision and mission
	Conflict & Communication	1. Possession of clear family rules
		2. Held regular family meeting
		3. Family fighting
		4. Good harmony in the family
Key Success Factors		The key of success for the business according to the owner (open-ended question)
Net Income		Firm's net income in 2016 (open-ended question)

Source: author's evaluation based on the conducted research.

The questionnaires were distributed to selected 220 family business owners in South Jakarta on October 21st, 2017. The respondents should be a family business owners which employ more than one family member (Astrachan and Astrachan, 1993) who operate their business in South Jakarta. South Jakarta is selected as the location of the study due to the area is known for its commercial importance in Jakarta. Thus, the criteria of the respondent are family business owners which establish their business in South Jakarta and employ more than one family member. The family business owner who meet the aforementioned criteria then selected from the Indonesian family business association database as a respondent.

The questionnaire was created digitally by using google forms, an online survey builder application and distributed digitally to 220 respondents via email and WhatsApp messenger. The response rate of the survey could be considered as moderately good in which 101 questionnaires were returned completely. The response rate is considered adequate and consistent with the mean response rate for published studies (34 percent) as implied by Fulton (2016). The research itself would use descriptive statistics method of frequency distribution as the main analysis besides that, the chi-square test is also included in the analysis to test the important attributes which have a significant correlation on net income.

Results

This section would discuss research findings based on the sample analysis which includes descriptive statistics of the family business general attributes and key success factors.

Sample Characteristics

The characteristics of the sample comprised of the personal profile and the business profile of respondents. As depicted in Table 2, the majority of the business owners are coming from relatively young age group which is from 30 to 39 years old. Besides young, the business owners are also well educated in which most of them holds Bachelor degree. With respect to generation of business, the majority of respondents are in their first generation. Finally, the dominant gender of the respondents in the sample are male. Hence, it can be concluded that family business owners in South Jakarta are characterized by relatively young age, well educated, first-generation business people, and male-dominated. Their profile reflects the spirit of young and educated people who build their own family business.

Table 2. Personal Profiles of Respondents

Personal Profile			
Age of Owners	***Number (%)***	***Educational Level***	***Number (%)***
Less than 30 years old	0 (0%)	Elementary School	6 (6%)
30-39 years old	39 (38%)	Junior High School	2 (2%)
40-49 years old	23 (23%)	High School	15 (15%)
50-59 years old	23 (23%)	Diploma/ College	9 (9%)
60-69 years old	13 (13%)	Bachelor	54 (53%)
More than 70 years old	3 (3%)	Master	15 (15%)
Generation of Business	***Number (%)***	***Gender***	***Frequency (%)***
First Generation	68 (67%)	Male	75 (74%)
Second Generation	29 (29%)	Female	26 (26%)
Third Generation	4 (4%)		

Source: Author's calculation based on the conducted research in November 2017.

Table 3 describes the profile of family businesses in South Jakarta which characterized by their high participation in food services business and retail trade. Currently, food services business (restaurant and catering) is popular among South Jakarta business people hence the sample captured the phenomenon perfectly. The majority of family business age in South Jakarta is between 1 to 5 years followed by 6 to 10 years. Thus, it could be considered that the majority of the sample is at their relatively young age of business. The majority of family business also employ a small number of employees which is 1 to 5 people and solely owned by the owners. This finding is consistent with the earlier finding regarding the business age. The majority of the business owners are preferring to employ a small number of the employee due to the age of their firm are relatively young. Thus efficiency is becoming their main priority and employing a sufficient number of employees are considered as the most efficient business decision to reduce expense. Most of the business owners are also prefer to own their firm personally. This individualistic trait may represent the character of young Indonesian urban entrepreneur which prefer to own and manage their business personally so that they could manage their business freely and enjoy the profit personally.

Table 3. Business Profiles of Respondents

Business Profile			
Type of Business	*Frequency (%)*	*Age of Family Business*	
Food services	19 (18%)	*Years*	*Frequency (%)*
Retail trade (includes grocery)	14 (14%)	1-5 years	37 (36%)
General contractor	13 (13%)	6-10 years	23 (23%)
Other services	10 (10%)	11-15 years	13 (13%)
Construction	7 (7%)	16-20 years	12 (12%)
Manufacturing	7 (7%)	More than 21 years	16 (16%)
Wholesaling	6 (6%)		
Other classification	25 (32%)		
Number of Employees	*Frequency (%)*	*Type of Ownership*	*Frequency (%)*
1-5 people	39 (38%)	Sole proprietor	77 (76%)
More than 40 people	18 (18%)	Partnership	20 (20%)
11-20 people	15 (15%)	Corporation	4 (4%)
21-40 people	15 (15%)		
6-10 people	14 (14%)		

Source: Author's calculation based on the conducted research in November 2017.

Family Business Attributes

The analysis of family business attributes would be divided into five level of analysis based on Nam and Herbert (1999) classification which comprise of ethnic business, general family business, ownership and succession planning, strategic planning, as well as conflict and communication.

Ethnic Business. Table 4 exhibits the analysis of ethnic business in this study. As mentioned earlier in the introduction, Jakarta is a multi-ethnic city and the study reveals that the majority of family business owners in the sample are Javanese. The majority of family business owners could be considered as self-sufficient in which they are funding their business from their own personal saving. Even though the main purpose of their business is 'to make money', there are some business owners who started to put themselves as 'caretakers' who socially responsible to others. Besides the owners, the majority of the employees are also Javanese but interestingly, the owners are not considered ethnic similarity as the main criterion to hire a new employee. They perceive responsibility as the main criterion. Finally, the competition has become the main stressor of the majority of family business in Jakarta.

The previously discussed findings are describing the phenomenon of Javanese migrant in Jakarta perfectly and providing insights about the characteristics of a Javanese family business. The Javanese people are not originating from Jakarta. They are migrants who come from Central Java and East Java province who come to Jakarta to find better working or business opportunities. The best place to start a business in Jakarta is in South Jakarta as the center of commercial activity. They are known as an independent and self-sufficient migrant which rarely received financial support from their family. Even though they do not receive adequate financial support, the sense of solidarity from relatives or friends who have settled in Jakarta is the main factor which allows them to survive. Most of this newly arrived migrants are working for other people at first and when their saving is enough to start their very own business, they will leave their job. The number of Javanese workers and business people in Jakarta are huge but they still have a strong connection to their homeland hence they often hired people from the same village or town in their business as a gesture of social responsibility.

Table 4. Ethnic Business Attribute

Ethnic Business			
Ethnicity Background	***Frequency (%)***	***Money Source***	***Frequency (%)***
Javanese	56 (55%)	Personal savings	43 (42%)
Sundanese	17 (17%)	Bank in Jakarta	29 (29%)
Chinese	13 (13%)	Family or relatives	19 (19%)
Minang	5 (5%)	Friends	5 (5%)
Other	10 (20%)	Other financial institution	2 (2%)
		Other sources	2 (2%)
		Bank in the hometown	1 (1%)
Purpose	***Frequency (%)***	***Employee's Ethnicity***	***Frequency (%)***
To make more money	26 (25%)	Javanese	46 (45%)
To be socially responsible	24 (24%)	Mixed ethnicity	36 (36%)
To succeed in business	23 (23%)	Sundanese	17 (17%)
To own business	13 (13%)	Batak	1 (1%)
To contribute to homeland's economy	12 (12%)	Maduranese	1 (1%)
To overcome disadvantage in Indonesian markets	2 (2%)		
Other reason	1 (1%)		
New Employee Hiring Traits	***Frequency (%)***	***Most Company Stressor***	***Frequency (%)***
Strong responsibility	67 (66%)	Competition	40 (39%)
Diligent employee	12 (12%)	Employee relations	22 (22%)
Good attitude	10 (10%)	Money/Financial	18 (18%)
Easy to deal with	6 (6%)	Customer relations	8 (8%)
Honest	4 (4%)	Other stressor	7 (7%)
Same culture	2 (2%)	Economics condition in homeland	5 (5%)
		Cultural difference	1 (1%)

Source: Author's calculation based on the conducted research in November 2017.

General Family Business. The general attributes of a family business in South Jakarta, as depicted in Table 5, are divided into the number of family worker, number of unpaid family worker, and treatment of female family members with regard to their gender. The survey reveals that the majority of the family workers in the business are ‘other relatives’ followed by the ‘spouse’. The high number of ‘other relative’ participation in the business may represent the generosity of business owners which accept distance relative to work in their firm as part of their social responsibility toward their family in the homeland. Besides that the finding also consistent with Van Auken and Werbel (2006) which mentioned the importance of the spousal role, in term of their emotional support, in a family business. They even mentioned that their emotional support has direct relationship toward financial performance. Besides that, it is revealed that most of the firms also employed unpaid family members. The existence of unpaid family worker represents unique characteristics of family bonding in the business in which family member would not have any problem if they are not regularly paid, due to they will receive the financial compensation in a different manner. In term of treatment of female family members in the business, almost all business owners treat them fairly without regard to their gender. Hence, the female family members could participate in their business freely without any form of discrimination.

Table 5. General Family Business Attributes

General Family Business			
Number of family worker	***Frequency (%)***	***Unpaid family worker***	***Frequency (%)***
Other relative	26 (16%)	Yes	54 (53%)
Spouse	24 (15%)	No	47 (47%)
Cousin	24 (15%)		
Son	15 (9%)		
Daughter	14 (9%)	***Treat woman without regard to gender***	***Frequency (%)***
Mother	13 (8%)	Yes	94 (93%)
Brother	13 (8%)	No	7 (7%)
Sister	9 (6%)		
Father	9 (5%)		
Uncle	8 (5%)		
Aunt	7 (4%)		

Source: Author’s calculation based on the conducted research in November 2017.

Ownership and Succession Planning. As can be seen from Table 6, the majority of the business in the sample are owned by one family. Hence it can be concluded that multi-family ownership is not common in a family business who operates in South Jakarta. In term of succession planning, in turn, only half of the respondents who have clear succession planning. Thus, it can be inferred that only half of the respondents consider succession as their concern due to most of the respondents are at their early stage of business, therefore they have not considered very well about their succession plans.

Table 6. Ownership and Succession Planning Attributes

Ownership & Succession Planning			
Ownership	***Frequency (%)***	***Have succession planning***	***Frequency (%)***
1 family	81 (80%)	Yes	51 (50%)
2 families	12 (12%)	No	50 (50%)
More than 3 families	8 (8%)		

Source: Author's calculation based on the conducted research in November 2017.

Strategic planning attribute. Table 7 depicts the strategic planning attributes of the family business. According to the survey, the majority of the business owners are getting the information from business colleague followed by family. This could be a sign that most of the business owners who participate in the survey are rely heavily on external information who provided by business colleague rather than from their family. This could be a sign that most of the respondent's family are not engaging in similar business activities hence, they could not provide relevant business information to them. In term of the competitor, the majority of family business in the sample are not seen business rivalry from ethnicity background, however, there is a small number of respondents who perceive ethnic Chinese as their main competitor. Seeing competition based on ethnicity could be considered unprofessional in common business practice, but in turn, there is still a small number of people in the survey which labeling certain ethnicity as their competitor. The majority of the respondents also aware of their business goals and objectives but the percentage is decreasing drastically when they asked about the possession of their vision and mission in business. This could be a sign that most of the family business aware of their short-term goals but they are unsure about the long-term business strategy. Finally, almost all of the respondents are not targeting certain ethnicity to market their product.

The strategic planning attributes of Jakarta's family is in contrast with Nam and Herbert (1999) findings with respect to the main competitor and target customer components. They found that the majority of Korean migrants in the United States considered other Korean as their competitor and the majority of them are targeting specific ethnicity as the main customer. Even though most of the respondents in Jakarta are migrants, they are coming from the same country. Thus the cultural gap between the migrants and their society in Jakarta are not really wide. This could be a sign that most of the migrants business owners in Jakarta have integrated very well into the society. Hence, they are not perceiving competitor based on ethnicity or targeting a specific customer based on their ethnicity.

Table 7. Strategic Planning Attributes

Strategic Planning			
Where to get important information	***Frequency (%)***	***Main Competitor***	***Frequency (%)***
Business Colleague	53 (52%)	Do not see business rivalry from ethnicity background	78 (77%)
Family	17 (17%)	Chinese	17 (17%)
Friend	15 (15%)	Sundanese	3 (3%)
Internet	6 (6%)	Javanese	2 (2%)
Government	4 (4%)	Batak	1 (1%)
Consultant	3 (3%)		
Other	3 (3%)		

Have Written Goals/Objectives	***Frequency (%)***	***Have Written Mission/Vision***	***Frequency (%)***
Yes	90 (89%)	Yes	53 (52%)
No	11 (11%)	No	48 (48%)

Target Customer	***Frequency (%)***
All ethnicity	100 (99%)
Chinese	1 (1%)

Source: Author's calculation based on the conducted research in November 2017.

Conflict and Communication Attribute.

Conflict is commonly found in a family. In order to avoid conflict and to build good harmony between family members, a good communication must be built. Table 8 depicts the conflict and communication attributes of a family business. The survey reveals that most of the respondents already enforce clear family rules. Family fights, in turn, are common to them. Besides that, only small percentage of the respondents hold a regular family meeting. Even though family fighting is common to them and they rarely held a regular meeting, they claim that they are still in a good harmony. The clarity of family rules and regular family meeting are the manifestation of family professionalism in the business. The findings reveal that most of the respondents have applied basic family professionalism traits in their family and it could serve as stepping stone towards a professional family business management practice.

Table 8. Conflict and Communication Attributes

Conflict & Communication			
Clear family rules	***Frequency (%)***	***Some family fighting***	***Frequency (%)***
Yes	86 (85%)	Yes	72 (71%)
No	15 (15%)	No	29 (29%)
Regular family meetings	***Frequency (%)***	***Good harmony***	***Frequency (%)***
Yes	33 (33%)	Yes	92 (91%)
No	68 (67%)	No	9 (9%)

Source: Author's calculation based on the conducted research in November 2017.

After describing the attributes or the characteristics of the family business in South Jakarta, further analysis is needed to determine the attributes which have an association with net income. The chi-square test is employed in the analysis to determine such association. The study reveals that the type of ownership, vision, and mission, number of employees, and regular meeting are having a significant association with net income (as depicted in Table 9).

Table 9. The Attributes of Family Business which have Significant Association toward Net Income

Source	Value	df	Sig.
Type of Ownership	18.470	8	.018
Vision and Mission	16.277	4	.003
Number of employee	75.480	16	.000
Regular meeting	17.674	4	.001

Source: Author's calculation based on the conducted research in November 2017.

The type of ownership may have an association with net income. The finding is relevant to the fact that sole proprietor of a company may relatively enjoy a greater share of income rather than partnership. Besides the type of ownership, it is revealed that vision and mission, number of employees and regular meeting are the most important professional management practice which have significant association towards net income. If a family business is managed professionally, the income of the firm would also be affected in a positive way.

Key Success Factors

This study also employs open-ended questions to obtain information about factors which contribute to their success in business. During the survey, it is revealed that all of the respondents, surprisingly, claim that their business is already successful. Hence the analysis would include all respondents as the representation of a successful business. As depicted in Table 10, the dominant key success factor according to them is their diligence followed by honesty and service quality. From this findings, we can conclude that success according to them is related to personal factors (diligence and honesty) rather than as a result of business management related practices (service quality). According to them, success is a personal achievement which they successfully achieve as a result of their personal capabilities as business owners.

Table 10. Comparison between Personal Factors and Business Management Related Factors of The Family Business Key Success Factors

Personal Factors	*Response*	*Business Management Related Practices*	*Response*
Commitment	1	Business diversification	1
Consistency	6	Clear organization vision	2
Creativity	1	Consumer satisfaction	1
Diligence	**12**	Consumer trust	4
Faith	1	First generation vision	1
Focus	4	Innovation	3
Hard work	5	Manpower quality	5
Honesty	**10**	Network	3
Integrity	1	Organizational management	5
Knowledge	1	Product quality	4
Leadership	2	**Service Quality**	**7**
Marketing	4	Store location	1
Passion	3	Team work	2
Patience	3	Consensus	1
Responsibility	1		
Professionalism	1		
Tenacity	5		

Source: Author's calculation based on the conducted research in November 2017.

Conclusion

The general attributes or characteristics of the family business in Jakarta, which at first emerged as the main research question in this study, have already described and defined. The descriptive statistics analysis from 101 sample in this study has revealed numerous findings. The findings itself are categorized based on Nam and Herbert (1999) categorization which comprise of ethnic business, general family business, ownership and succession planning, strategic planning, conflict and communication, as well as key success factors.

Ethnic Business

From the ethnic business perspective, it is revealed that the family business in Jakarta is characterized by migrant business people who come from other provinces to start their business in the city. Even though they are not native to Jakarta, they are not considered cultural similarity as their main concern to hire a new employee since they have integrated very well into the society. Thus, they value responsibility more than cultural similarity. Besides that, these migrant business owners are, surprisingly, quite self-sufficient in which they rely on their personal savings to fund their business. They are the migrant entrepreneurs who do not rely on family support in establishing their business. Even though they are not supported by their family, they still demonstrate social responsibility toward their family and other people. However, fierce competition in the market has become their main stressor, therefore, family businesses in Jakarta need to be more competent externally (compete well in the market) and internally (handling their organization professionally).

General Family Business

General family business attributes in this study also reveal interesting finding in which the majority of family workers are coming from other relatives and spouse. This phenomenon is the representation of the role of business owners as 'caretaker' for all of the family in the homeland who needs a job. Besides that, the spousal role is also considered significant in the business and could be beneficial to the business since spousal emotional support could indirectly leverage business performance. The family business also employs unpaid family members. These family members are a very valuable asset to the company since they are willing to work without regularly paid however, business owners need to prepare other compensation to them as a reward for their service. The family businesses in this study also treat women family members who work in the business without regard to the gender. Hence it can be concluded that family businesses in this study are a modern but exhibiting strong traditional value of a family (caretaking, appreciating women, and supporting other family members).

Ownership and Succession Planning

Most of the business is owned by a single family. Hence it can be concluded that multi-family ownership is not common. In term of succession planning, the respondents do not consider succession planning as their top priority since their business is still at the 'young' stage. The finding is relevant to the respondent's profile which mostly composed of relatively 'young' family business which just operates for 1 to 5 years.

Strategic Planning

From the strategic planning perspective, the majority of family business owners in this study are obtaining information from a business colleague. The business owners also demonstrate a professional business attitude in which they are not perceiving competition based on ethnicity and they have known their short-term business goals. However, in term of the possession of long-term vision and mission, the percentage is dropping which could be an indication that the respondents are still unsure about their long-term plan.

Conflict and Communication

The conflict and communication attributes represent the internal condition of family within the business. It is revealed that the majority of the respondents claim that they have a clear family rule. Besides that, they rarely conducted a regular family meeting and, even though they experiencing family fighting, they claim that they are still in a good harmony.

Key Success Factors

The last analysis in this study is related to the key success factors. The study revealed that the majority of family business owners perceiving success as a personal achievement rather than an achievement which accomplished by their professional business and management practice.

Based on aforementioned explanation the family business attributes or characteristics in Jakarta is in contrast with the earlier finding. Nam and Herbert (1999) findings of the characteristics of Korean family business in Atlanta (United States) reflect that the Asian family business in the United States is more segregated toward general society while in the context of family business in Jakarta, the migrants business owners are more integrated toward the general society. Besides that, the findings also in contrast with Gupta and Levenburg (2012) findings in which even though the group collectivism of the family business owners are relatively high they are not possessing less organizational professionalism. The respondents have exhibited professional business traits in their attributes. Possessing professional business traits would have significant relationship toward their income and the chi-square analysis has revealed that vision and mission, number of employees and regular meeting are the most important professional management practice which have significant association towards net income.

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Brief biography

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Mr. Pramudya received Bachelor of Science in Human Geography from Universitas Gadjah Mada and Master of Management in Marketing Management from Universitas Indonesia (both in Indonesia) and currently he is pursuing his Doctoral degree at the Faculty of Business and Economics, the University of Pécs since September 2017. Mr. Pramudya previously worked as the manager of banking clearing system in Standard Chartered Bank Indonesia. He has a strong enthusiasm for family business research especially in the intergenerational succession strategies and the growth of a family business. Besides that, he also has experience in conducting organizational related research and marketing research.

ICBERD

3rd Parallel Session

Global Trends in the Hospitality Industry

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Abstract

A new segment, new technology, new expectations of quality appeared on the international hospitality market. Millennials have become the fastest growing customer segment. High quality service is the only way to ensure loyal customers for hotels. Innovative technology is a must have: electronic /mobile check-in time is here. Reputation Management is the focus of guest reviews and comments.

Know your guests, satisfy their needs and create your services around them is the best recipe of a successful hotel operation. Due to new technologies, and changes in guest behaviour, consumers' satisfaction is everything, but not easy.

One of the most important priorities in education is, to be able to provide the most up-to-date information to our students about their future professions.

Recent changes in the hospitality industry should be followed as well as the appearance of new legislative provisions, or latest technologies, for instance. This paper presents a pilot study which included six in-depth interviews with hospitality professionals from which an overall picture of 50 Hungarian hotels was gained.

Keywords: Innovative technology, Millenials, OTA's, Reputation Management, Real Time Marketing

Introduction

In recent years, consumer behaviour in the international hospitality sector has changed dramatically. The 'new' consumer the **Millennials** has become the fastest growing customer segment within the hospitality industry.

The term Millennials generally refers to the generation of people born between the early 1980s and 1990s, according to the Merriam-Webster Dictionary.

"Today's 86 million Millennials, born between 1980 and 2000, hold $200 billion in spending power and represent the most lucrative market for hoteliers."(Junvi Ola 2015)

Millennials, as the member of the newly formed consumer society, always has the problem with shortage of time. Therefore, all the solutions that are effective and fast mean the way to success. As a result, the importance of up-to-date information has increased.

According to Rauch (2014) this consumer segment is interested in utilizing technology to do things that many others have become accustomed to doing manually: checking in to hotels, making up their restaurant and bar bills and looking up places to eat, shop and play, to name a few.

In addition to wanting technology, Millennials have no problems speaking up. If what they are looking for is not handled to their liking, they will turn to Twitter, Facebook, Yelp or TripAdvisor to voice their complaints (Rauch, 2014).

If the hospitality industry wants to react immediately to the arising demand, they should be aware of the new emerging trends.

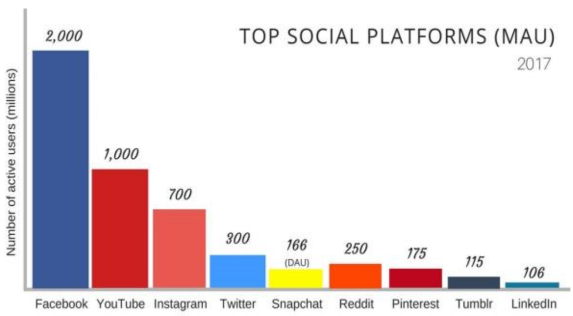
1. Innovative technology

This new segment of Millennials is very demanding and expects high quality services from commercial accommodations. Therefore, **customer service** is strongly highlighted among the new trends in the hospitality industry in 2015.

In the past years, the adaptation of the tools of electronic and information technology in the tourism industry forced the customers as well as the suppliers to keep learning. In the digital era, eg.: an electronic marketplace is not only the place where demand and supply meet, but it is a knowledge base as well.(Erdeiné Késmárky Gally Sz.,2015)

Due to the rapid changes in technology, the role of new online tools like social media and mobile applications formed a very strong influencing power on the customers' decision making procedure on travelling. (Chart1'Top Social Platforms in 2017)

Chart1'Top Social Platforms in 2017



Source: https://digitalmarketinginstitute.com/blog/2017-12-11-5-digital-marketing-trends-for-2018

"High tech, high touch" (Naisbitt, 1982) is the service, the e-tourist wants from hotels. Buhalis and Jun (2011) say, E-tourism represents the *paradigm-shift* experienced in the tourism industry as a result of the adoption of ICTs and the Internet

Innovative technology became one of the most important issues in the operation of hotels. Electronic check-in can be done either by mobile phone or by an Apple watch. But what is electronic check-in exactly?

Most hotels are offering it as a part of their "Loyal Guest" programme. Customers registered as Preferred/Privileged guests are sent key cards equipped with the latest identification technology that uses radio frequencies. On the day of a guest's confirmed arrival, a text message is relayed to his mobile device, carrying basic figures like room number, timing, etc. Upon his actual arrival, client does not need to confirm his stay at the Front Desk. He simply moves to his room and applies the key-card. (Sanghi 2014)

1.1. <u>Guests can use their mobile phones as the key to the hotel room</u>

Hilton Worldwide launched digital check-in with room selection technology, now available at more than 3,700 hotels, and worldwide by the end of this year.

This technology empowers Hilton HHonors members to check in via their HHonors profile on desktop, mobile or tablet and choose the exact location of their room - right down to the room number. (Hilton Worldwide,2014). Starwood is already offering mobile room key in a number of Aloft, Element and W hotels.

Mobile room keys bring the following benefits to both the guests and to the hotel (according to the brands and the door lock companies): Seamless Check-in, Reduced load on Front Desk, Convenience & Choice of Service for the Connected Guest, and Increased TripAdvisor Scores (Kinsella, 2015)

1.2. Apple Watch is the new hotel room key

The upcoming new Apple Watch (apple.com./2015) is a possible game changer for travelers everywhere: the era of losing a hotel cardkey may soon be gone. "Starwood hotels is developing an app for the Apple Watch that will allow hotel guests to use it to unlock their rooms. In honor of the recently revealed Apple Watch™ Accor is launching an Accorhotels iOS app available starting at the end of April". The Accorhotels app for Apple Watch™ will be available in ten languages and works in connection with the smartphone app. In addition to promoting hotels and destinations, the app will allow users to manage current bookings. (Accorhotels app for Apple Watch (2015)

If the hoteliers want to satisfy the guests' demand they have to be aware of the latest technologies. The most online specific products are the services of the tourism industry. Since the emergence of the Internet, travel planning (e.g., travel information search and booking) has always been one of the main reasons that people use the Internet. (Buhalis, 2003).

The cost of tours can be high, consequently, good prices always play an important role in the planning and selection of a holiday destination. Nowadays on-line travel agencies (OTA's) with their good prices and special travel packages come before hotels' websites in popularity. (Veres and Grotte, 2009) For consumers, price and quality are the basic condition for the selection and evaluation of the service, but at the same time, they tend to identify value with their own experiences, in which cases exploring, social relations, entertainment and aesthetics are of outstanding importance.(Kulcsár,2017)

2. Online travel agencies (OTA'S) versus direct booking

How to increase revenue and at the same time decrease the costs of OTAs is the question here. Distribution channels play a very important role in the hospitality sector. However, the commissions the hotels pay to the Online Travel Agencies can range from 15-30% and that causes problems by reaching the targeted REVPAR. ("Revenue per available room (RevPAR) is a performance metric used in the hotel industry and is calculated by multiplying a hotel's average daily room rate (ADR) by its occupancy rate." Investopedia)

So, the solution is to increase direct hotel bookings. The reach of OTAs has risen by 45% since 2008 in spite of the fact that travellers booking directly on the website is cheaper for hoteliers. The answer is simple; it has nothing to do with the travellers or the OTAs, but it is to do with the hotel website. (Patak, 2014).

OTAs like TripAdvisor, Expedia and Booking.com will clearly be listed on the first 4 results, when you look up accommodation. Patak (2014) says, that having an easy-to-navigate, effective and attractive website wherein everything from rates to rooms to services and packages are clearly highlighted. An excellent website with all important details and strong booking engine are the key to reclaiming victory over OTAs.

But, according to Matur (2014) as OTA commission checks continue to rise, small and mid-sized hoteliers are increasingly considering TripConnect as a viable platform to generate direct bookings.

3. Reputation Management

Now, hotel reputation is a picture painted with what travellers are saying online — in the form of online reviews on Yelp and TripAdvisor, comments and photos on Facebook and Instagram, search rankings and rich snippets on Google.(Bassig 2017)

According to Yu and Singh (2002) one of the major challenges for electronic commerce is how to found a relationship of trust between different parties.

Regardless of the sections of the national economy, high level of trust between partners is the key issue from the point of view of efficient and effective economic transactions. Eg.:It was also demonstrated by Baranyai (2017), who examined the importance of trust among the agricultural producers through statistical methods. (Baranyai 2017)

Creating trust is non-trivial, because the traditional physical or social means of trust cannot apply directly in virtual settings. In many cases, the parties involved may not ever have communicated before. Reputation systems seek to address the development of trust by recording the reputations of different parties. For reputation management, Tripadvisor is one of the most important platforms in the hospitality industry. But online comments and reviews can come e.g. from Facebook, Yahoo, Yelp and Expedia (OTA) as well.

Rauch (2014) suggests that hotels use only one tool instead of different ones for managing a property's reputation process. Based on his opinion, one of the means is Revinate as a complete, one-stop solution for reputation management instead of the cumbersome process of logging onto each platform and spending an exorbitant amount of time on a crucial yet time consuming aspect of the hotel industry.

Engaging with guests and responding to their needs publicly through these forums can go a long way in driving future bookings to the property.

3.1 <u>But what is revinate all about?</u>

Revinate, a San Francisco-based technology company that is reinventing the hotel guest experience ,has launched inGuest in Europe. inGuest brings together reservation (PMS) data and stay histories, with preferences, social media activity and guest feedback to surface comprehensive rich guests profile on a single platform. For the first time hoteliers can truly understand their guests and engage with them more effectively before, during and after their stays, increasing guest satisfaction and revenue. (Revinate.com, 2015)

As we can see above, apart from good quality service and interactive communication with potential guests, flexibility is a key issue for hoteliers these days. A good marketing plan for a given period of time is a must for each hotel. However, the fast changes in the macro environment requires flexibility from hotels. Real time marketing is the answer for this challenge.

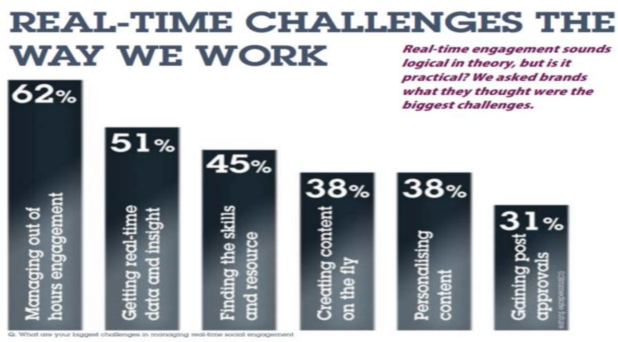
4. Real Time Marketing

According to Trackmaven (2015) "Real Time Marketing is marketing that is based on up- to- date events. Instead of creating a marketing plan in advance and executing it according to a fixed schedule, real time marketing is creating a strategy focused on current, relevant trends and immediate feedback from customers. The goal of real time marketing is to connect consumers with the product or service that they need now, in the moment."

Through social media (e.g. Twitter, Facebook, etc.) sites, companies can gain information about their segments. With this knowledge, in a few minutes, hotels can easily define their up-to-date marketing messages. But, the content must be valuable for the potential guests. If, hoteliers strategically structure their advertisements to reflect a current event (e.g. Formula1 after party, fashion show, etc.), their service may become more appealing to guests.

"On the other hand, just because a certain method of communication or strategy works on Facebook, doesn't mean it will work on Twitter or Google+. There needs to be specific training for each one, and skills developed based on the data received from each channel."(Ratcliff,2014) (Chart2': Real –Time Challenges)

Chart2': Real –Time Challenges



Source: https://econsultancy.com/blog/64560-the-challenges-of-real-time-marketing-in-social

The application of this type of marketing must take place on a regular basis and include guest-generated content. Whether it is Facebook or another social media tool, guests should be able to contact the hotel with an expectation that they will receive a response in a timely manner. Video campaigns (e.g. Flip to) on social media, when done properly, are proving to be successful for hoteliers looking to generate guest engagement. Flip.to allows hotels to connect with guests from the moment they make a reservation and to create a unique experience upon arrival. (Rauch, 2014).

Gary Vaynerchuk, a well-known Internet entrepreneur and author, famously said, "Content is king, but marketing is queen, and runs the household." Creating great content for your website and/or blog is helpful, but good content alone will not drive the results a hotel desires. A quality content marketing strategy sets a purpose behind the content. Despite the importance of content for SEO, it will only drive results and increase brand awareness when deploying content with a custom marketing strategy. (DeVoren and Herweg (2015).

5. Pilot Study: Research Methods and Findings

As part of a pilot study to explore the opinions of Hungarian hospitality professionals about their knowledge and use of technology in hotels, six in-depth interviews were undertaken in summer 2016. This enabled the researcher to gain insights into the practices of 50 hotels on the Hungarian market.

"Selling the Right Room to the Right Client at the Right Moment and the Right Price. On the Right Distribution Channel with the best commission efficiency" (Landman,2011). This is the task either of the General Manager, depends on the size or policy of the hotel, and/or the Revenue Manager.

They are the ones who should be well informed about the latest and the most efficient technological solutions in the sector. Therefore, I chose 6 professionals, from different types of hotels (independent hotel, thermal&wellness hotel, city hotel, small and big size hotel, hotel chains) who altogether represent 50 Hungarian Hotels.

These hotels have very strong positions on the Hungarian Hospitality market. My In-depth interviews were conducted face-to-face, and over the telephone to get a deeper insight to these specific new technologies.

5.1.<u>The interviewees</u>

1. **Director of Central Reservation and Revenue Management of Danubius Hotels Group**: I gained overall information about the 10 hotels in Budapest (2 have seperate revenue and sales due to the brand Hilton and Radisson), 10 hotels in the Countryside, and 24 hotels abroad, concerning my topic of new technologies. The company is on the market since 1972, and has a very strong position. (Later Danubius)

2. **Cluster Revenue Manager of Mamaison Hotel Andrássy Budapest, Residence Izabella Budapest, Starlight Suiten Hotel Budapest**. (3 hotels in Budapest) Mamaison Hotels & Residences brand is the part of the CPI, Czech **hotel group**, that operates total of 28 hotels in 5 countries. (Later Mamaison)

3. **General Manager of Opera Garden Hotel & Apartments (Budapest) –** independent small hotel with 35 rooms, high score on TripAdvisor (9.2), with its own mobile application system. (Later Opera Garden)

4. **Revenue & E-commerce Manager at Buddha-Bar Hotel Budapest Klotild Palace.** – 5 star special hotel – Buddha Bar concept. Here in Budapest it belongs to the Mellowmood Hotels Group. (Later BuddhaBar)

5. **General Manager of Aquaticum Debrecen Thermal & Wellness Hotel**** - Countryside-** It provides a very special tropical environment and a Mediterranean Aqua Park inside the hotel. (Later Aquaticum Debrecen)

6. **Head of online hotel and tourism division at BDO Ltd.**

(The company gives advices and assistance ont he fileds of hospitality investmnets, revenue management and online marketing) (Later BDO)

5.2.Apple Watch and/or Mobile Phones are the new hotel room key

All the interviewees in the pilot study had heard about this technology, but none of them use it. According to **Mamaison** this can be a special tailor-made service for a guest, but for the hotels from a financial point of view it is a great challenge. Return on Investment (ROI) is the key issue for the management.

All the professionals agree with the issue of ROI, and **BuddhaBar** says that the number of mobilephones' reservation are still not so high here in Hungary. On the other hand for a newly opened hotel it would be a good chance to apply this technology.

Danubius says that the application of the technology depends on the segments of the hotels. This technology is good for big city hotels, but not for the countryside ones. Most of their Millennials who come to Budapest,are not demanding for high tech, but parties and cheap prices.

Aquaticum Debrecen agrees with Danubius about the different needs of the segments. It is not worthwhile investing in such a technology in the countryside.

OperaGarden says that for small independent hotels apart from the financial issue, the present technical condition of the hotel and staff training are also playing a very important role.

According to **BDO** this technology is good for well-known hotel chains and newly opened hotels, but ROI is not measurable.

5.3.OTAs versus Direct Booking : TripConnect

Mamaison and Aquaticum Debrecen do not use this technology, it costs a lot (costs: business listing on TripAdvisor & CPC (ClickPerClick)).

All the participants agreed that this solution at the moment is good for the OTAs only, due to the amount of their rooms and strong financial background. They pay very low price for CPC, but hotels pay a lot.

Buddha Bar uses TripConnect, because the hotel operates on very high average rates, and therefore the ROI is also high.

Danubius uses this service only for 3 hotels in Budapest, later on they wish to have it for all the hotels in Budapest, but not for the countryside.

Opera Garden has just stopped TripConnect, because of the costs and the bad ROI. For small independent hotels this is not a good. solution, they would need support from TripAdvisor.

According to **BDO** this technology is good for well-known hotel chains, but not for individual hotels.

5.4.Reputation Management: Revinate: InGuest

The representatives of the hotels neither heard nor use this technology. **Mamaison** says In Guest is not good for small and middle size hotels, due to the lack of human- and financial resources, and technical background.

Buddha Bar and **Opera Garden** agrees with Mamaison, they do not want to use this technology in the future. Apart from the lack of resources, **Buddha Bar** says there is an ethical issue here: who can tell where the line is between privacy and taylor-made service?

Aquaticum Debrecen has exactly the same oppinion about this question.

According to **Danubius**, InGuest could increase reputation. **BDO** says, hotels in Hungary has serious challenges at the moment (eg.: lack of human resources), they are not ready for such a technology.

5.5.<u>Real Time Marketing</u>

Real Time Marketing: All the participants say that real time marketing needs a lot of time, a good professional team, and strong financial background. Hotels do not have capacity for this.
Buddha Bar and Danubius outsource these tasks.
BDO adds that the management of the hotels need measurable facts for ROI, and the activity of real time marketing can not be measured.

Summary

In recent years, consumer behaviour in the international hospitality sector has changed dramatically. The 'new' consumer the **Millennials** has become the fastest growing customer segment within the hospitality industry.

This new segment is very demanding and expects high quality services from commercial accommodation. Therefore, **customer service** is strongly highlighted among the new trends in the hospitality industry in 2015.

Innovative technology has become one of the most important issues in the operation of hotels. Electronic check-in can be done either by mobile phone or by an Apple watch.

Distribution channels play a very serious role in the hospitality sector. How to increase revenue and at the same time decrease the costs of OTAs is the question here.

A good marketing plan for a given period of time is a must for each hotel. However, the fast changes in the macro environment requires flexibility from the hotels.

Real time marketing is the answer for this challenge. The application of this type of marketing, must take place on a regular basis and include guest-generated content. Simply creating original content will not keep the SEO strategy current in 2015.

As part of a pilot study to explore the opinions of Hungarian hospitality professionals about their knowledge and use of technology in hotels, six in-depth interviews were undertaken in summer 2016. This enabled the researcher to gain insights into the practices of 50 hotels on the Hungarian market.

All the interviewees in the pilot study had heard about the "AppleWatch and MobilePhone as roomkey" technology, but none of them use it.

The participants agreed that TripConnect at the moment is good for the OTAs only, due to the amount of their rooms and strong financial background.

The representatives of the hotels neither heard nor use InGuest.

The management of the hotels need measurable facts for ROI, and the activity of real time marketing can not be measured.

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Brief Biography

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Dr. Judit Grotte, Associate Professor, is the founder and Head of International Hospitality Management Specialization in School of Tourism, Leisure and Hospitality. She used to work for more than 10 years in tourism and hospitality business. She was living in Austria, Holland and United States. Moreover her practice oriented active teaching, she presents her research results regularly in international conferences, and she is the co-editor of Journal of Tourism Research.

The possibilities of Influencer Marketing in FMCG sector

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Abstract

The aim of our paper is to determine a common ground for both influencers and companies on the topic of when and how to introduce influencer marketing. Influencer marketing, originated from Word of Mouth, is a way of persuading people to buy a product using endorsements (Jaakonmäki et al. 2017; Ionaid et al. 2015; Ward, 2016). With the appearance of online channels dedicated to enable free self-expression (for example, Twitter, YouTube, Facebook) the number of internet celebrities and influencers has grown significantly, resulting a higher level of influencer marketing.

Hungary is a relatively small market compared to US or Chinese market, but the country has its own influencer ecosystem and sponsors, thus our article focuses on this microenvironment. While conducting the article we interviewed professionals in the multichannel network agency industry to get an insight in which companies are willing to invest in influencer marketing and why. The Hungarian influencer market was then analyzed, determining influencer categories, and possible target audience. For the article, we collected and categorized the existing influencer channels in Hungary by using their metatags and then ranked them by popularity, view time and follower base.

To present the results from our primary research, the main results of our database is introduced, as it is compared to the industry interviews. The main findings will help decide whether it is possible to sponsor a brand by an influencer in Hungary in the FMCG sector, and if yes, then where the possibilities are. We will introduce the genres of the Hungarian YouTube industry where a successful sponsorship has a bigger chance to reach young audiences like the Generation Z and Millennials.

Keywords: influencer marketing, Word of Mouth, YouTube marketing, FMCG, SME

Introduction

YouTube is a turbulent and changing environment. It is still a very young medium and the theoretic researches are therefore limited on the subject. Companies and researchers are yet to explore the possibilities of YouTube in marketing and in brand awareness raising campaigns. However, there are more and more grounds for possible sponsorships and co-operations among YouTubers and selected companies. Some are still afraid to start these co-operations, as they do not know how YouTube works or what the exact possible benefits are. But from the experiences of successful YouTube campaign a tendency can be seen that most of the time it is beneficial to hire an influencer as part of the marketing activity for a firm.

In our paper, we would like to add a piece to the growing list of researches in the topic of YouTube and influencer marketing. As there was no previously conducted research available for the Hungarian influencer marketing industry, especially in the topic of YouTube, it was our aim to fill in this hole. We wanted to create a possible guide for the brands and companies who are just about to introduce themselves to influencer and YouTube marketing. Our paper is offering help for both small and big companies when deciding where to start their sponsorships if they want to succeed in the Hungarian influencer environment. With the help of this paper they can get a clear idea of what YouTube is suitable for, and if their product is suitable for its marketing possibilities. We also dedicate the paper to the other researchers of the topic who have similar interest to ours, may it provide them useful information on their further studies as well.

The research was conducted in October – November 2017 with the help of several YouTube involved parties. For the primary research, we conducted interviews with employees of a Hungarian YouTube agency and we are thankful for them for answering all of our burning questions and giving us guiding when we most needed it. For the secondary research, third party websites and plug-ins like Social Blade and VidIQ were used, which will be introduce in the later part of the research.

1. Literature Review

YouTube is a powerful media platform which is able to generate fame for the ones using it as professionals (Jaakonmäki et al 2017 Arnold, 2012). The followers of these so-called influencers represent a huge opportunity for brands to introduce their products to, and to implement new marketing strategies. In this section, we introduce the theoretical background of influencer marketing, the YouTubers as an industry tool, and conclude their ability to sell a product to their followers. We introduce the concept "Word of Mouth (WOM)" and its effect on the YouTube industry. Then from these grounds we continue to discuss the connection of influencer marketing and content creators.

1.1 Word of mouth and influencer marketing

Word of Mouth (WOM) is a valued marketing tool, as it is not a form of direct communication that can easily be altered by companies (Pantelidis, 2015, Bughin, et al 2010). WOM is not a new phenomenon, however it has significant influence in online marketing (Buttle, 1998). It is relying on customers telling their honest opinion about a certain product, while other potential customers look for these references and take them into consideration when deciding on whether they should buy the same product or not (Trusov, et al 2009; Buttle, 1998).

With the rise of the internet it has become easier to share one's view and a special kind of WOM, namely Electronic Word of Mouth, or E-WOM has become a significant factor in shopping habits (Whitler, 2014). Nowadays people can easily rank, evaluate and comment on goods they bought or are willing to buy. According to researches (Buttle, 1998; Kowalska-Styczeń, 2014, Nail, 2005) one tends to listen to other people's pieces of advice more carefully than to adverts in the media. Customers trust and value other customer's opinion more, and this can influence one's shopping habits more than seeing different ads by companies who want to sell their goods (Huete-Alcocer, 2017). This means that potential customers are quicker to form a negative opinion towards traditional adverts, because of the lack of trust towards them (De Veirman, et al 2016). The situation has become the basic link towards influencer marketing: followers trust their idols (YouTubers, Instagrammers, Vloggers, Bloggers and so on) more than they trust commercials (Jaakonmäki et al 2017; Ionaid et al 2015). They listen to their ideas and take their advice as they feel a strong and familiar connection towards these people. Thus, there is a strong E-WOM linked to the activities of these influencers. Influencers often work with their home-made video recording and editing tools, thus followers can easily build up a connection with them, as they seem to be ordinary people as well. (Griborn, E., Nylen, D. 2017).

According to Google Trends search (2017) the expression "influencer marketing" itself was barely searched before 2014, but then skyrocketed in late 2015 and early 2016. A new research conducted by Twitter states that at least 40% of those who follow one or more influencers have purchased a product due to endorsement (Karp 2016), while other studies claim that due to influencer marketing sales could be boosted by 20-50% (Bughin et al. 2010). Therefore, this could be the actual link between influencer marketing and the positive outcomes of Word of Mouth activities.

Brands started to introduce sponsorships to influencers in hope of a direct Word of Mouth activity (Woods, 2016). This means that companies try and convince influencers to promote their product by making them the prime target customers and paying them. Only with this approach can a company gain success and credibility in influencer sponsorships; as an influencer who is not endorsing a product credibly from their heart will lose the respect and the interest of their followers as they feel like they were being lied to. (Jaakonmäki et al 2017; Ionaid, et al 2015, Griborn, E., Nylen, D., 2017). If YouTubers are not authentic in their sponsored contents, and the video feels out of space and context, the viewers will more likely form a negative opinion about the product and the influencer, and the sponsorship will most likely backfire (Woods, 2016; Wu, 2016).

The role of WOM and influencer marketing is getting more and more important in the present business environment. With the help of E-WOM, influencer marketing can be used as a potential substitute for advertising a product (Stokes, 2013). Influencer campaigns are easier to alter and shape to match both the video environment of the content creator and the brand identity of the sponsor company (Thakur, 2016; Kolbl et al 2015).

1.2 FMCG sector and brand love

YouTube itself can be linked to the FMCG sector, and it is our aim to explore the Hungarian YouTube market by determining the suitable YouTube sponsorships and influencer channels for the industry. In this sector building a strong bond with customers is crucial as the products of the companies are rapidly changing in most households, and avoiding brand rejection plays an important part in the strategies of FMCG related small and big brands as well (Truong et al 2011). Most companies are aiming to become a subject of brand-love in one's life (Grappi, 2016). This means that they want the brand to be on the top of customers' mind when going to the store to stack up on a certain type of product (Leahy, 2008).

Teenagers are most suitable to develop the mentioned strong emotional links to brands, thus for FMCG companies it is essential to target this age group properly and persuade them with memorable marketing campaigns, furthermore, young are shown to be extremely faithful to those FMCG brands that are introduced to them in an early age (Smith, 2015; Fullerton, 2017). This statement links FMCG branding towards YouTube, as studies show that YouTube followers are most likely to be teenagers or young adults in their twenties (Thakur, 2016, Jaakonmäki et al 2017).

Generation Z and Millennials have the biggest potential in establishing YouTube based FMCG trust towards them. (Smith, 2015; Fullerton, 2017). Combined with Word of Mouth, YouTube creates a possibility for introducing brand awareness, and this means a marketing opportunity for brands who can get their products linked to the topic of YouTubers and their channels. To understand the statement, we did our own researches for the Hungarian market to see the age distribution of YouTube followers in the country.

To conduct this study, we analyzed the Hungarian YouTube industry through selected YouTube channels. This meant the determination of which channels have an economical value and with the help of two organization (Social Blade and Star Network) we distinguished those channels that are existing privately only for the sake of uploading some videos for friends from the professional networking channels, and excluded them from our study. In our study, the channels that we analyzed are existing to be broadcasted for a direct audience, for the sake of telling one's opinion for a wider audience.

Primary interviews were conducted with Star Network executives on the subject of sponsorship, multichannel management and YouTubers in Hungary. These interviews helped us by giving feedback on our work and showing the direction worth exploring for later studies. the interview questions were starting from general interests towards the more specific industry insights, and are listed below:

- How is a YouTube campaign built up from the beginning until the final product?
- Please tell us, in your point of view how the YouTube industry is built up in Hungary?
- Who are the main target audience for the company and for the industry?
- Which firms are more likely in need of an influencer campaign?
- Please tell us your opinion on the given graphs and charts presented to you on the topic of different genres and distribution of Hungarian YouTube videos.

For this research, we gathered 828 different channels in total, from 15 different genres. As seen in Table 1 these genres include such categories as vlog, films, gaming, beauty, lifestyle, tech, sport, e-commerce and humor. The number of channels gives out information on which category the most popular among creators is. As seen, music, vlogging and brand related channels dominate the market, but this does not mean they produce the most videos as well. We will discuss that part of the database later on.

Table 1: Summary of the examined channels and genres

Number of Channels	Genres
102	Vlog
187	Music
47	Lifestyle
33	Humor
12	Tales
33	Gastro
16	Vehicles
118	Brand
29	Sport
10	E-commerce
27	News
131	Gaming
44	Beauty
15	Tech
24	Film

Source: own source, gathered in the period of 2017 Autumn

Data gathering was aided by Social Blade and Star Network helped us at great lengths. Social Blade is a website that specializes in gathering all the YouTube channels worldwide, rates them and stores their main information. It also divides them into different lists by their main topic and by countries. As this site has a lot of public information we were able to get reliable secondary insights on the industry. We used this site as a control tool to see how the channels we found and categorized are integrated on the site and how the algorithm that is operating on the site labelled them. All the rankings and categories we used from Social Blade are available online.

The other source for our data collection was the Hungarian multichannel management agency called Star Network. Their solid database on professional Hungarian YouTube channels was a starting point for our research. We had to delete the multiplications and double check if the channels still exist and are categorized precisely to the genre they match the most. Also, they were able to support us with interviews and feedbacks thus we had collected both primary and secondary data from them.

For further analytics tool VidIQ proved to be a helpful solution. We used this program when determining the categories, as this a program is able to provide additional background information on YouTube videos. Thus, it was utilized for collecting data on tags and metatags of the YouTube videos in order to determine the precise genre of the channel when it was in doubt.

YouTube video and channel tags are metatags that are used by the artist for Search Engine Optimization. YouTubers create and add these words and titles to their videos in the Editor view when they upload them in order to make it easier to categorize and find them by the YouTube search bots and algorithms. Normally these tags are not visible for the viewers but with the help of different browser add-ins (like VidIQ) it is possible to see them. We used these tags as a guide because they are giving us information on how the YouTuber describes his or her own content.

3. Results

With the help of the summarized methods, sites, web plug-ins and agency interviews we were able to collect and categorize the channels in a way that was suitable for conducting the future analysis. Before we continue with the introduction of our findings regarding the

FMCG sector we must however state a few words about the current state of the Hungarian YouTube industry in connection with our secondary data collection.

3.1 The Hungarian YouTube industry

The number of social media users in Hungary is consisting of approximately 50% of the nation's population according to Star Network insights. When it comes to YouTube the most popular Hungarian channels have approximately as many subscribers as 2,5 million (however one account can be subscribed to more channels), while the channel's view numbers are up to 728 million (however one person can watch a video more than one time) (Table 2).

Table 2: Top 5 Hungarian YouTube channels

Ranking	Name of the channel	Number of videos	Number of views	Subscribers	Genre
1.	Videómánia	357	216250564	677702	Film
2.	TheVR	1019	187050562	531661	Gaming
3.	luckeY	1103	132213548	518304	Gaming
4.	Radics Peti	378	117578848	427520	Humor
5.	HollywoodNewsAgency	357	75866267	391438	Film

Source: own source, gathered in the period of 2017 Autumn

From the conducted interviews, it turned out that YouTubers are usually managed by multichannel management (MCM) agencies, as mentioned previously. The number of MCM Agencies in Hungary is currently fluctuating between 3 and 5. These agencies have the official title approved and monitored by Google. The explanation of this low number is that the market is still new. The two biggest agencies are Star Network and Special Effects Media. Both have a different approach regarding YouTubers. Star Network has a tendency to build their strategy on a quantity approach, meaning that they have the most YouTuber contracts, while Special Effects Media goes for a quality approach meaning they have a limited number of channels but those channels are the biggest ones in Hungary.

For examining the viewers and followers of the Hungarian YouTube industry, Star Network provided us their own YouTube based statistics that show that around 74% of the viewers are under 34 years. We accepted this as a fact as the information was provided by YouTube to them for their personal use, thus it was a data from an impartial third party. Furthermore, 53% of the YouTube viewers are between 13 and 24 years which provides an ideal ground for introducing FMCG brands to them. As we were referring to this phenomenon in the literature overview, most FMCG brands try to appear as love-brands for younger audiences. For this to be possible they always need a new way to reach young generations. According to the statistics and the interviews, YouTube has the potential to provide this for the brands who need it. But which genres and channels are the best for potential sponsors to appear with? We searched our own database in order to determine an answer for this question.

3.2 The most popular genres based on number of videos, reach and subscriber base

When deciding on which factors to value more in our data analysis we highlighted three important keys, first is the subscriber base, second is the total views of the channels and the third one is the number of videos in the different genres.

According to our interviews, the subscriber base is an important indicator for a sponsor, as it can show how valued or interesting a YouTuber is. This is a good indicator on how many people a YouTuber can reach. By looking into of the subscriber base the sponsor can decide whether the influencer has the potential to reach the desired target audience or not. However, the subscriber base is not a perfect prediction tool, as it only gives out information on the average fame of the YouTuber. From this number one cannot predict how viral a sponsored video will be, and what the potential reach or viewings will be. In connection with the subscriber base it is highly advised to check the view statistics of the best and worst performing videos.

We also examined the total number views for the channels. This shows the success of the individual videos and contents. Even a small YouTuber can create a viral video sometimes, and bigger and more influential YouTubers can have videos that have a low reach among followers. It mostly depends on the quality of the content. According to our interviews, there is however an estimated number of views they must offer to the sponsors regarding the videos they purchased. These estimated numbers are based on the average reach of the videos of the chosen YouTubers.

Regarding the number of videos in the different genres, this data can show which genre is the most fruitful in terms of production. As most of the followers are not only watching one video when they start browsing YouTube, regular or even daily content upload is crucial. This is one of the strategic elements that was highlighted in our control interviews.

At the end of October 2017, the number of YouTuber subscriptions were 34 908 205 for the 828 channels. The channels in total had 327 782 videos. With this data, we started selecting the different categories and genres. Table 3 shows the summarized distribution of the analyzed genres.

Table 3 Summary of the distributions in the analyzed genres

Genres	Distribution of videos (%)	Number of views (%)	Subscriber base (%)
Vlog	7	**8**	**21**
Music	8	**40**	**20**
Lifestyle	3	2	3
Humor	3	5	7
Tales	1	**10**	2
Gastro	2	1	1
Vehicles	2	1	0
Brand	4	2	1
Sport	**15**	1	1
E-	1	0	0
News	**24**	3	1
Gaming	**22**	**19**	**31**
Beauty	2	2	5
Tech	3	2	3
Film	3	4	4

Source: own source, gathered in the period of 2017 Autumn

As seen in Table 3, the most fruitful channels are linked to news and playing video games (or shortly, gaming). According to the interviews this is an expected result, as news channels tend to spread information more than once a day, while gameplay videos are in high demand among teenagers nowadays. The Sport channels are taking out the third biggest part, as they tend to operate on the same principles as News channels. Also Branded channels (like Coca-Cola Hungary or Telekom Hungary) are trending nowadays, as (according to Star Network) it is more and more likely for them to hire influencers for their branded videos and publish them on their branded YouTube channels.

In comparison with the number of videos it is interesting to see how the number of views move. With this we can see if the most reached videos are among the genres that are producing the majority of the contents. Number of views are showing a completely different aspect of the analyzed channels. Music dominates the genres by 40%, while videogaming holds its high position. According to our control interviews, music can reach this high number of views as lot of people are listening to playlists during their work hours or free time as a background noise, thus the view statistics can go up very quickly. Knowing this we concluded that when deciding on sponsorships it is worth considering if the genre is known for actively watching the videos or just listening to them. With gaming, the videos are showing a more active participation from the audience – according to our interviews and also seen in the comment sections. Also, children's tales shows an interesting peak, as (according to our sources) it is more and more likely for toddlers and small kids to watch YouTube as a source of entertainment then to watch TV.

Next the most preferred categories were analyzed by sponsors and subscriber's base data. Comparing to the number of videos and the view statistics we can conclude where it is most likely interesting to enter as sponsors in the market. The subscriber base is a good indicator for both sponsors and agencies to see how well-known an influencer channel is. We must add that one person is likely to have more than one subscription though. As it can be seen from Table 3, most of the subscribers are linked to vlogs, gaming and music. The gaming sector is shown to be a strong field of interest in all three summaries, as well as the music. Interestingly beauty and humor (where a lot of sponsorships are located according to the interviews) holds only a small part of the statistics.

Looking back to Table 3 for a final comparison one can examine that gaming produces very high numbers in all the three presented categories. However, news and sport has a high capacity in producing videos, it is not as lucrative among viewers. Music shows an interesting tendency as it has the highest number of views by far, but as it was described to us it is tricky to start sponsorships with music videos as people only tend to listen to them while they are doing some other activity.

Vlogs and gaming were the ones that are producing high numbers among viewings, and according to the interview those are the classical categories for FMCG sponsorships as the viewers are usually in their late teens and early twenties, thus they already have some spare money to spend on goods they are interested in. Also, according to the literature overview they are at the age when it is more likely for them to choose the FMCG brands they will be using most likely for the long run.

As for the subscriber base, gaming, vlogs, and music were the most frequently subscribed genres. This category was referred to as an important indicator of the fame of a YouTuber towards brands that are interested in sponsorships in the interviews. Gaming and music were holding a strong position in this category, as well as in the other ones. Most of these contents are followed by a great number of young adults and teens, so it is an important starting point for the companies that are looking for sponsorship opportunities.

With these data in our hands we drew our final conclusions. According to the analysis and the interviews the genres with the best chances for E-WOM are gaming, vlogs and music. They were producing high statistics in all three categories, including view time, view numbers and subscribers. There, one can have enough viewers from the young audiences and with this it is possible to get strong Word of Mouth out to the crowds by the YouTubers in the sponsored contents. In our opinion, these genres are the best for an FMCG brand to start promoting their products with non-advertisement based tools.

4. Conclusions

To summarize the article and our main findings, it was aim was to target and analyze the Hungarian YouTube market based on the channels that are included in the database of both Hungarian agencies and international data collector site Social Blade and video analyzing tool VidIQ. This meant the examination of 828 Hungarian YouTube channels. We then examined the subscriber base, the number of the videos and the view numbers in the different genres that were distinguished by the help of the two mentioned entities.

According to the statistics shown in Table 3, the most valued fields in the Hungarian industry is linked to gaming, vlog and music. This indicates that a company may start using influencer content and sponsorships that is linked to these areas. Sponsors are most likely to succeed in these three, mentioned genre, however humor and beauty holds a strong position there as well.

As we drew our conclusions we must state the limitations of the research. The data we used are from Autumn 2017 thus the study is strongly linked to this time period. Also, the list of the channels we used are not complete, there might be independent Hungarian YouTube channels we did not know about, as they do not have an agency. Furthermore, some of the channels we analyzed are so small they might go inactive in the near future.

This research can serve as a guide for the FMCG sector when deciding where to use sponsorships as a marketing tool regarding YouTube. In the future, it is possible to broaden the research by analyzing some sponsored content to see how they are built up and what are the product types that are the most likely to be sponsored.

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Brief biography

Krisztina Panyi

Krisztina Panyi is currently a Marketing MSc student at Corvinus University of Budapest, her main area of interest is online- and influencer marketing. As of now she is working on segmenting the Hungarian YouTube market with special interest in FMCG sponsorships, while this work means a good preparation for PhD application. She previously researched the cognitive and affective elements used by Hungarian YouTubers in their contents in order to determine the possible scenarios for different brand values and sponsorships.

Ákos Varga

Ákos Varga is an assistant professor of Corvinus University of Budapest, Hungary. His Ph.D. centred around online marketing on the example of dairy industry. He has more than a decade of experience in higher education, with an extended international experience (Estonia, Norway, Spain and Canada). His area of interest covers online marketing, consumer behaviour and neuromarketing.

Hotel Front Office Robotization - Consumers' Perspective

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Abstract

Innovation processes have a great effect on most areas of life, for example on tourism and within that on the hotel industry. By 2016 as a result of the development one of the leading themes of ITB was the raising popularity of special robots in different hotels around the world. In case of hotels, quality service, experience and success mostly come from the professionality and personality of the staff because of the intangibility of hotel services, but there are guests who would sacfrifice the personalized services for a low-cost stay. As stated by prognoses, it might happen that human interaction in hotels will be eliminated by the robots, but the real question is how consumers react to this kind of change. The study focuses on the Hungarian travellers' adaptivity of the topic (based on an attitude-study). During the research, the examined area was the Front Office, more accurately the reception. According to the answers, 251 people filled out the questionnaire of whom 188 people (means ¾ of the guests) reject the robotisation on the reception, the biggest reason of which was the lack of human interaction, but there can be social and psychological reasons behind it, too. However, the fact that robotisation could cut the costs of the average price of a stay changed the opinions. From 251 people, 172 would visit a hotel where they can meet a robot, but only if the price of the stay was lower. These answers show the price-sensitivity and consumer-behaviour of the selected Hungarian travellers, which topic will be explained and unfolded more precisely.
In terms of results, the paper is intended to show the general attitude and adaptivity of the robotisation in hotels between Hungarian travellers, providing a new research result.

Keywords: attitude-study, hotel, innovation, reception, robot

Introduction

Robotization and hotel industry. Two expressions and fields of which – in older times – it was unbelievable to think that one day they can cooperate and help each other. With the 21st century, radical changes have come and nowadays many procedures are already automatized in different accommodations in order to increase efficiency and optimize processes. Many people think that this kind of technical development is useful, but when it comes to a field that has been based on personalization and human interaction for hundreds of years, the general opinions might change.

The base of the primary research and also the background idea of the whole paper was a presentation in which the experts of TravelZoo[1] researched 3000 international travelers about their acceptance with robotization in a hotel reception. The results were presented at the ITB in 2016. Besides, at the conference experts have presented so many new ideas and technological innovations, which are hard to imagine to be implemented in Hungary, but accepted and usual in e.g. Japan or in the USA, so the intercultural perspective proved to be interesting in this regard as well. Furthermore, in the original research of TravelZoo Hungarians were not surveyed, so the main aim of this article was to get to know how Hungarian people react to an innovation like this and after, to compare the new results to the original ones. The examination of this topic is quite complex, because it is needed to research for example the field of innovation and robotics in order to analyze results in the context of the basic concepts and theories.

Innovation

The word 'innovation' can be heard daily in the media and can be read on different surfaces, but not everyone is aware of its real meaning, so people tend to use it incorrectly. There are many attempts to describe innovation, but there is still not a single and unified definition for the term (Szakály, 2013).

Definitions for innovation

The term 'innovation' was first defined and used by Joseph Alois Schumpeter (1934) as a new, or modified combination of the factors of production which has an important role in the economic growth (Brémond & Gélédan, 2005; Birkner, 2010; Roóz & Heidrich, 2010). According to him, technological innovation is in the entrepreneur and this gives him a strategic competitive advantage for a short period of time. After that he needs new ideas because his original innovative idea will be copied and implemented by others. That is how innovations are born, and this circle is repeating and generating itself (Tidd & Bessant, 2013). The authors of this article found this definition the most accurate from all.

After Schumpeter, Peter Drucker's (1985) revolutionary point of view is highlighted, who sees innovation and its importance from a sociological, knowledge-based point of view (Annus et al., 2006). He emphasizes a new way of thinking and a change in how people see same things from a new perspective rather than focusing on a new technology.

The Oslo Manual published by OECD (2005) contains the most precise definition for innovation, which is still used nowadays and is generally accepted as a basic definition for innovation. The Manual highlights service innovation as

[1] American online marketing agency with over 28 million members from around the world. They provide personalized travel offers to their registered users. The president of TravelZoo's European division, Richard Singer who presented during ITB. www.travelzoo.com [2017.03.02.]

well, and defines innovation in a complex way. It says that in case of innovation we can talk about goods, services, products, processes and procedures, marketing methods, organizational structures or even external relationships. All the elements mentioned above need to be implemented, and new or significantly improved. (OECD, 2005). The authors of this paper did not see this definition as a normative one, because the listing is very general, however it cannot be excluded because this is the generally accepted innovation definition nowadays. From the Hungarian economists Attila Chikán (2008) was one who defined innovation as „the satisfaction of the consumers' needs and wants on a higher quality level" (Chikán, 2008, p.243.). This definition is a broader point of view which however points to the fact that innovation is basically generated by the consumer.

Innovation in the tourism sector

Throughout history, tourism has been characterized by a higher degree of innovativity. Thomas Cook – known as the Father of Mass Tourism – was the person, who started a complex idea and an entrepreneurship in 1841. Thanks to his innovative idea, he was able to provide fun and escape from everyday life for a new segment. He combined it with efficient organization so that this special service was also affordable (Hjalager, 2009). This unique idea was the basis of nowadays' mass tourism.
Recently tourism have become one of the sectors where continuous development is inevitable. Innovation is needed in most of the industries, however, where customers are choosing from different parts of the world, it is crucial (Peters & Pikkemaat, 2005). The mentioned continuous improvement is also important in regards of the hotel robotization because it is not just the needs and wants that are changing but the technological development also goes in a fast pace. These factors can put an even higher pressure on the companies that operate in the tourism sector.
There are some barriers that touristic firms have to face when talking about innovation. The main reason for moderate innovation activity is the fragmentation of the sector, which comes from – as stated by Peters & Pikkemaat (2005) -, the significant number of small enterprises that have family ownership. The high avoidance of the risk, the rejection of the change, not considering the importance of innovation and the limited resources are all amongst the factors that can have a negative impact on any innovation activity. Moreover, these problems have an effect on the whole sector itself (Peters & Pikkemaat, 2005). It can be seen that the major part of the problems are coming from external factors.

Innovation of the hotel sector

The hotel industry is one of the least innovative sectors, mainly because its traditional features and its structure (Gyurácz-Németh, 2014). It is not just the service factor and the tourism's difficulties that pull back the development in this regard. The risk of failure is quite high (approx. between 25-45%), it is really expensive to develop and investments are very risky (Gyurácz-Németh et al., 2013, 2016). This is the result of that the majority of the market is presented by SME's, which do not have a sufficient financial background to reinvest the gained profit for R & D activity, market research, product development, so all in all they cannot invest in innovation projects (Peters & Pikkemaat, 2005). These problems can be seen and felt in several Hungarian hotels. The average time of the return (25 years) makes the situation more difficult (Gyurácz-Németh, et al. 2016). In case of innovative hotel investments the consumers can be in touch directly with the carrier of the innovation itself and they look at that as something really new because they have never seen that innovation before or because those innovations were not present in a particular company. These kind of innovations can be created in any part or any department of the hotels (Hjalager, 2009).

The innovation situation of Hungary

The literatures that have been examined previously did not mention anything about the domestic situation. As this paper is researching the attitude and behavior of the Hungarian consumers, it is important to know whether if any background would be provided to these kind of technological changes or not. To illustrate this, two indexes can be analyzed. One is the GCI (Global Competitiveness Index), the other is the EIS (European Innovation Scoreboard Index).

GCI can be found in one of the WEF's publications. According to that, Hungary is in the 69th place, which is worse than in the previous years so all in all Hungary's global competitiveness declined (WEF, 2016). Not surprisingly all those countries where robotization and high-technology innovations are usual and accepted are in the lead of the list – for example Japan, USA or from Europe, Belgium can be mentioned (WEF, 2016). EIS is similar to the GCI, however in this case only the EU-28 member countries are included. Hungary is below the EU-average and is named as a Moderate Innovator (EU, 2016). The report says that between 2008 and 2015 Hungary was improving, but its performance still remained below the EU-average (EU, 2016). All of these above have a serious effect on how consumers think about the technological change and innovation in Hungary.

Robots and robot technology

Nowadays automatization and robots have more and more important roles in different industries. Of course tourism is one of the sectors that robotization is starting to have a considerable influence on.

Definition of robots

The expression 'robot' appeared first in a Czech author's tragicomedy in 1920. In the play, robots had twice as much strength and workload as people had. The typology of the word itself connects to that fact because 'robota' in Czech language means work, which shows the

basic functions and tasks of a robot (Kulcsár, 2012; Werner, goo.gl/DqSz52, 2017.03.02.).
Just as innovation, robots do not have a unified and accepted definition as well. Hollon & Rogol (1985) write about robots as follows: „A robot is a reprogrammable, multifunctional unit, which was planned to move materials, parts, equipment and special components with programmed motions." (Hollon & Rogol, 1985, p.76.). IFR[2] defines robots on their own website as programmable mechanisms along two or more axes that have certain degree of autonomy in order to perform the desired tasks without human intervention (http://www.ifr.org/service-robots/, 2016.10.23.). This definition was used as the basic robot definition for the authors of the paper.

Types of robots

Robots have several categorization but the paper works mostly with the definition(s) of the mentioned IFR (http://www.ifr.org/service-robots/, 2016.10.23.). According to them, the classification of the robots is simple. There are two categories: industrial robots and service robots. Service refers to the fact that the machine is doing useful home or professional tasks, which tasks are however not industrial. This previous definition is also the definition for service robots. (http://www.ifr.org/service-robots/, 2016.10.23.).
Service robots have two more types. One is the robots for personal use and the other is robots used in a professional environment. These are hard to separate from each other because there can be overlaps between the two categories, but the most important difference is that the professional service robots are handled by a qualified operator e.g. in hospitals, while personal use robots do not require an operator like that. (IFR, http://www.ifr.org/service-robots/, 2016.10.23.). According to Rodriguez-Lizundia et al. (2015) „the general purpose of service robots is to help people at home, in hospitals or in hotels by providing information and help" (Rodriguez-Lizundia et al., 2015, p.84.). Within the service robots, there is a special category which is called social robots. „A social robot is an autonomous or half-autonomous robot, which is able to communicate and discuss with people, following all the behavioral norms that the person, who the robot is talking to, expects." (Rodriguez-Lizundia et al., 2015, p.83.). The authors of this article are classifying those robots that were used in the primary research to this category. This categorization will be further examined in the background of the research part of the paper.

The background of the research

As it has been stated before, the basis of the research and the study was given by an ITB presentation which was about how accepting different nations are

[2] International Federation of Robotics

about robots used in hotels, specifically at the Front-Office. Based on the opinion of 3000 travelers, Chinese people are the most accepting, while the German are the least adaptive. Around 50 percent of the British people accepts the idea (with the use of human workforce); amongst the Spanish, this amount is 75 percent. French people are the second least accepting, while the Brazilians are the second most adaptive behind China (Singer, 2016, goo.gl/kM3PT7, 2016.05.29).

Robots used in hotels, including the reception, can be seen in a few places around the world. Aloft from the Starwood Hotels group, Hilton, Marriott, Novotel, or the very special Henn-Na hotel in Japan are all good examples for the early adopters (EHL, 2016, http://blog.ehl.edu/future/george-clooney-vs.-chatty-androids-what-it-means-for-hospitality, 2016.04.17.; Singer, 2016, goo.gl/kM3PT7, 2016.05.29.).

Research on the same subject was carried out by Molich & Stefan (2016) and the robots appearing in their thesis were divided into 3 (sub) groups. This classification was not present in literature until 2016 when they were created by the authors. The categories are:

- Humanoid robot: A fully human-like robot, which is capable of high-level human interaction, meaning it could substitute a person. Humanoid robots are AI controlled, autonomous machines, which are capable of expressing emotions. These can be seen for example in the Japanese Henn-Na Hotel, at the world's first fully robotized hotel's reception.

- Human-like robot: Resembles humans by its physique, it has a head, torso, a pair of arms and legs, but cannot mimic human gestures, facial expressions, thus incapable of showing as high level of emotions as the previous category. A human-like robot can be used less independently for self-operation and emotion expression than the humanoid companions. An example for this is the concierge robot of the Henn-Na Hotel, or Mario, who aids the work of receptionists in Marriott Hotel Ghent, Belgium. (ITB, 2016, https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=gcouckaxngs, 2017.04.03.).

- 'Traditional' robot: It does not look similar to one of the types mentioned above in either its form or ability. Traditional robots do not have human features, they can only perform simple commands, and neither as individual, nor as smart as the previous categories. An example for this category can be the Relay / Botlr robot created by Savioke, which, with the help of its sensors and Wi-Fi is used as a room service 'employee' (https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=WIK-_VDPbps, 2016.04.20.; https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=cT5UfxNVN80, 2016.10.26.).

(Molich & Stefán, 2016)

As mentioned above, the classification in the robotic literature can be further broken down, and the said three groups are subtypes of the 'social' robot category. It is important to highlight, that based by their looks and use these categories are different from each other, yet every category in its own consists of very modern, innovative machines, with a high level of technical knowledge behind them.

Primary research

In case of the primary research, the used method was almost as important as the results, which were processed and evaluated in the form of well-analyzable and quantifiable data.

Research Methodology

Since the study was about the Hungarian consumers' opinions about Front Office robotization, the research was carried out within the context of an attitude study[3]. According to Bauer et al. (2007), "attitude is embodied in a positive or negative reaction towards a subject, person, or a phenomenon" (Bauer et al. 2007, p.61.).

During the research, the important departments were the Front Office and the reception, and in the questionnaires, the questions were about these too. The main reason for this is that during the ITB similar questions were stated; robots are used around the world in hotel receptions which were previously introduced, and – most importantly –, guests' first impressions of the hotels are the personal interactions with the Front Office staff.

The questionnaires of the attitude study were filled out mostly online, with Google Forms, and a part of them was handed out personally to interviewees. The questionnaires were spread and shared on different social media sites. The first few questionnaires were tested on a smaller group (around 10 people) at the end of June and at the beginning of July 2016, and the final form was published 5th of July 2016 on a social media site. The respondents were heterogenic, there was no previously stated samples, since the population was Hungarians. The research was not representative, and the received results cannot be generalized. The selection was random, and the size of the sample does not allow to draw a general conclusion on the attitudes of the Hungarian people. The paper-based questionnaires were filled out in September 2016, where 68 answers were received, of which one was not evaluable due to missing data. 187 questionnaires were filled online, from which 184 were evaluable and useable. Altogether 255 people have filled out the questionnaires, from which 251 was usable. The only criteria for the respondents was that they had to go to a hotel during their lifetime at least once. If the respondent negatively answered to this question, the questionnaire was over. This caused four invalid questions to the online questionnaires.

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The forms contained 20 questions (all of which were mandatory to answer), two of which were open questions. The remaining 18 questions were closed questions. The questionnaire contained three types of questions. The most common was the Likert-scale, ranging from 1 to 10, where the respondents had to evaluate the importance of a factor. 1 meant the weakest and 10 the strongest. Additionally, the questionnaire contained one or multiple choice questions, yes-no questions and open-ended questions. The most important part of the questionnaire was three photos, of which interviewees had to decide if any of them is likeable or not. If the answer was yes, they had to choose which, if not, they had to explain why. The online questionnaire was closed three months later, on the 5th of October, 2016.

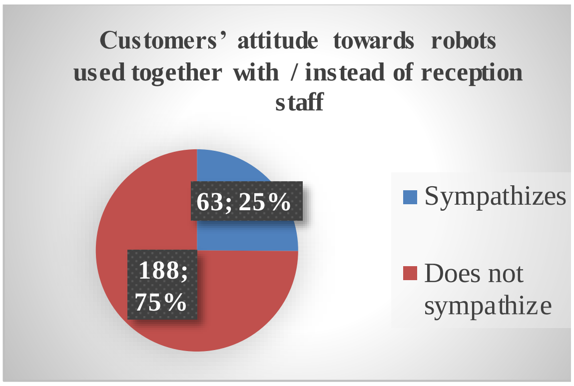
Results (quantification, analysis)

For the quantification, demographic data was also needed. The researchers found out that 71 percent of the respondents were female, and the average age was 38.6 years old. Most of the respondents were habitants of the capital, or villagers. Following this, they had to state if they are usually business or leisure travelers. 232 people of the 251 stated they usually go for leisure purposes, while 19 stated business related travel. Only 6 of the latter sympathizes with the idea of robots used at the reception, while 13 said they don't like the idea because of the missing human factor. This result reflects that according to the research in the fast-paced corporate life business people also require personal contact at the reception.

After the general questions the respondents had to use a Likert scale ranging from 1 to 10 to state their opinions about the hotel reception. In the whole hotel, in most cases, the staff contributed over 70% to the satisfaction of the interviewed guests. For receptionists, this value is overwhelming, since almost half of the respondents said that the reception's staff is most important in a hotel.

After the general technological questions, the attitudes and knowledge of robots of the respondents were mapped. Out of 251 respondents, 169 have never heard of robots used next to or instead of the hotel reception staff, accounting for 67 percent of responders. After that, the key question of the research was answered. Out of the 251 fillers, 188 do not like, and totally reject the idea of robotizing the hotel reception. It can be concluded that only ¼ of the sample is accepting in this respect. It is important to mention that there is no explicit relationship between sympathy and previous knowledge, so there has often been results, where a person has heard of these innovations before, but it was still not likeable for them, but there has been people who have never heard of these, yet still sympathizes with the idea. These answers are summarized in Figure 1:

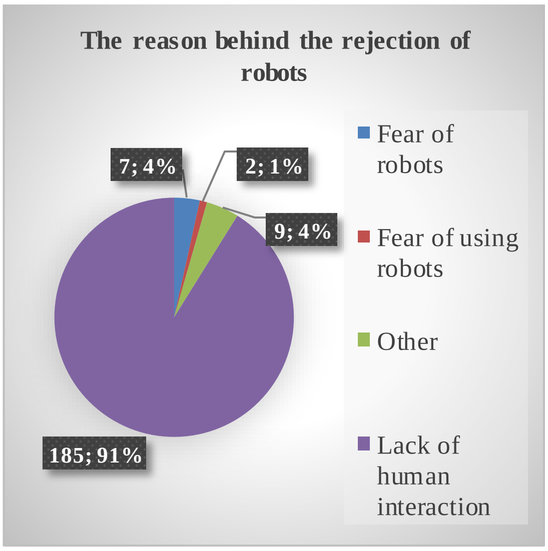
Figure 1.: Customers' attitude towards robots used together with / instead of reception staff (capita; %)



Source: (Own edition, 2016)

For the reason of rejection, the respondents indicated the lack of personal contact from a multiple-choice question. From the 188 people who rejects the idea of robots, 185 voted for this option, becoming the main reason of the antipathy. This is indicated in Figure 2:

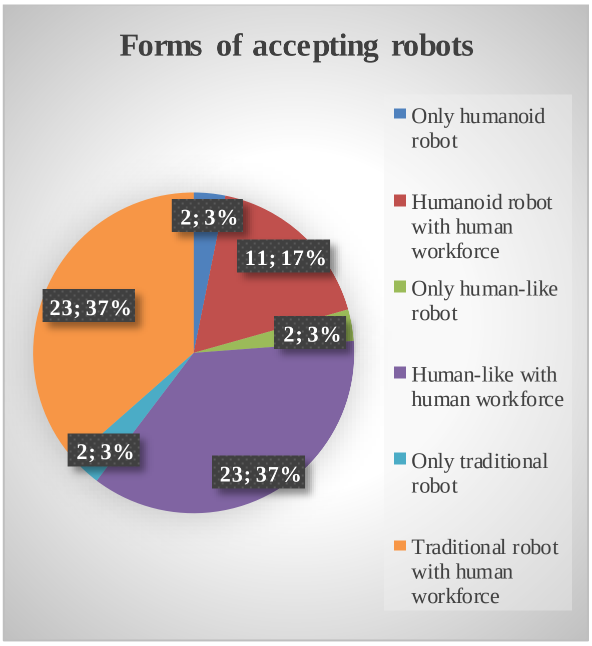
Figure 2: The reason behind the rejection of robots (capita; %)



Source: (Own edition, 2016)

The 63 filler, who found the idea of robotization positive, was set in front of a choice. Based on 1 photo from each of the 3 robotic groups previously mentioned, one had to decide whether the humanoid, the human-like or the traditional robot they liked the most, individually, or with human staff. Of the 63 respondents, only 6 would like to see any of the 3 types in their own form, i.e., replacing people, while robots used with staff were more popular. The humanoid robot was the least favored, while the human-like (Mario for example) and the traditional robot had equally 23-23 votes. This continues to support the premise that permanently replacing staff with robots would not be a good idea because of the lack of consumer demand. These informations are summarized in figure 3:

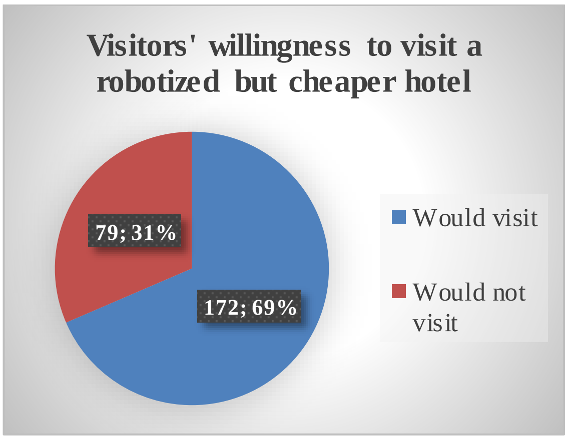
Figure 3: Forms of accepting robots (capita; %)



Source: (Own edition, 2016)

It should be noted that 188 out of 251 respondents were not attracted to and could not imagine a robotized reception, but 172 from 251 fillers stated that they would still visit a hotel where robots were used, but only if so the cost of accommodation / stay would be lower with a certain percentage. These results are illustrated in Figure 4:

Figure 4: Visitors' willingness to visit a robotized but cheaper hotel (capita; %)



Source: (Own edition, 2016)

All of these results may be due to the fact that Hungarian travelers for a larger amount of money expect to receive a high quality, personal service, where the category of communicating with robots is not yet included.

<u>Behind the results</u>

In the light of the results, it is important to examine why these values have been generated after the quantification. The underlying economic psychological factors are smaller, while marketing and consumer behavior are more weighted in the explanation.

Zlotowski et al (2016) gives explanation in their research about the acceptance of robots. The reason behind that most of the sympathizers chose robots with staff was that "Robots are supposed to serve humans and follow their commands. Therefore, people expect to have control and power over them. However, autonomous machines that make decisions on their own threaten that hierarchy. When human wellbeing and existence is affected by unpredictable factors in the environment …autonomous robots could be perceived by people as threatening for their control and power over technology." (Zlotowski et al., 2016, p.5). Respondents to the attitude study for these psychological reasons are likely to have opted for the options where the human factor was included. In addition, the situation of the country, which has been described in the field of innovation, may also be influential. Due to the diversity of results, it is worth paying attention to the paradox of antipathy and the willingness to choose a robotized hotel. To examine and explain this, an earlier research and its outcome are presented to show the resemblance with the attitude study.

Based on the research of Neulinger et al. (2010) about the Hungarian travel market, they observed a special, so-called 'hybrid' behavior among selected Hungarians. If hybrid consumer behavior is to be described in one word, the unpredictability is the most appropriate. The study, like the present article, was based on the research of regular travelers. With regard to the result, it can be said that good prices and quality are the most prominent in the eyes of the respondents, while the least important ones are to travel to the same destination or chose the same company as previously. In addition, it can be stated that "discounts and cheap trips are also sought, as opposed to brand loyalty, which is the least typical" (Neulinger et al., 2010, p.58.). This can largely explain the fact that ¾ of the respondents rejected robotization in this research, but almost the same number of respondents would visit a robotized hotel, but only if their stay was cheaper. It also confirms that "... rural people are more price-sensitive, expensive holidays are less affordable for them" (Neulinger et al., 2010, p.58.). This statement is also supported by the results of this research, as most of the respondents, 169 people were from the countryside (in this case countryside refers to those people who did not mark the capital as their place of residence).

Studying relationships with cross-table analysis

It was interesting to see whether the demographic characteristics affected the chosen type of robot or the sympathy. The studies cases were:

Relationship between sympathy of robotization and age
Relationship between the age and the chosen robot type
Relationship between place of living and sympathy
Relationship between gender (male / female) and sympathy
Relationship between gender (male / female) and selected robot type

For these relationships, cross-table analysis was applied using IBM SPSS Statistics 23 program. The chosen method was justified by low-level measurement variables. Examinations in one case were successful. There was a significant but very weak relationship between gender and the sympathy of using robots, so gender has a negligible influence whether someone was sympathetic to the robots on the reception or not. Figure 5 shows the connections between respondents' gender and responses. Out of 251 people, 188 do not like the idea of robotized reception, of which 140 were women and 48 were men. Altogether 180 women and 71 men filled the questionnaires.

Figure 5: Values for the relationship between gender and sympathy

Sympathizes * Gender Crosstabulation

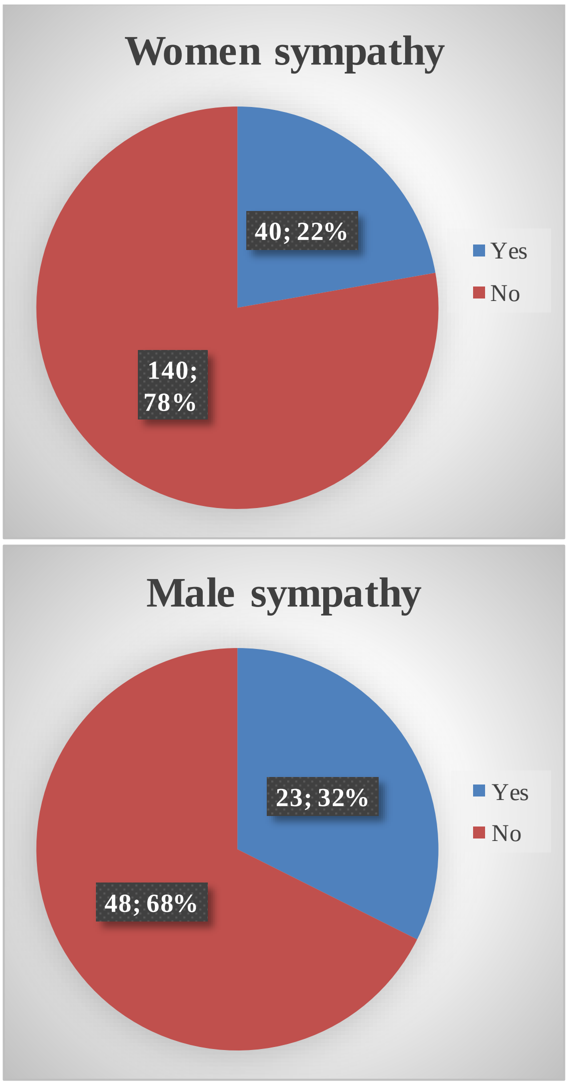
Count

		Gender		Total
		1	2	
Sympathizes	1	40	23	63
	2	140	48	188
Total		180	71	251

(***Source***: *Own edition – SPSS program, 2016.)*

From the table it is visible that out of the 63 people who liked the idea of robots, 40 were women and 23 men. This shows that more women liked the idea in total but in terms of the proportions of gender (since 2.5 times more women filled out the questionnaire), men were more open to the idea of robotization than women. This may result in the aforementioned connection. These relationships are shown in Figure 13, in the form of pie charts that help comparing the results:

Figure 6: The proportion of women and men being sympathetic with robots (capita; %)



Source: (Own edition, 2016)

Assumed relationships were not verified, since there were no strong connections, only one very weak connection was found in the sample. This was shown between gender and the sympathy with robots, since in this case the significance level was slightly but below 0.1. It can also be deducted that respondents were influenced by other factors too (such as previous experiences), which may be related to the factors mentioned in the sub-section of consumer behavior and the innovation situation of Hungary.

Conclusion

The overall purpose of the article was to examine the attitude of Hungarian travelers with the robotization at the reception, to which an ITB presentation was the starting point.

In the primary research, an attitude study was conducted among consumers. The full surveying lasted for months, and it is important to point out that the results are not representative. Finally, it turned out that the basic idea that Hungarians will be positioned among less accepting nations (based on the ITB presentation) proved to be true, as only ¼ of the sample (63 out of 251 people) would accept the idea of robotization at hotels' receptions. The reason for the rejection was that almost everyone would miss the personal contact and the homely atmosphere due to lack of staff. However, ¾ of the respondents (172 people) would try a hotel where they might encounter robots, but only if the price of the stay was lower. This has pointed out that Hungarian travelers are still often influenced by lower prices, and cheaper, but unknown, and possible risky services are placed over brand loyalty.

As the topic is always up-to-date and technological development is proceeding very fast, it is possible that consumers' opinions will be changed in the distant future. Currently most of the people are rejecting the idea of robotization, especially in a sector where personal contact has been the main attracting value for a long time. There have been several reasons and correlations in the paper that can explain the results.

As for the whole topic, there are still plenty of unexploited opportunities for the hotels about robotization. However, if consumers' attitudes and preferences will change in the upcoming years, hotels will need to adapt and innovate, as this is a key to gaining new (regular) guests, by providing unique and interesting services.

While for hotels innovation and knowledge management in connection with technology can be a big challenge for the future, travelers will also have to adapt to the technological innovations, even in a personal, traditional sector like the hotel industry. Consumers and hotels probably will not be able to successfully complete this new challenge without each other, so in the age of technology and change, this may be the next key issue that could be worked out only by both hotels and guests working together in the future.

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Brief biographies

Kitty Molich, student

23-year-old student at the University of Pannonia in Veszprém. Currently, I studying Tourism-Management at the Faculty of Business and Economics. During her studies she has attended several competitions successfully. To highlight the most important one, in April 2017 she has won the National Scientific Students' Associations Conference with her partner in Tourism-marketing section. The topic was the innovation in hotels, within that the robotization. Since then she has attended different conferences successfully with this research for example in Győr and Budapest, and this area became her main research field too.

Adam Stefan, student,

A Tourism Management master's student. Who have been studying at the University since 2013. With his partner, they have been awarded first place at the National Student's Scientific Conference in 2017. Their topic was robots at the Front Office desk in hotels. Since then he has presented their topic on many occasions, such as the Symposium of Tourism Geography in Budapest, the Sport – Economics – Tourism conference at Széchenyi István University - Kautz Gyula Faculty of Economics in Győr. Since the beginning of the year, he has been a demonstrator and a mentor at the Faculty of Business and Economics at the university, helping the professors and students.

Petra Gyurácz-Németh PhD, associate professor

Petra Gyurácz-Németh is an associate professor at the Department of Tourism, Faculty of Business and Economics, University of Pannonia. Her research focuses on service process, quality and innovation management concentrating on the hotel sector, from which she gained her PhD and mainly publish papers. She teaches hotel related subjects as well.

How can you define & develop your new venture?

From the Business Model Canvas, through Lean canvas to the Business Concept Map

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Abstract

During entrepreneurship studies educators challenge students to develop their own business idea. Without previous experiences students are facing difficulties in defining business models/concepts. To help students and nascent entrepreneurs, new tools have been developed. In this article different tools and methods will be compared to satisfy today's entrepreneurial need.

From an extensive discussion on understanding business model in strategy formulation an easy to use model and tool emerged. Osterwalder and Pigneur (2010) in their book simply answered the question: How to generate the business model for a business? They described the nine major elements of the business model and named their tool: Business Model Canvas.

Based on Business Model Canvas philosophy, Maurya (2012) optimized the framework for lean startups. He focused the model to help the users to be prepared for starting a new business through clarifying key elements of the business model and addressing key issues to handle.

Vecsenyi (2011) developed a website (www.startmybusiness123.com) to support students and other future entrepreneurs to develop their business concept, analyze risks and make an educated decision on stopping, postponing or starting the implementation of their business idea. In this methodology, instead of using the Business Model Canvas, another model, the Business Concept with six major building blocks was used. The model was further developed as a standalone tool called Business Concept Map (Vecsenyi and Bedzsula 2013, www.vallalkozasindito.hu).

In this paper we would like to define, compare and differentiate the three tools. We would like to share our experience of using the tools by giving practical examples. We wish to help students/entrepreneurs not only intend to recognize business opportunity but to go further along the 12 steps (Vecsenyi, Petheő 2017) towards entering the market.

Keywords: Business Model Canvas, Lean Canvas, Business Model Concept, Entrepreneurship Education,

ICBERD

Introduction

During the last decades business model emerged as a popular term in management and entrepreneurship. Those who wanted to have a better understanding of the operation of any organization developed concepts and tools. As early as the 1960s to the 1980s during the hype of systems movement Soft System Methodology emerged. At that time a great tool, CATWOE, was developed by Checkland and colleagues (Checkland 1981).

Although the CATWOE tool was first introduced in 1981, there are signs that it is still in use at least by business analysts in design thinking (Elmansy 2014). CATWOE is a simple checklist of thinking used by people „to identify what the business is trying to achieve, what the problem areas are and how the solution is going to affect the business and people involved in it" (Pandey 2011). It is worth listing the elements of the tool and recognizing the similarities of elements in later tools.

1. Clients/Customers
2. Actors
3. Transformation process
4. Weltanschauung or World-view
5. Owners or ownership
6. Environment

Literature review and contextualization

With the internet bubble attention turned to understanding the successes and failures of e-businesses. Experts in the field wanted to explain how these ventures make business. In a narrower sense, business models research focused primarily on the revenue stream, the way the business generates any kind of income. Business models were defined from the classical product or service direct sale through subscription, razor and blades, crowdsourcing, brokerage, to freemium (Barakonyi, 2008, Móricz 2009, Ovans 2015)

Other experts broaden the picture and consider business model as description of how an existing or a future organization creates, delivers and captures value in an uncertain environment. The breakthrough happened in this field when Osterwalder (2004), Osterwalder and Pigneur (2010) combined the two approaches: revenue generation and value creation.

Based on the increasing relevance of useful business models, tools were developed to support managers, consultants, students, nascent entrepreneurs to solve their business problems of existing and new ventures. The tools were designed to help the users design, validate and improve business models and related business strategies either of existing firms and in the entrepreneurship arena creation new companies.

When startup and venture capital financing hype emerged the role of business plan received a kind of new perspective. Traditional venture capitalists, who wanted to minimize their risks, insisted to use extensive business plans with ample market research and financial data organized neatly in spreadsheets as a great tool of communication among stakeholders. At the same time potential investors wanted the new venture creators to be prepared based on educated decisions other than hunch. Consequently, new venture creators prepared a business plan to create a document for themselves, their key staff members and potential investors as a convincing, credible and comforting document (Bygrave 1994, Vecsenyi and Petheő 2017)). In a business plan usually, the following sections are covered:

1. Executive summary
2. Company description (history, mission, products and services, legal status, ownership, key partners)
3. Industry analysis (industry size, growth rate, sales projection, industry structure, nature of participants, key success factors, industry trends, long-term prospects)
4. Market analysis (market segmentations and target market selection, buyer behavior, competitor analysis and competitive advantages)
5. Marketing plan (overall marketing strategy, 4P, 7Cs)
6. Product and service (value proposition, status and development tasks, challenges and risks, intellectual properties)
7. Management team (owner(s), key staff members, boards, company structure)
8. Operations plan (core and distinctive competencies, resources, technologies, facilities, licenses)
9. Financial projections (pro forma income statements, balance sheet, cash flow statements, investment needs, sources and uses of funds statement)

At the same time, quick decision makers argued the usefulness of such an extensive business plan and wanted to have better tools.

Some practitioners even went further to challenge their right to existence. Personally, we do not share this opinion. We believe that business plan is a useful tool, but it has some limitation which might be corrected by other forms. One of the facts which makes business plan old fashioned, that business plans take too long to write, are seldom updated, and almost never read by others. By the time the 100 pages long business plan attached to a 5-year spreadsheet with numbers that all show a tendency to grow in a neat diagram or chart is ready, the window of opportunity is nearly closed. Decision makers are not wasting their time to read long business plans. So, they need other solutions. One type of answers to this challenge is to use business models as a one-page business plan.

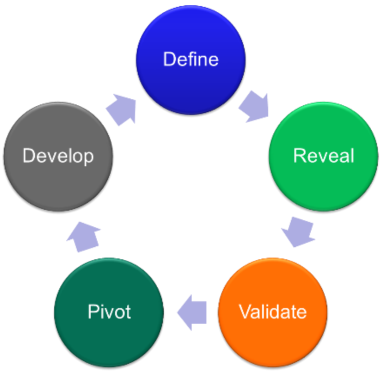
The notion behind creating a business model or business concept in one-page instead of writing a traditional business plan for a new venture is to

- define venture concept to start with key elements,
- reveal, make the hidden assumptions, hypothesizes

explicit behind the business concept,

- validate these crucial assumptions (problem-solution fit, market-product fit, revenue generation fit) on the marketplace,
- pivot decision about the modification of the business concept based on lessons from validation feedback,
- develop the new business concept and implement it.

Figure 1. The business model (concept) development circle



Source: Vecsenyi, Petheő (2017)

We agree that documenting entrepreneurs' hypothesis is the key to understand success. We agree with Maurya (Maruya 2012) "Document your key business model assumptions (and learning) in a portable format that you can share and discuss with people other than yourself."

We would like to present the Business Model Canvas, the Lean Canvas and Business Concept Map and highlight the pros and cons of using them to make the choice easier for future nascent entrepreneurs. We would like to investigate why these tools were introduced, what the purpose of the tool is and where and how the tool can be applied.

In our view 'one size fits all' is not the right way to follow selecting the right business model tool, so everyone should select the one fits to its project the best.

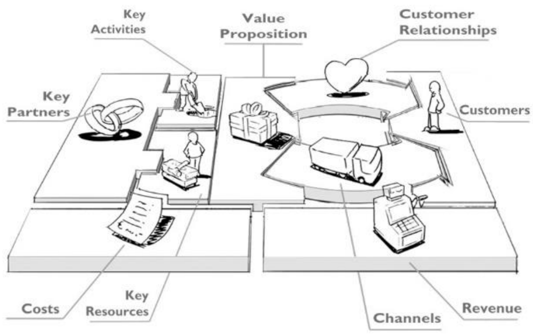
<u>Concept 1 Business Model Canvas by Osterwalder and Pigneur 2010</u>

After Business Model Canvas became very popular the two authors prepared a book to explain more thoroughly the tool. Their book simply answers the question: How to generate the business model for a business?

In our opinion the tool is a good option when somebody would like to describe an existing business. It helps to identify the major elements and does not require deep digging research. Later, somehow nascent entrepreneurs started to use the tool to describe a new venture. As most of the people know only this tool, the result is just a little above the satisfying level. Several questions in business model canvas cannot be answered without industry experience or considering a role model company.

However, this fact does not inhibit many nascent entrepreneurs to prepare their business model with the help of business model Canvas.

Figure 2. Business Model Canvas



Source: Osterwalder and Pigneur (2010)

<u>Example</u>

We present here a 5 years old company who would likes to cross border and grow their business abroad. In this case most of the information is available to formulate Business Model Canvas to describe their plans with other stakeholders abroad. There are fewer assumptions as the company already has a proven business model, which they would like to implement abroad.

We believe that Business Model Canvas is an easy to use tool and that is why it is very popular among users. There is a suggested order to fill up the blocks, but users can start nearly anywhere on the Canvas.

1. The Customer Segments:

PlayIT has found a customer segment, which is outgoing, and willing to visit exhibitions and game shows. These young people are sponsored by their parents, very open for IT and early adapters. They are willing to buy new generation consoles, and can hardly wait for new game versions.

2. Value Proposition:

For sponsors PlayIT offers a great visibility, special attention by audience, fantastic opportunity to introduce (exhibit) their latest products, and a regular event to meet faithful customers. It is an exhibition, a gamer show, with exclusive content 60%. The other 40% is ITech and Mobil connected to gaming. It is built on a game fare, which offers noteworthy deals for customers. But "show must go on" many entertaining programmes are added to the core function, like sports, offline games, lifestyle.

3. Channels:

As the event expanded the communications getting harder and harder. There are more and more segments to communicate with. Communication needs ample resources in graphics and prints. Visitors are online, but it is not enough just to communicate online. On spot communication is very important to make people talk about you, like largest Xbox one box of Europe.

4. Customer Relationship:

People should enjoy their visit, and recommend the event to others. Communicate their participation, to start word of mouth online. PlayIT gives them exclusive deals, what they were waiting for. They are not only customers, they are promoters as well. PlayIT listens to their needs, and tries to satisfy different niche groups as well. Thematic change follows the IT trends to renew every year the exhibition. To not to lose attention, opinion leaders are invited. With this engagement user experience becomes high.

5. Revenue Streams:

The teaser event is very similar to a movie premier event, but all costs should be covered by sponsors and founders, PlayIT cannot be built on ticket income in the beginning. Founders should invest at least 4 000 EUR capital for the launch. There is detailed calculation for every event, which can be used as a guideline with corner numbers.

6. Key Resources:

PlayIT should pursuit a business opportunity beyond its resources! It should not have any fixed cost. PlayIT and local partner can provide every resource needed. This will be the guarantee for cost efficient operation. No depreciation! Minimal overhead cost! This way it can maximize cash flow parallel to dynamic growth.

7. Key Activities:

Find the most appropriate date (1 day); Locate and reserve the venue (for 5000 to15000 people); Find sponsors and exhibitors; Develop ticket distribution channels; Finalize program and marketing campaign; Start promoting, invite special guest; Build up an organizing team; Contract local suppliers; Organize the event; Do all the after administration, invoices, taxes, etc.; Prepare the after movie for promotion; Learn, learn, learn from mistakes.

8. Key Partnership:

PlayIT is not viable without key partners. The whole business is based on leveraged business model. Retailers, distributors, e-sport players, youtubers, cosplayers need to get special attention.

9. Cost:

Cost of Venue, HR, Marketing, Event technique, Transport and Logistics, Other overhead. based on experience provides good estimations.

If we follow the instructions, we start with identification of customer segments. We need to describe which value propositions are satisfying customer needs. The channels must be selected through the company interaction with customers and delivering value. Customer relationship outlies the type of relationship the company establishes with customers. The next step is to identify revenue streams. It is important to develop pricing mechanism, and clarify how the company is capturing value (making profit out of the business). Key resources mean infrastructure the company needs. What are the assets indispensable for operation? Key activity shows which things the company needs to perform well. We teach that entrepreneurship is using other people's resources. Once you are ready with all other parts of your business model, you can calculate the cost structure.

Evaluation

Why do so many people use the Business Model Canvas? We listed the major benefits of using the Business Model Canvas

- easy to use with clear terms
- helps understanding the business model of an existing or a new venture

- helps revealing assumptions
- helps to generate new business model
- easy access to the tool and explanations (home pages)
- access to examples
- popular, well-known almost everywhere

We identified the following weaknesses of the model:

- static model, hard to take trends into consideration
- growth potential, market size not part of the canvas
- less attention on competition
- entrepreneurial team is completely missing, which is a crucial element of startups, although in the resources section it can be mentioned
- no attention on special considerations of new ventures, e.g. investments needs, uniqueness of the value proposition, distinctive competence to create competitive advantages, outsourced competencies in creating values.
- do not support defining needs for change
- no list of actions

In addition to BMC Osterwalder and his colleagues further developed this tool, and added Value Proposition Canvas (Osterwalder and others 2014) which focuses in more detail the fit between value propositions and targeted customers.

<u>Concept 2 Lean Canvas by Maurya (2013)</u>

Maurya (2013) went even further and adjusted the Canvas to lean startup methodology. Maruya noticed that, due to emerging lean startup concept, highlighted by Blank (2005), Ries (2011), startuppers started using the Business Model Canvas and Values Proposition Canvas more extensively. Working extensively with startuppers and other new venture creators began using Business Model Canvas and Maruya optimized this tool for lean startups.

The Lean Canvas tool helps users to define key elements of the new business and key issues to handle.

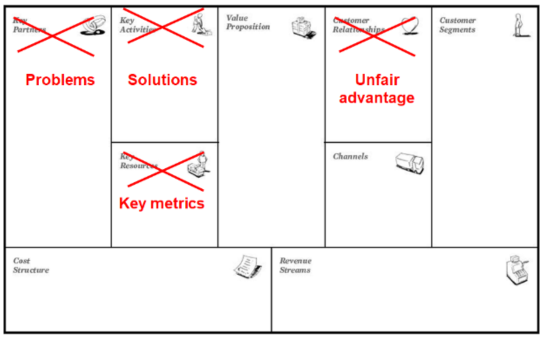
Lean Canvas was designed for entrepreneurs, not consultants, customers, advisors, or investors. It started that, the entrepreneur can greatly benefit by engaging all stakeholders while validating their Canvas. It is more specific than the Business Model Canvas. Usually custom models and tools fits better to user needs.

From the original Business Model Canvas four elements out of nine were eliminated and four new elements were added. The Lean Canvas finally covers the following nine elements listed here and shown in Figure 3:

- Value proposition
- Customer segments
- Channels
- Revenue streams
- Cost structure
- Problem
- Solution

- Key metrics
- Unfair advantage

Figure 3. From Business Model Canvas to Lean Canvas

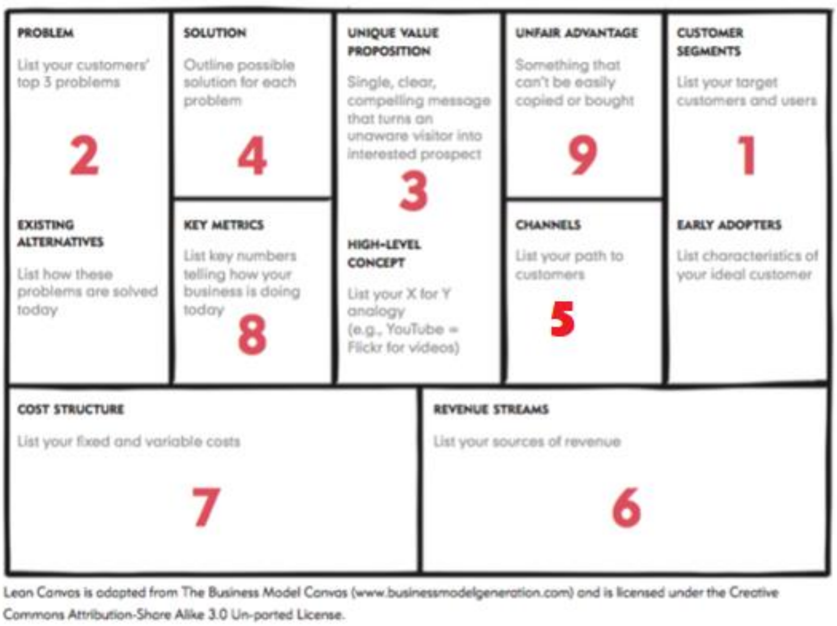


Source: Maurya https://blog.leanstack.com/why-lean-canvas-vs-business-model-canvas-af62c0f250f0

The elements Maruya took out were either overlapping with other blocks or were not crucial factor of success. Customer relationship is already part of the channel. Key partners are hard to gain in the starting phase.

Maurya also changed the suggested route of filling Lean Canvas (see Figure 4). Defining problems becomes the second step. Market segment and early adopters got special attention at first. Cost structure is not the last any more. Unfair advantage and key metrics got special focus as they are important to become sustainable and gain market share in the long run. As the original model is under creative common license, so everyone is invited to further develop.

Figure 4. How to fill in Lean Canvas?



Source: Maurya (2016)

<u>Example</u>

Here we present a sample case about a startup, who wishes to enter the market with a tiny innovation. Lean Canvas was probably the best tool for them to describe their business.

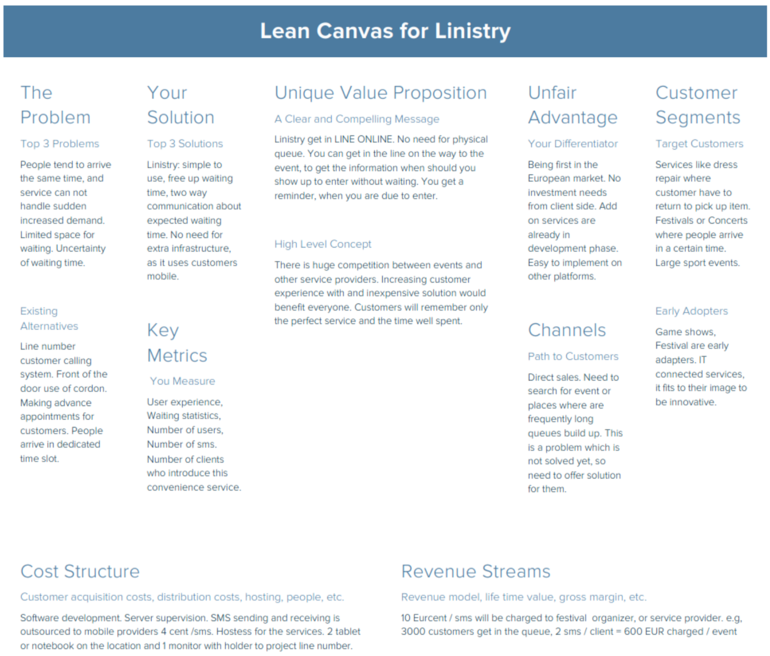
We selected a Hungarian startup called Linsitry as a sample for this tool. This startup was founded in 2017 by four young talented persons based on the idea which came into their mind when they were to wait several times in queues. They developed a simple SMS web application to solve this problem: not to waste too much time in queues.

Nobody likes standing in line. Customers would like to enjoy an event instead of queuing up. Lengthy queues require staff attention and take away floor space. Linistry solves this problem. How? With Linistry customer can reserve their spot in the queue virtually and may turn waiting time into active time, enjoying other programs instead of standing in line.

So, the customers can come back later when they are expected to show up. They can visit the bathroom, or have a drink. No misunderstanding who was there first, no shoulder to shoulder fight for space.

Lean Canvas for Linistry can be seen in Figure 5.

Figure 5. Lean Canvas sample



Lean Canvas, created by LEANSTACK, is an adaptation of the Business Model Canvas and is licensed under the Creative Commons Attribution-Share Alike 3.0 Un-ported License

Source: Maurya (2016)

<u>Evaluation</u>

In our opinion, Mauyra's version is very good with a focus shifted toward problems. He does not mention product, rather building solution and business model gets special attention.

Lean Canvas has many valuable features which add value to the model. We suggest using it as focus on the critical elements starting a new venture. It is still very simple to use. It builds on the Canvas and keeps the clear form. It steps even further as integrates the new business formation terms like cost of customer acquisition (COCA), life time value of customer (LTV), early adopters. This model forces the user to make assumption explicit for validation, which makes it enhances its value.

On the other hand, there is no place for competition in the model (opposite to the Porter model). Growth potential (scalability) is not handled at all. HR is not included, as also mentioned earlier in BMC. Initial funding is not mentioned anywhere in the model. The tool is weak in finance and concentrate more on technology, business model and project management.

Results

<u>Concept 3 Business Concept Map by Vecsenyi (2011)</u>

Teaching at Corvinus University of Budapest and Budapest University of Technology and Economics, Professor Vecsenyi wanted to improve the entrepreneurship education. In 2011 he developed an online platform where students could develop a short business plan using structured questions, financial planning tools, risk assessment methods, mitigation suggestions of entrepreneurs and other experts. Receiving feedback both from students, nascent entrepreneurs and other scholars, Vecsenyi developed Business Concept Map (BCM). When he formed his model, his purpose was very ambitious:

- helping smart new venture creation
- define the business to start
- combine the business opportunity and value creation
- reveal assumptions for validation before developing products, services
- provide a tool for investment pitching
- give answers to questions of potential investors, partners
- create an easy to read one-page summary of major aspects of a new business

After several versions and fine tuning of the map it arrived at a stage where more than 1200 concept formulated with its use. In our view, Business Concept Map helps to structure the business idea, and create an easy to read summary. We realized a side-effect that in the process several circles of preparing, validating and modifying the Business Concept Map answers to potential investors', product, market and business developers' questions were given.

In the business concept six major aspects of a new venture are identified. The first three define the core elements of a business opportunity, explain *why* the entrepreneur would like to pursue:

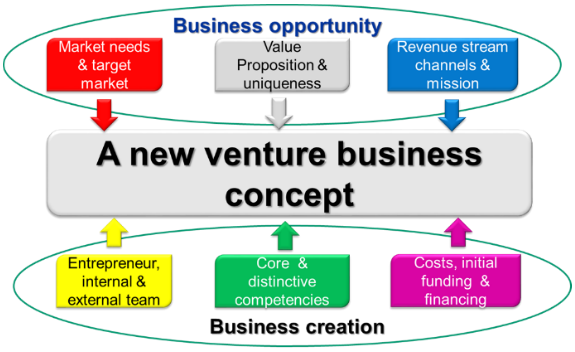
- The market need and target customers
- The value proposition and uniqueness (competitive advantages) the way the new business would like to satisfy that need
- The revenue stream and channels clarify what is the potential to generate money

The other three elements cover the business creation condition, explaining *how* the entrepreneur would like to exploit the opportunity:

- The entrepreneur (owner) and the starting internal and external team
- The core and special competencies and resources
- Cost structure, initial investment and financing

The Construction of the Business Concept Map is presented in Figure 6.

Figure 6. The Business Concept Map



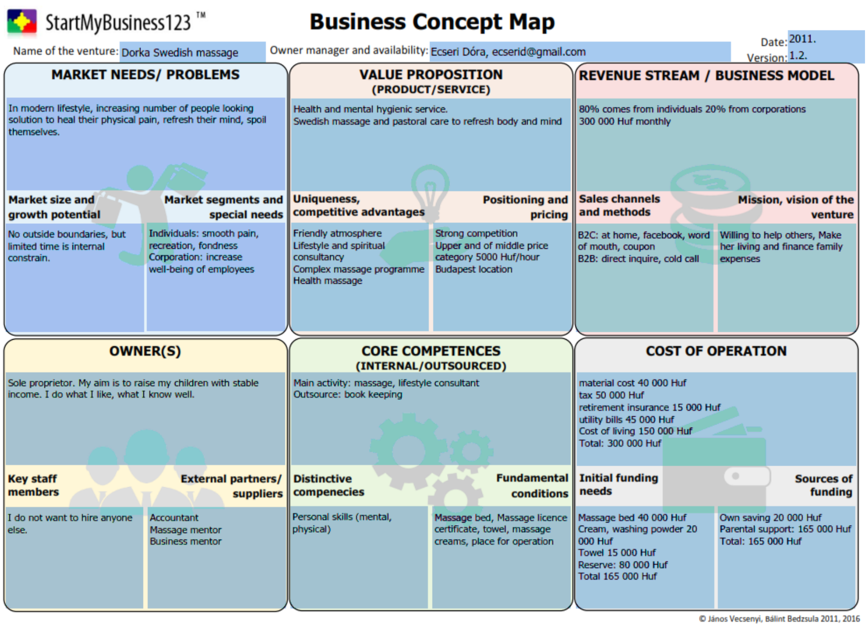
Source: Vecsenyi, Petheő 2017

This tool was found useful for those who would like to start small, traditional businesses, but start-uppers also considered it as vital tool.

<u>Example</u>

Here we present an example of how a sole proprietorship demonstrates the basic use of this tool.

Figure 7. Business Concept Map example



Source: Vecsenyi, Petheő 2017

Evaluation

Defining Business Concept is a core step in understanding and developing a new venture. As part of the validation process (shown in Figure 1.) these tools help the user either to improve the strategy and operation of an existing business or to clarify and fine tune the direction of a potential new venture.

During the validation process the tools help to clarify why the business makes sense:

- Is there a real market need, are there real customers who are ready to buy?
- Is it the right product/service to satisfy that need and is it attractive enough for customers to buy it?
- Does it generate enough revenue through the channels designed and does this business fit your mission?

Especially in new venture creation revealing assumption in the business model or concept and in validation of the assumptions the reality of problem-solution fit, market-product fit, idea-business fit will be clear. When the fits are clear and the idea to start the new venture really makes sense a feasibility study is required by asking the following questions:

- Are the entrepreneur and the entrepreneurial team the right people in the appropriate roles, with the adequate motivations?
- Are the required competencies, resources to deliver the value proposition available internally or externally of the right quality and quantity and under what conditions?
- Is the calculation of costs of operation and initial investment costs of starting the business realistic and is the funding available to finance?

After validation, and assessment of the answers, decision can be made of the future direction even of stopping the process. In a positive outcome a new definition of the business concept including the value proposition, agile product development parallel with customer development can be started.

This model also has some week points such as:

- It requires extensive market research on the field and deep analysis for validation
- It is a tool demanding more time and energy to fill out the template compared with the other two models
- It needs to have business mindset and vocabulary

Compared with the two other models, BCM covers additional aspects:

- growth potential and market size projections
- competitive analysis and market positioning
- mission statement or reason for existence
- owner entrepreneur(s), key personals, external partners, suppliers
- legal conditions of existence

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- initial investments, funding and financing

These aspects in addition to the basic elements of the BCM, cover several questions which nascent entrepreneurs / students have never thought of earlier.

Conclusions

Recent years showed that these tools were not only published but widely used by

- students at their business or entrepreneurship courses
- practitioners, managers, consultants, analysts for improving existing firms
- entrepreneurs for clarifying business opportunity and business creation conditions

In new business creation these tools have not substituted business-plan but provided basic answers for investors' questions in a limited time. With the help of these tools the quality and clarity improved a lot. The tools helped nascent entrepreneurs / students to have a better understanding of their business, to visualize their concept and use them as an easy to use communication tool with such stakeholders as decision maker managers, investors, or lecturers.

<u>Business Model Canvas</u>

Considering our interviews with users of this tools as well as reviewing current literature (Coes 2014, Stefan and Richard 2014), Business Model Canvas is a great tool

- to prepare simple, structured description of existing company
- to create effective communication tool with co-entrepreneurs, investors, employees
- to use for easy visualization

The limitations of BMC as we discussed earlier are the missing aspects of the

- growth potential of the market
- market size projections
- competitive analysis, understanding competitive advantages
- human side of the venture, e.g. owners, key members
- investment needs and funding

BMC became as a popular tool for defining new venture as well. Although it is not an ideal solution, most users are not aware of its limitations.

<u>Lean Canvas</u>

The primary aims of using Lean Canvas are:

- defining a simple and structured definition of an imagined new venture
- defining the critical elements of starting the startup
- helping to reveal the critical assumptions for validation and actions

The key advantages of using Lean Canvas are as follows

- defining problems to be solved for starting the new venture
- developing solutions to the major problems identified

- defining key metrics and measuring them during development phases
- clarifying unfair advantage to make the venture competitive utilizing distinctive competencies, resources

The limitations of this tool are partly connected to the expertise needed to use the tool and are partly related to the reduced number of aspects of the business model.

- Defining problems, creating and measuring key metrics require expertise, special knowledge some entrepreneurs may have on shortage
- The missing elements such as market growth potential, competitive arena, critical resources, investments needed, might reduce the usefulness of this approach.

These are crucial points in developing a successful new business and Lean Canvas provides a great tool to identify these key elements of execution.

Business Concept Map

The reasons behind constructing the Business Concept Map to help new venture creators are

- to define the imagined new business with a practical structure that covers most relevant business aspects
- to understand the business in creation, in addition to having an idea
- to reveal assumptions for validation and generation of pivot decisions and follow up actions

The major advantage of using Business Concept Map are as follows:

- almost full picture of the business in creation
- the clear definition of the business opportunity such as a) the market need, target market, growth potential, b) value proposition, unique selling points, competitive position, c) revenue generation, market channel, mission, and business creation conditions such as d) entrepreneur(s), team, external partners, suppliers, e) core competencies, technologies, distinctive competencies, critical success factors, legal and other preconditions to start with, and finally f) costs of operations, investment needs and financing
- answers to most of the questions the entrepreneurial team and potential investors may have

The use of Business Concept Map is limited since

- defining of a business concept requires the understanding of business terms and having at least a limited business mindset
- working on a mental image of a business the nascent entrepreneurs should accept that in addition to creation of a new product or service some sort of determination and engagement is

needed to be involved in creation of a business itself

- developing, validating and modifying a Business Concept Map take time and energy prior to execution

Creation of the Business Concept Map is part of a 12-step process of starting a new venture from the idea to entering the market, as introduced in our recently published book (Vecsenyi and Petheő 2017). With this book and our courses at Corvinus University and Budapest University of Technology and Economic Sciences BCM became a reality in helping students and nascent entrepreneurs to identify business opportunities and to create conditions to pursue them.

<u>Final remarks</u>

Structured tools helping users to have a better understanding of the logic and operation of a business is essential to make them even better. The tools introduced here are all useful ones. Users can select the most adequate in each situation.

To increase the number of users of such tools developers may consider

- usefulness of the tools tested in different context and environment
- exposure in different environment e.g. academia, business, different countries
- supporting infrastructure, ecosystem
  - speak about it on conferences
  - publish article or blog as soon as possible
  - write and publish at least a book about your concept
  - create and run websites with templates, examples, instructions
  - run university courses for students and executives
  - run workshops, seminars and webinars for practitioners
  - create network of evangelists, champions and collaborate with them
  - collect more and more feedback from application
  - improve modify if necessary and extend supplementary material

These tools are useful and highly recommended to have better business in our world. Developing new tools is a never-ending story. Just to give an example see Disciplined Entrepreneurship Canvas, Aulet (2017). Who knows what other tools are in the pipeline.

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Brief biography

János Vecsenyi

He has been teaching entrepreneurship as professor emeritus at Corvinus University and Technical University at Budapest for decades. He was lecturer at University Tulsa (USA), INSEAD (France) and Czech Management Center in Prague. Professor Vecsenyi founded and still runs the Startup Venture Incubation Program for students in schools he teaches. He is owner manager of his VJV consulting company and the www.vallalkozasindito.hu website. Author of four books on Entrepreneurship in Hungarian and the Business Concept Map.

Attila Petheő

He is a serial entrepreneur who has experience in agribusiness, event services and trade ventures. Associate professor at Corvinus University of Budapest, expert of social entrepreneurship. Guest lecturer at several other Universities like ESSCA and PennState University. He was awarded in 2017 the lecturer of the year title.

Business Ethics and CSR between Yesterday and Tomorrow

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Abstract

Ethics is a concept that covers all our life activities starting with our family, friends, job, social relations, government and laws, to end up at the end of the day with a blessed book of a right and wrong behavior to live with.

Ethics has developed to become the core of business success; more over it helps in creating ethical decisions, and forms the company's relationship with its surroundings. From this perspective, this qualitative study will discuss the progress of business ethics, and what is its importance in business future now days based on collected data, researches, authors findings, records. On the other hand, CSR becomes the umbrella under which the rights and duties existing between companies and society relies on, we will talk about relation binding CSR and Business Ethics, and importance of Corporate social responsibility, mentioning an example of ethical crises in Coca Cola company, to reach at the end of this article for a main conclusion that CSR standards is an effective strategy to overcome an ethical crises.

Keywords: Ethics in business, Ethics and CSR , Ethics Crises , Ethics Principles , Future of Business Ethics , Coca Cola Crises .

Introduction

Ethics is an essential part in building a civilized society, and with out it all companies will face crisis and failure. Now days, companies main reason for establishing a business is gaining profit , and many companies do what ever it takes in a way or another , regardless of their ethical conduct impact , to reach that target .

Business Ethics is an umberella term that covers all ethical behaviors in doing a business , where it circulates companies departements starting with management , accounting , finance , human recources , law , and technology . It is a set of written and Unwritten codes , Principles , and values that govern decisions and actions within a company . While CSR concept is about how campanies manage the business process to produce an overall positive compact on the society . In a word it is the responsibility of company to contribute to a better society and better environment .

This paper will show us the evolution of Business Ethics and CSR Sciences , the relation between Business Ethics and CSR .

First, we will define Business ethics concept, then we will discuss its history , to move to CSR concept, and how this new paradigm has become the center of companies activities, more over we will show the main difference between business ethics and CSR .

In the end , we will talk about ethical crises in Coca Cola Company and how it overcome this crisis .

Literature review

Many studies have discussed the importance of Ethics and Social responsibility in the Business environment, where those phenomena entered in all firms' codes and concepts. After the phenomena's of slavery and persecution of workers right that were spread out in the 18^{th} century, economist start searching for new management systems to maintain the rights and organize the social wealth, richness, equity and fairness.

In the early of 1700 B.C., the Code of Hammurabi established the business systems of prescribing prices, laying down rules of commerce, and instituting penalties for noncompliance.

Economist Milton Friedman in the mid of 19^{th} century was the first to talk about the corporate executives: "Responsibility generally will be to make as much money as possible while conforming to their basic rules of the society, both those embodied in law and those embodied in ethical custom".

Similarly author business consultant Peter Drucker observed, "There is neither a separate ethics of business nor is one needed", implying that standards of personal ethics cover all business situations. After a while the concept of CSR starts arising, where economist view business in the form of CSR " an umbrella term indicating that an ethical business must act as a responsible citizen of the communities in which it operates even at the cost of profits or other goals.

Business ethics refers to contemporary organizational standards, principles, and sets of values and norms that govern the actions and behavior of an individual in the business organization. Business ethics have two dimensions, normative or descriptive.

In 1950, Howard R. Browen father of CSR marks the beginning of modern CSR by publishing the book: Social Responsibilities of Businessman. Later in 1960, Davis Keith start searching for the meaning of this new paradigm. Then, Companies begin to establish codes of conduct and values statements, Birth of social responsibility movement in 1960. Then, the Ethics Recourses Center has been founded in 1977, where values movement begins to arise.

In 1980, Peter Drucker wrote an important research about how CSR should be seen in companies, also Carol proposed a definition concerned as a part of CSR, four aspects: economic, legal, ethical, philanthropic. Corporate ethics was the hottest topic in 1990, according to study conducted by carol.

In the literature overview, many authors and economist try to search for the truth of business ethics, where Aristotle said "the end and purpose of the polis is the good life", Adam smith has specified the good life as material goods, and intellectual and moral excellences of character ", moreover he added: "All for ourselves and nothing for other people, seems in every age of the world to have been the vile maxim of the masters of mankind.

At the late time of the 19^{th} century, Universities starts interested in business ethics courses , which were taught to 40,000 students , and it starting catching the attention of the media and business firms , and shows up on the journals and newspapers , the European business schools has founded the EBEN " European Business Ethics Network" .

Methodology of this research

In this socio-economic research we intend to discuss the relation binding Business Ethics and CSR , and the importance of CSR as an effective strategic tool for the company social wealthness and sustainability in future .We started researching the roots of Business Ethics and CSR , by using the qualitative method , and analysis of data and documents . We analyzed the traits of business ethics and CSR .

More over , we talk about the Coca Cola Company Ethical Crises , the roots of the problem , and we analyzed the data and tables of the comany , to reach at th end of the research that the implementation of the CSR tools will help the company to overcome its ethical crises , with the help of many researches papers in this field , and effective economic and management sites .

Finding and discussion

Each country has its own ethical views and thoughts, and business ethics in companies include the relation of company with the atmosphere of employees, suppliers, customers, neighbors, government, market, and other firms. The company responsibilities lay on the shoulders of its workers, and their ethical and conscience conducts, another term of Business ethics is the CSR, where some authors start seeing the business ethics from the perspective of CSR applied on the Companies, which is defined as the responsibility of Firms towards society".

Lawrence fine has talked about business ethics " Business Ethics is as old as business itself , even before there were formal companies and institutions, people already allowed their everyday morals to guide them in their commercial dealings".

Business ethics has been specified to social ethics, social thought, political ,economy or economic ethics the disciplines of history, literature, sociology and politics sciences in 1970 ,

CSR target is to increase long-term profits and shareholder trust through positive public relation and high ethical standards to reduce business and legal risk by taking responsibility for corporate actions.

Economists, governments, companies become more and more interested in CSR due to the latest impact of globalization, neoliberalism, and late capitalism for the sake of society and environment,

Since 1960 the concept of CSR starts to rise and be recognized in many countries, where writers and authors start forming definition of what CSR is, and what it refers too, and what is made of, it merges from the ethical principles of the an organization and how it might affect the society and environment, and here it merges with business ethics in one philosophy, Carroll has extended the CSR paradigm from the traditional economic and legal responsibility in to ethical and philanthropic responsibility to reach the new CSR pyramid , which is determined by four categories namely economic , legal , ethical , and philanthropic responsibilities .

Every country analyzes CSR from its own perspective, when Germany views CSR in the frame of secure employment, China looks for it from the consumers sake, safety, and high quality products, On the other hand, South Africa underlines CSR to social needs as health care and educational system, where every schools identifies CSR from a specific theory, even in side each country we may realize the diversity.

The matrix of CSR in an organization varies from one department to other, in the supply chain view, it tries to rebuild the trust between the suppliers and retailers and stakeholders, to form a value package of products and services to the end user, who is the customer.

In the accounting and auditing field, the CSR standards binds with the social accounting concepts, where the reporting guidelines serves as a frame work for social accounting , as the "Fair Labor Association " that conducts audits based on its workplace code of conducts, and the " Fear Wear Foundation " that verifies labor conditions in companies supply chains, using auditing terms. More over, the CSR policy helps the company to improve the perception of a company among its staff, to aid in the process of recruitment and retention in the human recourses departments.

Some companies try to use the CSR as a strategic tool in order to gain a competitive place in the market, by using their social contributions as another form of advertising.

As "Sholmo Sher", a professor in Business Ethics course and Ethical decision, has viewed Business Ethics in 2015 as "an umbrella set that covers all ethics in business, as in supply chain management, to marketing, to accounting, to human recourses, and CSR is a subset of the larger field of business ethics, "Sher" also has discussed in his research the relationship between "Business Ethics and CSR".

In the past, there were few researches differentiating between CSR and business ethics, some views CSR as it emerges from the bones of the business ethics. Corporate social responsibility is a piece of the Business Ethics huge pie, where Business Ethics includes a set of ethical norms traditions, values implying what is right and wrong, drawing a path for companies holistic strategies in the world of business, while CSR has its narrow lines, talking directly about the responsibility of organizations towards society.

On the other field, each company has its own book of ethics called "Ethical Code of Conduct" that guide employers to understand the company philosophy of ethics, towards others companies , customers , employees , while we analyze that CSR paradigm is neither planted as an independent department in the company that settles down the company responsibility toward environment and society and economy, nor as an CSR consultant and committee forming an annual CSR reports and recommendations, that evaluates the companies annual achievement's in the social , environmental , economic , philanthropic field .

From the historical view, in the beginning of the 18th century we started hearing about the phenomena of Business Ethics, where is has merges from resulting the liberalism and capitalism results. While the CSR is a modern term where it has spread on the late of 19th century as a new business system, after the change in the companies targets and visions, where companies views its success in the form of the profits regardless of companies effect on environment and society.

When CSR is pointed out to the public, Business Ethics is used inside companies. Even though, both are presented in the environment of business, Business Ethics are the moral principles used by the companies to ensure that all employees act in an ethical and acceptable behavior in the world of business, while the Social responsibility it's an ideological theory that governments and the general public are also concerned with.

In the interior concept that separates Business Ethics from CSR , some companies tries to use CSR as a marketing technique to promote for its product in order to has a good marketing positions, through being committed for CSR standards, for example when BMW company donates yearly a part of its revenues for educational programs , and promote for this charity in the media, and may be to market its images in the society, this action regardless of its aim it is in the circle of CSR , but in the concept of Business Ethics , Is this still ethical?

To sum up, this research mentioned a few main differences between CSR and Business Ethics , but CSR as we have mentioned is a part of Business Ethics Environment , where both share same traits and characteristics, as charity, honesty, respect , social commitment , transparency ,integrity , social responsibility , and the company will not be ethical with out respecting the Social Responsibility rules , and vise versa , the company cannot apply the CSR strategies and act in an un ethical way , and CSR can be used an effective strategic tool to overcome any ethical crises , as we will see in the Coca Cola company .

Coca cola is one of the world's largest company, it serves daily more than one billion products to customers and international markets, where it has the most loyal customers of the industry. The company draws a serious tactic concerning environment and society, where it sets an educational and health programs, including a scholarship of 22 million dollars in grants for students.

The company has done a program named "Education On Wheels", where children learn many subjects to develop their critical thinking methods, more over it provides scholarships for more than 170 colleges , that leads to build strong relationship with community and stakeholders .

In 1999, Coca Cola Company has faced an ethical crises, when a few children fell ill after drinking a product of Coca-Cola in Belgium, after a while, all Coca Cola products was pulled of from the stores. This effects the companies' reputation, and made lose of respect for the company, not only in Belgium but also in Luxembourg and the Netherlands, who did the same.

A bad batch of carbon dioxide, was the cause of the problem, on the beginning the crises does not reach the media , but after a while all media knew about the details of the story and start criticizing coca cola products , that made an announcement regarding the situation .The crises spread away to France , where also about one hundred people become sick due to mold in the products they consumed, also France has throwaway all products to resolve the problem , this stage the reputation of the company has effected totally and further diminished.

The problem has developed from the products quality, to faces struggles in the European countries in marketing and anti-trust laws. The company has sets strong strategies in order to gain a competitive position in the market, to overcome its problems of anti-trust and bad reputations.

Racial discrimination also has led Coca-Cola to exposure a lawsuit in the spring of 1999 by African American, cause of the low salaries paid for the employers based on the race. In the lawsuit, it said that the top Coca-Cola knew about the discrimination, and didn't do anything about it. The Coca Cola Company has disclaimed the accusations, but the public had big reactions to the case. The company has paid $193 million to resolve the racial discrimination lawsuit.

Coca Cola sets out a serious CSR strategies to recover the problems , and got its reputation back and the international community has realized those actions and strats seeing that . It has donated $50 million to a foundation to support programs in minority programs, more over it hires an ombudsman who report directly in the CEO in order to settle the racial discrimination lawsuit. The company has built stronger relationship towards the stakeholders . On the other hand , healthy enviromental standards has been taken , and efforts has continued for costumer retention . Its employees have attained strictly training programs and have better work place with a better work force. Logo's of transparency , trust , costumer satisfaction , integrity , respect , effective product promotion has been rising .Through the emphasis of CSR standards , Coca Cola now is ranked Third Globslly in a Price water Coopers. According to the latest Coca Cola Sustainability Report for 2013/2014 the major CSR programs and engagements initiated by the company included the following:

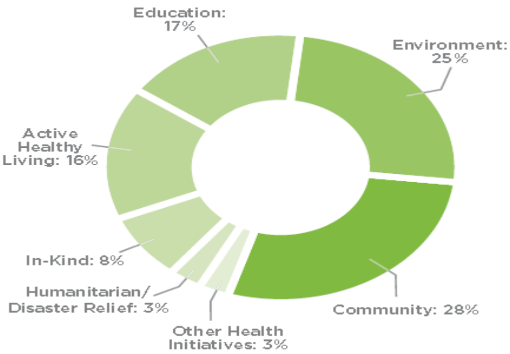

figure (1) Source : Coca Cola Sustainability Report for 2013/2014

Where Coca Cola Company sets CSR strategy through distributing a part of its expenses for educational programs, health programs, environment and social.

(Dollar) Sales of Mini Coke & Pepsi FOOD BEV BIZ
7.5-8.5 oz. portion sizes in U.S. retail, 2013-2014

Brand	2013	2014	1 Yr. Change	% of Total Sales
Coca-Cola	$134M	$146M	8.7%	2.6%
pepsi	$50M	$57M	13.3%	1.2%

Source: Nielsen xAOC+C (All Outlets and Total Convenience) FoodBev.biz

figure(2)-Source :Nielsen XAOC+c- portion size in U.S-2013/2014

This figures shows how does the effective CSR strategy, has helped the company to undergoes its ethical crises, and succeeded in gaining a competitive position in the market, and increases its yearly sales by134 million dollars to cross Pepsi sales (50 million dollar) in 2013 .

Coca-Cola is one of the most successful and recognized brand in the world. The company has done serious steps to overcome its crises, and their name still stands as one of the top companies in the world. The company has learnt from its mistakes and trying to be very careful to stay One of the most successful beverage company.

Conclusion

Business Ethics rises in the middle of 18th century , and before the birth of CSR Paradigm in the first of 19th century , therfore the business ethics concepts has industrialized the temples of CSR Sciences

Business ethics and CSR can be characterized as the correlated lungs of the body , where they depend on each other , complete each other , differ from each other , and similar to each other , and the company will not sustain and live with out both of those new systems .When company faces an ethical crises , as the Coca Cola ethical crises , where it it overcomes it through an effective CSR tools , where CSR becomes a part of ethical business Umberella , and on the other side Ethical responsibilitis are a part in the CSR Pyramid .

CSR and its principles will cover all companies environments, and the role of it will change from an ethical conduct to a serious need that must be merged in companies head titles , and help in finding solutions for the huge problems of poverty , and climate changes .

Some Economists are optimistic about CSR future as Steven Lydenberg , who views CSR as a major secular development , driven by a long term re-evaluation of the role of corporations in soceity , while David Vogel analyzes CSR future it will not be successful until mainstream companies begin reporting some aspect of CSR , this questions will remain suspended in each companies future and philosophy.

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Short biography

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Ramona Adnan Al Danaf is a Lebanese, From Balashmay, born on 17/09/1987.

She has received her primary and secondary studies at Maroun Abboud Official Secondary School - Aley, followed him to high school and got a high school diploma - meeting and economy in 2005.

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Currently she is a Ph.D. Student at Kaposvár University, Doctoral School in Management and Organizational Sciences.

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Currently she is working in the Council for Development and Reconstruction (CDR) as Financial Expert since 01/01/2017

4th Parallel Session

Museums in the age of online marketing

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Abstract

We are examining the Hungarian and international opportunities of the museums in the age of online marketing. Nowadays one of the most important goal for the museums is to being visible, and make their intellectual property more interesting. Museums are traditional keepers of culture and information and these institutions should be able to use their benefits of their situation. Museums and collections now compete for the attention of consumers in a marketplace and the reposition of museums' brand is can not be delayed.

According to our hypothesis, using the online marketing tools for these institutions of the cultural sector can be beneficial, especially for those museums, which are in a special position due to their collections, exhibitions and current state. Online marketing and the new technologies can help for museums to make stronger relationship with the audience and find the profitable costumers. Thanks to the new tools collections, exhibitions and artworks are more comprehensible, more personal and the tickets and other products of the museums became easier to buy.

Our research is based on secondary and primary sources. We are collecting international case studies and best practices and also building a data base. At the same time the result of our primary research are focusing on the Hungarian museum marketing campaigns and deep interviews with the colleagues of Hungarian museums.

We are focusing on the museums which have a special collections (not fine art museums) and/or are not part of the institutions which are organising blockbuster exhibitions (this is especially true for Hungary), and therefore they often had to manage their communication from way less financial resources.

Some of the examined Hungarian institutions are currently in a transformation phase, which is also showing in their way of communication and it is a good opportunity to examine their marketing strategy now, and their plans the realization of goals, and continue this research in the future with new conclusions.

Keywords: museum marketing, online marketing, transformation of cultural spaces, consumer-centered museum and consumer value, financial stability for non-profit institutions

Introduction

The actuality of the research

Museums are non-profit traditional keepers of culture and information and these institutions should be able to use their benefits of their situation. Nowadays one of the most important goal for the museums is to being visible, make their intellectual property more interesting, and these institutions and collections now compete for the attention of consumers in a marketplace. Most of the people do not have real experience about museums, and the media have changed the habit of image consumption, created a lot of noise, and nowadays people do not need museums to see pictures.

Museum marketing has a literature for a long time, altough only some of them mentioned the online practices. Marketing can help in museum's mission, and starts a kind of exchange process between the institutions and the audience. Museums can offer their expertise, collection and knowledge and the audience provides allowance.

Hypothesis

According to our hypothesis, using the online marketing tools for these institutions of the cultural sector can be beneficial, especially for those museums, which are in a special position due to their collections, exhibitions and their crucial state in the structure until now. Online marketing and the new technologies can help for museums to make stronger relationship with the audience and find the profitable costumers. Thanks to the new tools collections, exhibitions and artworks are more comprehensible, more personal and the tickets and other products of the museums became easier to buy.

Narrowed research field

Although technology offers more and more platforms, which can be used by museums, we are dealing with the most accessible and cost-effective online tools.

Our research field includes museums which have a special collections (not only fine art museums) and we have chosen international and Hungarian institutions also.

Theoretical background

The most important starting-point for our research was the joint book of Neil G. Kotler, Philip Kotler and Wendy I. Kotler, *the Museum Marketing and Strategy: Designing Missions, Building Audiences, Generating Revenue and Resources*. The main topics of the book is dealing with general marketing questions from the museum's point of view.

For this research the most influential writer in online museum marketing is Jasper Visser, whose blog, The Museum of the future, provided several ideas.

Research method

Our research is based on secondary and primary sources. We are collecting international case studies and best practices and also building a data base. At the same time the result of our primary research are focusing on the Hungarian museum marketing campaigns and deep interviews with the colleagues of Hungarian museums. We compared the campaigns of the international and Hungarian museums also.

<u>Defining the role of the museum marketing</u>

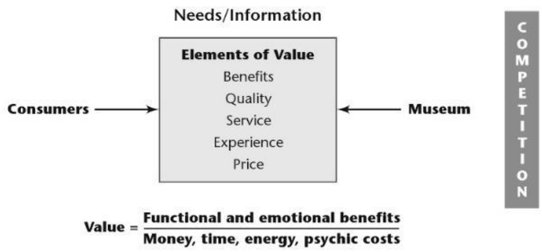
To define the role of the museum marketing related to each institutions, first of all the museum should determine different target groups, and create different programs for them, since a young audience, a family or for example a company are waiting for a different approach. Every museum have to develop a specific offer related to their collection, what the audience can not find in other places.

1. illustration: Target groups of the museum

(Kotler, Kotler & Kotler, 2008, 24.)

In Kotler's opinion, the value of the museum depends on different benefits and of course the money, the time and the energy. There is also a psychological factor that can be influenced, among other things, by the habit and helpfulness of the museum workers. The invested costs and energy may also affect the audience's opinion about the museum, which may affect subsequent, possibly returning visits.

2. illustration: The relationship of the consumers and the museum



(Kotler, Kotler & Kotler, 2008, 23.)

In order to achieve the goals, the museum must think through its own tools and the marketing mix.

3. illustration: Marketing mix of the museum

(Kotler, Kotler & Kotler, 2008, 28.)

Product: for example, for a museum a product is considered an exhibition or a variety of programs and events. Satisfaction with the product can be asked by visitors with questionnaires, a museum can create in-depth interviews or can use focus groups

Price: museums are often provided revenue from ticket prices, which is an important source of funding for their plans to be implemented. It is worth targeting different target groups to offer different pricing or to incorporate discounts that can boost your visitor behaviour. Certain museums can afford to attend free visits, but most of this requires external (state) support.

Promotion: the promotion of museums necessarily need to be continuous, with many tools available, including advertisements, press or online solutions.

Place: includes places that can be used to take notice of the museum or its collection, which can be visited later personally or for example on an online way. A good example for this is the airport where people can see the museum's exhibitions, programs upon arrival. Other good example are the online resources, that also focus the attention on the given institution.

People: People who are primarily related to visitors or partners. The staff of the museum can inspire the audience, or on the contrary, they can discourage the audience from enjoying the museum. So it is essential that the staff are friendly, courteous and well-informed.

In Kotler's opinion, the most important surface of the communications is the Internet, which "completely transformed the museum market", and can reach wider audience for a bigger revenue.

Thanks to the internet, the audience can visit the museums online, not just personally. The collection, the artworks and even the whole exhibitions became available, and the products of the museum shops are also easier to buy.

Paradigm shift

It must be accepted that the meaning of the museum has changed, this institution is no longer a primary source of information, and people need real experiences and storytelling instead of datas.

One of the most prominent supporter of the modern consumption of museum knowledge is Jasper Visser. In his opinion it is important to make (art) history visible, and people should find every information on museums' sites and not only articles or other blogs on the internet as an alternative. Online story telling and sharing of course just the first step, since it is even harder to keep audience attention, but museums has to be able to use their advantage and knowledge, and there are a plenty ways of storytelling today.

With their current communication the museums divide the audience into two groups. Most of the institutions do not expect that the big part of the audience could not have opportunity to visit exhibitions personally, since they live so far in other city, country or continent. This kind of inability divide the audience

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into local and non-local groups. Sharing information can help for the museum, the audience do not need to be excluded from the full exhibitions and events, but on the other hand instituions can build virtual community if offer online possibilities to them.

Best practices of the online museum marketing

Basically, most of the authors agree in the importance online museum marketing tools, but there are strong differences in their use. We introduce the list of the most popular communication channels and successful campaigns.

Website

The website is no longer an option, but the most basic requirement for the companies or cultural institutions, but unfortunately most of the museums still do not have this tool. It is not just the privilege of the bigger institutions, but smaller ones may need this communication platform even more. Of course only useful information is not enough for the website, museum should give an experience to the audience also.

Jay Sharman offers a new perspective for the museums' websites, and highlighting the knowledge of these institutions as a tool. His communication principles are the following:

1) Most of the museums' website includes only compulsory information such as current programs, opening hours, ticket prices, contact details. Against this practice the musuems should use their enormous knowledge to build a community. As an example, he mentioned the Petersen Automotive Museum blog in Los Angeles, which initially started to write a content for car fans and drew attention to the collection of the museum.

2) Do not want to increase visitor numbers only, but keep people close to the collection and give them a message and experience.

3) Come and visit the exhibition once can not be a goal. Offer a digital space where people can learn interesting things for the next personal visit.

4) According to Sharman, the artworks can have a similar effect as diamonds: we can have a lot of information, but seeing personally or only online it is not the same same experience. The website can aruouses the need to get to know the artwork.

Newsletter

Most (foreign) museums have electronic newsletters, which can be subscribed via the website. Letters may refer to visitors, to smaller or larger target groups, to subscribers, or volunteers, but it is important that they always send content that is relevant to the concerned recipients.

Blog

The blog is somewhere between the site and social media. The blog is one of the easiest ways to keep in touch with the public. This will allow the interested audience to get acquainted with the staff of the museum, the curators and this allow them to see behind the scenes. If the blog already contains enough interesting content and there is a critical crowd that keeps track of the news, it is worth making the interface more interactive, giving you the opportunity to comment and share on the community interface. Blogging is a time-consuming task, so it is worth thinking and setting up a content calendar that includes the time, theme, and responsible author of each post.

Google Art Project

The world's largest virtual museum is actually a compilation site for publishing artworks from different museums. Google Art Project eliminates distances and the audience can visit the museums online.

Social media

Social media helps to give an information to the audience, but on the other hand it is generating new contents from the people also. Museums should encourage people to share their experience or tell their opinion. Last but not least the advertising of social media platforms are very cheap compared to other tools.

The basic idea of building online community is quite simple: if a person follows a page, or a museum in our case, then notifications, likes and reposts will lead other people to the institution's page. This cycle is also provided by the recommendations, comments, event attending, etc.

The museum has a wealth of information to share, such as the bulk of the exhibitions' entire material and events do not have to be excluded from the majority of the audience, but online community means a chance to invite these people to the institution once more.

Online guiding tours / live videos

There are many ways to involve the public, such as a live video.

Pompeii Live was the first live cinema event produced by the British Museum from a major exhibition and was promoted through Facebook, Twitter, Instagram, and more. On Facebook, they posted the event details and the audience had a direct route to interact with the Museum. Via Twitter, they generated awareness and interaction with their audience through regular postings and a Q&A session with Peter Snow, a presenter on the event. Followers were asked to send their questions with the hashtag #PompeiiLive, and were kept updated throughout via Twitter and Instagram images.

Broadcasting was available in 280 cinemas throughout Britain, and the main target audience were the schoolchildren who could not go to the show. In addition, they broadcast the show in more than a thousand cinemas, from China, India to the United States. Every tickets in the movie theaters were sold out.

Engagement

Building a new audience is never a simple task, but if the museums want to increase people's interest they have to use different coating technique.

In 2016 most of America was watching the rivalry on the baseball field, because The Cleveland Indians hadn't won the title in 68 years and the Chicago Cubs topped that number at 108.

The Art Institute of Chicago and the Cleveland Museum of Art capitalized on the World Series excitement by engaging in a social media battle where they each represented their city's team. They digitally added their team's fan gear, jerseys and other fun graphics to paintings from their collections and then posted the images to their social channels. The competition was friendly, creative and highly successful, because lot of new people were called.

Involvement

Online marketing has to show people behind the museum, curators, museologists, and raise audience's engagement. The Hungarian Museum of Ethnography has started a series with their museologists, introduced them with their favourite artworks and made the museum more familiar with this campaign. The Hungarian National Gallery made an advent calendar and asked their colleagues to show their faveourite artwork in the museum and their hobby in the same time. It was also very popular and people liked this content on the social media platforms.

Storytelling

Every company need good logos, characers, slogans and so on, and some of them have a mascot also. Two Hungarian museum found for themselves a bit similar, when they imagined a friendly and funny characters in their exhibitions. The Hungarian National Museum created an elf, which was naughty, smart and cute, and he did everything which is not allowed for museum visitors generally. The Hungarian National Gallery found a teddy bear in their exhibition and gave a new personality for the toy. It named after the painter Hieronymus Bosch and called Hyeronymus Bocs which means Hyeronymus Bruin in English. The toy shows exhibitions from a different point of view, and became very popular.

Consumer generated marketing

It is important to involve museum's audience and asked them to share their pictures about the exhibition. One of the easiest way if the institution join the international campaigns, like museum selfie project. There are thosunds of pictures on Instagram with this hashtag.

Online applications

With the help of online applications, the museum can provide uniqe experience while doing educational activities.

Magic Tate Ball is a location-based mobile app from Tate. When you shake your phone, this clever app presents you with an artwork that is linked to your surroundings. Using date, time-of-day, geographical location, live weather data and ambient noise levels the app will trawl through a selection of artworks from Tate's collection for the best match.

Conclusion

Overall the best examples of the museum marketing show that the cultural institutions should turn against the stereotypes, reposition their strategy and establish new relationship with their audience.

Institutions do not lose their professionalism if their own work, collection, and programs are presented in a completely new context. The museums should identify their features and services what the audience can not find in other place, and build on the online marketing strategy with these greatest benefits. The most important requirement for online platforms is being user-friendly, quick and easy and of course the institutions should offer different entertainment for all ages separately.

The aim of our research is to prove the usefulness of online marketing opportunities and tools.

Although the financing is often means bottleneck, but many ideas do not necessarily need material issues, but in return the museum can measure the benefit in serious numbers.

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Brief biography

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Nóra Hanka is art historian and marketing manager. She has rich experience in contemporary art, has worked for many cultural institutions (galleries, museums, art foundations), and on the other hand she also has strong knowledge in marketing, and work experience in creative agencies.

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Learning outcome based entrepreneurial education in higher education at Corvinus University of Budapest

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Abstract

Since the transition in the 1990s, the main ambition of educational science in Hungary has been that the former regulation focusing on study material and knowledge should be replaced by decentralized, competence-based curricula *(Perjés, Vass, 2009)*. A lot of definitions can be found for the meaning of competence as well, but the most objective choice in our topic is based on Hungarian Qualification Framework (competence consists of knowledge, skills, attitudes, and autonomy, and it makes someone capable of acting successfully in a certain professional area).

By the analogy of the above written we may try to define entrepreneurial competence as well. Unfortunately, the mixing up of the concepts of entrepreneurial competence, knowledge of enterprising and economic expertise can be observed till our day. Sometimes it even happens that the given concept is associated with a meaning that is entirely different from it. In the enterprise boom period of the 1990s, enterprise education was about nothing else but motivating students to start up their own business. From the mid-90s, 1995, the process became more sophisticated, as at the time, in the framework of the National Basic Curriculum, it was declared that economic knowledge is part of general education. However, its actual, practical appearance in education took place only in 2001, under the next National Basic Curriculum. This is the point when enterprise studies and economic studies as a subject appeared. *(Darázs et al., 2004)*

In spite of the fact that 12 years before, Béla Bauer had already written in an article about how inefficient enterprise education and training in Hungarian public education was *(Bauer, 1998)*, it was not until Lakos's work in 2010 *(Lakos, 2010)* that the idea was again raised in the professional literature. There he suggested that though teaching enterprise studies was literally flourishing in Hungary, the components, other than knowledge, of entrepreneurial competence are not really emphasized in pedagogy.

Furthermore, we face a novel problem of entrepreneurial education, when we question whether the content we teach equals the real needs of labour market or future entrepreneurs. One of the reasons for this uncertainty is that – more or less – we still teach by discipline based approach instead of competence based, or learning outcome based approaches. But what are the ideal learning outcomes of entrepreneurial education? What will our students become by profession after they finish school at all? These are those questions that we have to find the answers to if we want to keep pace with actual European trends in entrepreneurial education. The Teacher Training and Digital Learning Centre of Corvinus University of Budapest participates in EFOP-3.4.3 project which aims to reconsider the entrepreneurial education

at the university by a learning outcome based approach. This paper/presentation aims to introduce the main topics and concepts, and the process of the project.

Key words: entrepreneurial competence, learning outcome based education, entrepreneurial education

Introduction

While in the early 20th century the success for most companies could be measured in the size of physical capital, the amount of natural resources possessed, and the number of workers hired, the age of information gaining strategic importance gave rise to new strategic opportunities, and so, new corporate strategies. Starting from the 1970s - 1980s, besides physical and financial capital, an ever growing role was played by spiritual, or, in other words, intangible capital. *(Mihalkovné, 2010)*. By intangible capital spiritual and organizational capital can be equally meant. The former includes patents and registered trademarks, while the latter covers business models, strategic plans and organizational activities, as well as the special knowledge accumulated in the minds of those working for the company *(Szabó, 2007)*. By our day, 'knowledge has become the single resource of significance. The conventional factors of production do not cease to exist, but they become of secondary importance' (*Kocsis, Szabó, 2000, p.43*).

The appreciation of knowledge in the economy and the society led, by necessity, to changes in education, both on the levels of content (knowledge) and the also of the processes *(Chakrawarthy, Doz, 1992)*. The sites of acquiring knowledge have also changed: today only a part of formal learning takes place in the traditional school setting, while informal learning assumes an ever greater role. In consequence of the above and the significant differences and unevenness found in the quality of the students' knowledge, differentiated educational methods and integrated methods for organizing learning were created. These aimed at making knowledge accessible to everyone *(Vass, 2006)*.

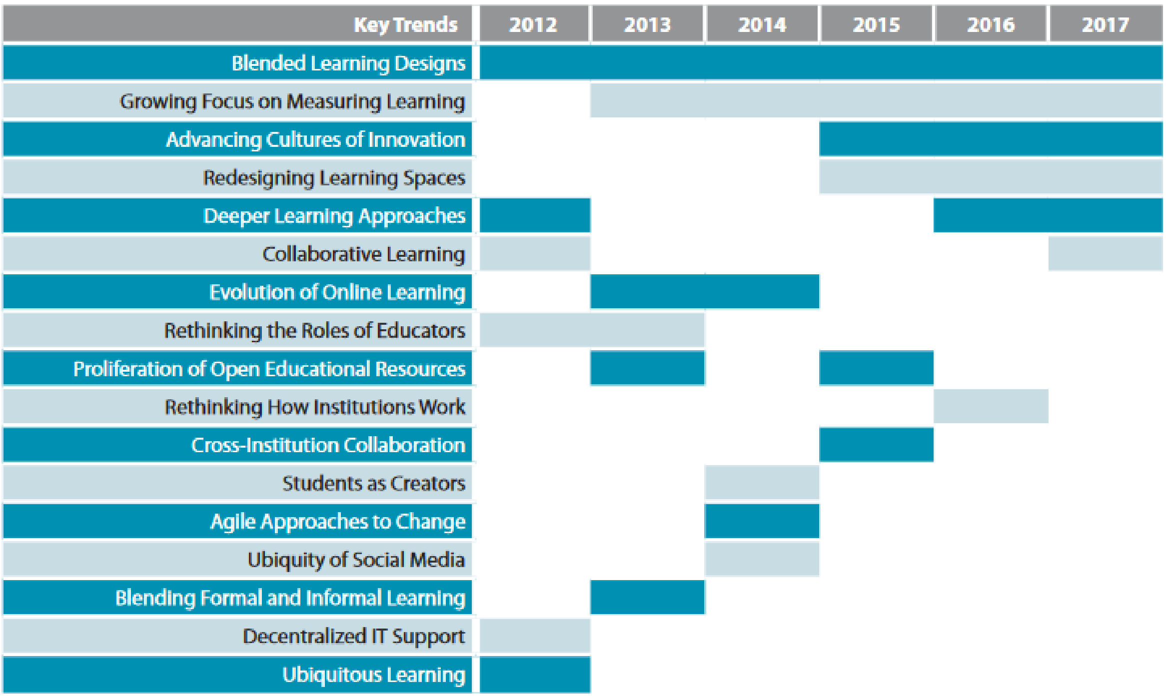
The appearance of competences in pedagogy

Since the transition, the main ambition of educational science in Hungary has been that the former regulation focusing on study material and knowledge should be replaced by decentralized, competence-based curricula *(Perjés, Vass, 2009)*. 'Factual knowledge is only the formal part of preparation, while practical education focuses only on the content. Competences, on the other hand, include the synthesis of the factual material and the skills and abilities, almost broken down to real-life activities' *(Perjés, Vass, 2009, p.40)*.

A lot of definitions can be found for the meaning of competence as well. A common point in all these descriptions seems to be that competence is a certain pattern of abilities and forms of behavior required by the individual to be able to produce an outstanding performance in a given area, carrying out a given job. There are, however, definitions mentioning abilities and skills instead of behavioral factors. The most objective choice for defining competence is based on Hungarian Qualification Framework (HQF). According to the document, competence is a system of psychical formations, which makes somebody capable of acting successfully and effectively at a certain area. Competence consists of knowledge, attitude and skills, and can be also characterised by the level of autonomy and responsibility while acting.

In the past few years the key trends in education have also changed. Thanks to the appearance of the new generation, and the results of digital development, trends like blended learning designs, growing focus on measuring learning, advancing cultures of innovation, redesigning learning spaces, deeper learning approaches and collaborative learning have become mainstream in pedagogy (Figure 1).

Figure 1. Key Trends in Education 2012-2017



Source: NCM HORIZON REPORT, http://cdn.nmc.org/media/2017-nmc-horizon-report-he-EN.pdf

It means that online, mobile, and blended learning are foregone conclusions. If institutions do not already have robust strategies for integrating these now pervasive approaches, then they simply will not survive. The question is how we can create this competence-based curricula in entrepreneurial education in higher education.

Competences in entrepreneurial education

By the analogy of the above written we may try to define entrenpreneurial competence as well. Unfortunately, the mixing up of the concepts of entrepreneurial competence, knowledge of enterprising and economic expertise can be observed till our day. Sometimes it even happens that the given concept is associated with a meaning that is entirely different from it. Entrepreneurial competence, as a key competence, determined at the initiative of the European Union, *(Council of the European Union, 2002)* defines the content of the concept as an ability helping the individual in everyday life, helping him in learning about his wider environment and in recognising opportunities and also in seizing those opportunities consciously. All in all, the concept comprises the creativity of the individual, his willingness for innovation and ability to assume risks. It also serves as a basis for the knowledge and abilities required during economic activities (e.g. planning, organization, direction, management, delegation, analysis, communication, risk appraisal, assumption of risk) *(Simon, 2006).*

Darázs and his companions describe in their work *(Darázs et al., 2004)* the history of the appearance of entrepreneurship in Hungarian public education. In their paper they are of the view that in the enterprise boom period of the 1990s, enterprise education was about nothing else but motivating students to start up their own business. From the mid-90s, 1995, the process became more sophisticated, as at the time, in the framework of the National Basic Curriculum, it was declared that economic knowledge is part of general education. However, its actual, practical appearance in education took place only in 2001, under the next National Basic Curriculum. This is the point when enterprise studies and economic studies as a subject appeared.

In spite of the fact that 12 years before, Béla Bauer had already written in an article about how inefficient enterprise education and training in Hungarian public education was *(Bauer, 1998)*, it was not until Lakos's work in 2010 *(Lakos, 2010)* that the idea was again raised in the professional literature. There he suggested that though teaching enterprise studies was literally flourishing in Hungary, the components, other than knowledge, of entrepreneurial competence are not really emphasized in pedagogy. Thus, we face a novel problem of entrepreneurial education, when we question whether the content we teach equals the real needs of labour market or future entrepreneurs. One of the reasons for this uncertainty is that – more or less – we still teach by discipline based approach instead of competence based, or – in other words – learning outcome based approaches.

The accentuation of the role of competence in tertiary education might eventually lead to a situation in which the requirements of the market toward the future employee are in harmony with the knowledge and skills acquired in education, i.e. with competences. However, to be able to deal with these changes, and to keep pace with actual European trends in entrepreneurial education, first we have to find out what the ideal learning outcomes of entrepreneurial education are.

Entrepreneurial education at Corvinus University of Budapest

Unfortunately at Small-Business Development Centre we still have traditional teaching and learning processes. We still have discipline-based curriculum, and we still focus on knowledge transfer from teachers to students. In practice it means that the syllabuses are full of facts, rules, entrepreneurial models and ready-to-use solutions, which we want our students to learn by heart, but we do not really teach them how to use them in practice (Table 1).

Table 1. Characteristics of the traditional teaching-learning processes

TRADITIONAL TEACHING-LEARNING PROCESS	
Source of knowledge	School
Content of knowledge	Discipline-based curriculum
Direction of information	One-way – from teacher to student
Learning style	Reproductive – knowledge transfer (facts, rules, ready-to-use solutions)
Learning process	Teacher-centred
Role of teacher	Active – knowledge transferor
Role of students	Passive – knowledge recipient
Main methods	Face to face
Evaluation	Summative
Group of students	Homogeneous

Source: Based on the presentation of Magdolna Daruka at Opening Ceremony of EFOP-3.4.3-16-2016-000006

Thus, we have to face another problem, as the consequence of the way how and what we teach. This problem is that the learning outcomes of the educational process do not meet the needs of labour market. So, the question we have to find an answer to is how we can solve the needs of labour market while adapting the mainstream pedagogic approaches.

Well, thanks to the Teachers' Training and Digital Learning Centre of Corvinus University of Budapest, the answer to this question is Human Resources Development Operational Programme, concretely EFOP-3.4.3-16-2016-00006. The solution is a progressive teaching and learning programme, in which the content of knowledge is competence, so we focus on what students have to know and have to be able to by the end of the learning process, thus, the learning style is competence development and lifelong learning. During the processes we should build on the activity, creativity and critical thinking of our students (Table 2). In one phrase the solution is Learning Outcome Based Entrepreneurial Education.

Table 2. Characteristics of the progressive teaching-learning processes

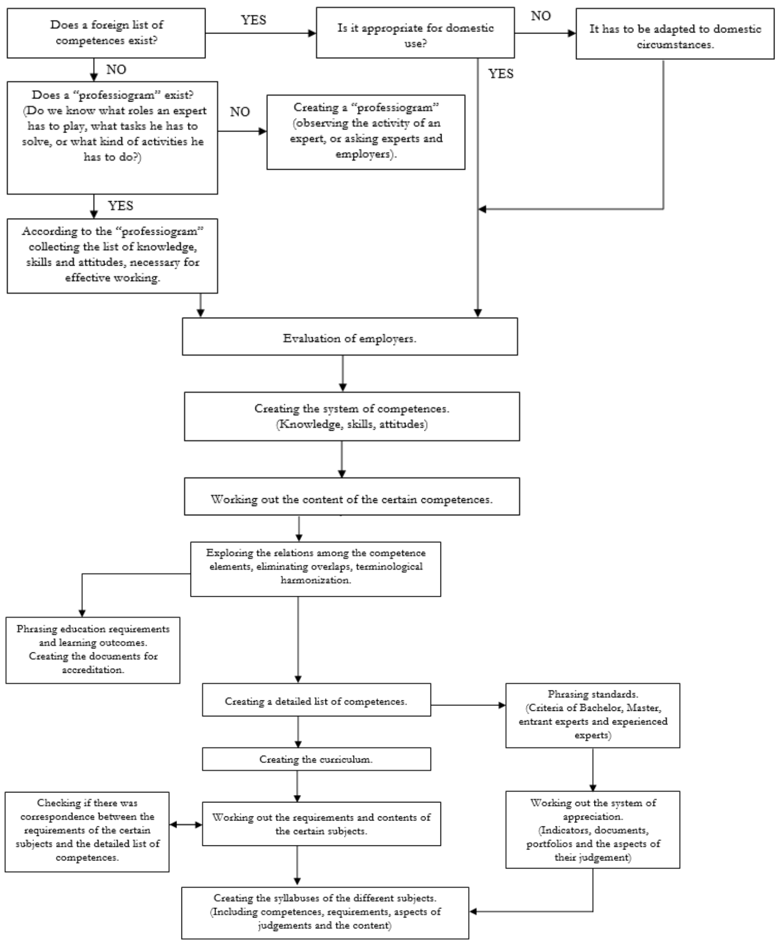
PROGRESSIVE TEACHING-LEARNING PROCESS	
Source of knowledge	Different knowledge-elements formed into knowledge by students
Content of knowledge	Competences – what students have to know and have to be able to by the end of the teaching process
Direction of information	Interactive – from teacher to student, from student to teacher, from student to student
Learning style	Competence development and lifelong learning, including the relevant elements of sustainable development.
Learning process	Student-centred
Role of teacher	Facilitator
Role of students	Active – creative students with critical thinking
Main methods	Student activity-based
Evaluation	Formative and diagnostic – Portfolio-based
Group of students	Strongly differentiated

Source: Based on the presentation of Magdolna Daruka at Opening Ceremony of EFOP-3.4.3-16-2016-000006

Methodology

The process we have to go through in order to create a learning outcome-based entrepreneurial education system consists of seven steps (Figure 2). The project itself started in May, 2017. As the first step of the program we checked the existence of a foreign or domestic list of entrepreneurial competences that we could use as the list of learning outcomes. Unfortunately we found the Educational Requirements and Learning Outcomes only for the Faculty of Business Administration and Management, but not especially for the Faculty of Entrepreneurship. Thus, we had one task before we could start creating new curriculum, teaching contents and syllabuses. This task was creating the so called "professiogram" – creating the list of Educational Requirements and Learning Outcomes, according to the structure of the Hungarian Qualification Framework. According to this document, when we teach competences, we teach knowledge, skills, attitude and autonomy and responsibility.

Figure 2. Process of creating competence-based Learning Outcomes



SOURCE: Falus, 2006

To create this list first we made altogether seven interviews with our colleagues, and four focus-group interviews with prominent representatives of financial and administrative sector, members of family businesses and start-uppers, as these are those areas of labour market where our students mostly become employees or self-employers.

In the interviews that we made with our colleagues we wanted to explore

- What the main concepts, models and definitions were that they taught or wanted to teach in the course – these meant the knowledge-like elements of competences;
- What kind of exercises students had to do independently or together with other members of the course, and what the aims of these exercises were – these meant the skill-like elements of competences;
- The necessary attitudes, so we asked the teachers if there were any messages they wanted to transfer to the students during the courses;
- If any of the competences they developed in the courses could be used in other areas of the students' private life as the factor of autonomy.

The focus group interviews with the members of labour market helped us first to reveal the competences that employers or employees thought were necessary in their work, and second, to check if the competences we developed were really important or not.

Results

While making the interviews, one of our most surprising realization was that some of the teachers haven't asked these questions from themselves for years. Thus, there are subjects that have been taught with the same contents and methodology for almost 15 years. On the grounds of the above detailed changes in pedagogy and entrepreneurial ecosystem, this fact is almost shocking.

Maybe as the consequence of the above mentioned fact we observed that the answers of the teachers, teaching the same subjects were sometimes in disharmony with one and another. This kind of disharmony could be detected when we asked them about the goals of the subject, the main messages they wanted to transfer to their students, and the additional value of the certain exercises students had to do in the class.

On the whole we can say that the appearance of the knowledge-like competence elements in education is the most important for the teachers, as they mentioned much more of them than of skills or attitude-like elements, and they mentioned them more detailed. This result confirms our hypothesis on our discipline-based curriculum.

The interviews, made with the representative members of the labour market (financial and administrative-legislative sector, members of family businesses and start-uppers) also resulted in interesting facts, as we realized that their answers on necessary competences do not differ much from one another. All in all in their opinion less knowledge-like elements are necessary for entrants, since they learn all the company-specific knowledge when they start working. Certain skills and correct attitude are more important, mainly the attitude to their own work and their colleagues.

Last but not least, noticing the reaction of the colleagues on the feedback of the labour market was also quite interesting. They decided not to delete those competence-elements, not confirmed by the labour market as important ones, but to aggregate all the answers of the two parties.

Finally, as the result of our work we could set up the list of competences that are proper both for teachers and the labour market, and thus created the missing, but necessary document called Educational Requirements and Learning Outcomes for the Faculty of Entrepreneurship. Now, we are ready to find new teaching context, to which we find out new pedagogical methodology. This new methodology is called blended learning, and it allies the traditional classroom-training with the Internet-based distance learning, which can be realized in two ways.

One of them is the use of ICT-supported online and offline educational elements within the present traditional curriculum and approaches. The other way is using new approaches of learning organization, for example the so called mirror classroom, which means that all the knowledge-like elements of the course are taught online with the help of tutorial videos, online exercises and tests, and the personal contact between the teacher and the students serves only the development of skills, attitudes and autonomy. If we go on this way, then our task is finding a new logic that we could base on when creating an innovative and new system for the Educational Requirements and Learning Outcomes for the Faculty of Entrepreneurship.

Conclusion

Drawing conclusions about an ongoing project is quite difficult. However, we can report that as a pioneer initiative, the whole project is full of questions. Fortunately, this kind of uncertainty does not relate to the importance or the goals of the project, but concerns to the formal and content requirements of the documents in preparation. In spite of the fact that we can base on the existing documents of the Hungarian Qualification Framework as starting-points, we do not have any samples when creating our partial results.

The project itself continues until May, 2019. By that time we plan to have supervised and revised our curriculum according to the learning outcome based educational approach. Furthermore, in the 2018 and 2019 academic year we will have the opportunity to check all the changes we have made, so that we could finalize our curriculum, syllabuses and methodology.

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Brief biography

Katalin Mihalkovné Szakács PhD

Katalin Mihalkovné Szakács has been a teacher and a researcher for 10 years now. She finished her doctoral studies in 2014, and has been working for Corvinus University of Budapest as an assistant professor since then. Her main research topics are the following:

- Increasing the effectiveness and success of entrepreneurial education
- Effective training of teachers of entrepreneurship
- Entrepreneurial competences
- Personality-based entrepreneurial development in higher education

Main researches

2017 – Learning outcome based educational development of Entrepreneurial Faculty at Corvinus University of Budapest (EFOP-3.4.3-16)

2017 – Local Case Study – Danube Transnational Programme (DTP1-1-415-1.2, NewGenerationSkills – Unlocking the potentials for business and social innovation in the Danube Region by equipping young people with new generation skills)

2015 - 2016 – Competency test of future young entrepreneurs (GINOP-5.2.2-14-2015-00027 and GINOP-5.2.2-14-2015-00028)

2013 - 2014 – The personality of the successfully growing entrepreneur by NEO-PI-R based analysis

Main publications

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ICUBERD

Automation forms the future of business services

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Abstract

Automation technologies are getting more and more important part of the new digitized world. We meet the impacts of digitization in several areas of our lives. One of the most dynamic developing segment of the economy where the digitization has huge impact is business services. The purpose of the research was to reveal the most wide-spread forms of automation technologies in the Hungarian business services and introduce the market situation. The methodology was a comprehensive questionnaire survey among the most important business service centers on the market. The research includes not only shared service centers but outsourcing providers as well. The research succeeded to identify the spread of different automation technologies, the practices about implementation of automation technologies, the most favor robotic process automation experiences, the expectations about the impacts of automation technologies. The research paper will introduce how automation technologies are getting place in the business services operation and how it forms the future of the whole business service segment globally. The research paper focuses on the Hungarian business service market progress and show not only the benefits but the drawbacks of the technologies.

Keywords: business services, shared services, outsourcing, automation technologies, service delivery automation

Introduction

Nowadays there is no debate that automation is the new wave of digitization. Of course automation of work activities has been running trend for many decades, however, it has primarily been spread among the physical works to replace them with industrial robots and increasing the company's productivity. Due to the technological advances of the past period, however, the boundaries of automation has been gradually extended into intellectual work and is now growing awareness of the inherent potential.

This extension means a new age of automation. The trend of automation in intellectual work is not a new phenomenon, but in turn really new is how the legacy enterprise technology solutions are complemented by automation to be less disruptive within the company. [1] Nowadays robots are not only familiar with the factory floor and software routines but with the rapid development of artificial intelligence, machines could emerge activities previously require human judgment and experience. Automation has impacts on the human labor with elimination of it, but it also has several value like helping companies to get closer to the customers, improve their operations, optimize their knowledge work, or increase their speed and scale of discovery in areas such R&D. [2]

The Hungarian business service sector has been plagued by labor shortages for years, which nowadays is one of the country's most important growth barriers. Labor shortages are more significant in this sector, as they are looking for employees who are good in foreign language speaking and have the sector-specific competences, but who are mainly among the graduates in the domestic labor market. Unfortunately, the educational policy reforms of the past few years, based on the negative demographic trends, have significantly reduced the issuance of higher education, which means the reduction of potential workforce for the sector. Of course the demographic trends are not a very encouraging for the entire domestic labor market regardless of the sector.

The rate of newer generations is getting narrower in the society, the future of the economy will be questionable if the economy is up or running at its current level, even if there is not enough workforce. To solve this problem, a real solution could only be the large-scale development of mechanization, robotization and automation. It does not only mean a shortage of labor but also a more efficient and quality economic operation.

For this reason, it is important to see how the new wave of automation transforms the current operating practices and human resource trends of the national business service sector.

There are many studies on the topic nowadays and very different numbers can be read about future automation rates in terms of physical and mental work. According to researchers at the University of Oxford, 47% of jobs in the US could be at risk due to digitization. A roughly ratio would be projected in Europe as well. The clerical works are in areas such as accounting, bookkeeping and auditing can be up to 98% automated in the future. [3] However, research by the OECD based on data from 21 OECD countries studied that only 6-12%, and an average of 9% of all jobs can be automated. [4] The UN reports that automation will primarily affect developing and poor countries, where up to two-thirds of all jobs can take over by robots. [5]According to research by the McKinsey, 110-140 million full-time automated will take over by automation tools and software solutions by 2020 globally. It will not only affect the low-level clerical jobs, but 20% of the work of CEOs will be also carried out by software solutions. [6]

Automation technologies have a wide spectrum. In general automation takes the robot out of the human but in the practice it means combinations of different fundamental technologies like robotic process automation or machine learning that exist in parallel. Automation technologies could be grouped how advanced it is as well. Basic automation means writing script in a specific software environment, robotic process automation mean an automation tool that automate routine tasks such as data extraction and cleaning through existing user interface. Finally intelligent process automation s an emerging set of new technologies that combines fundamental process redesign with robotic process automation and machine learning. It mimics human activities and learns to do them even better. The first two level means rule-based automation a wider execution, the third means an automation augmented with decision-making capabilities thanks to advances in deep learning (algorithms that identify patterns in structured data, such as daily performance data, through “supervised” and “unsupervised” learning) and cognitive technology (technologies that combine machine learning and natural-language generation to build a completely virtual workforce that is capable of executing tasks, communicating, learning from data sets, and even making decisions based on “emotion detection”). It promises radically enhanced efficiency, increased worker performance, reduction of operational risks, and improved response times and customer journey experiences. [7]

Automation technology is a real disruptive innovator because it changes the operation of business services. We believe it will be a core part of companies' next-generation operating models. Many companies have been experimenting that automation could automate 50 to 70 percent of tasks, could translate into 20 to 35 percent annual run-rate cost efficiencies, reduce in straight-through process time of 50 to 60 percent and bring return on investments most often in triple-digit percentages. [7]

The digitization and automation are now key driving forces of the business process management (BPM). The top-performing companies focus their automation efforts on the well-defined processes to automatize them. Successful process automation programs could shorten the turnaround time of process significantly. The RPA is an unattended automation approach, providing high-value creation opportunities (significant cost savings, improved service delivery and manageability, and faster value creation with lower risk because it is non-invasive and easier to renew). [8]

The robotics and business processes could be connected in a new and exciting ways to robotic process automation (RPA). The RPA is basically an automation that manages rule-based and repetitive activities without human intervention being non-monitored. [8] These activities have typically been carried out by humans.

Robotic Process Automation (RPA) is one of the most important type of technology using in the business service sector. RPA means a class of software robots that replicates the actions of a human being interacting with the user interfaces of other software systems. It enables many back-office functions without requiring expensive and difficult IT integration with interfaces. [2]

The repetitive tasks could as well be automated, measured and optimized. This in turn helps in streamlining operational functioning of companies. Through the automation, human labor need only to be dealt with the exceptions of the processes and the development of an automated processes, those that actually require a customer-oriented and human interaction. [9]

Methodology

The research study aims to answer automation technologies form the future of business service companies, how automation changes the operating model of business service segment. The research study use on primary and secondary databases in the use of automation technology and based mostly on literature reviews.

Research results

In a shared service organization or an outsourcing companies, that are typical business services organizations, managers should ask some very important questions. Some of these questions are the followings [10]:

- How does digitization change the value proposition of shared service organizations/outsourcing companies?
- How real are digital threats and opportunities in the view of the parent organization/clients?

- How could shared service organization/outsourcing balance among traditional standardized operation, continuously improving transformative approach and disrupting new way of thinking?

Automation within the digitization has several huge impacts. The most important are the followings:

- The first is digitization could ease the need to find a new sourcing country where geographic advantages are. Digitization could be the next sourcing "country" and it changes the corporate sourcing strategies. Using the automation technologies, the companies do not need to change locations to be competitive but could endeavor towards process excellence.
- Automation changes the labor-arbitrage model that was the main driver of existence of business service organizations. Due to changing of repetitive human works with automation, business service organization could restructure their process architecture and reposition their value proposition. The employees could free-up from the dull and repetitive activities and focus higher value-added actions. It has an additional big motivation initiative for the talent retention programs.
- Automation could change the shoring tendencies as well. Nowadays companies use right-shoring (or Hub-and-Spoke) model that means companies combines outsourcing and shared service models and use multi-location operation with different levels of value-add service parts. In this right-shoring model, companies continuously monitor their processes and relocate the functions to optimize their operations. The automation will decrease the geographic advantages, mostly the human arbitrage, so not the offshoring or nearshoring phenomenon will increase. But it does not mean that it will strengthen the reshoring model when functions will come closer to the customers, but these functions will stay there at the current locations.
- Automation will change the process and work-flow in order to find new area of optimization. IT and business need to cooperate to discover specific areas in which to incorporate automation and robotics into their existing manual workflows. Automation could bring a new role for specific processes and employees working with them.
- Automation will change the HR strategies of companies. In today's environment it is not easy for companies to find talents. Companies must build right incentives and clear career path for their talents. With the progress of digitization, introduction of automation technologies, business service companies must make a radical shift in its

talent-management strategies and programs. Company leaders should focus on making changes in the following areas to adapt their cultures in ways that will appeal to both next-generation digital workers, who can bring fresh perspectives and innovation to companies, and conventional IT workers, who often carry with them years of valuable institutional knowledge [5]:

- attracting talents: companies need to make some cultural changes to attract next-generation workers as well, because the conventional methods used before is not suitable for the new graduates;
- retaining talents: companies need to recognize that new both digital and convention IT staffers should be motivated to do their best to ensure high-quality customer experiences and successful business outcomes but not with the same way;
- building capabilities: establishing an integrated technology operating model will gain benefit for the organization with finding new advantages and opportunities in both digital and conventional areas.

It is very important to recognize that digitization and automation technologies create new opportunities as well on each areas listed formerly. As technological change brought new challenges so as brought new opportunities as well. Digitization has impact not only on the low-level employers but on the C-level managers as well. Today at a big company, a new manager position emerged that is called chief digital officer (CDO). [11]

Digitization and automation will result in a real disruptive change in the business service sector, which poses at least as many questions and challenges as it sees the benefits. The most important effects of technological change are the following:

- Reduces direct and indirect costs to human resources, such as recruiting, retention, attrition rate handling, or just building the right office environment.
- Changes FTE-based or transaction-based pricing in the sector and will be more focused on the output-based partnership between the service provider and the user.
- Solves or at least mitigates the key human resource problem, the bottleneck of labor supply, by replacing automation with labor supply or labor force growth.
- Reduce or eliminate the need for human labor for the highly standardized, repetitive, high-volume work activities (which are typically boring, frustrating, and stressful for employees).
- Moves employers and hence the whole sector upwards in

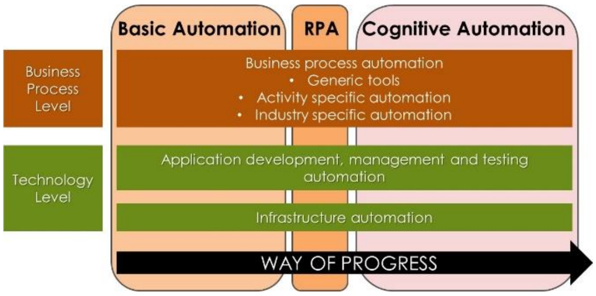
the value chain and the proportion of higher value added jobs will continue to grow against the low added in the sector.

- Improves the work-life balance of employees in the business service sector, which is of particular importance to new generation workers.
- Reduces the attrition rate which is particularly high in the sector.
- Improve employee satisfaction indicators by providing workers with much more complex, problem-solving, and decision-making jobs.

Automation has many different types but for the business service sector there are three main, in parallel existing alternatives. They are basic automation, robotic process automation and cognitive or intelligent automation. These types have built on each other but could operate and exist together as well. The basic automation means various macros, scripts using in the office software environment. These scripts are usually carried out an activity in a framework within a software, or collected and structured data according to the rules. These software solutions could use only with structured data, while their processes and an outputs are always deterministic. [9]

The robotic process automation (RPA), which compared to the basic automation is now able to manage much more complex processes and work with multi-user and multi-server environments, are rule-based, able to communicate through the user-interface (UI) level of the software, but also always use a more structured or even semi-structured data. The outcome of the process in each case is deterministic. Currently this is the most widely used automation technology that went through a tremendous progress in terms of clerical works over the past few years. It is worth to apply it for repetitive, high-volume transactions primarily that is why so popular it is in business service areas. [9]

Figure 1: Automation architecture



Source: own edited based on Everest Group (2016)

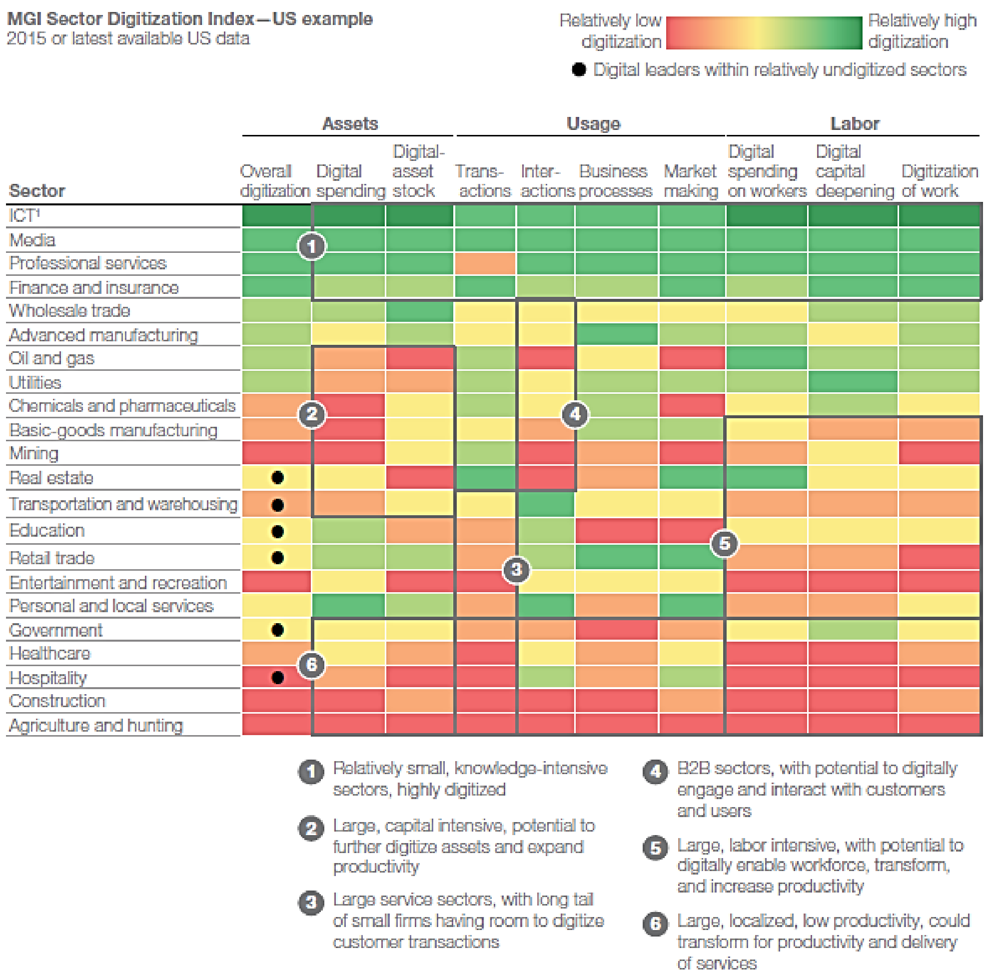
Cognitive or intelligent automation solutions use different cognitive capabilities. This type is still the least mature, but it also means that it is standing in front of the biggest growth opportunities in the near future. The cognitive tools build a process-based knowledge base and combining a group of business rules or patterns to automate these processes. They can be used in case of IT and business processes. The cognitive tools are able to manage unstructured data. They may include machine learning and interference motor, which instead of rules intervenes in a next step as it is necessary, that means they are probability-based solutions, but also can be made deterministic. [12] [9]

Among these alternatives, it has big chance that the robotic process automation the greatest business innovation of the following years and decades or has the potential. What is Industry 4.0 in the manufacturing that is the RPA in the field of business services. The only difference is in the factories industrial physical robots communicate with each other, in the business services there are virtual machines, software robots which collaborate similarly.

Wherever an administrative process is used can deploy a software robot for that task. The exceptional economic and social significance of RPA is projected to be the most common financial, accounting, IT, human administration, through supportive processes, in fact, all sectors are involved, and all relevant organizations are involved. In some service sectors, core business processes are also undergoing major transformations, and organizations that are involved in these activities are thus doubly concerned. First of all, the business service sector (SSCs, outsourcing companies) includes banking, insurance, energy, IT, logistics and travel, as well as health and public administration. So the potential is huge to transform the operation.

The different sectors and segment have different potential for digitization. Based on McKinsey Digitization Index that focus to reveal how high the potential in some sector for digitization, it could be clear that typical services areas of business services sector are in the main focus because of high potential.

Figure 2: MGI Sector Digitization Index



Source: [2]

The benefits of robotic process automation differ based on the implementation of process improvement projects but there are some common elements that are potential for each projects. Of course there are some challenges as well that could emerge with these projects and mainly connect to the young age of the technology.

Of course, whatever the estimated benefits are, business executives may not be fond of introducing a new IT system because they contain a multitude of typically difficult-to-manage and controllable tasks. These tasks also include additional developments that are often required in the case of boxed software and the related system integration activities related to the related ICT applications. Fortunately, for RPA, you do not have to worry about them at all! We do not incorporate new software, but only "software" robots that simulate the tasks of human users. Since these are typically small local applications that can be installed independently, the complexity of the technical implementation can be kept low.

It can be said, therefore, that RPA devices can be introduced in much shorter time and at much lower costs than their conventional counterparts. Many of them conclude that successful implementation of a RPA program cannot be a serious test for even more inexperienced organizations. But this is not necessarily the case, and why not, I try to illuminate it in the following.

Figure 3: RPA benefits and challenges

- Benefits:
  - Cost reduction, higher competitiveness
  - Additional scalability & flexibility
  - Better manageability (governance, security, business continuity)
  - Improved service delivery (speed & quality) eliminates human errors
  - Quick time to value realization (short implementation time)
  - Short time to investment recovery
  - Non-invasive nature
  - Higher compliance and security in data treatment
  - Easily integrating and managing
  - Working 24/7
  - Improved employee morale
- Challenges:
  - Hidden costs
  - Lack of real-time visibility
  - Resistance from client's IT team
  - Not significance itself as standalone technology
  - Resistance from service workers
  - Few implementation experiences

Source: own collected and edited

During the implementation of RPA projects the not fully automated operation and therefore the definition of the necessary level of human supervision is one of the challenges that makes the preparation of RPA solutions more complicated than expected based on the pilot project experiences. But besides, there are other difficult tasks that make it advisable to consider recruiting staff with relevant expertise and experience or using external experts before launching our RPA installation program.

The first step should be identifying process steps for RPA support. In the latter case, there may even be doubts as to whether or not the RPA mature process should be considered in the future. If necessary, but even radical, transformation of operational processes, and the identification of RPA support steps and, if necessary, further simplification, is the most critical point in the preparation of RPA projects, which basically affects the success of the implementation.

The second step to identify the RPA-enabled process steps, the business benefits, including the emphasis on forecasting savings, are far from trivial. For their accurate estimation, one needs to know about the capabilities, service constructions and floods of RPA technologies, and on the other hand, it is necessary to determine the expected savings with well-established external benchmark data.

The third step to invite and choose the appropriate software vendors from the RPA ecosystem. The major players in the RPA software market, which are recognized as a separate segment by leading software companies, are not among the world's most well-known business software companies, but are smaller companies and niche players. In addition, they have different experiences and business focus, so their products can vary considerably. In the future, it may be consolidation on this market as well thanks to some M&A activities.

The technical implementation of RPA devices can be much simpler than traditional software. However, this also means that most of the tasks to be performed are grouped into the user's side, which necessitates more preparation of the host organization. In addition to configuring software robots, fine tuning of supported process step operations is often done during specific software launch. In order to eliminate faulty runs and to reduce the number of exceptions to manually manipulate, testing and correction are also of exceptional importance when careful preparation is required and is systematically performed according to a defined work schedule. The success of the RPA projects are based on the skilled human labor that operates the technology as daily routine.

At the end of an RPA implementation, it is vital to measure the results with control the initial calculations. It could help to tune the technology better and allows or facilitate the extension of RPA story on other operational areas in the organization.

Conclusion

The spread of digitization and automation in the business service sector can have two major impacts. The first such effect is essentially an investment incentive by reinforcing nearshore and onshore activity in FDI investments. It is not expected to be a reshoring activity, i.e. it does not restore activities from elsewhere but can have a positive effect on the deployment of new features and to preserve the existing activities and to preserve them seriously. It needs significant investments in the new software technologies and human resource development to collect employees who could build and operate these technologies.

It is expected that there will be a shift in the sector for retention of certain activities. In fact, if automation is more widespread, the earlier cost considerations need to be re-examined and it is expected that under a second-cycle outsourcing contract a number of activities will go to market providers who will undertake robotizable activities. This can move the existing proportions of these services within the sector.

A business service organization with digitized and automated service delivery processes could ensure valuable capabilities for its service customers. From their back-end position, business service organization could move up on the value-chain to help service customers realizing their digital strategies, improve not only the back-office processes and methodologies but front-end customer interactions and increase internal productivities.

Organizations in the business service segment need to find a healthy balance among the different operational approaches. The normal way of business in the business service segment is when organizations endeavor to streamline their operation and want to reach the leading-edge process excellence. But this traditional way of operation could not be successful without continuously improvement approaches that want to find the new way of optimization with new management tools and technologies. The third approaches is the newest one that bring a disruptive thinking into the organizational management. It claims to incorporate a unique thinking that want to change traditional way of doing with totally new ways using new technological capabilities.

It is obvious that business service organizations need to widen the traditional focus areas in their operation to change to accommodate digitization. They have to change the traditional model of service factories, and should become centers of expertise, with less emphasis on completing lower-level manual tasks and more time spent devising and launching innovative and efficient service options. It means rather than hire low-cost, entry-level talent, business services organizations will need to look for expertise in areas such as point robotics, data analytics, and agile software development. To sustain value creation in companies, it is good idea to create a center of excellence (CoE) to govern the transformation and support the rapid deployment of automation solutions. A CoE should be centrally located and can be fairly small in size to support companies in introduction and execution of automation initiatives effectively.

Within the digitization and automation trends, robotic process automation holds exceptional opportunities for all major organizations in almost every sector. In the business service sector the company leaders are increasingly aware of it. The automation transformation has begun, and those who had pilot projects are optimistic and usually satisfied with the experiences. Based on it, the implementation of the RPA program is not the most critical point in technology itself, but some of the factors that are "around it". But management consulting firms are also aware of the technology and we can sure that the stakeholder will meet each other.

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Brief biography

Robert Marciniak, Ph.D.

I am an assistant professor at the Corvinus University of Budapest in the Institute of Management. As an academic researcher and global sourcing expert, I have been researching the outsourcing and shared service models for more than 10 years. Meanwhile, I had the opportunity to analyze the continuous progress of the Hungarian and CEE shared service markets and help to familiarize them in the academic sphere at many domestic and foreign conferences and universities as visiting lecturer. Some years ago, I also got my Ph.D. degree on this exciting field.

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Barriers to performance evaluation in business management at Public Organisations

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Abstarct

The purpose of my article is to present the importance of performance evaluation in the labour market because it determines the quality of activities. In the business sector the well-known literature models are well suited, but in public service organisations, the application of these models are more difficult because of the barriers. This study aims to explore the nature of these obstacles in public sector and to find a solution how can we overcome them. The basis of my assumption is that efficiency is measurable in public management as well, and this indicator is significantly linked to performance evaluation. By the end of this article, it will turn out whether it is enough to use existing well-known models or there is a need to add supplements to these models or to create a new method.

Introduction

Nowadays, performance management is becoming increasingly crucial in organisations because employee performance determines the quality of services. In the business sector, the well-known literature models are widely used that helps in effective assessment and development of employees. However, the application of these models in the public sector cannot be applied just like that. The present paper aims to compare applied business management models by criteria established by the author and to introduce the adaptability of selected elements in the public sector. In numerous cases, we can meet a client who finds fault with the workflow of public organisations. Thus, the author would like to reveal elements that may support to solve these problems.

It will be enhanced that this area plays a vital role not only in business management but the public sector. About business sector, an extensive body of literature exists on this topic. Despite its importance in public area, the number of studies is many times lower.

Literature review

The author considers primary the previously established criteria. Preliminary research in this field focused primarily on four crucial and frequently used business management models, Balance Scorecard, Performance Prism, Hosin Management and EFQM. The examination and detailed exploration of these models are considered to be of paramount importance because certain components are aimed to be integrated into a novel adaptation model.

In case of model examination its adaptation in public sector is a priority, and thus the criteria were established taking into account the adaptability. However, the most important is to highlight and define factors that have the decisive influence on public management. There is a wide range of areas in public sector, and we can speak about a water supplier, a government office or a health organisation. Therefore, it is rather challenging to define what the priority elements in specific areas are and which of these affect the performance of a company. The expression *'The consistent implementation of social-level goal'* includes numerous features that should be clarified. [9]

- The measurability is essential, namely to define if the company execute its tasks efficiently or not. Effectiveness is a concept that has numerous meanings. To be able to demonstrate the level of efficiency it is fundamental to determine what effectiveness exactly means and how is it present in a given specificated area. If we want to examine it, in general, three factors determine effectiveness, and these are the followings.[1]
  - The effectiveness of a service means that given service is produced with the required, and at the same time using the least possible resources
  - Technical effectiveness means that we can achieve novel technical approaches using different standards
  - The effectiveness of allocation means what an individual, or in this context, society values the most. This definition itself is not enough, and it is linked to the demonstrated organisational performance in the context of evaluation. [8]

It was mentioned before that specification determines that in given organisation what can be defined as effectiveness. A medical example will be introduced in the followings, to clarify the meaning more deeply of this concept.

- The purpose of service effectiveness is that in the organisation the utilisation of service will be achieved with the application of the cheapest resources. For instance, during an operation, it is vital to ensure what kind of resources we use, both, in human capital and financial context.
- In the context of technical effectiveness, primarily there is a need for such indicators that shows what kind of machines and how many hours operate in each department. Furthermore, the number of personnel in a given department is also important. [3]
- The effectiveness of allocation in this example means that the hospital provides services and these services are valued the best by the community and society. For instance urgent medical assistance or a well-done operation.

Since the comparability of four models will be analysed, it is essential that which model can measure and suitable to determine these indicators and factors in the best way. So, as the first element, the effectiveness handling will be defined. [2]

Besides the effectiveness, the relevance of a method is also essential. It means that what elements are highlighted, which are the crucial factors in a given process and what is emphasised. Thus, as a secondary factor, the relevance can be highlighted in the comparison of methodologies in the context of defining barriers.

Furthermore, the adaptability of the method is also essential. It may be emphasised as the most important criteria because not all the methodologies are appropriate to be applied in specific areas. Moreover, barriers and limitations also have to be taken into account because these determine the highest disadvantage of adaptability. Additionally, it considers essential that a system should be clear and consistent for everyone. In other words, must spend time for this element also, that for the employees to what extent are the workflows and targets interpretable and the evaluation how consistent and tenable is.

Clarity and consistency are the following comparability criterion. Consistency arises the question of the existence of barriers. Thus it is probably important to include this point, the evasion opportunity of the model, and the elements that are belonging to the model and may distort measurability. Countless elements could be listed in this research, but the primary evaluation criteria reflect the adaptability challenges of specific models, mainly in the context of public management. [11]

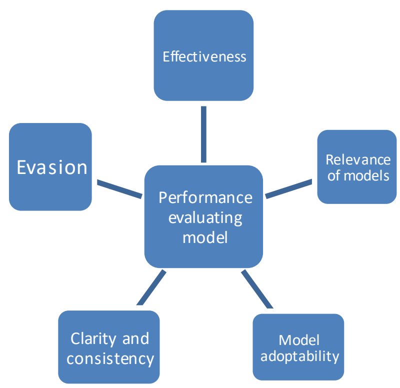
Table 1. : Comparability criterion

Criterion groups for comparability
Effectiveness
Relevance of models and main elements
Adaptability of models
Clarity and consistency

Source: Own edition

In ***Table 1*** shows the summary of results from previous examinations but this comparability system needs to be supplemented accordingly with some test factors. When we meet the word 'barrier', we assume that the achievement of something is limited by an element. or a factor. The examined models performance evaluation models are mainly applied in the field of business management thus it results in a barrier and assumes restructuring. In case of model examination, one of the fundamental questions is the evasion, which in parallel with the introduction and application of the model how this factor appears and what needs to be monitored. By this, the comparability criterion is supplemented with the evasion factor and in the followings the author analyses how these elements appear in the previously explored performance evaluation models.

***Diagram 1.* : Comparability criterion**



Source: Own edition

Comparison of Models seeking barriers

In the literature and the most widely used model is the Balance Scorecard. Firstly, this model will be analysed by comparability elements.

Table 2.: Evaluation of BSC model by criteria [5]

Balance Scorecard Model	
Effectiveness	There is a growing emphasis on the well-structured organisation. The model can handle numerous elements and processes thus the effectiveness issue is of paramount importance.
Model relevance and main elements	The organisation sees its processes, and aware of their buyers or clients, the value of human capital and realistic about the financial situation. The organisation applies perspectives such as financial, customer, operative and training perspectives.
Model adaptability	Through the 'equilibrium dimensions' performance indicators of the important areas in the organisation cannot be kept in balance.
Clarity and consistency	*As the performance evaluation is linked to hierarchy levels, and these levels also include performance expectations, thus this indicator shows uncertainty. Furthermore, inadequate assessment of the results affects the issues of consistency. Translation of the strategy into indicators and exploration of cause and effect relationship between the indicators.*
Evasion	*The constraint of the indicator perfection may result in lack of transparency.*

Source: Own edition

Secondly, the comparison of same elements will be executed in the context of Performance Prism.

Table 3.: Evaluation of Performance Prism model by criteria

Performance Prism	
Effectiveness	The focus is on the stakeholder satisfaction. Thus the effectiveness also focuses on it.
Model relevance and main elements	Stakeholders are involved in the organisational performance evaluation. Stakeholder satisfaction, processes, strategies and competencies are the main elements.
Model adaptability	*Insufficient handling of the requirements and expectations of stakeholders and demands placed upon them.*
Clarity and consistency	*The performance indicators are inconsistent with the requirements of the stakeholders, processes and strategies. Random selection of performance indicators in connection with the inside processes.*
Evasion	*Application of indicators that do not monitor the selected strategies because these indicators are unable for monitoring. Thus, the application of indicators shows a distorted perception of the strategy.*

Source: Own edition

The third examined model is Hosin Management.

Table 4.: Evaluation of Hosin Management by criteria

Hosin management	
Effectiveness	The model can quickly respond to new situations and environmental changes.
Model relevance and main elements	The work of corporate staff, short reaction time for environmental changes. Reaction time planning and asset utilisation are important.
Model adaptability	*Hosin management is not always related to the critical problems of a company.*
Clarity and consistency	*The cyclicality of self-assessment does not assume continuous performance level. Due to the periodically changing system, it is difficult to monitor.*
Evasion	*Inadequate break-down of aim/target values along the vertical and horizontal hierarchy.*

Source: Own edition

Finally, there is the introduction of EFQM model. [9]

Table 5: Evaluation of EFQM model by criteria

EFQM	
Effectiveness	The focus is on the efficiency, and for this purpose, the model tries to use all the existing resources optimally.
Model relevance and main elements	The primary target is the most effective use of resources, reaching stakeholders, assigning resources to increase efficacy. The focus is the capabilities and results.
Model adaptability	*Commitment has not developed. The lack of commitment has a considerable negative impact on the effective adaptation of the model.*
Clarity and consistency	*Self-assessment is cyclical, and consequently, there is periodically outstanding performance.*
Evasion	*Both, Questionnaire design and written assessment include very subjective factors.*

Source: Own edition

Conclusion

At the beginning of this article, the writer set the objective of exploring barriers of performance evaluation models which are known in the field of business management. The focus of the basic research is to create a performance evaluation model that is appropriate to achieve an effective system at public organisations but this issue is very

complicated and building a model is a very challenging task. Introducing the tables above the writer's aim was not only to explore the barriers but to give a general picture to the reader about the selected models, thus the effectiveness, issue of relevance, and adoptability present these fundamental factors.
Effectiveness is a somewhat elusive phenomenon, in spite of that, it was tried to introduce a formulated merely aim during the search for this factor. According to the author, this factor has to be examined again later, when the research will be nearing completion because effectiveness could be the main target and thus the primary measure for a public organisation.

Establishing of barriers was supported by the elements: clarity, consistency and evasion. Before the conclusions, it is necessary briefly to consider that even the application of any models is general and by eliminating barriers we cannot state that the restructured form of the model can provide the highest effectiveness for a company. Thus, an adaptation is needed to be done that is to formulate a model which includes and applies the elements combination of examined models. [11]

Firstly, the barriers of Balance Scorecard will be listed. This model is a well-done conception, but it is bounded by hierarchy levels thus the performance requirements are also related to these levels. In many cases, no problems will arise about this but if we intend to evaluate a public service organisation in many cases we are interested in the performance of the whole company, and thus the organisational requirements show an uncertain level. As a supplement, it has to be added that in case of cost control application this makes an outstanding contribution to the company. The strategy is transformed into indicators to get quantitative data. The interpretation of quantitative data is easy, but sometimes it seems to be forced. The question of evasion also related to this element because establishing the indicators may give distorted data that will not measure and show the current performance.

The next model is the Performance Prism. Taking into account customer satisfaction this model is outstanding and tries to focus on such elements that provide the highest satisfaction level of customers and clients. The formation of the barrier is related to conformity because the indicators are not in line with the needs of stakeholders. The emphasis is on the random selection of indicators thus in many cases are inconsistent with the accepted and established strategy. This barrier does not only appear in public service organisations. However, the main target is to meet the demands of customers and to provide services that meet the customer needs.

The application of Hosin management is also a widely used methodology. The economy and the environment are changing very quickly nowadays, and by the application of this model, companies are capable of reacting quickly. This business model is the last commonly used in public sector because there is no need for such a quick reaction than in the business sector. As a barrier, it has to mention that because of the quick reaction time the model does not deal with critical issues of the company, and self-assessment is cyclic thus the performance level is not continuous. In case of public management, the core requirement is to maintain performance levels and to meet the basic customer needs. By this, it can be stated that the application of this model in public management implies considerable difficulties.

Finally, the last model that was analysed in this study is the EFQM. The model focuses on the efficacy and tries to use all the resources most efficiently. The analysis of efficacy is not a simple thing but in case of public sector applying this analysis is also common. In public management, the barrier is that this model is cyclical during the self-assessment and there are both, outstanding and very low indicators also. For example, in a public service company, namely in a hospital, it is not acceptable if a staff member works well as a campaigner, the same care service should be given to patients every day. During the application of this model, a survey is used and in this survey often includes subjective questions thus the results will look like this. We should think about that in a public service organisation how many working processes and different levels or departments are included, and these appear as a considerable barrier during the evaluations because all the working areas are different from each other.

Summary

The primary task of the performance evaluating system is to ensure the operation of the company with the highest indicators and higher satisfaction. Improving the knowledge of the above-introduced models we can conclude that all of the models have a feature that can be part of the efficient operation and every model has features that result in barriers. To further this research, it is intended to create an effective model that can be applied by a public organisation, in particular at a health organisation and this model supports and facilitates the operation. It was mentioned before that every model has different focus groups, but during the examinations, the most widely used model is the BSC. Thus, this model will be used as the primary methodology in the model creation.

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Brief Biography

Daniella Kucsma

Daniella Kucsma studied Economics and graduated from the University of Miskolc. After she finished her Master studies, she started PhD School at the University of Miskolc. She has been working as an assistant lecturer at the University of Miskolc since 2015.

Her PhD topic is the examination of performance management in the public sector.

Within the public sector, her research focuses on hospitals. Nowadays performance management is widely used in the business sector. The application of performance management in the public sector is also essential, but some barriers have to be explored. The primary research goal is to integrate these barriers into a new performance management model.

5th Parallel Session

Innovation and experience creation in the festival tourism
Festival analysis from regional aspects

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Abstract

Festival tourism is a dynamically developing area of tourism which is supported by the growing number of festival tourists and by the strengthening traveling motivations to festivals. The festivals have become significant attractions of various cities and regions. The number of rural cities' festivals which are mainly organized for local communities, is growing by leaps and bounds, but the number of festivals specifically targeting tourists is also high. The tourist impact on festivals could be analyzed at economical, physical, environmental, social and cultural levels, but the innovations for festivals is an under-researched field. In this study (based on the 4E model of the experience), we evaluate the festivals' websites through content analysis, in order to observe, which experience elements typically appear in the festival tourism, and which elements of innovation and innovative solutions promote the enhancement of the elements. In the case of exceptionally innovative festivals (e.g. Sziget Festival, Margitszigeti Summer Festival), the results of the interviews with festival organizers are complemented by small case studies, which analyze the innovative solutions of festivals through their social and cultural impact. Similarly, we present a highly innovative example abroad as the best practice is to be found by the Hungarian festival organizers. The received results suggest that organizers use more and more new and unique solutions during festival events, and innovative solutions are primarily present in the online space. Naturally, in case of several festivals, organizers tend to insist on traditional programs and the involvement of those who participate, aiming to keep these traditions.

Keywords: festival, innovation, experience, tradition, tourism, regions, online

1. Introduction

Event tourism is an important element of tourism products. Its advantages are comparable to other products at a certain level, i.e. it extends the tourist offer, increases the tourist turnover, thus increases national revenue. It introduces the country's cultural heritage, traditions and customs, and – in case of successful execution – it has a positive impact on the country image. Many new events are announced outside the peak season, optimizing the country's seasonal fluctuation in tourism. Economically speaking, the lives of local communities can be influenced by events and festivals. In recent years, more and more festivals are being advertised nationwide. Earlier, festivals were referred to as „multi-day" or „weeklong" long-term events. Nowadays, it is becoming more and more common for shorter, even one or two days long events can be called festivals. According to the definition of the Hungarian Festival Association, „festivals can be considered any cultural, artistic, gastronomic, sporting or other event-series organized around one or more themes organized on one or more occasions, organized on one or more sites with a publicity program aimed at the public high quality, value-driven, quality, knowledge-based, and entertaining leisure time community experience". Organizers try to attract the participants from every part of the country (and even the world) with ever-more beautiful and more personal and intimate sounds (Tangit, Kibat and Adanan, 2016). Festivals can be grouped according to their theme, frequency, type of organizers (Hunyadi, Inkei and Szabó, 2006; Sulyok and Sziva, 2009; Kundi, 2013) according to the target group (Kardos, 2011) according to their cultural conformation (Szabó, 2014), sustainability (Laing and Frost, 2010). The HFA defines four different genres: gastronomic, artistic, amateur and other public festivals. Furthermore, it can be categorized according to the degree of cultural value creation (Jászberényi, Zátori and Ásványi, 2016). Especially because of the latter, festival organizers have a great responsibility for renewing culture, in embracing creation and presentation, and also in innovation (De Greef, 2008). Festivals, as any other service sector element, require continuous development and with the use of new technologies this can be used through organizational, operational and structural innovation (Stamboulis and Skayannis, 2003). In our During our previous research, we sought to evaluate value creation and experience gained through innovation along content analysis. In the case of the experience gained, it is possible to evaluate the festivals on the basis of objective factors, based on the model 5E (in most cases even 4E) (Pine and Gilmore, 1999 and 2011). In this study we continue our previous research and we narrow the focus in terms of measuring the differences between the locations of festivals. We analyse the link between the type of host cities in case of it is a capital town in a county or not and in which region it is. The measurement of these differences is similar to our previous research, therefore it has two approaches: one aspect is the recognizability of elements of the 4E model and the other is the level of innovativeness of a festival. For these reasons our literature review covers three sides. First, we present the 4(5)E model from Pine and Gilmore, then we continue with the presence of innovativeness on festivals, and finally, we finish this topic with studies measuring the regional differences regarding festivals and exploring possibilities in Hungary in terms of how we can group our cities or regions geographically.

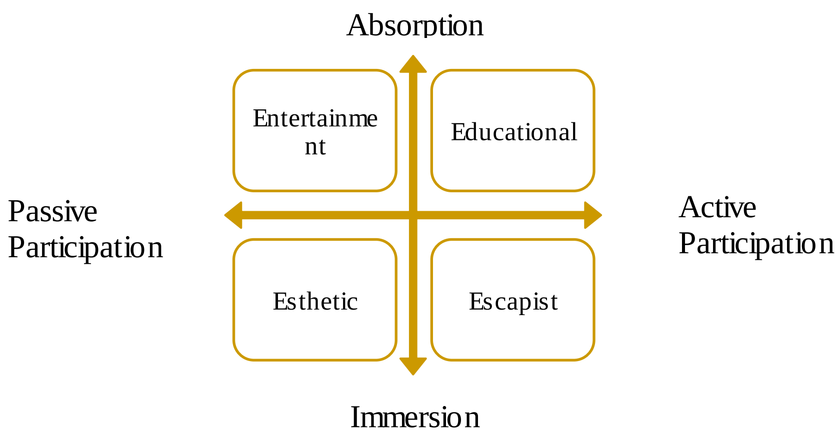
2. Literature review

In most cases, the importance of festivals in tourism is usually supported by two sides. On the one hand, it generates memories and stories, releases the human soul and spirit, it draws a bit from everyday life, but sometimes it draws attention to the smallness of everyday life within its enlarged framework, namely learning from one another and becoming acquainted with others and ourselves (Getz, 2012). On the other hand, it contributes to the economic gains of a particular community, region, country, by making use of various infra- and superstructures for visitors (Michalkó, 2016). In general, this latter aspect is more likely to be examined, but it is worth examining the value creation and experience processes of festivals and festival tourism on an individual and social level as well.

The stages of experiences through the 4(5)E model

Stages of experience are often mistakenly explained only by the depth of entertainment. If something is fun, then it definitely has an experience (all of this is derived from the theatrical world). There is more to it, because it is not simply „just" to entertain the audience and consumers, but the main task is to engage them. All this can be done along two dimensions in Pine and Gilmore (1999). One is the level of guest participation from passive to active. The other is the connection, its two endpoints are absorption and immersion. This is about where the experience is realized, that is, the level of thinking in the head, or the consumer's fullness, that is, a high degree of connection to the environment (for example, standing at a car festival and living through the motor tails, smells, sounds and sights). The two dimensions divide the plane into four areas. They expressed the notions 4E, namely Entertainment, Education, Escapist and Esthetics.

Figure 1: 4E model



Source: based on Pine and Gilmore (1999), self made

In a more recent research, Pine and Gilmore (2011) also introduce the concept of the 5th E as Economy Value. In short, about the 5 concepts it must be known that Entertainment is passively absorbed through the senses, with Education experiences a guest absorbs the events unfolding before him while actively participating, the guest of an Escapist experience actively participates in an immersive environment and escapist experiences are not just about embarking from but voyaging too, in Esthetics experiences individuals immerse themselves but remain passive, while Economic value determines the value of the experience itself, i.e. how much it was worth to sacrifice that amount (Pine and Gilmore, 1999, 2011). In case of all these festivals, Entertainment, the mood of the festival itself, the entertainment options of the destination, the degree of enthusiasm, the Educational is the knowledge about the theme of the festival, its performers, the destination and the local culture, Escapist is the breakthrough from everyday life, feeling completely new experiences, with total involvement, Esthetics measures the attractiveness of the destination, the attraction of the site, relying on feelings, while Economic value expresses the affordability and the price/experience ratio positively in space and time. In our research, we have decided not to investigate the fifth E, since it is only worth deciding whether it is worth spending money on the festival after feeling the experience, while of all the other factors one can get information and knowledge from the organizers even before the festival (Jászberényi et al., 2016).

In the relationship between the experience and the festival, some researchers got the following results. About the four E (Manthiou et al. 2014) experience has a positive effect on vivid memory, which consequently influences loyalty. Each dimension of experience economy significantly influences the vividity of memory. However, loyalty is affected only by the entertainment and esthetics dimensions. In the most recent study (Semrad and Rivera, 2016) the results have revealed that if festival organizers craft an overall memorable music festival experience that incorporates the 5Es, then GenY attendees are likely to provide positive eWOM for the festival and the destination.

Overall, it can be stated that effective events are permanent memories. We can only talk about success and quality if the festival is not forgotten. This requires festivals to focus on the experience, which is an offer making it memorable and if this experience is further shared with others, the event becomes sustainable. All this can be generated and accelerated by innovation.

<u>Innovation in the tourism service-industry</u>

In addition to the traditional, mainly mass tourism – which many authors think has and will cause problems and which should be rethought (Green and Chalip, 1998, Skayannis, 1999, Stamboulis and

Skayannis, 2003, Anderson and Lundberg, 2013) – it would be worth reconsidering alternative tourism approaches, individualize appearances and communication (Stamboulis and Skayannis, 2003). The concept of benign tourism has already appeared, which encourages greater responsibility and sensibility to host community needs among travellers (Kelly, 1997) and the concept of coproduction also is taken in the light of the field of experience (Troye and Supphellen, 2012). The essence of innovation is gaining competitive advantage. The experience itself is described in an innovation context as learning and learning process, and Stamboulis' and Skayannis' (2003) findings highlighted the visitors' priority in selecting facilities and services and learn more about better arrangements on facilities and services that have the most impact toward future attendees. All this means that the learning process itself needs to be changed so that a service provider, possibly a festival, could be called innovative. At strategic level, it is necessary to establish distinctive benefits and unrepeatable/ unreproducible myths and knowledge-based products. It is worth to bring intangible goods into the front. The importance of added value is emphasized by the authors as well as the customization focus organization (Yeoman et al., 2014), restating old legends, rethinking and reinventing embedding the site into the local community, not standing out but to get in synergy with them (Várhelyi, 2016 in Jászberényi et al.). Transfer communication is led to cyber/online space by sharing and communicating with tourists, and increasing the aftermath (Hede and Kellett, 2011). Finally, learning from all the acquired experiences and rethinking (De Greef, 2008). Nowadays, it is worth mentioning that several destinations address the creation and introduction of the concept of a festival as a tourism product development (Dogan, 2012).

Based on these results and approaches, we have compiled the criterias for content analysis, and we reconsider the model along the tradition and innovation axis.

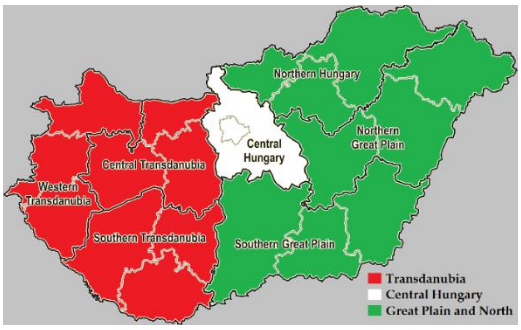
<u>All these two approaches can be observed from Hungarian regional aspects</u>

In most cases, the influence of festivals in regional aspects is investigated on the economy and visibility of a given community. Saayman and Saayman (2006) analysed the local economic impact of the three leading arts festivals in South Africa. The results indicate that the location and size of the town is an important factor considering the impact of the event on the town and the region. Moscardo (2007) used a conceptual framework which was developed to describe regional tourism development to explore 36 case studies describing festivals and events in a regional developmental context. The content analysis identified 13 themes as associated with the effectiveness of festivals and events in supporting regional development. It is important to note that a well-invented, thematically well-structured festival on the calendar in a non-main season can reduce the tourist seasonality of the region, as found in

Getz's (1997) study. In Australia, Jackson, Houghton, Russell and Triandos (2005) developed a software tool, the Festivals Do-it-Yourself (DIY) kit, which enables regional event organizers to assess the economic impact of their events on the region simply and relatively inexpensively. As well as providing information to the festival organizers, the results for festivals are able to be compared by external sponsors and stakeholders. But there is not any example for a festival, that would have been examined in terms of experience. However, the Pine and Gilmore 4E model was thought further by Jászberényi (2016), who said that for festivals, all four elements contain references to the given destination. For example, the Entertainment type experiences include the element of the entertainment experience of the destination. Education-type experiences include the experience of learning about the destination or the local culture. In the case of Escapist, the destination will appear indirectly, in such a way that environmental elements can contribute to getting out of the ordinary. While the attractiveness of the destination, in case of the attraction of the site, we can talk about possible differences between locations, situation, and approaching of a particular location during the Esthetics experience. All this suggests that there may be differences between the venues of the festivals in terms of the experience they have experienced.

Innovation requires economic development. From economic point of view, in Dusek, Lukács and Rácz (2010), there are seven major statistical regions in Hungary (below), which can be said to have obtained the following result based on different economic indicators. Central Hungary is the most advanced region followed by Western-Transdunabia and Central-Transdunabia. After them, fallen behind average, South-Transdunabia, Southern Great Plains, Northern Great Plains and Northern Hungary can be found. From this we can conclude, that there may be differences between the levels of innovation of festivals due to their location.

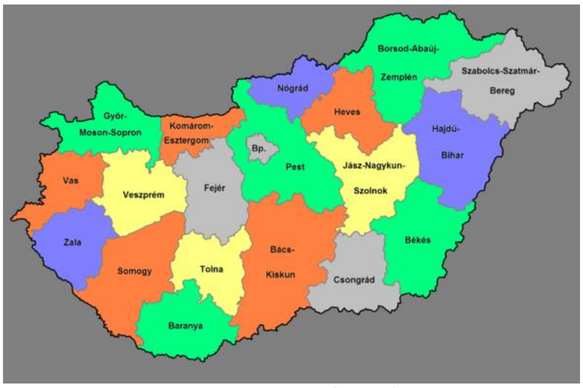
Figure 2: NUTS 1 & NUTS 2 categorizations



Source: Eurostat (2011)

At the end of the literature review we have to look at the Hungarian territorial subdivisions. There may be two main regional analysis. One of them is the Hungarian, based on the Hungarian Central Statistical Office categorization (this categorization can be called as NUTS 1 too). In this case, there are three regions, as seen on Figure 2 with three colours. The other categorization is based on the NUTS (Nomenclature of Territorial Units for Statistics) regional system: this divides the country to seven regions, as seen on Figure 2 with words on the map (this categorization can be called as NUTS 2 too). In these two cases we sought to find significant differences between the regions of the host cities. The third one is the NUTS 3, in which we can observe 19 counties and Budapest, as seen on Figure 3. We would like to find significant differences between if the host city is a capital or not (we explicate it in the next chapter). We chose these categorization for our research questions and we try to think further these subdivions.

Figure 3: NUTS 3 categorization



Source: Eurostat (2011)

3. Research method

In previous researches, mainly interviewing methods were used. These researched the effects and appearances of 5E in particular (Cole and Chancellor, 2008, Manthiou, Lee, Tang and Chiang, 2014, Semrad, Rivera and Croes, 2015, Semrad and Rivera, 2016, Tangit, Kibat and Adanan, 2016). In these articles, elements of 4E were studied in sufficiently similar and well-structured items in an understandable and easy way. The field of innovation has not been specifically measured by the impact of a festival on innovation or on what elements it represents. For this reason, we thought that as an introduction we take a look at the home page of the domestic festivals, whether any innovation-related aspects would be present at all, and to see how to measure 4E (as we have already explained the 5th E is not examined) in a content analysis.

At the beginning of our research, an exploratory, qualitative category of in-depth interviews was used to identify some aspects to be considered in this way. At this point, the interviewer talks to a single interviewer with unstructured, direct, personal interviews, in order to gain the attitudes, motivations, views and feelings about a specific question (Malhotra and Simon, 2009).

Due to the nature of our research, we applied the concluding, and in particular, the descriptive method. Within this, the literature distinguishes two categories: the questioning and the observative method. The observation methodology was chosen for the purpose of gathering people's behaviour, objects and events in a systematic manner and to obtain information about a particular phenomenon. Content analysis means the objective, systematic and quantitative characterization of observable content of communication. Content analysis is a suitable method in cases where the object of observation is not a behaviour or a physical object, but a communication. The units of the analysis can be words, features, topics, place and time measurement or the subject of communication. The categorization of the analytical units creates rules, thus breaking the observed communication with the units (Malhotra and Simon, 2009). The size of the sample suggests that we quantitate the results obtained, but first, we are only able to deduct generality from the results obtained.

Our observations were made on 236 festivals on the programturizmus.hu/categoria-fesztival website. Content analysis was approached from two sides. The elements of 4E are described by Manthiou et al. 2014, Semrad at al., 2015, Semrad and Rivera, 2016, each containing three elements. Innovation elements were studied in Stamboulis and Skayannis, 2003, Table 1, five of which were related to the innovative festivals, and three elements for the festivals we considered conventional. Based on this two-sided approach, we used two research questions based on the literature and our own research intuitions.

RQ_1: Is there any link between the type of the host city (based on NUTS 3) and the fact that the festival is innovative or traditional?

RQ_2: Is there any link between the type of the host city (based on NUTS 3) and the 4E elements?

RQ_3: Is there any link between the regional location of the host city (based on NUTS 1 or NUTS 2) and the fact that the festival is innovative or traditional?

RQ_4: Is there any link between the regional location of the host city (based on NUTS 1 or NUTS 2) and the 4E elements?

During our research, we were looking for these answers to accept or reject the questions and we would like to think further regarding the differences alongside some other alternative regional categorizations.

4. Results

During the in-depth interviews with experts, through the example of the Sziget Festival (Lobenwein, 2016) we learned that there may be three aspects of innovation. First is „upgrading" and aligning with the trends, second is the continuous development of infrastructure, and ultimately the most important is the actuality of communication and the development of its resources to satisfy the needs. An organizer may use hyper-cyber elements for a traditional-style festival with a traditional value system, but only in vain: it will be rather frustrating, than involving for visitors, according to Ujváry (2017) on the basis of the Festivals of the Royal

Castle of Gödöllő. It is important to adapt innovation to demand, in some cases in may be enough to repackage and reconsider only one or two items. All over the world, small island destinations (SID) festivals are gaining ground, mainly in Central America, but also similarly – including the Slavonian region – the Ultra Music Festival, which strives to maintain their innovation with the latest music supply, serving Y and slowly the communication needs of the Z generation too, but also relying on them, in connection with eWOM. We can conclude that these festivals are essentially trying to stay innovative with their topic by following the latest trends in organizing and communicating (Semrad and Rivera, 2015).

A total of 85 festivals were tested during content analysis. In our analysis, we examined the factors related to innovation (based on the aforementioned articles and in-depth interviews) and the 4E factors of Pine and Gilmore (1999). We have been looking for the presence of eight statements about innovation. Five of which have characterized the level of innovation for a festival (1. Using some digital technology at the festival, 2. Visiting visitors individually, trying to reach the audience in multiple ways, 3. Introducing unique/novel/interesting ideas 4. Trying to include cyber/online space [sharing, hotspot, Wi-Fi, Apps], 5. Old stories telling, but in a new dress), while three relate to the existence of traditional elements (6. It follows tradition, 7. Old/non-renewing ideas [older than 10 years old due to the online penetration of the last decade], with no innovation, 8. Classical themes, classic robe, simple ideas). The presence of 4E was viewed with the following aspects, with each of the concepts having three characteristics. For Entertainment: 1. The festival seems entertaining/spectacular, 2. The site and its information are inspirational, 3. The destination itself moves one of the basis of the information; for Educational: 1. The information on the website intends to make the festival interesting, 2. I can learn more about music/cooking/wines, etc., at the festival by theme, 3. I also know more about local culture; for Escapist: 1. Feeling like you can get away from this world 2. Worth visiting because you can get new experiences 3. It suggests that when you leave here you can forget all other everyday things; while for Esthetics: 1. The site seems attractive, 2. The information is good for its environment, 3. It seems to me that the site seems attractive. If two or more of the three statements corresponded to the given festival, they met that particular type of experience.

First, we looked at the innovative nature of the festivals. Based on a researcher's decision, we thought that two of the three traditional festival features (7th and 8th) would be duplicated in our analysis because even if they use a Facebook application, they still organize the festival on old/non-renewing ideas or classical themes in a classic robe, therefore the organizers will still count as more traditional than innovative. If such a statement characterized the festival, it would neutralize two innovativeness claims. After these evaluations, we created a five-step scale (traditional, rather traditional, as traditional as innovative, rather innovative, innovative) for the classification of festivals. Of the 85 examined festivals, three of them had to be screened because they were organized in more than one locations so that it could not be precisely defined in a territorial manner. Of the 82 randomly selected samples, 28 (34.1%) are traditional, 9 (11.0%) are rather traditional, 16 (19.5%) are as traditional as innovative, 19 (23.2%) are rather innovative and 10 (12.2%) are innovative. Based on these, Hungarian festivals are more traditional than innovative. Taking the categorizations revealed in the literature review into account, the 82 sample festivals were divided into six categories based on a researcher's decision. Gastronomic themed festivals have the biggest rate (32, 39.0%), followed by music and dancing themes (23, 28.0%), and the third in the other category (e.g. KockaFeszt Debrecen, Héttorony festival) (13 15.9%), while the rest of the three categories are artistic (8, 9.8%), the „all in one" (Budapest Autumn Festival) (4, 4.9%) and children's festivals (2, 2.4%) had been cut off from our sample.

<u>NUTS 3 categorization and the two belongings research questions</u>

Examining the location of the festivals according to the NUTS 3 category, which is about grouping by county, it can be concluded that taking into account Budapest, a total of 57 county seats and 25 non-county seats were included in our sample. Regarding the level of innovation, whether the festival venue is a county seat or not, there are 13 county seats and 15 are not (46.4%-53.6%) traditional festivals; rather than traditional festivals, this ratio is 6-3 (66.7(81.3%-18.7%), 17-2 (89.5%-10.5%), while in the case of innovative festivals 8-2 (80.0%-20.0%). Grouped by topic, depending on whether or not the venue is a county seat: 18 seats for gastronomic festivals and 14 is not for music festivals 19-4, for other festivals 8-5, for arts 6-2, for "all in one" 4-0 and for children's festivals are 2-0. After these we would like to analyze the differences between host cities in case of NUTS 3.

If we want to examine festivals on the basis of whether it is organized in a capital town of a county or not in case one of them is more innovative than others, we can talk about significant differences with a level of significance of 5% (P value is 1.4%) (small sample, cross-table analysis, because according to E. Kovács (2011) the Likert scale had to be taken as a nominal variable), i.e. there is a difference between the location (NUTS 3) of the festival and its degree of innovation. This difference is not very strong (Cramer V is 0.386) and 30% of the cells contain less than 5 items, so we have to accept the results with little conditions (this may be explained by the small sample). If we look specifically at the numbers, we can see the differences because while the capital of the counties are more innovative (25 innovative, 13 neutral, 19 traditional), the others are more traditional (18 traditional, 3 neutral, 4 innovative). Based on these, we can observe some trendy processes in terms of innovation through NUTS 3 categorization, thus RQ_1 is proved.

Investigating the dimensions of experience through NUTS 3 categorization, we can conclude that RQ_2 is met due to the relationship between elements of 4E and the fact that a given festival is in a capital town or not. In a statistical sense, we tested RQ_2 for each element. The Entertainment features 69.5% of the festivals located in a capital town (57), Escapist 67.1% (55), Esthetics 69.5% (57), Educational 69.5% (57). The first three elements are very similar to our previous study where we measured the differences through their themes. Then we studied the differences and relationships with a cross-table analysis. For Entertainment, there is a significant difference between the potential dimension of experiences during the festival and if the festival is in a capital town or not at the 1% significance level with medium strength according to Cramer V value (0.309) and the cell contents are also acceptable. It is similar in the case of Escapist, where there is also a significant difference between the two variables tested at 1% significance level, in a medium strength level according to Cramer V value (0.311) and the results are acceptable according to cell content. However, there is a significant relationship in case of Esthetics and Educational dimensions at the 10% significance level because the P values are 5.4% and 6.2%. The Cramer V values are 0.212 and 0.206, so they are quite weak but the cell contents are acceptables. Further on, we can conclude that all four elements are stronger in the capital town of a county than in another city and the Entertainment and Escapist are stronger than the Esthetics and Educational features.

<u>NUTS 1 and 2 categorization and the two belongings research questions</u>

First, we looked at how the two categories - just like in the previous subchapter - can be included in the festivals according to their level of innovation and possible experiences. For easier comprehensibility, the names of the regions are indicated by numbers. 1^{st} is Transdanubia, 2^{nd} is Central Hungary and 3^{rd} is Great Plains and North. The distribution of the three regions was as follows: in 1^{st} category there are 10, in 2^{nd} there are 8, in 3^{rd} there are 10 traditional festivals, in each category there are 3 rather traditional festivals, in 1^{st} category there are 4, in 2^{nd} there are 5, in 3^{rd} there are 7 as traditional as innovative festivals, then in 1^{st} category there are 4, in 2^{nd} there are 9, in 3^{rd} there are 6 rather innovative festivals and finally in 1^{st} category there are 2, in 2^{nd} there are 6, in 3^{rd} there are 2 innovative festivals. According to the themes, we have the following distributions: from the gastronomic festivals in 1^{st} category there are 10, in 2^{nd} there are 10 and in 3^{rd} there are 12, from the music festivals in 1^{st} category there are 8, in 2^{nd} there are 11 and in 3^{rd} there are 4 , from other festivals in 1^{st} category there are 4, in 2^{nd} there 3 and in 3^{rd} there are 6, from art festivals in 1^{st} category there is 1, in 2^{nd} there are 5 and in 3^{rd} there is 1, from “all in one” festivals in 1^{st}

category there is not any, in 2nd and 3rd there are 2 while the 2 children's festivals are in 3rd category.

If we are looking at the experiences of the Entertainment category, we can find that in the 1st category there are 14 (in 9 cases not), in 2nd there are 22 (in 9 cases not) and in 3rd there are 20 (in 8 cases not). For Escapist type, there are 13 cases (in 10 cases not) in 1st category, in 2nd there are 20 (in 11 cases not) and in 3rd there are 19 cases (in 9 cases not). The Esthetics type of potential experiences was found in 1st category 15 cases (in 8 cases not) in 2nd 23 (in 8 cases not) and in 3rd 16 cases (in 12 cases not). Finally, in the 1st category there are 6 cases (in 17 cases not) in 2nd there are 18 (in 13 cases not), and in 3rd there are 15 (in 13 cases not) how we found information about the Educational type.

Categorization of the NUTS 2 type is not described in detail because there is no significant relationship with any research question if we divide the country into seven regions and the distribution is quite confusing.

Rather than proving or rejecting the two research questions, quite a few cases have yielded significant results. The third question must be rejected because there is no difference in case of innovativeness between the regions on the basis of our sample, investigating the venues of the festival. For the fourth question, we found significant differences with the Educational experience type at a level of 10% (P value is 5.5%). At this time the connection is weakly medium (Cramer V is 0.268). All this means that RQ_4 is accepted with conditions.

In our earlier research, one of our findings was that there is a significant relationship (at 5% significance level), what is the theme of the festival and what level it is innovated or not. At that time, music festivals were more innovative whereas gastronomic types were more traditional. We have now found a link between the subject and the festival site, but we have not found any significant difference in any of these cases, so we can conclude that our present research result is novel, because there is a difference between whether the venue is a county seat or not.

Our other previous important statement was that Entertainment, Escapist and Esthetics experience elements appear better at an innovative jungle than a traditional one. The results of our present study may suggest that these elements have no effect on the venue of the festival, except for the Educational element, where it does. Perhaps this is due to the fact that this item is heavily dependent on the recognition, knowledge acquisition, and knowledge of the given culture of a particular destination, which has a difference between a smaller and a larger settlement than we can see.

In order to filter out the potential impact of other features, we investigated the theme of the festival and the relationship between experience types. Here we found that only in the case of the Esthetics experience dimension, there is a moderately strong (Cramer V = 0.460) difference between the themes with 1% significance level, i.e. the gastronomic themed festivals do not tend to offer esthetics-based experience, but the other themed festivals are highly (in each case more than 75%).

Two alternative regional categorizations

In order to increase the reliability of our test, we have tried to shape a NUTS 1 categorization. At this time, the size of the regions was varied as shown in Figures 4 and 5.

Figure 4: Extended NUTS 1

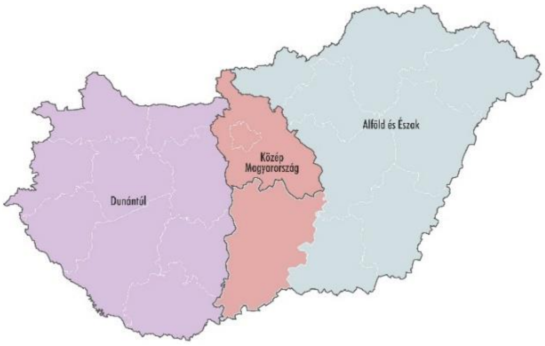
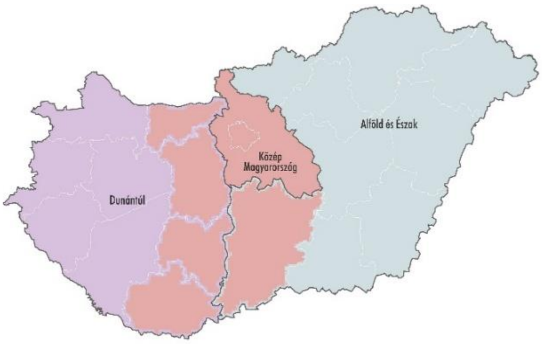


Figure 5: Extended NUTS 1



Source: based on the Hungarian Central Statistical Office, self made

In the Figure 4 categorization, there was a significant difference between regions in terms of Educational elements and the P value is 5.0%, while Cramer V is 0.272. According to the distribution of the results in case of Figure 5, there is also a significant difference between regions in terms of Educational elements and the P value is 3.0%, while Cramer V is 0.294. Based on these, we can say that our results have improved, but it is interesting that only in this case. Based on our past and recent experiences, we can say that the Educational element behaves differently than the other three and has no connection with the level of innovation, but it can be seen that its location in the festival it is in NUTS 1 and in NUTS 3 as well.

5. Conclusion, limits and future research fields

Three of our research questions could be accepted. There is a difference in geographical aspects, between the sites in particular, whether the given settlement is a county seat or not. It can be said that county seats are significantly more innovative than traditional. Regarding the regional aspect, there is no significant difference between the level of innovation of the festivals, which can be encouraging in the fact that the location of the festivals in our case does not affect the nature of the festival, therefore it is not the place to be chosen because it has the same equipment for a particular theme, regardless of being located in the region. However, it can be seen that county seats, which are also larger cities, are more innovative than small settlements. In addition, in these larger cities, there are more Entertainment and Escapist elements than the smaller ones (with a 5% level of significance). This may indirectly be attributed to the fact that there are more music festivals in county seats than elsewhere. In our previous study it can be noted that the music-dance or other categories of festivals in our sample are significantly more innovative than traditional, as opposed to gastronomic themed festivals. In our present research, though not significantly, music festivals were organized in a much larger proportion in county seats (19-4), while in the case of gastronomy, this is half the half (18-14). It is possible to have a small indirect impact on this subject from the subject side to the results obtained, even if we can not substantiate it. One should not miss the fact that the Esthetics and Educational elements are at the 10% significance level rather than on other sites at festivals in county seats. Overall, in the knowledge of the results obtained, we can say that festivals in county seats have more complex and more modern facilities and can offer more experience on their website than non-county festivals.

Examining the side of potential experience, there is only one difference between the main NUTS 1 categorization and the Educational element alone. It follows that the site does not significantly affect the other elements. In the literature review, we can also see that the characteristics of the Entertainment, Escapist and Esthetics elements are not so direct to the reference to the destination, while for the Educational case it is enough, so it may result in only a significant difference in this case. Of course, this result would be completely different if we were asking the participants who experienced the actual experience. In the light of the previous results, it can be also seen that Entertainment, Escapist and Esthetics are also characterized by more innovative festivals, while in Educational dimension there is no significant difference. This can be explained by the fact that the features of these three dimensions already include or refer to innovation-related statements, and may therefore be somewhat similar. In practice, it is more likely that at first sight visitors will describe a music festival more innovative and fun, than a gourmet sausage festival. It can be seen, however, that gastronomic festivals can be somewhat entertaining and tearing out visitors from everyday life, because in both cases the dimensions explain nearly 50% of the total factor. It can be stated, that Esthetics dimension is more typical for music-dance and art festivals, and as such, they are innovative in terms of a beautiful appearance, online appearance and execution.

Content analysis is a more subjective genre despite the given considerations and claims. It is possible that some festivals have used innovations, but we did not feel it or did not emphasize it enough in our research. In the interview, Lobenwein said that the basis for everything is communication, even if it does not renew the festival because it does not want to, then it is still worth highlighting, why not. It is worth looking at a larger sample for even more sophisticated results, and an asking survey could also involve the demand side in a research on how innovative solutions affect the visitors and how they live and feel the experience dimension. Finally, it would be interesting to note that Budapest was taken out of the sample because 39% of the festivals were organized in the capital city and this could have strongly influenced the results of the county seat cases, although we have looked at it and there is no significant difference between the festivals organized in the capital or region.

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Short biographies

Melinda Jászberényi PhD

The associate professor of the Tourism Department, operating in Marketing and Media Institute of Corvinus University of Budapest. She graduated on the Department of Trasport, and on the Department of Management and Leadership. She defended her PhD in the Business and Management PhD Programme of Corvinus University of Budapest. She participated on study tours in universities abroad (Michingen State University, USA, University College London, Great-Britain), on lecturers' exchange programs (University of Rijeka, Croatia), and held lectures, seminars (NEA Research Institute, Netherlands). As department leader she participated in the development of the Department of Tourism and Hospitality and the foundation of Department of Tourism and Management. She formed postgraduate specialist training courses in the field of cultural tourism, and tourism development. She is lecturer and responsible for several tourism courses, among others Cultural tourism, Heritage tourism management and Travel organizing. Her research is focused on cultural tourism and related fields. In the previous years she participated in several research projects. She regularly holds presentations on Hungarian and foreign conferences related to her research topics. She publishes her research results in Hungarian and foreign papers. In the last years she edited the following two books: Diversity of Cultural Tourism (Jászberényi (eds.) NKTK, 2014) and Festival Tourism (Jászberényi-Zátori-Ásványi (eds.), Akadémiai Kiadó, 2016).

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Assistant professor in Corvinus University of Budapest in Department of Marketing-, Media and Design Communication. She leads courses from 2007, when she started the PhD programme. The main topics of her courses are tourism, communication, corporate social responsibility and sustainability. She defended her dissertation in 2013, which was focused on the topic of CSR, so she has several publications in the theme. She participated more research projects in the fields of tourism education (Tempus), sustainability (Waterisk, TÁMOP,) and renewable energy in tourism (OTKA). She is TDK section secretary of Tourism and transport from 2011. She started to deal with the topic cultural tourism in 2013, when she published two chapters in the book titled The Diversity of Cultural Tourism (Jászberényi (eds.), 2014). From

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László Kökény

First-year PhD Student of the Tourism Department, operating in Marketing and Media Institute of Corvinus University of Budapest. He graduated on Marketing (MSc), and on Tourism and catering. His master thesis was about measuring the relationship between personality and satisfaction in the hotel industry, and his bachelor thesis was about examining the impacts of the global economic crisis on the Hungarian hotel industry. Now his PhD research contains two field. One of them is being continued and expanded his previous MSc thesis, in which he would like to combine marketing and tourism theories. The other talks about the field of tourism especially how we can involve the new generations in the tourism industry through its products for example festivals. This research is based on their previous study, which he presented in a conference, in Dunaújváros. But now he is examining the regional effects on their previous findings (the relationships between 4E and innovations) with his colleagues.

Responsible Research and Innovation among SMEs

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Abstract

In the 21st century the importance of research, development, and innovation (RDI) processes are more remarkable in our life than ever before. On the one hand the innovation can result in positive effects that is leading the economy and society forward. On the other hand the accelerated RDI processes have more frequently resulted in unintended, negative impacts that can negatively affect our environment in the long run. As a preventative answer the notion of responsible research and innovation (RRI) has emerged in response to these challenges. In the last few years more and more methods have been developed to facilitate the practical introduction of RRI. Most of the methods were tested mainly in the academy sphere, however over the last few years RRI has been explored in the business environment too. There are still many unanswered questions concerning the applicability of the concept in the business sector.

The main aim of this study is to explore the attitude of Hungarian small and medium-sized enterprise (SME) sector towards responsible research and innovation in the Csongrád county and to make suggestions on the practical application of RRI based on their attitudes. For this purpose innovative SMEs were interviewed. The questions of the interview were based on the topics of the pre-study interview taken from the STIR (Socio Technical Integration Research) methodology. The results of the research show that most of the interviewed enterprises find it essential to take into consideration the economic, environmental, ethical and social aspects of RDI processes. According to SMEs the regulatory authorities have a significant role in promoting responsible research and innovation in RDI processes. The findings of our qualitative research propose potential ways how improve and disseminate the concept of responsible research and innovation among Hungarian companies.

Keywords: Responsible Research and Innovation, innovative companies, small and medium-sized enterprise sector

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ICBERD

1. Introduction

In the 21st century, the importance of innovation is much more pronounced in our lives than ever before. The effects of RDI are of a dual nature. Innovation is the main source of change and development, and the results of innovation activities make our life easier and more convenient. Innovation is essential for improving competitiveness (Apak–Atay 2015; Ciocanel–Pavelescu 2015), though at the same time the innovation may have unintended negative side effects on society and environment and there may be unforeseen consequences (for instance smartphones and social media can make people addicted). Innovation entails novelty content, thus unforeseen risks can emerge as a result of innovation processes that can negatively affect the society in the long run. In our modern world the most critical issue of innovation is no longer whether innovation is needed, but rather how to innovate in a changed environment where almost every sector faces new problems. Changes in the external environment therefore force the organizations to search for new directions.

In order to respond to the new challenges, the innovation management should be able to consider the unintended social and environmental impacts of RDI processes. The way how the innovation management can do it can be described by the notion of responsible research and innovation (RRI) which emerged about a decade ago. The approach of RRI highlights that if we liked to find sustainable solutions for the grand societal challenges of our time, all societal actors – including business, research institutions, citizens, policy makers, and civil society organizations – must work together to conduct the RDI processes in a more responsible way. The notion of RRI mostly refers to research and innovation that is ethically and socially acceptable and desirable (Gurzawska et al. 2017, von Schomberg 2013). The relevance of RRI is prominent in the European Union. This is underlined by the fact that RRI can be considered as a current European Union RDI directive and it also has a particular importance in the Horizon 2020 support framework. The purpose of the concept is to make conscious decisions in the research and innovation processes in order to manage and avoid the environmental, social and ethical risks.

The concept of RRI has been tested over the past few years and many methods were developed to implement the aspects of RRI into practice. However most of these methods are dominated in developed countries, primarily in the academia. Less attention has been focused on investigating how the business sector accepts this concept.

The aim of this paper is to explore the attitude of the Hungarian SME sector towards responsible research and innovation in Csongrád County and to suggest further steps on the practical implementation possibilities of RRI in the business sector. In order to achieve our aim, we interviewed some Hungarian innovative SMEs in Csongrád County. Based on the results, we probably get one step closer how to disseminate the concept of RRI among Hungarian companies.

In the first part of this paper, we review the theoretical background of RRI detailing its main characteristics and the difference between CSR and RRI. Subsequently, we present our primary research, in which we investigated how the concept of responsible research and innovation could be implemented among SMEs in Csongrád county, Hungary.

Than we demonstrate the background and the results of research. In this chapter, we describe the method used in the primary research, the selection process and the results obtained. As a closure, we evaluate the results of the primary research and then make suggestions for further investigations how to implement the concept of RRI and what can be the main barriers of implementation of RRI in the business sector.

2. Special characteristics of responsible research and innovation among business sector

Nowadays, it is obvious that global challenges (such as thinning of the ozone layer, population growth) should be responded as quickly as possible. As a result of the challenges of the 21st century, the need for change seems to be external constraint. This logic has highlighted one of the most significant scientific and practical issues, the approach of responsible research and innovation, which has attracted interest of scientific community almost everywhere. In the field of research development and innovation, we have witnessed enormous changes in recent years, most of which can be attributed to technological explosion, globalization of technology or shortening of the technological cycle (Trott 2005). The concept of responsible research and innovation is really complex, it can be rather regarded as an umbrella term that can be interpreted and defined in many ways (Buzás–Lukovics 2015).

In the past few years several definitions of RRI has been offered (Buzás–Lukovics 2015; Sutcliffe 2013). However, the scientific community and the European Union most frequently rely on the definition of von Schomberg (2013, pp. 60.): "*A transparent, interactive process by which societal actors and innovators become mutually responsive to each other with a view to the (ethical) acceptability, sustainability and societal desirability of the innovation process and its marketable products (in order to allow a proper embedding of scientific and technological advances in our society)*". According to Schomberg (2013) innovation is the only answer to overcoming the social challenges. Hereinafter, we rely on this approach of responsible research and innovation, as most of the elements found in different definitions are best summed up by this wording, and on the other hand, international literature and the European Commission also rely on this concept (Buzás-Lukovics 2015).

The 'Science with and for Society' slogan well illustrates that responsible research and innovation places great emphasis on co-operation among the actors involved in innovation (Fisher et al., 2006), which suggests that the environment of innovation has changed and that consideration of important values for society is indispensable. By now the theoretical background of the concept seems to be clarified, so the main emphasis is on the practical implementation. To make the introduction more smooth and understandable to the public, the European Commission has set out six key elements (six RRI keys), and with the help of these key elements the theoretical knowledge could be easier to adapt in everyday life. The six key elements of RRI include (EC 2014): public engagement, science education, governance, open access, ethics and gender equality.

The notion of Responsible Research and Innovation has been applied mostly in the academic sector among scientist working in the laboratory so far. Policymakers focus on the scientific research and development environment - the Horizon 2020 and the RRI keys framework also reinforce it - however most of the innovations happen in the business sector (Block – Lemmens 2015, Flipse 2012). Within business sector SMEs have a prominent role, as they constitute more than 99.8% of all enterprises within the European Union (EC 2016). SMEs play a vital role ("driving forces") in modern economies, thus the analysis of this sector is essential in case of RRI related studies (Pavie et al. 2014). SMEs are those businesses which employ less than 250 employees and have an annual turnover of less than EUR 50 million, and / or their balance sheet is less than EUR 43 million (EC 2016). However, the research and innovation environment of the business sector differs in many aspects from the academic sector (Table 1.). The concept of responsible innovation is relatively new, and it raises many dilemmas about its implementation. There are only a few tools to assist in the implementation of RRI principles in the business sphere (Iatridis–Schroeder 2016). This raises the question of how RRI can be characterized in the business sector and how the concept can be integrated into the corporate structure and processes (Scholten-Block 2015). According to Pavie et al. (2014) responsible research and innovation is a strategy designed to incorporate responsible thinking into all phases of the RDI processes, such as exploration, development, implementation, and evaluation, so that responsible procedures and end products could be created. The task of the business manager is to take potential social, environmental and ethical effects into account, and in case these effects seems to turn negative, they should intervene and minimize potential dangers (Pavie et al. 2014).

Table 1. The main differences in academic and in business sectors

	Business	**Academic**
Motivation of RDI	- realize competitive advantage on the market - profit	- scientific success/prestige in early stages/ cooperation with the business sector in later stages - to get published in journals
Main goal	- very quick introduction to the market - realize profit - maintaining/retaining market share - keeping pace with technical innovations	- scientific perfection - prestige, quotations, access to world scientific elite
Main target group	customer	scientific community, business sector, policy makers, public in general
Dominant phase of the innovation chain	later phase/ whole innovation chain	early phase
Dominant type of R&D	Experimental development	Basic research and applied research
Dominant TRL (technology readiness level)	TRL7-9	TRL1-6

	Depends on the industry and the company size	
Profit criteria	very important	not significant
Motivation on considering RRI issues during the RDI activity	very limited (marketing reasons and mandatory reasons)	understanding what should be covered in EU funding schemes proposals
Interest on medium and long term negative side effects of RDI activity	less	more
Financial disadvantage from implementing RRI	may happen (cancelling the market introduction of a "risky" product – missing profit)	May happen
Interest on implementing RRI	less	more

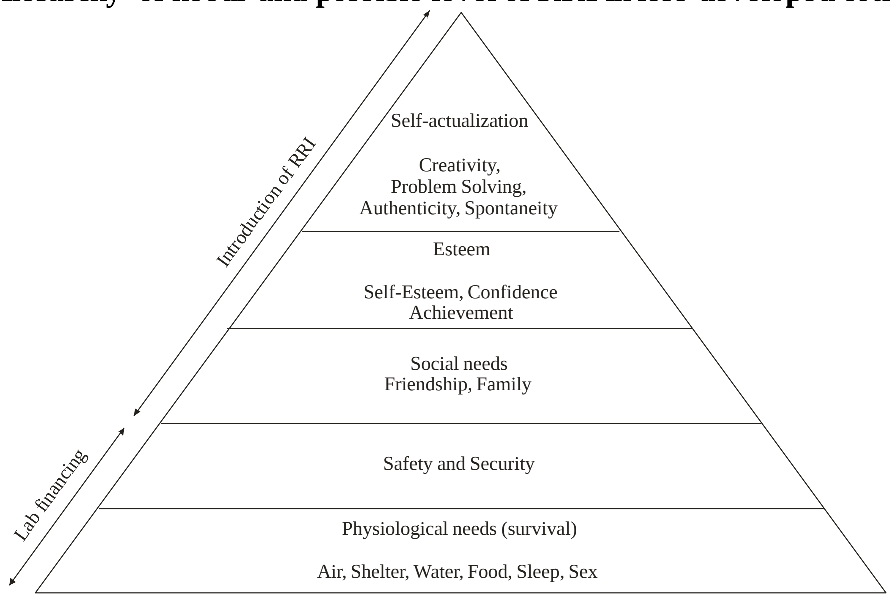
Source: own construction

Small and medium sized enterprises have many specifics that can determine their attitude to RRI (Pavie et al. 2014). Regarding that SMEs are small companies with less hierarchical organisational levels, the decision-making process is usually more transparent, and they are able to adapt quickly to the changing environment and customer demand. In a business with less hierarchy, decision-making mechanisms and operational structures can be easily changed so that RRI-based thinking can be better integrated. SMEs usually have close and less formal relationship with their stakeholders that is essential for the implementation of the aspects of RRI. The mentality and the mind-set of the manager of an SME is extremely important, whose personal thinking may have a decisive influence on the operation and values of the business, and thus the degree of attitude towards responsible thinking.

Pavie et al. (2014) highlighted that different benefits can derive from the practical introduction of RRI for SMEs. One of these benefits is that the level of social acceptance of the company increases, so the company's perception may be more favorable, and employee and customer attraction can be improved within the company. Moreover, the relationships with government, regulators and local communities, and with all stakeholders can be improved.

On the other hand, several barriers can be identified for SMEs engaging in responsible innovation (Pavie et al. 2014). First of all, the concept of RRI is unknown or not widespread among enterprises, and the directions and benefits of RRI are not sufficiently clear and understandable for the stakeholders and companies too. Secondly, the approach of responsible research and innovation provide benefits on the long term, thus the immediate incentives are mostly absent. Moreover, SMEs usually have limited access to external information and knowledge regarding RI. Additionally, SMEs mainly try to survive as they are lack of resources (financial and human resources), which often means a barrier to innovation, and this implies, in a way, impeding the incorporation of a responsible approach. Integrating a responsible approach to the activities of the organizations can mean additional costs and bureaucratic burdens, thus companies need to clearly see the benefits that are available through the novel approach (Buzás–Lukovics 2015). If this benefit can not be identified, the organizations will not invest extra resources in order to strengthen the link between social needs and innovation. Lukovics et al. (2017) also emphasize the fact that enterprises are lack of financial resources and have to concentrate on daily survival strategy can be a barrier for the implementation of the aspects of RRI. They build on the Maslow's hierarchy of needs to explain the motivation in the companies. According to this pyramid the needs at the bottom of the pyramid should be satisfied first, in order to the higher level of needs could be realized (Figure 1.). In case of responsible innovation it means that until companies have to struggle for daily survival, they may be unconcerned to the potential benefits of RRI as a higher level of needs. For this purpose, the implementation of RRI should be converted to the needs at the bottom of the hierarchy.

Figure 1. Hierarchy of needs and possible level of RRI in less developed countries



Source: Lukovics et al. (2017), pp. 180.

In the RRI related study of the business sector the social responsibility of companies appears in several international publications. Many company realised that they are responsible for the society and the environment and most of the large companies have their own CSR strategies (Gurzawska et al. 2017). The Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) is a central issue for the practical implementation of RRI (Pelle – Reber 2015). According to the European Commission CSR is "the responsibility of enterprises for their impacts on society" (EC 2011, pp. 6.). The conception of CSR can help to further develop the concept of RRI, providing a theoretical framework and practical standards (standards and principles of responsibility) for managing innovation (Iatridis-Schroeder 2016).

3. Investigating responsible research and innovation among enterprises of Csongrád county

Several attempts have been carried out in recent years for the introduction of Responsible Research and Innovation (RRI) in everyday practice, and tangible results about these are now available. However, the majority of these have taken place in developed countries, primarily at academic research sites. The question logically arises: what are we to expect in the innovation environment of a less developed country and, more specifically, in the corporate sector of such an environment? Professional literature offers little information about the attitude of the corporate sector of relatively undeveloped countries towards responsible research and innovation.

The aim of our research project was to identify the opportunities for the introduction of RRI in everyday practice in innovative companies operating in less developed regions. In the project, the general attitude towards the idea of responsible research and innovation was examined and, based on the findings, conclusions were drawn and proposals were made for the practical implementation of the concept in the given region's business environment. The findings of the primary research are expected to identify the extent to which the innovative businesses operating in the SME sector of Hungary's Csongrád County and interviewed by us are capable of putting the idea of RRI into practice in their day-to-day decision making and activities. Owing to the similarity of their innovation environment, the findings can be applied to the countries of the Danube Region with similar economic features.

<u>3.1 Methodology of the Primary Research</u>

In the selection of the interviewees of the primary research, the most important aspect was to have companies that perform innovative activities. The qualification of companies as "innovative" could have been done based on subjective aspects. To avoid such subjectivity, a solution was needed which entitled us to objectively and authentically state that we had chosen innovative businesses as the subjects of our examination. We, therefore, included SMEs in our primary research which had applied for EU grants for the support of their innovation activities, and had been granted the support in their category. In the course of the selection phase, we used a programme search[4] site to set the required filter parameters. Of the development programmes, we chose the Economic Development and Innovation Operative Programme ("GINOP") from the "Széchenyi 2020" programme category and, within that programme, two support schemes: *"GINOP–2.1.1-15 Promoting Companies' RDI Activities"* and *"GINOP-2.1.3-15 Industrial Rights"*. Three enterprises were selected not from the above GINOP schemes but the *"Horizon 2020 THE SME INSTRUMENT"*[5] tender, which supports the implementation of SME projects, from the idea phase to actual market launch. Among the beneficiaries in the categories mentioned, our search was narrowed down to the level of regions and, then, counties: within the South Plain Region, we selected enterprises operating in Csongrád County as the potential subjects of our primary research. The businesses so selected operate in different fields, and gave different answers to our questions, which ultimately provided us with different, yet interesting results.

The enterprises selected with the methodology described above were contacted by email and requested to participate in our primary research. Depending on the actual companies, these

4 https://www.palyazat.gov.hu/tamogatott_projektkereso

5 https://ec.europa.eu/easme/sme-instrument-beneficiaries

electronic letters had focused on different aspects, which we think ought to be introduced here. Each letter addressed the given company in a personal way and described the topic and aim of the research. Then the importance of the topic was highlighted, emphasising that the RRI concept would be a key field of the European Union's research, development and innovation policy until 2020, and it was mentioned specifically that the concept was a core element of the 2016-17 Work Programme – i.e. we made efforts to provide such information about the topic which could arouse the interest of businesses in it, as something that is important from economic considerations. We also mentioned in the letter that our aim was to contact the most important companies among the beneficiaries of the *"GINOP–2.1.1-15 Promoting Companies' RDI Activities"*, the *"GINOP-2.1.3-15 Industrial Rights"* and the *"HORIZONT 2020 SME INSTRUMENT"* tenders. It was at this point that the actual request was made, i.e. to take part in a fifteen-twenty-minute interview, during which questions would be asked about the given company's RDI activities. We emphasised that we wanted to talk with someone with an insight into the topic and who, as such, had a relevant opinion and information about the research, development and innovation activities carried out by the company.

The interview request was sent out to 50 businesses, 43 did not respond at all[6], 8 sent us an answer. One of the companies selected requested that they be sent the interview questions in advance, in order that they could prepare and that we spend less time on the personal interview. Having read the questions, this company responded that our questions were not relevant to them, and thus refused the interview request. In 6 cases, the companies contacted agreed to be interviewed, after which an appointment was made with them for our personal meeting. Thus, a clear response was given by a total of 8 of the 50 companies of which an interview had been requested as the one company mentioned above stated that the questions were not relevant in its case, which is a clear answer (i.e. to the effect that this company is extremely insensitive to the elements of the RRI). An interview was successfully organised with 6 innovative organisations.

The interviews were made and recorded at personal meetings in three cases and in phone calls in another three. The latter solution was chosen as it was not in all the cases possible to meet with a person who had an insight into the company's R+D+I activities and their impacts on the given company. One interview took an average of 13 minutes, the shortest being 5, the longest lasting for 18 minutes. Data collection was performed in a 4-week time period, an interview was held in each 3-4 days on average. In general, the conversations had a calm and easy-going, informal atmosphere and style. In our experience, those who did answer our email had a positive attitude to the interview and gave sincere answers to the questions asked by us.

We tried to make the questions simple and easy to understand. The questions were not directly aimed at RRI but were formulated in an indirect way, analysing the ingredients of responsible research and innovation. It is important to note at this point that our research was a test,

[6] The companies contacted by us were requested to respond to our letter even if they did not wish to participate in the survey as interviewees.

whose results – i.e. the answers given by the innovative organisations interviewed – could be used to highlight the interviewees' attitude towards RRI. The interview questions covered the following aspects:

- the importance of environmental aspects in RDI processes
- the importance of social aspects in RDI processes
- the importance of ethical aspects in RDI processes
- the importance of economic aspects in RDI processes
- the integration of social, environmental, ethical and economic aspects into research-development and innovation processes
- What makes a research responsible?

There were a total of seven interview questions. As regards their nature, they were open ones, within whose scope it was possible to ask further questions, and the interviewees also had the possibility to elaborate on their opinions.

The first three questions were asked along the same principle: we wanted to find out how important the companies examined considered environmental, social and ethical aspects in the compilation of their research programme, and whether they examined the impacts of their research results on society, the environment and/or ethics in any manner. If their answer was positive, they were asked how, in practical terms, that activity is done in the given company. The fourth question covered the economic aspects of RDI processes. Before asking this question, we considered it important to let the interviewees know that the first three questions had come from the academic sector, where the questions were asked of potential researchers, i.e. the issue was approached not from the viewpoint of economic players. The fifth question covered not past or current activities but was aimed to find out if, following the "introduction" of the key RRI elements, the interviewees thought it made any sense to integrate these elements into RDI processes in the future. We considered that, logically, there were two possible answers. One was that they currently do not deal with the integration of the aspects mentioned above, and neither do they plan the same in the future as they did not consider it to make sense. The other was that they currently do not do it, but they consider it to make sense, i.e. they may deal with the matter in the future.

We then introduced the concept of RRI to the companies. We also told them that RRI was a key element of the European Union's innovation policy, which is not too well-known in Hungary. The sixth and seventh questions, asked after the clarification of the concept, was to find out what, in the interviewees' opinion, could make an RDI process responsible, and how Hungarian businesses could be made to integrate the RRI elements discussed before into RDI processes.

<u>3.2 Findings of the Interviews</u>

Almost all interviewee considered it highly important to take environmental aspects into account in the definition of RDI processes. However, one of the interviewed participant highlighted that they do not regard it important to integrate these aspect into their RDI processes. The companies interviewed take into consideration environmental aspects in line with the features of the industry they belong to or their own corporate features: *"Since we are developing a technology for environmental protection purposes, this is a primary consideration."* Another interviewee said: *"We are developing* *agricultural products, so this aspect is a primary one."* One of the RDI leaders mentioned regulations as a factor that makes it easier to take into account environmental aspect in RDI: *"Our research projects partly cover the electronic development sector, where this is quite an important issue, and, luckily, the EU's expectations are quite high, so all these standards must be complied with if we want the end product to meet these."* Most of the interviewees considered environmental aspects very important, yet they could not really put them into practice in their activities, in the RDI phase. As an RDI leader working in the IT sector put it: *"Obviously, everyone will say it is important for environmental aspects to be given consideration in these processes, but I don't know how this could realistically be made part of our activities."* In summary, an important conclusion is that nearly all of the companies interviewed considered that, in general, environmental aspects ought to be given attention. In RDI, it is indispensable to give thought to what impacts the area researched by them will have in the short or long term, what potential influence it may have on the environment. The impacts of environmental factors are taken into consideration most seriously by the companies which, due to their core activity, are forced to do so.

The second topic was the integration of social aspects into the RDI strategy. Based on the answers we can say that, according to the companies interviewed, social aspects – similarly to environmental ones – are also given a significant role in the research process. Only one interviewee thought taking this aspect into account had little importance. The key corporate values of the majority of the interviewed companies contained respect for the interests of society. Two of them stated that the interests and needs of society had a fundamental influence on the innovation process. *"How much social support the introduction of a new technology can get is of key importance: if it does have support, it will be really easy to sell."* One company, which operates in the field of oncology, gave us a clear example to the extent to which RDI should serve society, and the impact this has on the organisations that actually do research and development, i.e. pharmaceutical companies. *"Society must be consulted, to find out what people expect of us, researchers."* Industry-specific features play a significant role also in this aspect, which is shown by the previous and following examples: *"On the whole, from the point of view of modernisation, automation and robotizing, I consider the decrease in the number of jobs as one of the most serious social issues of our age."* These statements clearly show that the interviewee thought his or her work involved extremely important social matters. S/he also added that, besides social ones, economic aspects should also be taken into account, which appear to conflict with social considerations.

If we compare the answers to ethics related questions in the entire sample, we can conclude that this aspect was the most difficult to clearly identify: *"This is a more difficult question, I mean how one can consult society about this. Of course, you have to be ethical, but this is not a very accurate concept."* The other important conclusion was that the issue of ethics was typically interpreted in the context of the company as a whole (what they considered legitimate and responsible in their everyday business life), rather than only for research and development activities: *"As in any business, this is important also in our organisation. We expect ethical* *behaviour of both ourselves and our partners. Without this, business life would stop."*

In two cases, the concept of ethics was given a broader interpretation: these interviewees considered environmental and social aspects as part of the overall concept of ethics. *"Now that we speak of ethics related aspects, I would like to refer back to environmental ones as they are also a matter of ethics, and other business ethics considerations also play a role here."* One of the interviewed company leaders was specific about what he considered unethical in RDI. *"I consider developments unethical which do harm to the environment, and it is not ethical to put an exaggerated profit on any development."* In this particular case, environmental aspects were also mentioned.

As regards economic aspects, we can say that they were far easier to be given a clear interpretation and were given a higher priority by the companies covered by our research: these aspects made up the majority of the considerations in RDI processes. Four of the companies interviewed stated that this aspect *"Can be called the primary one"*. One interviewee clarified why economic aspects are of outstanding importance in RDI, mentioning also industry-specific features. *"I think all IT companies will agree that innovation itself has some boosting effect: those who do not renew and fail to follow changes in technology will be out of competition and the market"*. He also added that, in their case, innovation is *"some kind of urge by the profession, the customers and the partners, as well as a pressure you must endure to have a competitive edge, and, on top of all these, all tenders contain a separate chapter about the planning and presentation of economic return."* In two cases, however, our findings were different:

- *"It is not necessarily money that motivates me, economic aspects are secondary in several respects. There are development projects which must bring a profit, because there must be money to build technologies, but not all technologies must make a profit."* The same interviewee added: *"We did take part in a development project with zero profit, because science must progress."*
- *"Yes, economic aspects are very important, but I must also say that R&D companies tend to have an impact goal. In general, these firms work on some solution that is socially important, whose social benefit can be measured. They must be economically viable – but this is not the only consideration, they must provide some value for society."*

This does not mean that these SMEs are not interested in profit, but they can aim at making a reasonable profit rather than set profit maximisation as the primary criterion. They think that a research-development project can also serve other aims, besides profitmaking. Looking at the entire sample we can say that these two ideas are sharply different from the answers of the other interviewees.

As regards its nature, the fifth question was a kind of summary of the environmental, social and ethical aspects in RDI processes. We can say that the answers given to the first four questions and the circumstances of the interview enabled us to foresee the ideas received in this interview part. In general, we can say that the companies which considered the first four aspects important and gave them a role in their actual operation will try to actively take these into account also in the future. - *"Obviously, these aspects must be taken into account"*-, however, most of the interviewees were of the opinion that these aspects, with special respect to the first three, are not really given priority in the design or operation of research and development projects. It was specifically stated that, in their current form, the said aspects were not really measurable, and a proposal was made according to which some kind of an evaluation system would be required: *"This makes, or would make, sense if companies were called to account: some scoring system should be defined, which could be used to measure this. Without such a system, it makes little sense."*

Before the sixth question was asked, we had provided a brief description of the concept of responsible research and innovation, and the question was how a company could become responsible. This question was far more complex than the previous ones. Three companies thought that Schonberg's definition clearly identified responsibility related factors and, according to these organisations, it was through the integration of these aspects that an RDI process could be made responsible. Of these, transparency – i.e. a realistic and transparent strategy and measures – was the primary aspect, according to one of the interviewees: *"What I consider important is transparency, which is also a guarantee. We must communicate the subject of our research and development, as well as the actual results, to society. If we are transparent, it is a guarantee that our research and development activities are ethical."* This thought had another important element: communication, an activity to inform the public, and to distribute and promote research goals and results. According to several interviewees, RDI processes could become responsible through the contribution of external players related to innovation, i.e. control and decision making and contract awarding bodies.

> - *"It depends on the behaviour of decision makers in grant schemes."*
> - *"It is the responsibility of research institutes, the Academy and contract awarding bodies to elaborate a system of aspects that contains the aspects you have mentioned."*
> - *"On the other hand, the contract awarding body cold also try to support it, this exists only at the level of slogans in Hungary, but I don't think these are aspects that are taken seriously."*

The third opinion is that, as the interviewee put it, it is a limitation that although responsibility related aspects exist in bidding schemes, there is no proper control over companies. In one particular case, the answer to the question was sharply different, as profitmaking was considered as an impediment: *"If we handled a development project as a non-profit scheme, it would maximise its level of responsibility. Once the thing is about making profit, the point will be how much I have made on it, not what technology I have developed."* The role of education and the media was mentioned also only by one single interviewee. *"On the other hand, there is this general social attitude, and if these aspects are not part of it, it is really difficult to do anything in this area. Perhaps it is the responsibility of education and the media that these aspects become part of general moral considerations."* According to the interviewee, therefore, there is a need for a general approach, which fundamentally determines attitude towards dimensions of responsibility, and this can be achieved with the help education and the media. Also in one case, the role of the leader played in the company's responsible operation was mentioned. *"It also depends on what the leaders of RDI think about this. This is very important since they define the company's philosophy and operation, and if they feel this kind of social responsibility, the activities managed by them will go in this direction."* According to another interviewee, the social benefit could be one of the factors which may make a company responsible. In other words, this person considered the given research responsible if the output is useful, lawful and usable in several respects, and if there is control over what they do in the framework of their research project.

The last question was aimed at the opinion of interviewees about how Hungarian businesses could be made to integrate the aspects discussed before into their RDI processes. Those who considered that the promotion of RRI was mostly the responsibility of the external players of the innovation system had a similar opinion about this aspect, as well, i.e. they thought that RRI could be implemented in the practice of Hungarian businesses through the support of the government, the financing organisations and the contract awarding bodies. According to one interviewee, the most important thing would be to work out a support system which provides better support for research and development, as these processes have a high financing need. *"A system should be worked out which is better supported. these processes are very difficult to launch, only such companies can do it which are primarily profit oriented and do RDI only as a secondary activity, as it needs so much money. It is a must to have revenues: one cannot survive only from research and development in this country."* The regulation of grant schemes was a dominant topic, the vast majority of interviewees considered that RRI elements should be integrated into the indicator set of bids, as the only way to successfully promote the aspects discussed to business organisations. However, three interviewees also added that the regulation of the bidding process would not suffice in itself. They put it as follows:

- *"There are many elements in bids even now which many companies can comply with on paper, but there is no firm practice in these areas at companies, and I think this is one of these elements."*
- *"Hungary has a tradition in optimisation according to different rules. Real revising, real checking would be needed, rather than looking at the objective scores in the bid, actual implementation and processes should be examined and the end product should be checked. R&D is too much paper-based in Hungary, at a Brussels Horizon 2020 bid it is actual results that matter, while in Hungary real processes and results are often not even checked. If this changed, we could bring the aspects discussed and reality closer together."*
- *"Strict laws should be passed, though that in itself is not enough: a general change in approach is needed, in the heads of people, which could be achieved through education."*

According to the criticism included in the first two interviewees' opinions, it is the RDI process itself and the actual results achieved that should be checked, not performance on paper. The third interviewee thought more is needed than stringent regulation, namely a general approach change, the key to which is education – which was also mentioned in answers to the sixth question. Another RDI leader also mentioned bids as an external regulation related factor: *"The regulation of bids, if it is an external source, or if it is an internal one, NGOs or the press could contact companies and try to consult with them and ask them what development projects they are working on. It is important to have a social need for research and development."* – The same person also emphasised that there should be a social demand for RDI, and this social need is communicated to companies by the press and NGOs – as a result, responsible development programmes could be defined.

On the whole, we can say that the companies in the sample currently have a weak RRI sensitivity, and it was confirmed that there is a low level of trust and willingness to cooperate. Though some answers indicate that the companies examined by us operate properly from the point of view of RRI, but, in many cases, we had the impression that the positive answers given by them were the result of their willingness to come up to our expectations.

In general, we can say that, based on their answers, the innovative companies that were interviewed consider the aspects raised important, i.e. the majority think it is worthwhile to integrate economic, social, environmental and ethical aspects into research-development a innovation processes. Environmental and social aspects and their potential negative impacts are easier to clearly identify, while the clear identification of ethical ones in RDI processes is a harder nut to crack. The integration of economic aspects into the corporate strategy is a basic requirement, whose disregarding would give the company a competitive disadvantage. The reason is likely to be that companies do not directly experience environmental, social and ethical impacts and, consequently, pay less attention to these than to economic aspects.

Many answers were given to the question of what could make a research responsible, and how Hungarian businesses could be made to carry out responsible research. The majority of businesses consider that regulatory authorities could make the most contribution to the promotion of responsible research and innovation in RDI processes. It seems that without the cooperation of these authorities – regulation by the state and the bids themselves – we cannot expect a major positive change in RRI. Efficient and sufficiently stringent control would be needed.

4. Summary

This study has examined the attitude of innovative enterprises of Csongrád County towards responsible innovation. The research is based on the concept of responsible research and innovation (RRI), which has evolved due to the changing tendencies of the innovation environment and uncertainties. Regarding the practical implementation of RRI, we should highlight that it was mainly tested in the academic sphere, and the possible application of the method in the business environment has been investigated only in the last few years. Consequently, there are many unanswered questions in the international literature on the applicability of the concept. This was the most significant motivation for conducting this research.

The aim of our research was two fold. Firstly, we examined how the businesses consider the significance of environmental, social, ethical and economic impacts of RDI processes, and the extent of these aspects in their research decisions. On the other hand, we explored how research and innovation could be made responsible and how can Hungarian companies be made to integrate the aspects mentioned before into their RDI processes. We experienced that the surveyed companies did not even heard about the concept of RRI before the interviews, however they understood certain elements and the main context of RRI. They highlighted that some of the elements of RRI would be important during the daily operation, but they usually do not apply (or just very tacitly) during daily work. The RRI awareness is very low in the less developed countries (in Hungary it can be observed too) and this is even more apparent in the business sector.

Overall, most of the interviewed innovative companies consider the issues discussed to be important, most of them firmly believe that it is worth integrating social, environmental, ethical and economic aspects into RDI processes. Although one of the participants has strongly assumed that integrating the different aspects of RRI is not important for them at all. Integrating economic aspects into the corporate strategy is a basic requirement, in the vast majority of surveyed companies this aspect prevails primarily. Environmental, social and ethical aspects are also reflected in the research decisions, but there is less focus on addressing these effects. In particular, those businesses take into account these aspects who are forced to do so. Businesses usually do not directly perceive the environmental, social and ethical impacts of research, so they do not pay as much attention on these aspects as on the economic aspect. This attitude has a negative impact on RRI, since there is no proper focus on the possible negative social, environmental and ethical impacts. The vast majority of businesses insisted on that regulatory authorities can contribute to promoting RRI in RDI processes. It seems that without these regulations the implementation of RRI maybe will not be successful. According to the surveyed companies, in order to make the companies to integrate the aspects of RRI into their RDI processes, RRI elements need to be integrated into the RDI indicator set of EU calls. Almost all of the companies claiming that RRI should be included in the EU calls, added that real and sufficiently strict controls would be needed to enable the examined aspects to be effectively integrated into the RDI processes. The role of the leader of the company played in the company's responsible operation is also a significant factor in the implementation of responsible research and innovation.

It is important to conclude that the structure of the questionnaire used during the interviews may helped respondents to answer the questions with greater insight, not to mention the fact that the participants may wanted to show themselves in a more favorable position than they are, thus the positive answers given by them may aimed to come up to our expectations.

All in all, it is important to emphasize that the primary research can not be regarded as a representative research. In order to draw general conclusions further studies should be conducted. In the future, the STIR methodology should be conducted in Csongrád County, whose results could presumably show a change in the level of consciousness. We firmly believe that RRI is of one of the most important concept to our future. Useful results have been produced, however further researches are needed in the topic.

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Appendix

Interview questions

1. How important do you think it is to take into account environmental aspects in research-development and innovation processes? Does this work at your company and, if so, how?

2. How important do you think it is to take into account social aspects in research-development and innovation processes? Does this work at your company and, if so, how?

3. How important do you think it is to take into account ethical aspects in research-development and innovation processes? Does this work at your company and, if so, how?

4. How important do you think it is to take into account economic aspects in research-development and innovation processes? Does this work at your company and, if so, how?

5. In your opinion, how much sense does it make (if any) to integrate environmental, social, economic and ethical aspects into the process of research-development and innovation?

6. In your opinion, how can a research/innovation scheme or project be or be made responsible?

7. How could Hungarian businesses be made to integrate the aspects mentioned before into their R+D+I processes?

Brief biography

Nikoletta Nádas

Nikoletta Nádas is an economist. Currently she is a master student in Business Development at the University of Szeged, Faculty of Economics and Business Administration. She also works as a junior expert of the D-STIR and ROSIE project at the First Hungarian Responsible Innovation Association. As an economist, she wrote her thesis on the topic of responsible research and innovation. Her main areas of interest are innovation, RRI (Responsible Research and Innovation), STIR (Socio-Technical Integration Research), and the effects of RRI concerning regional competitiveness. Recently, she joined the research group on RRI at the University of Szeged concentrating more on responsible research and innovation.

László Gonda

László Gonda is an economist with deep knowledge on the EU integration and marketing. He worked for the Ernst and Young Ltd but currently works as the CEO of the Metodus Ltd focusing on project management and business development. During the last few years, he got into touch with several innovative SMEs resulted in reliable experience how these companies work and what challenges they face. Following the EU innovation policy rules, László Gonda has become familiar with the term 'responsible research and innovation', and he also realized that it is important to integrate this concept into the daily routine of innotive companies. As an external expertise of the D-STIR project, he joined the academic research on RRI led by Miklós Lukovics and he can add his innovative SME experience to the academic discourse on this topic enabling to broaden the RRI-research among innovative SMEs, too.

dr. Miklós Lukovics

dr. Miklós Lukovics (1978) got his M.Sc. (2003 - Economist in Enterprise Development, Marketing specialization) and Ph.D. (2007 – Regional economics) at the University of Szeged, Faculty of Economics and Business Administration. He worked as director for strategy and development (2011-2014) and as head of tender office at University of Szeged (2011-2012), as PCM branch manager at the Innogrant Consulting Ltd. Currently he is an associate professor at University of Szeged, Faculty of Economics and Business Administration and possesses a “courtesy appointment” affiliation at Arizona State University (ASU). His main research fields are responsible innovation, economic development, regional competitiveness. He has published 37 English and more than 100 Hungarian articles and book chapters in these fields.

He was the project leader of the FaRInn (Facilitating Responsible Innovation in South-East European Countries) project at University of Szeged. Miklós Lukovics spent two months at Arizona State University where the STIR (Socio-Technical Integration Research) research group is working and got in touch key experts in the topic such as David H. Guston and Erik Fisher. Since then he has annually visited the ASU to consult with the American experts and discuss the results of STIR and the way how it can be tailor-made.

Miklós Lukovics is also a full member of Virtual Institute for Responsible Innovation (VIRI), which was created to accelerate the formation of a community of scholars and practitioners who, despite divides in geography and political culture, will create a common concept of responsible innovation for research, training and outreach – and in doing so contribute to the governance of emerging technologies under conditions dominated by high uncertainty, high stakes, and challenging questions of novelty.

dr. Beáta Udvari

dr. Beáta Udvari is an assistant professor in the Institute of Finance and International Economic Relations at the Faculty of Economics, University of Szeged. She also works as a project manager and as a professional evaluator of project proposals.

Beáta finished her PhD studies in 2012. She defended her PhD dissertation on the topic of international development cooperation policy of the European Union. As a results, she has deep knowledge on the operations of the European Union. During and after her PhD studies she participated in more national and international research projects as a researcher and as a project manager. As a result, she has serious experiences both on preparing project proposals and conducting researches. Recently, she joined the research group on RRI at the University of Szeged concentrating more on responsible research and innovation and became co-authors of numerous articles. Her special interest is the theoretical background of RRI and the analysis of social and ethical aspects. She is good at analyzing border areas: in her current researches she investigates how the concept of RRI influences the international development cooperation policy of the EU.

Digitization in the agrarian sector: development trends in the light of a questionnaire survey

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1. Introduction

Agrarian economy with all its aspects penetrates our lives, either in the field of the production process, in which sustainability becomes a more and more important question, or in that of increasing efficiency, in order to sustain an overpopulated humanity. Developed societies see the future of the agrarian sector in exploiting developments such as precision systems, the internet of things in agriculture, or the widespread application of corporate governance systems that unite efficacy and rationality.

In my paper, I am presenting the characteristics and results of a representative questionnaire survey conducted in the field of agriculture. At the beginning of the research, my primary aim was to examine the attitudes of the enterprises and owners in the sector to the most important technological developments of the age and of the near future, that is, what kind of approach they represent towards information technology and its development. In compiling the survey, I was influenced by questions such as the things that have an effect on the use of ICT and integrated systems and the factors that motivate managers and owners in implementing or discarding them. My main focus was on the question whether the diversification, size, location of the enterprise or demographic factors describing the owner or entrepreneur have an effect on whether the enterprise and the owner make use of these systems, the internet or even precision tools in agriculture.

The examined areas and the presentation of the results are based on the themes of the main question areas, which are the following: the enterprise and its management; questions pertaining to information management; questions relating to the IT system of the enterprise; and finally a group of questions aimed at the plans, relationships and leadership of the enterprise.

2. Literature Review

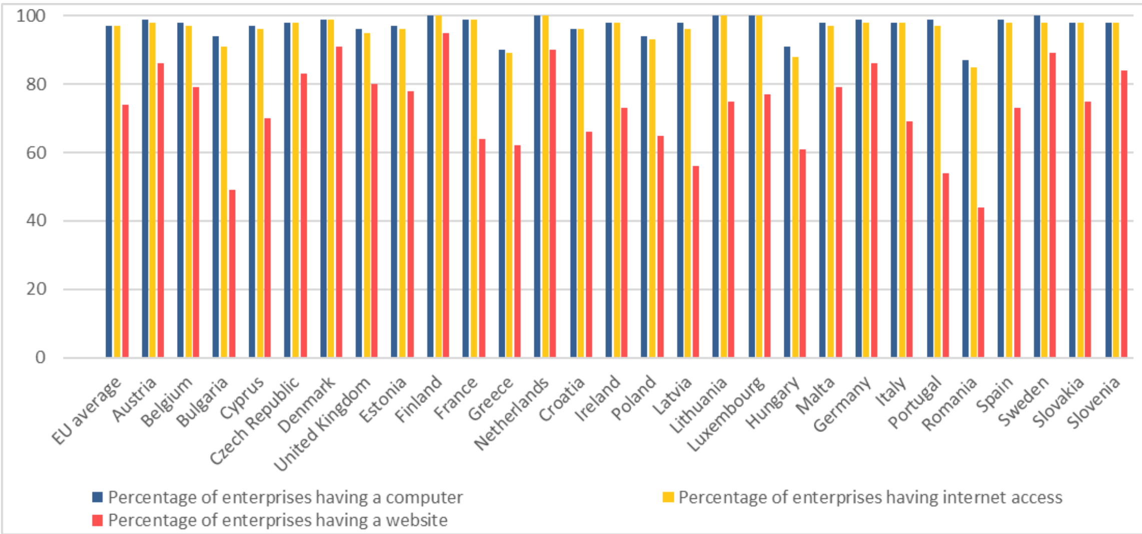
Agriculture plays an outstanding role in our lives: it is the most ancient profession of the period when societies were organised, it penetrates our whole life, and without it, our society would not exist. Several extended studies have already evaluated the branches of our national economy from the aspect of informatics. Since no previous complex analyses had been made about agriculture before from this aspect, I have chosen this topic to analyse. The present age has brought challenges for agricultural enterprises and entrepreneurs and to meet them, not only the modernisation of the knowledge of production, but that of economics has become necessary. My study has targeted this aspect with the use of IT management knowledge. In my research, I surveyed the attitude of enterprises to information, and more narrowly, the attitude to information sources and means of processing, and their relation to computerisation and informatics.

Though information has always had a determining significance and importance in economy, the development of the technical background has been less spectacular and dynamic so far. As in his article, Nagy (2012) points out, research results show that important factors such as technological development, innovation in technology and organisation and information considerably contribute to the growth of productivity and the GDP. Thus, information had become a significant value-generating factor at the level of national economy, which cannot be circumvented either in everyday life or in business life. However, enterprises care about not only information but managing it as well, since a substantial part of the obtained information is only data and they become valuable with real information content if they are processed with the help of analyses and comparative examinations. Accordingly, corporate management systems, especially internal governance systems have seen unprecedented improvement in the last decades.

A research project was also launched in the agrarian sector, whose aim is to assess the habits representing the experts and owners in the agrarian economy. The research was carried out in 2016, within the frame of AgroStratéga, and the sample included farmers who pursue agrarian work as a profession, that is, with the aim of production. They were the target group of the market research. Although the research was launched as being representative, the questionnaire could only be filled online, which supposes frequent and skilled use of the internet. The responses of primary producers without a VAT number, of self-suppliers and hobby farmers were disregarded, so the sample does not offer a comprehensive picture of the whole agrarian sector but it represents the several thousand enterprises that cultivates the determining part of the land suitable for farming (about 5 million hectares) and those who receive area payments, greening grants, or small producers' subvention. The sample included 1665 enterprises. The survey showed that 73% of them use the internet for sending and receiving emails on a daily basis, and 16% use it several times a week; besides, 5% use the internet for online correspondence once a week, 3% does it several times a month and 3% even more rarely than that. 86% of the respondents use the internet daily, 9% several times a week, 2% once a week, 1% several times a month, and 1% less frequently. As regards the use of ICT devices, the use of desktop computers shows a decreasing tendency, while the use of portable devices shows a positive trend (the use of laptop shows a 5% increase, that of smartphones with internet access a 16% increase). Among those below 40 years of age, the tendency is even more favourable: 70% of them use laptops, 77% use smartphones, and 30% use tablets. As far as GPS usage is concerned, 45% of those below 40 years of age use it, while this ratio is 39% in the full sample (Pólya-Varanka, 2016). The project launched in 2015, which is aimed at increasing the use of internet, financed by the EU, the government and the enterprises, has to be highlighted as well. The aim is establishing fast networks accessible for enterprises and citizens, improving bandwidth and providing the cheapest internet access possible (Infotér 2011). To make EU data comparable, I have created Diagram 1 on the basis of KSH (Central Statistical Office) figures, which shows Hungary's arrears in digitisation.

Diagram 1 shows that the proportion of enterprises in the EU having computers in general and having internet access is 97%. Unfortunately, in Hungary, this ratio is one of the lowest in the EU, 88%, which only surpasses Romania among the EU countries. At the same time, the proportion of enterprises having their own webpage is even worse, 61%, which is very unfavourable in comparison to EU average, which is 74%.

Diagram 1: Proportion of companies using computer, Internet and having websites in the EU, 2014

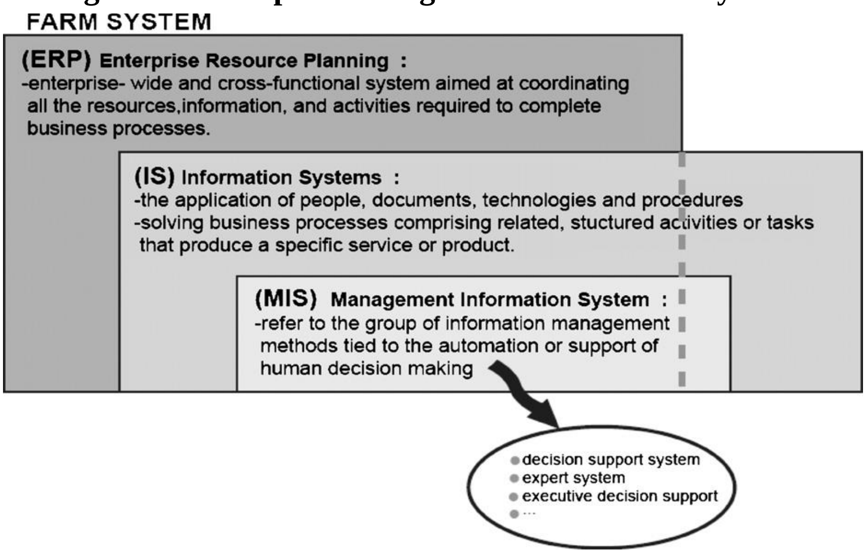


Source: Edited by author on the basis of KSH data, 2017

The efficiency of tendencies is always shown by the narrowest cross-section, which is now at the borderline of agrarian economy, agriculture and agribusiness – as the problem of the IT development chances in the agricultural sector was outlined by Varga (2016). His undergoing research results show that IT is used in the agrarian sector if it is obligatory: when some regulation requires that or if there is no other option. However, apart from legal obligations, digital technology and the use of ITC among agricultural producers is only sporadic. There are several devices connected to IT that had occurred in agriculture; they are used in an isolated way, but they are not interconnected. Today, only 10% of Hungary's arable lands are covered by IT; this is the area where some tool, mainly automation, of precision agriculture is used. The basic level includes the tracking of tractors, their automatic steering, and the spread of fertiliser as the main fields of application. Beyond devices used in production, the level of operation should follow in agro-informatics, where there could be a chance for more complex data analysis. Varga claims that integration is painfully lacking here. With the use of IT devices, €2.5 could be saved per hectare, and with the application of innovations as much as €80 could be saved at the operational level per hectare (Langenberg et al., 2017). Procedures such as data analysis, decision support, the harmonisation of work processes could mean new options. By comparison, integrated systems are still mainly used for administration, which is still falling into the "obligatory" category, as an expert remarks (Piac és Profit, 2016). Parallel with this, another problem occurred, as pointed out at the Digitális Munkaerő 2017 (Digital Workforce) conference: the EU needs a coherent, digital market strategy, similar to that of the internal market, which would include fields from consumer protection to online trade. About half of European organisations have problems with finding digital workforce, and 90% of European jobs require some kind of digital competence. Today, the contribution of digital economy surpasses 20% of Gross Value Added (GVA) within the national economy (Piac és Profit, 2017).

One of the most renowned researcher of FMIS systems is Sørensen, who proposes such a scheme in his study:

Figure 1.:Concept of management information systems



Forrás: Sørensen et al.(2010)

As can be seen in Figure 1, the researcher includes decision support systems, expert systems and senior management systems within MIS (Management Information System), which is part of a more general IS (Information System) and thus the ERP (Enterprise Resource Planning) systems, which are present in agriculture, just as in other fields of economy. Sørensen (2010) argues that MIS is an organic part of a comprehensive information system of an enterprise. The task of FMIS (Financial Management Information System) is gathering, processing, storing and disseminating data, in order to provide crucial information for the farm management to execute individual tasks.

3. Material and Methods

In my research, I used simple, random sampling for the selection of agricultural enterprises using double-entry bookkeeping, to conduct a questionnaire survey. The main motivating factor in creating the sample was using "simple random sampling in the case of a homogenous, finite multitude, when the sample is selected without replacement, providing the same chance of being selected for every n element of the sample," which is the precondition of representativeness (Hunyadi-Vita, 2008). There were several reasons why I concentrated only on companies with double-entry bookkeeping. First, the number of primary producers and self-employed entrepreneurs is so high in agriculture that it would have made a representative survey impossible, provided my own resources. In the given period, 433,726 sole proprietorships functioned in agriculture, of which 415,611 primary producers (KSH; 2013). Secondly, I would have needed such a big sample whose survey seemed unfeasible in the given time.

In compiling the database for sampling, I managed to find a statistical database with KSH which showed the registered agricultural enterprises. Meanwhile, I made contact with the Agrárgazdasági Kutatóintézet (Agrarian Research Institute, henceforward: AKI), because in one of its published surveys contained an aggregated list of double-entry bookkeeping enterprises according to counties, thus this list became the population serving as the basis of the study. This aggregated list was compiled in 2010 by AKI, containing 10,648 enterprises with double-entry bookkeeping. I chose this list because this way I managed to have access to important data relevant for the enterprises: name, address, phone number, principal activity code, with annual net income. Chart Nr. 1 contains these data broken down into forms of partnership.

Chart 1. The number of agricultural, forestry and fishing organizations with double-entry bookkeeping on 31 May 2010

Form of partnership	Nr. of organisations
Ltd.	5,492
PLC	305
Co-op	736
Co-op, other	173
Forest holder assoc.	810
General partnership	88
Limited partnership	2,841
Other	203
Total	10,648

Source: Author's own compilation based on AKI data, 2010

The research was based on a questionnaire survey. In the compilation of the questionnaire, I was assisted by preliminary, partially structured, targeted interviews with 10 agricultural enterprises, during which I attempted to specify the questions to focus on in the research. I compiled the questions of the survey after these informal talks and the final format was created in the EvaSys programme. The above-mentioned interviews made me realise that it was worth focusing on more general questions too, besides the internal management of information. A supplement was attached to the questionnaire, composed following the recommendations of Gábor (2007), which contained the classification of IT systems, and this helped to clarify the questions pertaining to the field. The examined areas followed the main question groups, which were the following:

- **Questions related to the enterprise and its management:**
  - principal data and main activity: location of farming, the beginning of activity, form of partnership,
  - data of scale,
  - information pertaining to manager: age, gender, qualification;
- **Questions related to information management:**
  - data pertaining to computer and internet use,
  - sources of information supply and customs of their use;
- **Questions related to the information system of the enterprise:**
  - questions pertaining to the information system,
  - attitudes to IT,
  - strategy for the information system,
  - questions aimed at the actual system;
- **Questions related to the plans, relationship network and the management:**
  - utilisation of competitive advantage, tender system,
  - questions pertaining to public relations and new technologies.

3. Results and Conclusions

An activity-based examination of integrated internal IT system on the basis of the research

According to Ansoff (1957), the reasons for diversification are primarily in connection with the expansion concept of an enterprise. Accordingly, in creating my hypothesis, my starting point was the idea that the more complex and diversified the activity of an enterprise is, either horizontally or vertically, it will need a corporate governance system which covers the entirety of the business, in order to manage the enterprise more efficiently.

Hypothesis 1: Those agrarian enterprises use integrated IT systems in Hungary whose activity points in the direction of diversification: those that pursue wide-ranging and complex activities, as opposed to enterprises not using these kinds of integrated systems. Those agrarian enterprises use integrated IT systems in Hungary whose activity is more complex and pursue several kinds of activities (both livestock farming and crop production).

I began the examination with the processing and analysis of data connected to the hypothesis. I assumed at the beginning of the study that the diversity of activities had a profound influence on the integrated IT systems and ICT use of the enterprises using double-entry bookkeeping. To prove this, I asked a question relating to the complexity of activities, and I asked the enterprises which system they used among the mentioned ones. During the analysis, I summarised the activities in a SPSS dataset and these gave the activities pursued by individual enterprises.

To justify my claim, I first used the F-probe, which is the basis of comparison in the case of variance analysis, which compares variance between multitudes describing the differences of averages with the variance describing random fluctuation within a multitude. In other words, the basic assumption is that there is no difference between averages. If the significance level is below 0.05, the null hypothesis has to be discarded, that is, there is a connection between the complexity, diversification of the activity and the use of integrated systems.

The assessment of the values in the frequency table was carried out on the basis of Lázár (2009). Thus, N shows absolute frequency, that is, how many elements of the available set are used for the calculation of average. In my examination, this means 270 valid and 0 missing values. The average of pursued activities will be 4.29 and the median will be 4.00. Standard deviation is 2.318, and variance is 5.373, which signifies the deviation from the average of the square of the sample data. In the case of normal distribution, this gives 95% of the data, which is fulfilled in this case as well.

During the statistical analysis, the analysis was performed at 5% significance level, thus the results have to be interpreted at this level too. It is known that in the case of the significance assessment of the value of the F-probe, $p<0.05$; that is, 5% is the limit below which a significant correlation can be indicated between averages.

Chart 2 shows the results of the first examination, during which the averages of diversification were compared in the case of those using integrated systems and in those that do not. As a first step, I determined the averages in both groups, as shown in the chart. Those not using integrated systems, pursue 3.65 activities on average, while those using an integrated system do 5.6 activities on average. 89 of the enterprises using integrated systems indicated the use of such a system, and there was a negative answer in the case of 181 respondents. Besides the partial averages, the programme calculates the full average, which is 4.29 activities in this case.

Chart 2: The group statistics of the numeric variable of the variance analysis

The diversification		N	Mean	Deviation	95% Confidence interval for mean		Mini-mum	Maxi-mum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Activities Total	I use IT systems	89	5,60	2,847	5,00	6,20	1	18
	I don't use IT systems	181	3,65	1,676	3,40	3,89	1	10
	Total	270	4,29	2,318	4,01	4,57	1	18

Source: The author's own research, 2017

The examination of minimum and maximum values is important because it is only then that it turns out whether there is an extreme value that could have been included in the average in a way that it distorts the results. Accordingly, there is no value that could fit this criterion and can distort the result of the analysis. To carry on the interpretation of the results, Chart 2 demonstrates that those 89 enterprises that use integrated IT systems do 5.6 activity on the average, while those businesses that do not use such systems pursue 3.65 activities; the average number of activities in the whole population is 4.29. During the analysis, the overlap between the confidence intervals was also examined, and the result is that there is no overlap (Lázár, 2009). Already at this point, the conclusion can be drawn that as regards the diversification of activities, the difference is significant between enterprises using or not using integrated systems. After this, I carried out a comparison with the help of variance analysis, which showed a significant correlation between the data.

Chart 3: ANOVA: A comparison of activities with habits of computer use at a 5% significance level

				Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Activities Total * What sort of IT system use the company?: I don't use such IT systems	Between Groups	(Combined)		226,658	1	226,658	49,839	,000
		Linear Term	Unweighted	226,658	1	226,658	49,839	,000
			Weighted	226,658	1	226,658	49,839	,000
	Within Groups			1218,808	268	4,58		
	Total			1445,467	269			

Source: The author's own research, 2017.

The results of the statistical analysis is represented in Chart 3. The values received as a result of the comparison between the two groups with the help of the F-probe show the results between groups and within groups. Based on the results of the chart, it can be asserted that there is a significant correlation between the average number of activities and the use of integrated IT systems. In this case, it turns out that the higher the diversification of the activity, the more activities the enterprise pursues, the use of an integrated system in the enterprise is more likely. The result of the F-probe is F=49.839, while the significance level both between groups and within groups is p<0.05, which is exactly 0.000 in our case.

Since there is such an option offered by the program, the results were also examined at a 2% significance level. I was curious what happens in a case if I narrow down the margins of tolerance. This is shown in Chart 4.

Chart 4: ANOVA: The comparison of activities at a 2% significance level

			Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Activities Total * What sort of IT system use the company?	Between Groups	(Combined)	226,658	1	226,658	49,839	,000
		Linear Term – Unweighted	226,658	1	226,658	49,839	,000
		Linear Term – Weighted	226,658	1	226,658	49,839	,000

Source: The author's own research, 2017.

Results in Chart 4 show that the narrowing down the significance level, the efficiency does not decrease, thus the value of p is below 2%. That is, the number of activities still influence the use of integrated system even with a 2% margin of tolerance. At the same time, as shown in Appendix 1, I carried out the comparisons in which I examined the correlation between the average number of activities and the different information systems used by the enterprises. The results of these are shown by the charts at a 5% significance level. In summary, it may be claimed that there is no significant relationship between the average number of activities of enterprises and the kind of integrated systems they apply. Only in the case of organisation-level information systems did the variance-based analysis find a strong, significant correlation. Here, a correlation was found when F=5.078 and p<0.025, which demonstrates that only in the case of one of the most complex and wide-ranging systems is there a relationship between the average number of activities and the kind of the integrated system.

The examination was carried on with the data connected to part A of the first hypothesis in order to acquire a more exact picture of the nature of the correlation between the activities and the application of integrated systems.

After this, I further examined the enterprises on the basis of the main activities. Since my analysis would have been too fragmented, I made a summary based on the main activities and I created 7 main groups: crop production, animal farming, mixed farming, agricultural services, game farming, forestry and fishery. This corresponds to classification based on main activities and covers the target group in its entirety.

Since my data set made a cross-tab report possible, I scrutinised my assumption with this method. My null hypothesis in the cross-tab report was that the data are independent of each other, that is to say, there is no correlation between the diversity of activity and the employment of integrated systems. The cross-tab report in Chart 5 shows that the examination could be carried out because every necessary information was available. The SPSS programme summarised from the available data how many enterprises, in what ratio the enterprises used integrated management systems in each main activity group. The differences are made clear in Chart 6 and it is visible that companies pursuing fishery, game farming, forestry and crop production apply integrated management systems below the average of 32.96%. As opposed to this, enterprises in animal farming, mixed farming and agricultural services utilise such systems above the average of 33.3%. The integrated system use is the highest in the case of mixed farming who employ such systems at a ratio of 75%. The reason for this that these enterprises pursue such kind of animal farming which makes the application of integrated systems indispensable in order to do their activity efficiently.

Chart 5: Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	26,565[a]	6	,000
Likelihood Ratio	28,417	6	,000
Linear-by-Linear Association	1,317	1	,251
N of Valid Cases	270		

Source: The author's own research, 2017.

The result of the examination is shown by Charts 5 (Chi-Square Tests). It is evident that there is a very close correlation between the main activity and the application of integrated systems. On the basis of Pearson's Chi-Square Test $p<0.000$, which is below 0.005, so there is a strong, significant relation between the two examined factors. At the same 5% examination level, the value of probability is the same as the value of chi-square, that is, 0.000, which also supports the idea of strong significance. A significant correlation (Sajtos-Mitev, 2007) is seen between the average number of activities and the use of management systems. **This refutes the null hypothesis, since a close, significant correlation can be demonstrated between the two variables. In other words, the activity strongly and significantly influences whether an agricultural enterprise uses and integrated management system or not.**

Following this, in possession of the analysis based on main activities, I carried out an examination for each individual main activity. Since the aggregated data of enterprises were available, which found a significant correlation, I supposed that it was worth supporting my hypothesis with a detailed scrutiny. From the aspect of inquiry, the lengthy post-research period proved to be useful for I could check the availability of certain data or make the necessary corrections. The main activities were compared with a cross-tab. I looked up the code of each main activity which I gained from data available in the basic population and the database to be found on the internet. Chart 9 contains the examined main activities conflated with data relevant to the use of integrated management systems. For the sake of transparency, I made the SPSS analysis to perform a percent-based comparison as well. Accordingly, the absolute frequency distribution (Lázár, 2009) shows how individual cases fall into which category. The percentages in each row show accumulated data, which further enhanced my work during the interpretation. In this case I did not think it necessary and relevant to indicate column percentages, since the figure appears in the last row aggregated, which serves as reliable information concerning the examined field. The final column shows accumulated data, and it indicates that the survey was complete and each respondent could be classified in main activities.

The analysis results are shown in Chart 6. On the basis of this, the significance level of the Pearson's Chi-Square value in the Chi-Square Test is 0.000, which is smaller than the 0.05 significance level. In this case, this means the refutation of the independence of the two variables, so it can be safely ascertained with 95% probability that there is a significant connection between the two variables.

Chart 6: Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	50,433[a]	15	,000
Likelihood Ratio	55,263	15	,000
N of Valid Cases	270		

a. 16 cells (50,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is ,66.

Source: The author's own research, 2017.

As a result of the analyses (Chart 6) it was ascertained that on the basis of Phi and Cramaer's V, the value is 0.423, which gives an assessable value between 0 and 1. Accordingly, the direction of the connection is positive, and the two variables are significantly related, which corroborates my earlier results. In the knowledge of the results, the null hypothesis was discarded and the thesis was formulated.

Thesis 2: Those Hungarian agricultural enterprises apply integrated management IT systems that pursue several kinds of activities and whose range of activities is diversified and complex. This is

especially true of enterprises whose activity scope includes both animal farming and crop production.

Summary

The 20th century brought about sweeping changes in Hungarian economy. As was mentioned above, pesticides and the general use of fertilisers spread in the country, which, together with mechanisation, contributed to a dynamic growth of efficiency. The 21st century and Hungary's accession to the European Union provided new chances to the agrarian, sector which survived the storms of the democratic transition with serious injuries. The transition from a labour-based agriculture to an information-based one offers several new possibilities that could give answers to the questions of producers, traders, scholars and those dealing with agricultural policy and may satisfy the arising information demands as well.

In my research, I focused on agrarian enterprises and their management. The informatics-based examination and analysis of this field is rather underrepresented compared to other sectors in Hungary. Significant changes have taken place in the IT field as well and these have not failed to affect the agrarian sector either. My results have shown that there is still a development potential in Hungary, which, on the one hand, projects favourable tendencies in the field of efficiency and productivity. The correlation between the complexity of the activity of an enterprise and the use of integrated systems can be clearly demonstrated. At the same time, research results have shown that without further training and the improvement of the IT systems of enterprises, these deficiencies will lead to competitive disadvantage for Hungarian small and medium-sized businesses in the long run.

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Characteristics of Smart Home Systems,

Directions and Development of the Domestic and International Markets

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Abstract

The first smart home controller computer or program was designed in the second half of the 60s, it was far ahead of its time and was not commercialized. More than five decades needed for the significant spreading of these systems thanks to the widespread availability and reliability of the Internet. While in just a fragment of the traditional property real estate owners have been using the smart apps, in the case of newly built real estate, it is almost essential to have some clever features. The benefits are clear, in the long run, initial surplus investments are likely to return, the overhead costs of housing may be reduced, their comfort levels and their viability can be significantly improved. It is likely that in almost all residences in the future there will be some intelligent function. In our study we would like to explore the current market situation, trends in Hungary and the international market. Typify the current systems, based on their price, range of products / services quality, location of sale and the advertising and the promoting quality. We will examine the development directions with particular regard to companies which offering market-leading solutions.

Keywords: smart home, home automation, high-tech companies, smart solutions, future trends

Introduction

The first remote controlled mechanism was built in 1898 (Nicola Tesla's toy boat). The first half of the 20th century was the time of invention of individual electric home appliances (vacuum cleaner, refrigerators, clothes dryers, washing machines, irons, toasters etc.). Most of them were not 'smart' and connected to other appliances but a few „Smart" appliances were designed before WWII.

The first modern smart home systems were designed in the 60s usually by hobbyists, they were not commercialized and or too popular because of the lack of motivation to increase productivity in domestic work and developers didn't involve the potential users of the technology in the design process while industry supposed that domestic technology is not enough attractive (Harper R. 2003). In 1966 the ECHO IV Computer was able to compute shopping lists, controlled the home's temperature and turned appliances on and off. The Kitchen Computer developed one year later could store recipes (www.iotevolutionworld.com).

For decades science fiction has explored the idea of home automation so first smart homes were rather ideas, not actual structures (www.iotevolutionworld.com).

In 1984 the American Association of House Builders introduced the term 'wired homes'.

We had to wait more than five decades for the significant spreading of these systems thanks to the widespread availability and reliability of the internet. In the 1990s new technologies were introduced but smart homes, or home automation started to be real popular only in the early 2000s as the technology became more affordable, and available in the commerce.

While just a fragment of the traditional real estate owners uses smart apps, in the case of newly built real estate, it is almost essential to have some smart features. The benefits are clear, in the long run, initial surplus investments are likely to return, the overhead costs of housing may be reduced, their comfort levels and their viability can be significantly improved.

It is likely that in almost all residences in the future there will be some clever function. In our study we would like to explore the current market situation, trends in Hungary and the international market. Typify the current systems, based on their prices, range of products/services quality, locations of sale and the advertising and the promoting quality. We will examine the development directions with particular regard to companies which offering market-leading solutions.

The main drivers of today's smart home systems are security and living greener. The most popular applications are remote mobile controls, automated lights, automated thermostats, scheduling appliances, mobile/email/text notifications, and remote video surveillance systems www.iotevolutionworld.com). The number of Internet users reached 1 bn. in 2006 and the number of Smartphone users in 2011…

Definitions of smart home

There is no common definition of Smart Home, there are lots of different ones, they have often different names, some are partly overlapping or similar to Smart Home (remote, home, home automation system, automated home, home energy management system etc.).While the term smart home or smart house starts to be familiar to the majority of people there is no 100% concrete definition of Smart Home.

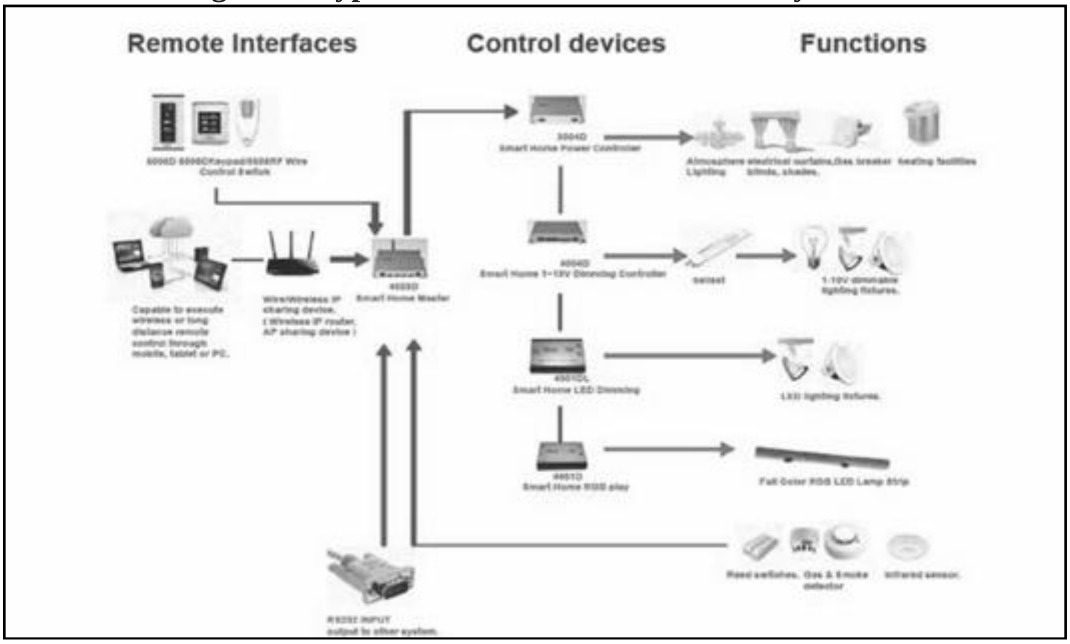
We have collected a few example of possible definitions:

'A smart home, or smart house, is a home that incorporates advanced automation systems to provide the inhabitants with sophisticated monitoring and control over the building's functions. For example a smart home may control lighting, temperature, multi-media, security, window and door operations, as well as many other functions (http://smarthomeenergy.co.uk).

'A smart home is a home equipped with lighting, heating, and electronic devices that can be controlled remotely by smartphone or computer: you can contact your smart home on the Internet to make sure the dinner is cooked, the central heating is on, the curtains are drawn, and a gas fire is roaring in the grate when you get home' (The Oxford Dictionary).

'Smart Home is a private home with many devices of home automatisation, consumer electronics and so one, which are intelligent. The networking of these devices should generate new services and additional benefits for the residents' (H. Strese, U. Seidel, T. Knape, and A. Botthof, 2010.).

Figure 1, Typical structure of Smart Home systems



Source: G. Chong, L. Zhihao, Y. Yifeng, 2011.

'A connected, controllable and intelligent home where all systems, including heating and lighting, communicate with one another and can be controlled from anywhere at any time using a single phone, tablet or computer, with the main goal being energy efficiency'(Figure1) (Honeywell).

Alternative definitions of smart home

There are alternative definitions of smart home 'E-home', 'Internet Home' or 'Intelligent living' widely connected with the 'internet of things' where every device is connected to the internet and they communicate to each other.

'Advanced home control systems go by several names, including smart home, home automation and integrated home systems. By any name, these systems conveniently control home electronics and appliances including audio/video, home office, telecommunications, intercom, security, lighting, HVAC, and lawn sprinklers. Control systems can also provide information – residents can find out how much electricity they've used on specific appliances or systems, and utilities can read meters remotely. The systems can be accessed from remote locations by phone or computer, allowing residents to turn on the heat, for example, on their way home from work' (Lori M., 1998).

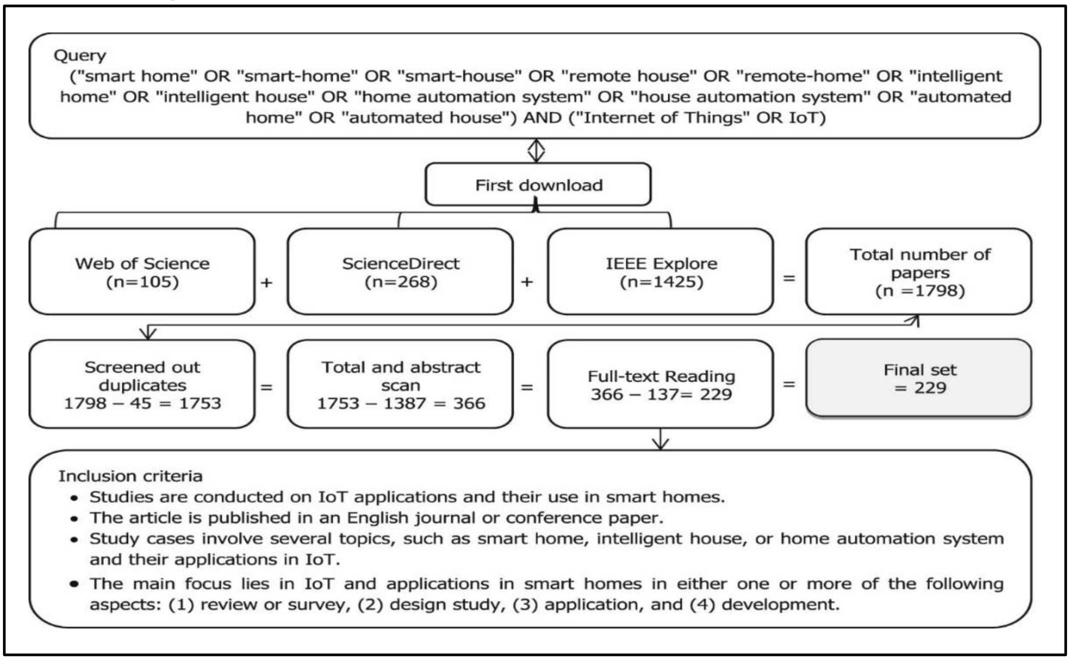
'Home Energy management system is used in the houses as computer-aided tool to monitor the energy and water consumption and control the running mode of home's appliances, fans, lighting and pumps and reset the room temperature in order to optimize the energy performance' (T.G. Stavropoulos, E.S. Rigas, E. Kontopoulos, N. Bassiliades, I. Vlahavas).

"The Adaptive House" (University of Colorado) The aim of the Adaptive House experiment is to explore the concept of a home which programs itself, freeing the inhabitants from the need to carry out this task.”

Literature review

Smart home components communicate effectively by various digital devices based on IoT. In the future, all devices must communicate with one another seamlessly. Smart home systems. usually communicate by so called ‘gateways’. ‘Gateways’ are central part of the systems equipped with user interface that can be regulated by tablet, mobile phone, or PC (Galinina et al., 2015).

Figure 2,Smart Home’ in the international literature 2017



Source: Mussab A.et al. 2017.

We were curious to know about the usage of the different definitions in the international and domestic literature (Fig. 2). In the paper of Mussab A.et al. 2017.three digital databases were explored (IEEE Xplore, Web of Science (WoS) and ScienceDirect). They used a mix of keywords (smart home, smart-home, smart-house, remote house, remote-home, intelligent home, intelligent house, home automation system, house automation system, automated home, automated house), the articles were published from 2010 to 2016.

They found initially 1798 papers (105 from the WoS, 268 from ScienceDirect, and 1425 from IEEE Explore) of which 45 were duplicates than they excluded further 1387 papers and 137 papers during full-text review so finally they found that a total of 229 papers were related to smart home/IoT technology. They were able to identify four classes (reviews and surveys related to smart home (3/229 papers), IoT applications and their use in intelligent smart home technology (79/229 papers), framework proposals to develop and operate applications (125/229 papers), actual attempts to develop smart home IoT applications (22/229 papers).

We have examined the actual usage of different ‘smart home’ definition. First we wanted to collect all the relevant paper in the Digital Library of Hungarian Scientific Works run by the Hungarian Academy of Science. Unfortunately no relevant papers were found. It seems while the topic starts to be popular among Hungarian research no scientific paper were mentioned in the official database.

Table 1, Frequency of mentioning ‘Smart Home’ and similar expression in English and Hungarian

HU	google HU	%	google tudós	%	EN	google EN	%	google scholar	%
"okosotthon"	413 000	44,7	4	10,3	smarthome'	41 400 000	10,9	18 900	0,1
"okos otthon"	396 000	42,9	7	17,9	smart home'	116 000 000	30,5	3 120 000	16,1
"okos ház"	32 100	3,5	2	5,1	smart house'	59 000 000	15,5	2 350 000	12,2
"intelligens otthon"	37 800	4,1	15	38,5	intelligent home'	18 900 000	5,0	2 920 000	15,1
"intelligens ház"	14 100	1,5	10	25,6	intelligent house'	31 200 000	8,2	2 650 000	13,7
"otthonautomatika"	7 540	0,8	0	0,0	home automation system'	48 000 000	12,6	1 960 000	10,1
"épület automatika"	12 400	1,3	1	2,6	house automation system'	15 700 000	4,1	1 400 000	7,2
"automatizált otthon"	8 250	0,9	0	0,0	automated home'	34 400 000	9,1	3 090 000	16,0
"automatizált ház"	1 730	0,2	0	0,0	automated house'	15 400 000	4,1	1 810 000	9,4
összesen	**922 920**	**100,0**	**39**	**100,0**	**sum**	**380 000 000**	**100,0**	**19 318 900**	**100,0**

Source: own compilation

As it wasn’t possible to make a deep analysis based on the digital Library of Hungarian Scientific Works we made further research. There is a really big gap between the common and scientific usage (frequency) of different ‘smart home’ expressions (Table1). ‘Okosotthon’ and ‘okos otthon’ are the most commonly used in everyday life while ‘intelligens otthon’ and ‘intelligens ház’ is definitely more frequent in google scholar. ‘Smarthome’, ‘smart house’, and ‘smart home’ are the most commonly used on the Internet in general while ‘smart home’, ‘intelligent home’, ‘intelligent house’ are more often used in google scholar.

Method

In 2017 November we started a new research focusing on smart solutions in residential areas. Our paper is now presenting the first steps of our research. First of all we would like to have a clear picture of the different definitions of smart home system than we are focusing on the international and domestic literature. We explore the current market situation, drivers and barriers in the international market and in Hungary and examine the development directions with particular regard to companies which offering market-leading solutions.

Results

Mussab A. et al. in their research, distinguished four groups based on the examined literature to determine the benefits of smart homes. These four groups are the following: energy conservation, healthcare, reducing cost of basic needs, entertainment and comfort (Fig.3).

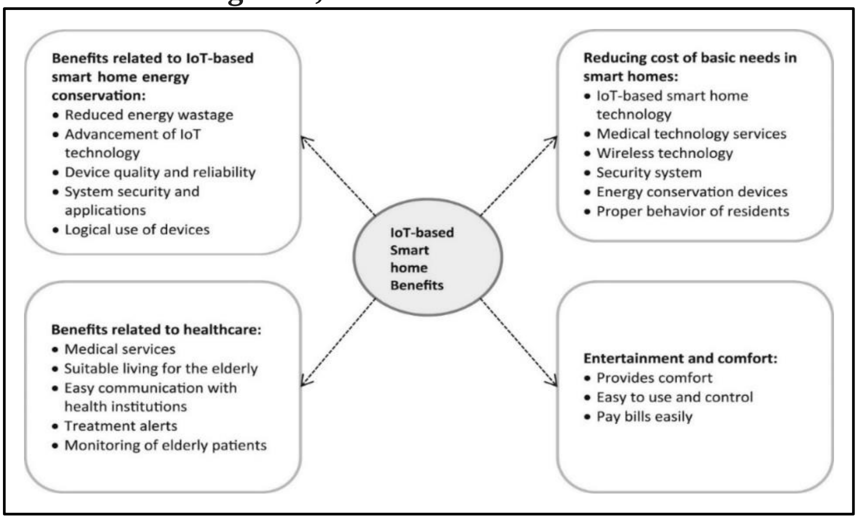
One of the primary purpose of creating smart homes is to conserve energy. The advanced technology provided with IoT devices can reduce energy wastage. These devices improve efficiency and performance while retaining energy. For example, there are heating systems that can be controlled with smart devices, so you can control the temperature of your home anytime and anywhere to save energy.

In the case of healthcare IoT devices can be great help to elderly and people with disabilities. In many countries, elderly parents don't live together with their children who cannot take care of them. In this case a smart home system can help to monitor parents' health status and direct contact is available with a healthcare institution (Mano et al., 2016).

The two former groups are closely linked to reducing cost of basic needs, since energy savings and health monitoring significantly reduce spending. For example, because of healthcare applications, we need to go to the doctor less often, which reduces our medical costs (Fisher and Hancke, 2014).

In the case of entertainment and comfort IoT based smart home provides comfort and easily controlling system for the whole house with smart phones or other smart devices.

Figure 3, Benefits of Smart Home

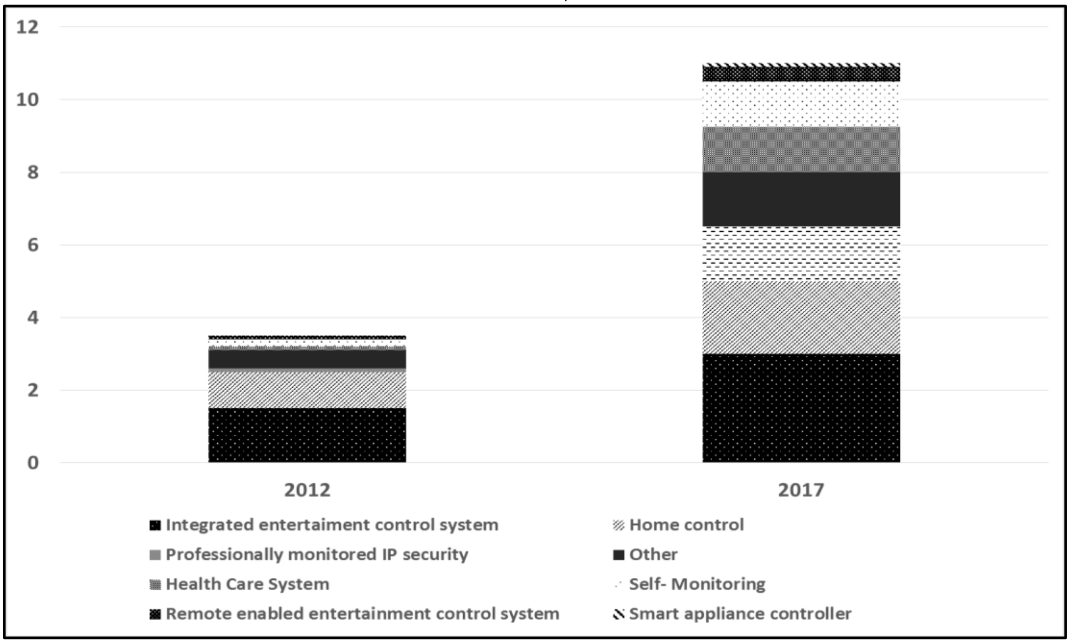


Source: Mussab A.et al.-2017

According to Strategy Analytics the share of households equipped with smart systems in Western Europe increased from 6% to 33% by 2012-2017. According to forecasts for 2022, this proportion may reach 55% in. So more than every second home will be equipped with a smart system in Western Europe.

Figure 4 shows annual revenues of smart home categories in Western Europe. By 2012-2017 an increase of about 7 billion USD is shown. The biggest revenue is clearly from the integrated entertainment control system category; it is about 3 billion USD. Significant revenue comes from also the home control systems, professionally monitored IP security and the other categories in 2017. The other categories have also increased their earnings compared to 2012, so it looks like there has been a lot of progress in this area of five years and it will probably continue in the future.

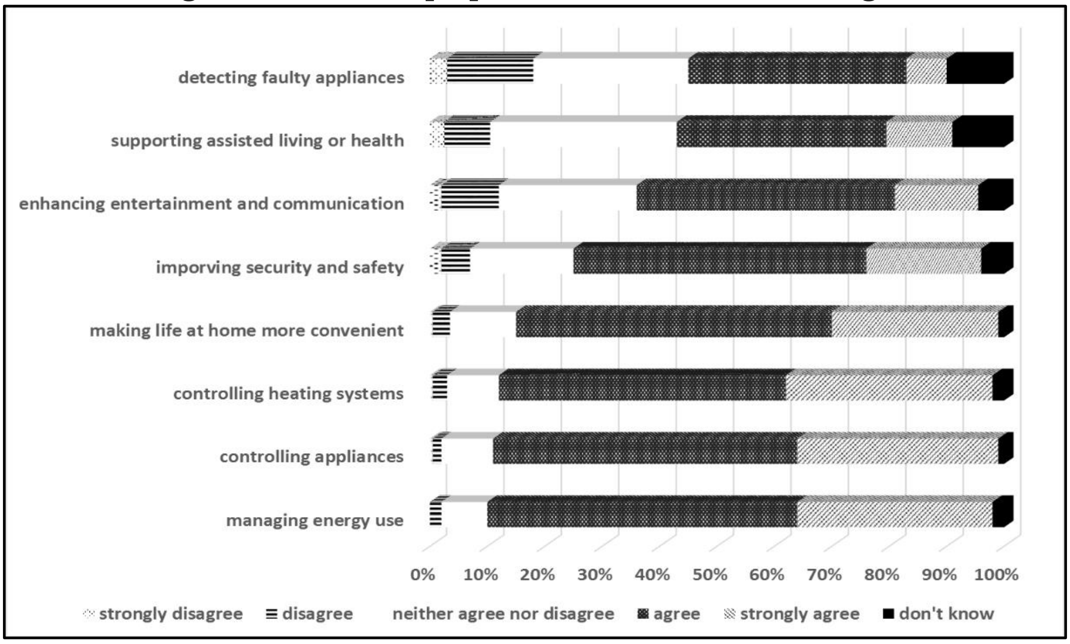
Figure 4, Annual revenues of Smart Home categories in Western Europe (bn. USD)



Source: Charlie W. et al.-2017

In the United Kingdom, a national questionnaire survey was conducted on smart home technologies among prospective users. This survey was characterized by how prospective users think of the purposes and benefits of smart home technologies. The final respondents number were n= 1025. (Charlie W. et al. 2017)

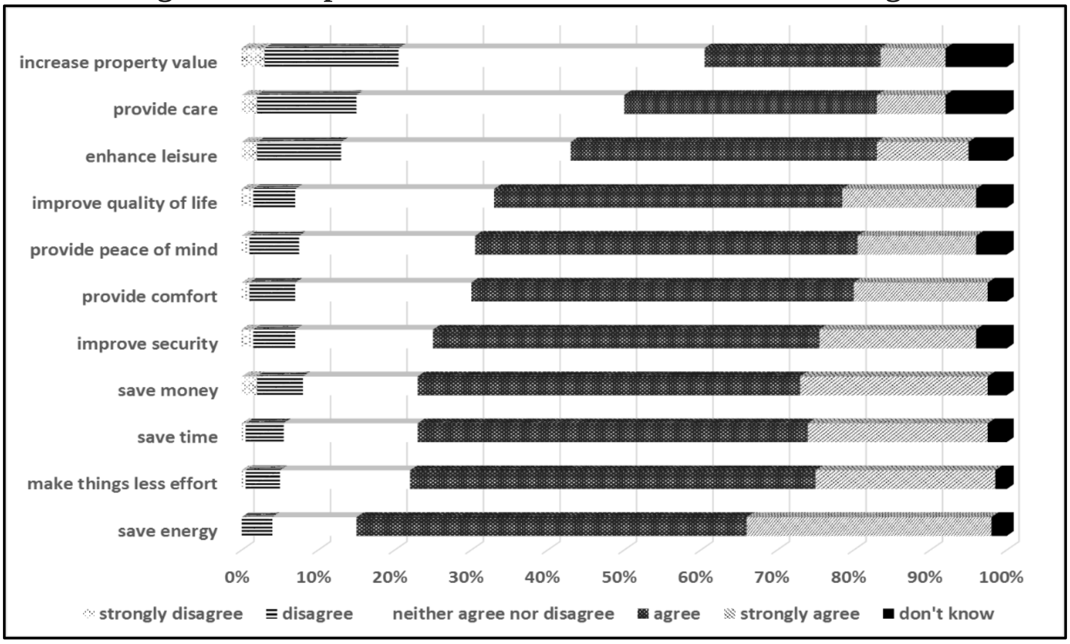
Figure 5, The main purpose of smart home technologies



Source: Charlie W. et al.-2017

Figure 5 shows that the three main purposes with which more than 85% of respondents agreed or strongly agreed were controlling energy, heating, and applications. It was also important goals, to make life at home more convenient, improving security and safety and enhancing entertainment and communication. The two least-accepted purposes were the: detecting faulty appliances and the supporting assisted living or health.

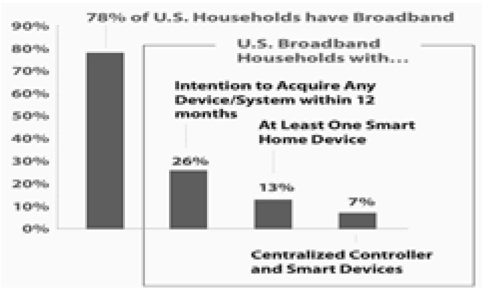
Figure 6, The potential benefits of smart home technologies



Source: Charlie W. et al.-2017

Figure 6 shows the potential benefits of smart home technologies. According to the respondents, the biggest advantage of these technologies are money, time and energy savings. It is also important to improve security, make things less effort and provide comfort. The least-accepted benefits were the: increase property value, provide care and enhance leisure. So it can be concluded that the potential benefits are related to the main purposes.

Figure 7, Households with a Smart Device/System



Source: www.parksassociates.com

Park Associates has prepared an online questionnaire in the United States to find out how many households have broadband and other smart home products (n=10 000) (Figure 7). It was a representative research in 2014. The result was that 78% of households in the United States had broadband. Only 7% of these 78% had centralized controller and smart devices with their security systems. 13% had at least one smart home device and 26% had the intention to acquire any device/ system within 12 months (Parks Associates-2014).

Figure 8, Market situation of different gadgets

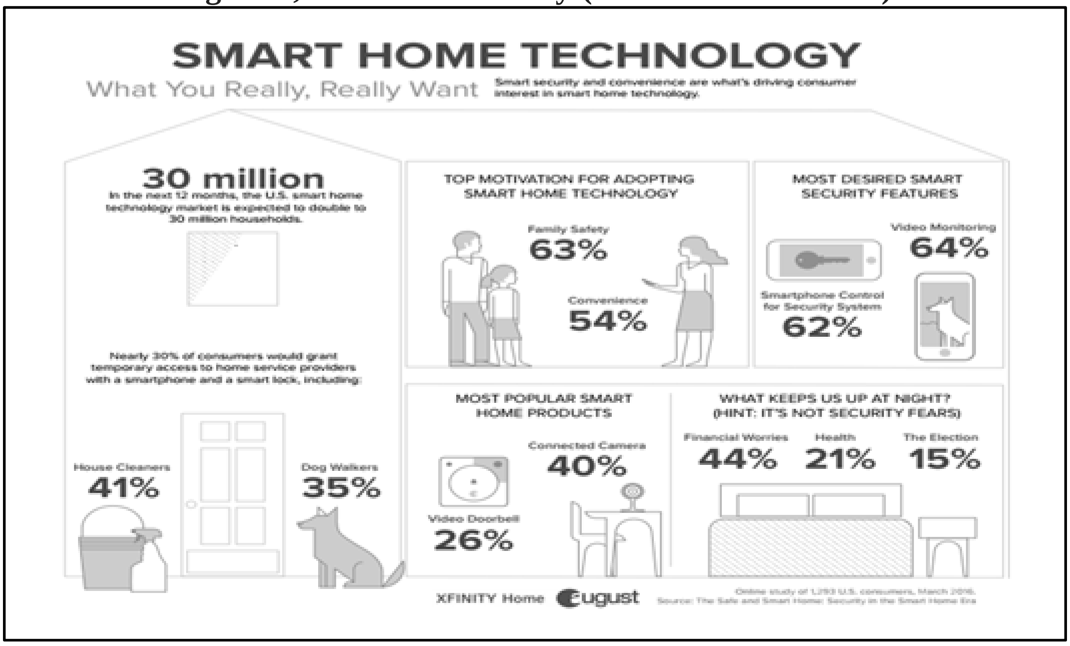
Source: www.mckinsey.com

In 2017 in this survey, approximately 2.000 U.S. households were asked by Mckinsey global management consulting firm (Figure 8). They found that 16% of the households own any kind of smart device. Households with +$100K income are 2.5 times more likely to be connected and 3x more likely to have multiple devices. Non-Users Frequently Exhibit Behaviors that Indicate Latent Demand for Connected.

Security and Utility Solutions (51% accidentally left lights on 41% accidentally left TV/appliance on 36% wonder what's happening at home while away, 35% leave a/c running (even when it's comfortable) 31% can't remember if they locked doors/windows. The survey was able to identify three groups of products (music video and wellness applications potential for Niche, and High-end markets, security applications ready for mass productions, and products which have high interest but the real value not understood by the customers (thermostats, energy and safety monitoring (www.mckinsey.com).

In 2016 Xfinity Home released the results of a new survey (Figure 9). 1,300 U.S. consumers were asked about their motivation, usage, future plans connecting with smart home technology. Nearly 18% of the respondents wants to buy a smart home product over the next 12 months this can double smart home users over the next year to 30 million households.

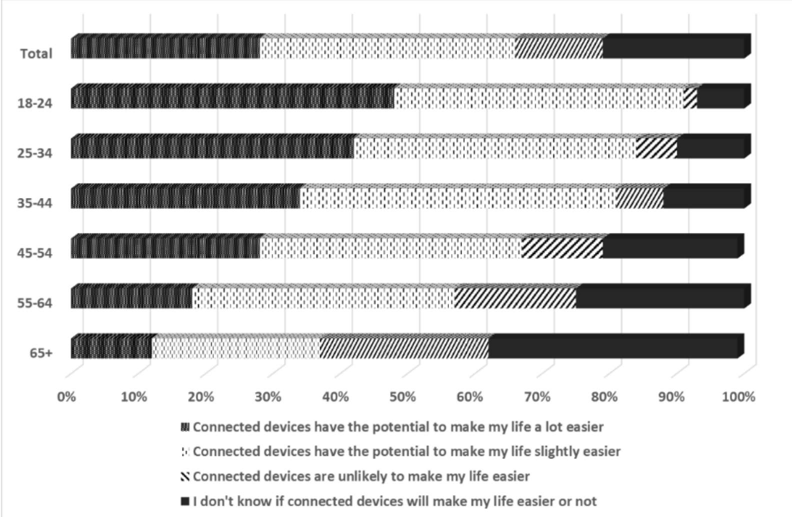
Figure 9, Results of a Survey (USA. XFINTY Home)



Source: https://home.xfinity.com

The main motivators are safety (63%), ability to turn on lights after dark (54%), provide remote access to service providers (22%). The most wanted features are Connected cameras (40%), video doorbells (26%), connected light bulbs (19%), smart locks (13%) (https://home.xfinity.com).

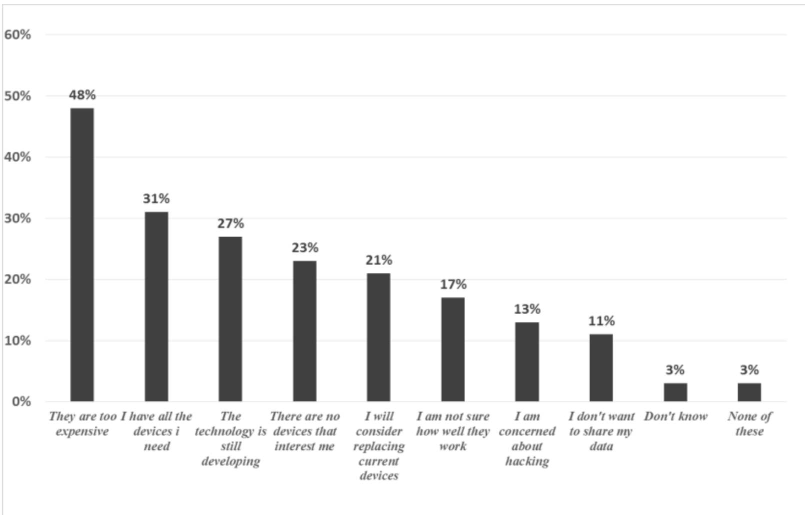
Figure 10, Beliefs about how useful connected devices will be



Source: Deloitte research, May 2016

Figure 10 and 11 shows the results of a questionnaire survey which asking buyers in the United Kingdom how much they believe in the usefulness of connected devices and which are the barriers to purchase. (UK consumers. age 18+, n=2076). More than 60% of the respondents thought that connected devices have the potential to make life easier or have the potential to make it a slightly easier. Only about 10% thought it would unlikely make life easier and about 22% didn't know if connected devices will make their life easier or not. It also revealed from this survey - which was expected - that the younger generation is more believe in these devices than the older age group.

Figure 11, Barriers to purchase



Source: Deloitte research, May 2016

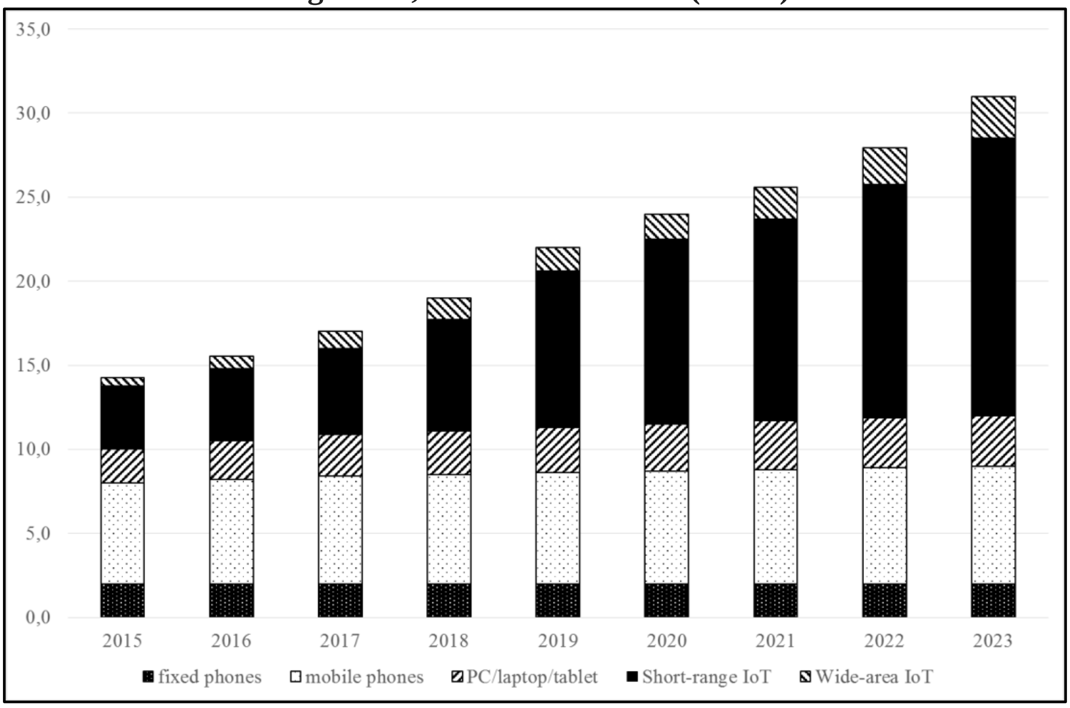
Several different aspects can discourage consumers from buying connected devices. The most important barrier of purchase is the price of the connected devices. 48% of respondents thought it. Other barriers according to the respondents could be: the still developing technology, consumers don't know how the technology works and they don't want to share their data with anybody.

Directions and Development of Smart Home Systems

Three different phases can be observed during product evolution. In the first phase smart gadgets and their applications are able to collect data, able to report and display them in an organized manner. In Phase 2 the level of data usage is more advanced, systems are characterized by modelling, notifications and predictive intelligent control. The most advanced smart home systems (Phase 3) are able to adapt and learn environment (Parks Associates 2014).

According to Ericsson Mobility report (November 2017) the number of connected IoT devices is expected to increase by 19 percent up to 2023. By 2023, over 30 billion connected devices are predicted of which around 20 billion will be related to the IoT. Especially wide-area IoT (cellular connections, unlicensed low-power technologies, such as Sigfox and LoRa etc.) and short-range IoT (Wi-Fi, Bluetooth and Zigbee technology etc.) are expected to grow significantly while the number of connected PC-s, older mobile phones (GSM/GPRS) and fixed phones won't change significantly (Figure 12) (Ericsson Mobility Report 2017).

Figure 12, Connected devices (billion)



Source: Ericsson

We have examined the situation of the smart home market in Hungary. We've been examined ten most popular companies by google rank and we wanted to know what services they offer (table 2), for what price, where can we buy the products, and where advertise themselves (table 3).

Each of the companies has a complex system, which means that there is a central control unit that can be connected to various smart home devices. Most of the companies offer similar services, such as: control light, temperature, security, entertainment and shadow. Only two companies were found which offer healthcare or solar energy products related to smart home systems.

Table 2,

Firm	Light control	Heat/cool control	Security	Entertainment	Health monitoring	Shadow technique	Solar energy	Complex system
FIBARO	x	x	x	x		x		x
Chameleon	x	x	x	x		x		x
Quantum - Studio	x	x	x	x		x	x	x
Somfy	x	x	x			x		x
INELS	x	x		x				x
INCELOR	x	x	x	x		x		x
Legrand	x	x	x	x	x	x		x
iSTYLE	x	x	x	x				x
Xiaomishop	x	x	x	x		x		x
Conrad	x	x	x	x		x		x

Source: own edition

In the previous section we have already seen that each company has a complex system. They were categorized by price and subdivided into four groups: low (0-250 000 HUF), medium (250 000 to 500 000 HUF), high (500000 to 1 000 000 HUF) and overpriced over 1 000 000 HUF. Products usually can be purchased online, but one or two companies have their own shop, such as iSTYLE. The companies are advertising themselves mostly online, in one case we found traces of TV commercial.

Table 3,

Firm	Product	Price	Place	Promotion
FIBARO	complex system	low	online	online
Chameleon	complex system	overpirced	online, IGNIS Computer Ltd.	online
Quantum - Studio	complex system	high	online	online
Somfy	complex system	overpriced	online, showroom	online
INELS	complex system	low	online, showroom	online
INCELOR	complex system	medium	online	online, tv
Legrand	complex system	medium	shops, online,	online
iSTYLE	complex system	low	Budapest Plazas, online	onlnie
Xiaomishop	complex system	low	online,	online
Conrad	complex system	low	online, CONRAD Shop, Netherland, Germany	online

Source: own edition

We tried to collect the possible trends of the sector. The market is fragmented thanks to the non-interoperable technologies and different actors (technology giants, industrial conglomerates, product specialists, connectivity service providers) provide these technologies. In the near future some kind of concentration can be observed on the market as more complex systems are available and consumers will rather buy from one company.

One of the most important barriers of the emergence of smart home systems is the fear of the security risks. Companies have to provide more secure services and they should communicate and make it understood by their users.

There will be a race to own the gateway as it ensures some kind of monopoly to the service providers. Reliability is essential as instable Internet connection, upgrades of firmware and applications, breaking communication between appliances, non-consumers friendly/rapidly changing user interfaces can decrease dramatically the user's experience.

Startups and product specialists and peripheral vendors: will connect to the system of technology giants' and Industrial conglomerates which is fruitful for both sides as a faster development is available.

In the (near) future Artificial Intelligence will help to optimize the cloud based operation of these systems which will be probably Do-It-Yourself (DIY) kits or single vendor installations. More sophisticated services will be available for the users (for example smart watch integrated remote applications).

Conclusion

There is no common definition of Smart Home, but it is necessary to create a unique definition, because this area has been developing very rapidly, and it has a big growth potential in the next few years as it was illustrated well in Figure 4 and Figure 12.

The main goals of smart homes are the control of using energy, applications and heating systems and these are linked to the potential benefits. Potential benefits can be - according to the respondents - saving money, time and energy, improving security and provide comfort. According to age, the younger generation is more believe in these devices than the older age group, as it is revealed an online survey in the UK.

Another survey in the US observed the motivations to purchase of smart home products. The main motivators were the safety, ability to turn on lights after dark, provide remote access to service providers. The most important barriers to purchase were the price, missing knowledge and trust for the technology.

The market is fragmented now, but technology giants and industrial conglomerates has already understood the significance of this emerging market. New comers often connect to their system and emerging industrial connection standards (Bluetooth, Zigbee, IEEE 802.15) which can be important drivers of the development. In the future, all devices must communicate with one another seamlessly.

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Business models in theory and practice

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Abstract

Every business starts with an idea and at the very beginning it should be checked is it just an idea or it may form a real opportunity. During this testing process, it should be able to answer questions about customers' needs: how the proposed idea can generate a value for the customers and how it makes money through the value creation and value delivering process. In one hand, business model is a tool that helps entrepreneurs to examine their ideas before starting preparations for realizing them. Besides using as a tool, business model provides essential information about the relationship between the main elements to be studied, and it gives an outline or a proposed structure which allows us to predict what may happen in the reality. Using a model before any action can save lots of time and money. Business models provide clear view of the firm's business logic through capturing and visualizing the value creation and value delivering process. On the other hand, business models are perfect tools to analyse the business logic through observation, measurement, and comparison. With other words, business model tries to explain areas that clarify the logic of a business, to observe the main areas, and to screen the trends. Business model enables to evaluate the performance of the organization in these areas and finally helps to compare our business model with the competitors – these are the most valuable features of business models for entrepreneurs and managers. The concept of business model allows managers to coordinate the processes that create value according to customers' needs regarding their resources and core competencies to present a value to the customers, which is more valuable than similar products and it is able to convince customers to purchase. A business model is a description of roles and relationships between consumers, partners, and suppliers of a firm that determine the main flows of a product, information, money, and profits. Several authors considered different components for a business model, in which internal interactions result in value creation for the target market and a change in each of these components can lead changes in the business model and make a new model. In our study, we introduce a wide literature review on the different theories and concepts of business models, and through some conceptual models, we show how business models may be used in different industries and sectors.

Keywords: business model, value proposition, management concepts, conceptual model

Introduction

Definition of business models was mentioned primarily in connection with mathematical models used by the business sector. Later, in the 1980s, by spreading of Porter's value chain model, the concept of business models was connected to the planning and organizing business processes and strategic planning (Móricz, 2009). Barakonyi (2008) highlighted three important fields of applying business models: firstly, in the administrative stage of strategic planning process business models may be used for planning, secondly, in the operation stage of enterprises it is a tool of organizing and monitoring, and thirdly, it can be a tool for future planning and development processes. Nowadays, business models are one of the hottest topics of management studies, resulted by the spreading of e-business and IT applications and the development of innovation driven enterprises or start up enterprises.

The concept of business model enables managers to coordinate the processes that create value according to customers' needs regarding their resources and core competencies to present a value to the customers which is more valuable than similar products and it is able to convince customers to purchase. A business model is a description of roles and relationships between consumers, partners, and suppliers of a firm that determine the main flows of a product, information, money, and profits. Several authors considered different components for a business model, in which internal interactions result in value creation for the target market and a change in each of these components can lead changes in the business model and make a new model.

The aim of our paper is to give a comprehensive summary about business models, and to formulate a conceptual model about the main pillars and components of business models, which can be used in future surveys.

Literature review: Business model definitions

What is a business model? At a general level, the business model has been referred to as a *statement* (Stewart and Zhao, 2000), a *description* (Applegate, 2001; Weill and Vitale, 2001), a *representation* (Morris et al., 2005; Shafer et al., 2005), *an architecture* Osterwalder and Pigneur, 2002; Timmers, 1998), a *conceptual tool or model* (George and Bock, 2009; Osterwalder, 2004; Osterwalder et al., 2005), a *structural template* (Amit and Zott, 2001), a *method* (Afuah and Tucci, 2001), a *framework* (Afuah, 2004), a *pattern* (Brousseau and Penard, 2006), and a *set* (Seelos and Mair, 2007). However, surprisingly, business models often have been studied with no explicit definition.

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Table 1: Definitions of Business Model

Author(s), Year	Definition
Timmers, 1998	The business model is "an architecture of the product, service and information flows, including a description of the various business actors and their roles; a description of the potential benefits for the various business actors; a description of the sources of revenues" (p. 2).
Amit & Zott, 2001; Zott & Amit, 2010	The business model depicts "the content, structure, and governance of transactions designed so as to create value through the exploitation of business opportunities" (2001: 511). Based on the fact that transactions connect activities, the authors further evolved this definition to conceptualize a firm's business model as "a system of interdependent activities that transcends the focal firm and spans its boundaries" (2010: 216).
Chesbrough & Rosenbloom, 2002	The business model is "the heuristic logic that connects technical potential with the realization of economic value" (p. 529).
Magretta, 2002	Business models are "stories that explain how enterprises work. A good business model answers the old questions of Peter Drucker's age: Who is the customer? And what does the customer value? It also answers the fundamental questions every manager must ask: How do we make money in this business? What is the underlying economic logic that explains how we can deliver value to customers at an appropriate cost?" (p. 4).
Morris et al., 2005	A business model is a "concise representation of how an interrelated set of decision variables in the areas of venture strategy, architecture, and economics are addressed to create sustainable competitive advantage in defined markets" (p. 727). It has six fundamental components: Value proposition, customer, internal processes/competencies, external positioning, economic model, and personal/investor factors.
Johnson, Christensen, & Kagermann, 2008	Business models "consist of four interlocking elements that, taken together, create and deliver value" (p. 52). These are customer value proposition, profit formula, key resources, and key processes.
Casadesus-Masanell & Ricart, 2010	"A business model is … a reflection of the firm's realized strategy" (p. 195).
Teece, 2010	"A business model articulates the logic, the data and other evidence that support a value proposition for the customer, and a viable structure of revenues and costs for the enterprise delivering that value" (p. 179).

Source: authors' own summary

Table 1 summarizes some of the most popular and common definitions related to business models. The third column of the table indicates the articles in which the various definitions have been accepted. The table shows that several definitions of business models have been given; however, all of them have targeted value, ways of value creation, sources of value creation, and ways in which a business can make money. Hence, a business model can be defined as a tool illustrating the value creation and value delivering process.

Methodology

For describing and evaluating the role of business models as a management and planning tool, a comprehensive literature review was performed. By analyzing the content and concepts of numerous articles from the international scientific and professional literature, the main motifs and elements of business models were summarized.

Results: Business model components

Different researches have considered different definitions and components for business models, which was criticized by many researchers (Morris et al., 2005; Pateli and Giaglis 2003). Different authors suggested various models! There may be many reasons for the multiplicity of these models. One of the reasons may be existing ambiguities in definitions and lack of transparency in the concept of business model, which also have been criticized by many authors (Morris et al., 2005; Pateli and Giaglis, 2003). Another reason that can be mentioned for the multiplicity of models is the differences between industries in which the studies were conducted. For instance, a model that is used in a manufacturing firm differs from a model used in a service firm, because nature of the businesses and industries in which a business operates can represent elements used by that business model.

Our research proves that there was confusion and lack of a comprehensive model that also had been criticized by many researchers. We identified 24 different models are suggested by different researcher which propose different areas should be considered in business model analysis, business model innovation and business model design. A summary of this 24 models are provided here.

Linder and Cantrell (2000), in their study on "changing business models", presented a model in which a pricing model, revenue model, channel model, commerce process model, Internet-enabled commerce relationship, organizational form, and value proposition were mentioned as the components of a business model.

In a study on “business models for internet based e-commerce: an anatomy”, *Mahadevan (2000)* viewed the business model as a unique blend of three flows, i.e. value flow for commercial partners and vendors, revenue flow, and logistic streams.

In their investigation on “value creation in an electronic business,” *Amit and Zott (2001)* studied 59 electronic businesses. They defined the business model as a description of content, structure, and quality of transactions management designed for value creation through utilization of business opportunities.

In another study on “an analytical framework and a development method for inter organizational business process modeling,” *Giaglis et al. (2001)* introduced 4-C factors for business models, i.e., coordination, competition, customer’s value, and core competencies.

Gordijn and Akkermans (2001) discussed “designing and evaluating e-business model” and found the following elements as indices of a business model: actor, value object, value port, value interface, value exchange, value offering, market segment, composite actor, value activity.

Chesbrough and Rosenbloom (2002) dealt with “the role of the business model in capturing value from innovation: evidence from Xerox corporation’s technology spinoff companies.” In the study, they included six crucial elements for a business model: expression of value proposition, identification of market segment, definition of value chain, estimation of cost and profit structure, description of firm’s situation within the value network, compilation of competitive strategy.

In research on “an e-Business model ontology for modeling e-business,” *Osterwalder and Pigneur (2002)* recommended four elements for a business model that included: product and services (target customers, value proposition, capabilities), infrastructure management (sources/properties, activities/processes, partners network), relationships with customers (information, distribution channel, confidence, and royalty), financial aspects (income model, cost structure, profit model).

Pateli and Giaglis (2003), in research on “a framework for understanding and analyzing e-business models,” studied an e-business model and regarded their recommended model as being influenced by the three elements of market trends, rules, and technology. Components of their recommended model included: mission, market segment, value proposition, sources, key activities, income model and costs, value network or value chain.

In their research on “broadband services and their business models,” *Ballon et al. (2004)* introduced value chain, commercial processes, value proposition, financial model, and environment as the indices of their recommended model.

In another study on “value creation from the application service provider e-business model: the experience of four firms,” *Currie (2004)* identified elements of the business model as follows: strategic positioning (industry structure, sustainable competitive advantage, customer focus of market segment, market division and differentiation), product/service portfolio (savings of activity scope and scale, unity/differentiation, product/service division), value proposition (externalizing applications and services, value creation for consumer, risk/profit evaluation).

Moore and Birtwhistle (2004) conducted a study on "the Burberry business model: creating an international luxury fashion brand" and presented a model in which elements of the recommended model were as follows: products, manufacturing and sourcing, distribution channels, and marketing communications.

In a study on "connecting future scenarios to business models of insurance intermediaries," *Bouwman et al. (2005)* examined a business model in a model framework of indices service, technology, organization, financial.

Tikkanen et al. (2005) investigated "managerial cognition, action, and the business model of the firm" and considered four indices for a business model (strategy and structure, such as providers and customers, operation, financial and accounting).

Osterwalder et al. (2005) conducted a study on "clarifying business models: origins, present, and future of the concept" and classified the business models and research conducted in this regard. Finally, they introduced product (value proposition), reationship with the customer (target customer, distribution, and communication), infrastructure management (value configuration, core competencies, partners' network), and financial model (cost structure, and income model) as the elements of their recommended model.

Kandampully (2006), in research on "the new customer-centred business model for the hospitality industry," explained the components of the business model as follows: technology, external tendency, value, products, efficiency, communications, qualified personnel, uniqueness, networks, services, and internal coordination.

Methlie and Pedersen (2007) considered "business model choices for value creation of mobile services." They presented strategies of service (mobile-specificity (uniqueness)), work scope, market concentration, style of organization management (hierarchical, intellectual, and market-based supervision), and income model as the components of their recommended model in order to introduce a strategic model.

Onzono and Carmona (2007) investigated "the changing business model of Business-schools." Organizational structure, income source, market concentration, distribution channel, and customers' profile formed the components of the model they studied.

The results of the study of *Pousttchi et al. (2007)* on "analyzing the elements of the business model for mobile payment service provision" included six models as the components of the business model and mobile payment service provision. These six model were: market model (customer, communications network, target market, number of transactions per payment,customer's willingness for payment, competitive payment procedures, external effects of other markets, and competitive strategy), value proposition model (use of variety, geographical action domain, levels of amount, payment guarantee, integration of product marketing), implementation model (need to bank credit, register, certification, realization of technology, deployment, payment method, and partership), capital model (income source, type of income, cost and capital), distribution and communication model (market division strategy, branding strategy, advertisements), threat model (legal issues, technological factors, target supply, and competitors' actions).

McCarthy (2008) conducted a case study on "an artists' retreat in Ireland: an exploration of its business model." In order to provide a strategic business model, he made it necessary to answer the following questions: "How do we create value?" "For whom do we create value?" "What is our source of competency?" "Where is our competition place?" "How do we earn money?"

In a study on "business model design: conceptualizing networked value co-creation," *Nenonen and Storbacka (2010)* took into account customers' value creation, income logic, value network, resources and competencies, and various strategic decisions as five indices of business models.

Hacklin and Wallnöfer (2011) conducted a study on "the business model in the practice of strategic decision making: insights from a case study" and introduced value chain, resources, industrial organization, theory of transaction costs, and strategic networks as the elements of their recommended model.

Jupesta et al. (2011) investigated "sustainable business model for biofuel industries in Indonesia" and strategically viewed service delivery methods, administrative processes, resource flows, knowledge management, and logistical streams as the key elements of business model.

In another study on "a business model framework for the design and evaluation of business models," *Weiner and Weisbecker (2011)* offered a framework that had elements of value proposition, distribution channel, business processes, product, and financial dimension. In addition, they pointed out that these factors are strategic factors of the business model.

Ye et al. (2011) studied "political resources, business model, and headquarters location of private enterprises" and regarded efficient operation systems, competitive product, profitability, and core competencies as the indices of a business model.

By a simple analysis on these 24 models, 123 elements were identified, among which 26 unrepeated elements founded. Table 2 shows these 26 elements and the authors who used them (or the frequency of each element).

Table 2: Indices identified from the business model and their users

Nº	Components	Frequency	Resource
1.	Value Proposition	19	Ye et al. (2011); Weiner & Weisbecker (2011); Jupesta et al. (2011); Nenonen & Storbacka (2010); McCarthy (2008); Pousttchi et al. (2007); Kandampully (2006); Osterwalder et al. (2005); Bouwman (2005); Currie (2004); Moore & Birtwistle (2004); Ballon et al. (2004); Pateli & Giaglis (2003); Osterwalder & Pigneur (2002); Chesbrough & Rosenbloom (2002); Amit & Zott (2001); Giaglis et al. (2001); Gordijn & Akkermans (2001); Linder & Cantrell (2000)
2.	Financial Model	17	Ye et al., (2011); Weiner & Weisbecker (2011); Hacklin & Wallnöfer (2011); Nenonen & Storbacka (2010); McCarthy (2008); Methlie & Pedersen (2007); Pousttchi et al. (2007); Onzono & Carmona (2007); Osterwalder et al. (2005); Bouwman (2005); Tikkanen et al. (2005); Ballon et al. (2004); Pateli & Giaglis (2003); Osterwalder & Pigneur (2002); Chesbrough & Rosenbloom (2002); Mahadevan (2000); Linder & Cantrell (2000)
3.	Value Configuration	15	Ye et al., (2011); Weiner & Weisbecker (2011); Jupesta et al., (2011); Onzono & Carmona (2007); Kandampully (2006); Osterwalder et al. (2005); Bouwman (2005); Tikkanen et al. (2005); Ballon et al. (2004); Pateli & Giaglis (2003); Osterwalder & Pigneur (2002); Amit & Zott (2001); Giaglis et al. (2001); Gordijn & Akkermans (2001); Linder & Cantrell (2000)
4.	Distribution Channel	12	Weiner & Weisbecker (2011); Jupesta et al., (2011); Hacklin & Wallnöfer (2011); Pousttchi et al. (2007); Onzono & Carmona (2007); Kandampully (2006); Tikkanen et al. (2005); Osterwalder et al. (2005); Moore & Birtwistle (2004); Osterwalder & Pigneur (2002); Gordijn c Akkermans (2001); Linder & Cantrell (2000)
5.	Market Segment	7	Nenonen & Storbacka (2010); McCarthy (2008); Methlie & Pedersen (2007); Onzono & Carmona (2007); Pateli & Giaglis (2003); Chesbrough & Rosenbloom (2002); Gordijn & Akkermans (2001)
6.	Supply Chain Management	6	Jupesta et al., (2011); Hacklin & Wallnöfer (2011); Kandampully (2006); Tikkanen et al. (2005); Ballon et al. (2004); Mahadevan (2000)
7.	Core Competence	6	Ye et al., (2011); Nenonen & Storbacka (2010); McCarthy (2008); Methlie & Pedersen (2007); Kandampully (2006); Giaglis et al. (2001)
8.	Resources	5	Jupesta et al., (2011); Hacklin & Wallnöfer (2011); Nenonen & Storbacka (2010); Moore & Birtwistle (2004); Pateli & Giaglis (2003)
9.	Value Chain Structure	4	Nenonen & Storbacka (2010); Pateli & Giaglis (2003); Chesbrough & Rosenbloom (2002); Mahadevan (2000)
10.	Competitive Position	3	McCarthy (2008);); Currie (2004); Giaglis et al. (2001)
11.	Strategy	3	McCarthy (2008); Tikkanen et al. (2005); Chesbrough & Rosenbloom (2002)
12.	Organizational Form	3	Hacklin c Wallnöfer (2011); Gordijn c Akkermans (2001); Linder & Cantrell (2000)
13.	Technology	2	Bouwman (2005); Linder & Cantrell (2000)
14.	Governance Form	2	Methlie & Pedersen (2007); Amit & Zott (2001)
15.	Environment	2	Ballon et al. (2004)

16.	Partnership	2	Kandampully (2006); Gordijn & Akkermans (2001)
17.	Market Communication	1	Moore & Birtwistle (2004); Osterwalder & Pigneur (2002);
18.	Profile of Customer	1	Onzono & Carmona (2007)
19.	Empowered Employee	1	Kandampully (2006)
20.	Mission	1	Pateli & Giaglis (2003)
21.	Value Exchange	1	Gordijn & Akkermans (2001)
22.	Market Model	1	Pousttchi et al. (2007)
23.	Implementation Model	1	Pousttchi et al. (2007)
24.	Thread Model	1	Pousttchi et al. (2007)
25.	Pricing Model	1	Linder & Cantrell (2000)
26.	Knowledge Management	1	Jupesta et al., (2011)

Source: authors' own summary

Based on the frequency of mentioning these elements one could make a rank of the business model components. Although wide conclusions should not be drawn by them, as it is only a static approach, as many of the reviewed business models represented the same industry or the conclusions were drawn by the experiences of companies in the same country or region, which may bring some distorting effects. Nevertheless, the main components that should be taken into consideration in the course of planning processes may be determined by the guidance of these frequencies.

Conclusions and suggestions: Designing a business model

Based on our comprehensive literature review, seven pillars of business models may be highlighted: (1) value proposition, (2) market segment, (3) distribution channel, (4) value configuration, (5) resources, (6) partner network, (7) financial model. As value proposition is defined as the bundle of products or services which a business offers (Ye et al., 2011; Weiner and Weisbecker et al., 2011). Market segment means the target customers, whom a business wants to offer value to (Nenonen and Storbacka, 2010; McCarthy 2008). Distribution channel refers to the way a company wants to deliver its product or service to its customers (Weiner and Weisbecker, 2011). Value configuration outlines the necessary activities are required to run the business model (Ye et al., 2011; Weiner and Weisbecker, 2011). Resources describes that what key resources a company is need to generate and deliver the value (Jupesta et al., 2011). Partner network explains the necessary relationships that a company should create to create and deliver the value (Kandampully, 2006). Financial model portrays the revenue model and the cost structure of a business (Ye et al., 2011).

Figure 1: Recommended pillars of business models

Source: authors' own summary

Similar businesses in an industry and even businesses at the same level of the value chain can have different business models. This means that the business selects a model with regard to internal weaknesses and strengths and opportunities and threats in external environment, creates value, and earns revenue on the basis of this selection. It is possible for a business to have a completely different model from those of its competitors. This is the exciting part of business models, i.e., the selection of a proper business model. Any competitor who selects the best model and implements it effectively can win the trade and competition.

Models are a variety of theories and have three general characteristics, i.e., 1) the model must be based on facts; 2) the model only reflects important characteristics and does not take into account unimportant characteristics; and 3) the model must be designed for practical use in real-world business competition (Abareshi and Hosseini, 2012). A business model is a model that has several dimensions, and each dimension introduces some options to the businesses and enables them to select the intended options based on their weaknesses and strengths and opportunities and threats in the external environments and perform through them. Selection of these options is termed 'model design,' because several businesses can be built by different selections of the available options of a dimension and also in comparison to options selected in other dimensions.

Businesses, either consciously or unconsciously have selected some options for each aspect of their model. They have designed their unique models, but it is important for the businesses to select their model consciously and survive and compete according to it. Thus, as stated earlier, conscious designing of a business model means conscious selection of available options of each of the dimensions in business model. This enables businesses to consider these areas (dimensions and available options for each of the dimensions in the business model) as key points and dynamically conduct combinatorial optimization that keeps their business models up to date and functioning with the maximum possible efficiency.

As it is mentioned above, the businesses should analyze and screen value proposition, target customer, distribution channel, value configuration, Resources, partner network, financial model to designing their business model. In other words, first of all they have to clarify who are their customers and what needs they have (target customer pillar), after that they should recognize how they are able to satisfy their needs (value proposition). In the next stage, the decision makers should design the way/s they tend to deliver their value to their customers (distribution channel). Of course, they need to plan what key resource (resource pillar) and what key activity they (value configuration) need to be able to run their business and produce their product or service. The next thing the decision makers should think about is partner network. In most of businesses, having a partner is a key to success. Partners can help the business in both value creation and value delivering processes. Partnership with suppliers can be good an example of this kind of networks helping the businesses to optimize the value creation process. Partnership with distributors helps the businesses to influence in their target segmentation which gifts them a competitive advantage others are deprived of it. Finally, the decision makers should make clear how their designed model is able to make money and how will be their cost structure.

As it is illustrated, using business model can helps the decision makers to see visually how looks the business idea is in their mind, what the necessities are, how their costs are, and how they can make money. Business model analysis also helps them to see all the possibilities and select one which is more suitable with their goals, sources and strategies. On the other hand, business model analysis allows the decision makers to compare their model with the other competitors. Such insights are gain from business model analysis can increase the chance of selecting the best decision and at the same time reduce the risk of failure.

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Short biography

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6th Parallel Session
(Hungarian)

Hiányszakmát tanulók munkaerőpiaci tervei

Csehné dr. habil Papp Imola
Csapó Ildikó
Szent István Egyetem

A magyar munkaerőpiac jelenlegi helyzetét a munkaerő iránti keresleti-kínálati egyensúly hiánya, a munkanélküliség és a betöltetlen munkahelyek jellemzik. A szakemberhiány enyhítése érdekében fontossá válik az innovatív stratégia programok kidolgozása, mivel az ország hosszú távú gazdasági fejlődését az oktatás színvonala határozza meg. A humán tőkébe történő befektetés bír a legmagasabb megtérüléssel.

Jelen tanulmányunk elméleti oldala a magyarországi szakközépiskolai rendszer átalakulására, a „Oktatás és képzés 2020" program jelenére fókuszál, amelyet kérdőíves vizsgálatra épülő (200 fő) empirikus eredményekkel egészítünk ki. A vizsgálat folyamán a hiányszakmák szerepe, gyakorlati oktatása és a tanulók tájékozottsága került elemzésre. Az eredmények rámutatnak, hogy a gyakorlati képzésre alapozott szakmunkásképzés iránti igényekre.

1. Szakirodalom áttekintés

Egy ország jövőjét és annak gazdasági növekedését a legjobban az oktatás határozza meg. Ha odafigyelünk arra, hogy a képzés minél hatékonyabban megfeleljen a munkaerő-piaci igényeknek, akkor annál nagyobb esély van a munkanélküliség redukálására. Az oktatás minősége az, ami meghatározó. A humán tőkébe való befektetés hosszú távon az egyik legkifizetődőbb. (Csehné, 2013.)

Szakképzésünk az elmúlt 25 évben jelentős átalakuláson ment keresztül, amely átalakulás napjainkban is tart.

A rendszerváltást követően a szakképzés rendszer átalakítása központi téma volt a kormányzat oktatáspolitikai stratégiájában, melynek fő célja volt, olyan szakképzési rendszer kialakítása, amely rugalmasan alkalmazkodik a változó munkaerőpiaci folyamatok által generált igényekhez és a munkanélküliség megszüntetésében. 1990-1992 között a korábban működő nagyüzemi képzőhelyek megszűntek. 1993-1996 között megszületett szakképzési és kereskedelmi törvények biztosították a változást (Szilágyi, 2014). A szakképzés három fő intézményben folyat az 1993. évi törvény változások alapján: szakközépiskolában, szakiskolában és a munkaerő-fejlesztő és –képző központokban. A törvény emellett lehetőséget teremtett az iskolarendszeren kívüli szakképzés folytatására egyaránt. Ezen törvény keretében vezették be az Országos Képzési Jegyzék rendszerét is, mely az állam által elismert szakképesítéseket tartalmazza. Az 1995-ben hozott a Országos Gazdasági Kamarát is jelentősen érintő változások szerint, a Kamara feladatai közé kerültek a szakképzési feladatok, többek között a tanulói szerződések intézése, az új szakmák bevezetése, a vizsgáztatásban való részvétel. 2004-től kezdődően a Magyar Kereskedelmi és Iparkamara hatásköre alá tartozik a szakképzési rendszer ellátása. (Tóth et al.; 2014).

Napjainkban a legfőbb kihívások a szakképzésben a gazdasági igények szolgálata, a jelenleginél több szakmunkás és technikus képzése. A középfokú oktatási rendszer 2016 szeptemberi változása alapján, a diákok három irányba folytathatják tanulmányaikat az általános iskolát követően. A gimnáziumi képzés keretén belül négyéves általános képzésben vehetnek rész a diákok. Az érettségit követően a tanulmányaikat folytathatják a felsőoktatásban egyetemeken, főiskolákon vagy poszt szekunder képzés keretén belül. A szakgimnáziumokban, amelyek szakközépiskolák voltak korábban. a képzés időtartama négy plusz egy év. Ebben a típusú középfokú oktatási intézményekben a diákok az általános képzés mellett szakmai alapozó tárgyakat is tanulnak. Az iskola elvégzését követően, a tanulók az érettségi mellett egy szakképesítést is szerezhetnek. A tanulók tanulmányaikat folytathatják 1-3 éves szakképzést nyújtó képzésben, felsőoktatásban vagy kilépnek a munkaerő-piacra. A szakközépiskolákban, amelyek a korábbi szakiskolák voltak a szakképesítés mellett az érettségi is megszerezhető 3+2 év alatt. A szakiskola elvégzését követően a diákok kiléphetnek a munkaerőpiacokra vagy folytathatják tanulmányaikat az érettségi megszerzése érdekében. Ezt követően kiléphetnek a munkaerőpiacra vagy választhatnak további képzési lehetőséget a felsőoktatás kínálatából. A duális szakképzés keretén belül a diákok általános és szakmai alapozó ismerteket szereznek, gyakorlattal kiegészítve. Az iskola komplex vizsgát követően OKJ szakképesítést szereznek a diákok és továbbtanulási lehetőségük van érettségi bizonyítvány megszerzésre, amelyről önállóan döntenek. Ezzel a képesítéssel beléphetnek a munkaerő-piacra vagy folytathatják tanulmányikat az érettségi bizonyítvány megszerzése érdekében (NGTT; 2017).

A szakképzési rendszer átalakítása és a szakközépiskolai képzés célja a szakmatanulás presztízsének emelése, a középfokú oktatásba bekapcsolódók számának növelése és a diákok részére lehetőség biztosítása egy szakma megszerzésre az érettségi mellett, továbbá a szakképzés színvonalának emelése és a képzések hatékonyságának, minőségének eredményes javítása (Benedek; 2002). A munkaerőpiaci igényekhez szerint több szakmunkásra és technikusra van szükség, hiányzik a magasan képzett, megbízható és széleskörű ismeretekkel rendelkező munkaerő.

1.1. Hiányszakmák

A hiányszakmának tekinthető, ha a munkaerőpiacon bizonyos képesítésű munkaerőből kevesebb található, mint amennyire a nemzetgazdasági rendszernek szüksége van, a szakképzési rendszer kibocsátása alacsonyabb az a munkaerőpiaci igényeknél. (Szép; 2002). A szakmák besorolása három kategóriába történik, amely besorolást a munkaerőpiaci igények határozzák meg. Ez alapján a három kategóriára lehet bontani a szakmák besorolását. Az első kategória a *fejlesztendő a szakképzési rendszer* kibocsátása, amely jelentése, hogy több az üres álláshelyek száma, mint a képzett szakembereké. Magasabb a kereslet, mint a kínálat és jobbak az elhelyezkedési lehetőségek például: a villanyszerelő szakma, víz-gáz szerelő, ápolók.

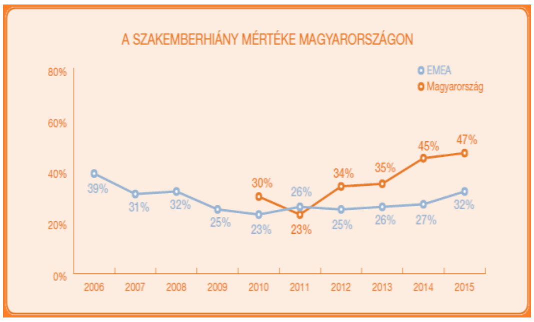
A második kategória, a *szinten tartandó a szakképzési rendszer* kibocsátása, amely alapján elmondható, hogy ha az elhelyezkedési lehetőségek jók, akkor annyi a frissen képzett szakember, mint amennyire szüksége van a munkaerő-piacnak, a kereslet és a kínálat egyensúlyban van, például a pénzügyi-számviteli ügyintéző.

A harmadik kategória esetében *csökkentendő a szakemberek száma* abban az esetben, ha több a végzett szakember, mint amennyi szabad álláshely van a munkaerő-piacon az adott szakmából, például az utazás ügyintéző. (Benedek; 2002.)

A különböző szakmák iránti kereslet és a hiány szakmák megállapítása eltérő képet mutat regionális szinten és időszak tekintetben. Az ország régiói közötti különbségek megállapítását és megszüntetést segíti a Megyei Fejlesztési és Képzési Bizottságok által készített munkaerő-piaci felmérések. A felméri eredmények rámutatnak az adott megyére vonatkozó munkaerő-piaci igényekre, a hiányszakmákra és az eredmények segítik a megyei igények alapján a megyei szakképzés struktúrájának összeállítását. Az eredmények alapján három kategóriába lehet besorolni a szakmákat, támogatásuk mértéke szerint. Az első kategóriába ösztöndíjjal támogatott szakképzések tartoznak. A második kategóriába sorolódnak azok a hiányszakmák, amelyek normál munkaerő-piaci kereslettel rendelkező szakmák, támogatásuk korlátozottan történik. A nem támogatott képzések, képezik a harmadik kategóriát. Ezeknél a szakmáknál kevesebb fejkvóta jár az iskoláknak, illetve ösztöndíj a diákoknak (Szilágyi; 2014).

A szakemberhiány Magyarországon az európai átlagnál magasabb az elmúlt nyolc évben, amelyet az 1. számú ábra mutat be.

4. ábra Szakemberhiány mértéke Magyarországon.



Forrás: ManpowerGroup, 2015

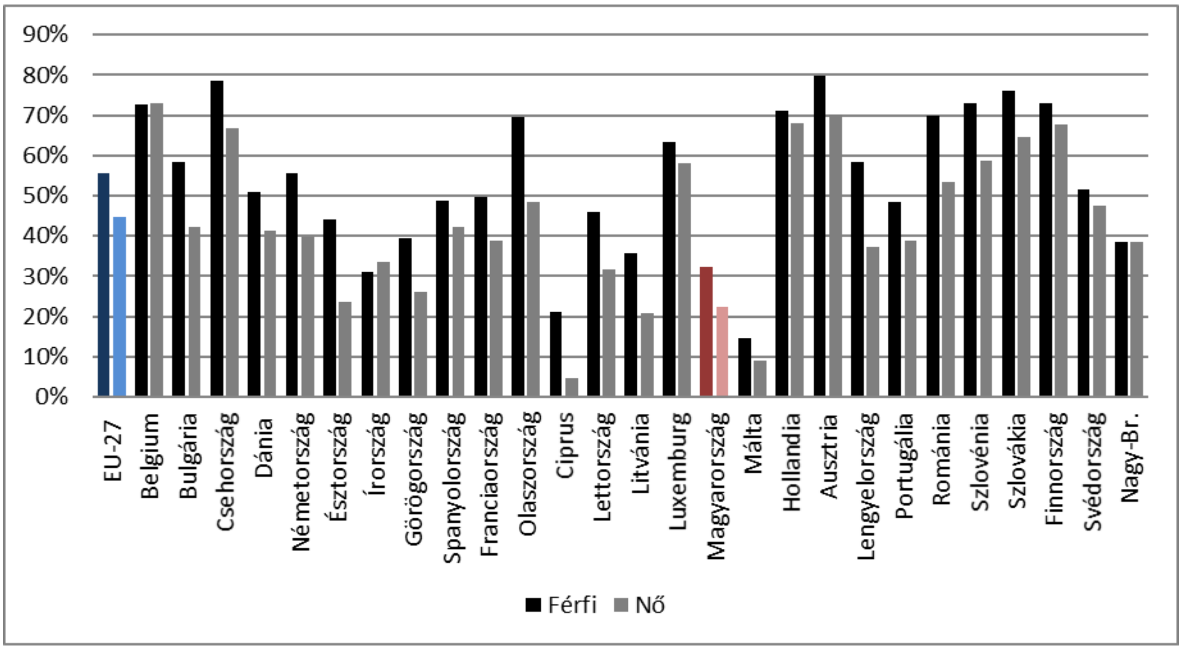
2. Nemzetközi Kitekintés

Az Európai Unió célkitűzése a szakoktatás és szakképzés javítása teljesítményben, minőségben és vonzerő tekintetében, amely 2002-ben a koppenhágai folyamattal indult el. Ezt a folyamatot kétévente felülvizsgálják, amely közös megegyezésen alapuló prioritásokon alapul, törekvései között van az egész életen át tartó tanulási eszközök segítségével a szakképzési lehetőségek kihasználásának ösztönzése. A koppenhágai folyamat tartalmazza a szakoktatási reformok megvalósítását, a közös európai célok kialakítását, a mobilitás elősegítését, a kompetenciák javítását, a képesítések átláthatóságának és minőségének javítását, az egymástól tanulás elősegítését egy európai szintű együttműködés keretén belül. A koppenhágai nyilatkozat célul tűzte ki, hogy 2010-re a szakképzés terén az európai dimenzió megerősödik, bővíteni szükséges a pályaorientációs és tanácsadási szolgáltatásokat a szakképzéssel kapcsolatban, valamint fontos az átláthatóság növelése és a minőségbiztosítás fejlesztése a szakképzés területén (EUR-Lex, 2011./a). A bruges-i közlemény (2010) olyan stratégiai döntéseket tartalmaz, amelyek 2011-2020-ig terjedő időszakban meghatározóak a szakképzésre irányuló európai együttműködésben. A jövőbeni kihívásokra kell választ adnia az európai szakképzési rendszereknek, amelynek magas színvonalon és rugalmasan kell alkalmazkodni a munka-erő piaci igényekhez, biztosítani kell a szakképzés magas színvonalát a minőségbiztosítási rendszerek által, továbbá biztosítani kell a személyre szabott képzést és képzéshez való könnyű hozzáférhetőséget (EUR-Lex, 2011./a).

Magyarországon elmarad a középfokú oktatás során szakmát szerző diákok aránya az EU-s átlagot tekintve, a hazánkkal szomszédos országaiban magasak a szakképzésben részesülő a fiúk és lányok aránya (MKIK, 2014).

Az 1. számú ábra szemlélteti a szakképzésben részesülő fiatalok arányát 2012-ben az Európai Unió 27 tagországában. Az 2. számú ábra bemutatja, hogy az EU 27 tagországában a szakképzésben részesülő fiúk aránya 55,5%, a lányoké 45%. Magyarországra vonatkozó adatok bordó színnel láthatóak, ahol a középiskolás fiúk 32%-a, a lányoknak csak a 22%-a részesült szakképzésben a 2012-es évben. A hazai adatokhoz mérten csak Málta (fiúk: 14,5%, lányok: 9%) és Ciprus (fiúk: 21%, lányok: 4,5%) van rosszabb helyzetben. Az uniós tagállamok közül kiemelkedő, hogy a középiskolai tanulmányaik során a szakképzésben részesített diákok aránya a fiúk tekintetében Ausztriában (80%) és Csehországban (78,5%) a legmagasabb, míg a lányoknál ez az arány Belgiumban (73%) és Ausztriában (70%) a legjobb. (MKIK, 2014.)

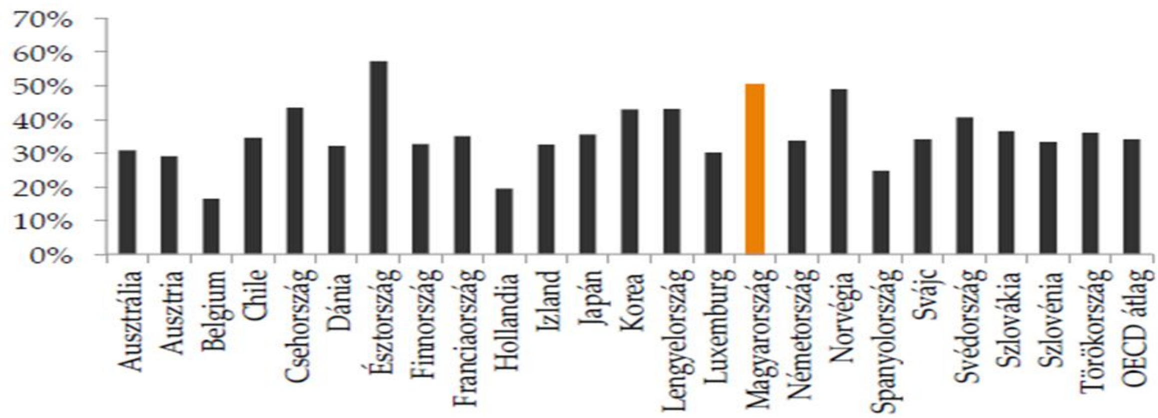
5. ábra Szakképzésben részesülő diákok aránya a középfokú oktatásban az EU tagállamaiban (%) 2012



Forrás: saját szerkesztés Eurostat 2012 alapján

Az OECD tagországok összefüggésében hazánkban kimagasló azon szakképesítést megszerző diákok aránya, akik műszaki, ipari és építőipari végzettségűek. Az 3. számú ábrán látható, hogy Észtország 57%-kal az első, Magyarország 50%-kal a második, a harmadik helyen pedig kicsivel lemaradva Norvégia követ minket 49%-kal. A két utolsó helyen Belgium (16%) és Hollandia (19%) szerepel. (MKIK, 2014.)

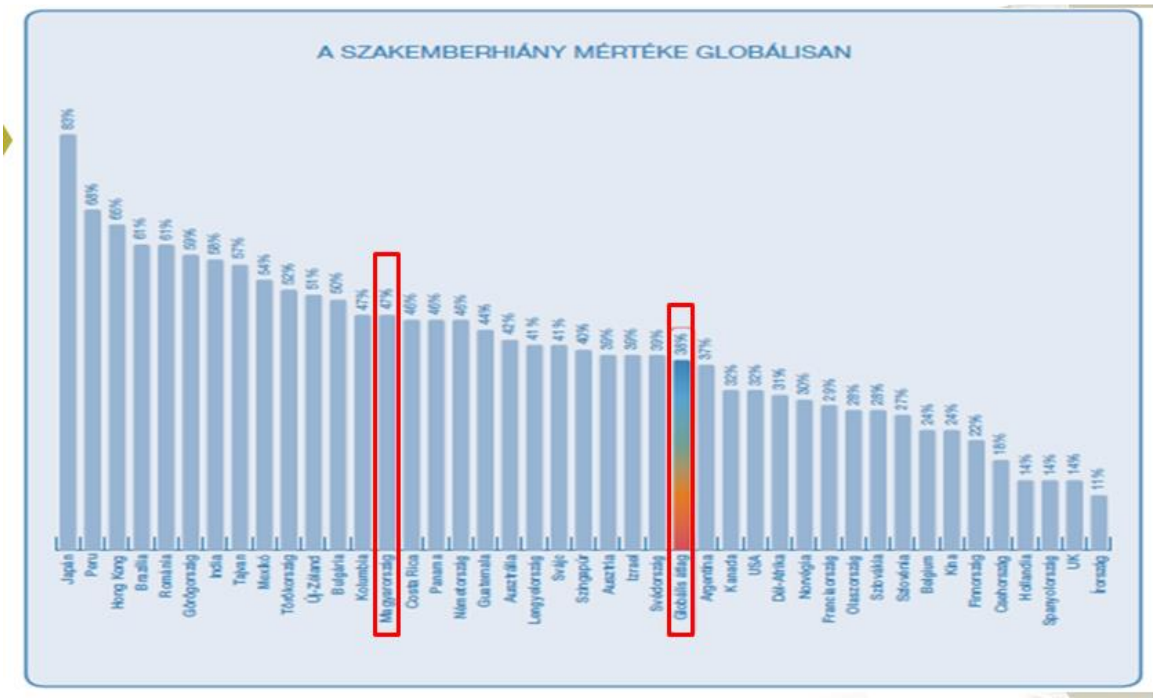
6. ábra Műszaki, ipar, illetve építőipari területen végzők aránya a szakképzést szerzők közül az OECD tagországokban, 2011



Forrás: Forrás: MKIK GVI Kutatási Füzetek, 2014

A ManpowerGroup 2015-ben készített felmérést a hiányszakmákról nemzetközi vonatkozásban. A felméri eredmények rámutatnak, hogy a szakember hiány, a szakmunkás munkakörök betöltése okozza a legnagyobb gondot, amely globális problémaként jelentkezik. Ez a munkaerő-piaci tendencia hazánkat is érinti, már hatodik éve a legnagyobb nehézséget a szakmunkás pozíciók betöltése okozza (4. ábra).

7. ábra A szakemberhiány mértéke globálisan, 2015



Forrás: Hiányszakma felmérés ManpowerGroup, 2015

A kutatási eredmények rámutatnak, hogy a szakemberhiány mértéke a legnagyobb mértékben Japánt (83%) érinti, amely 2010-óta áll fenn. Peru (68%) és Hong Kong (65%) követi, ahol a szakember hiány szintén súlyos probléma. Ezzel szemben néhány országban nemjelent problémát a szakmunkáshiány, ilyen például Csehország (18%), Hollandia (14%) és Spanyolország (14%). A munkaerő elvándorlás, a migráció, amely magyarázata lehet, hogy a szakemberhiány a legkevésbé érinti Nagy-Britanniát (14%) és Írországot (11%) (ManpowerGroup, 2015.)

3. Kutatás módszertana

A primer kutatás célja feltárni a diákok hiányszakmákról alkotott véleményét, amely vonatkozott a képzés alatt szerzett tapasztalataikra, motivációjukra, hivatástudatukra és elvárásaikra a szakmájukkal kapcsolatban. A felmérésre 2014. és 2015. áprilisában került sor Vas megye három szakközépiskolájában, ahol gépiforgácsolónak, hegesztőnek, villanyszerelőnek és szerszámkészítőnek tanuló 100 diákokat kérdeztünk meg. A felmérés módszertana standard kérdőíves megkérdezés volt, a kvantitatív adatgyűjtés során használt strukturált kérdőív véglegesítése előtt próba le kérdezés történt. A kérdőív zárt kérdéseket, skálatechnika és feleletválasztós kérdések tartalmazott. Az adatelemzés során az adatok bevitele Microsoft Excel programmal, értékelése SPSS programcsomaggal történt. Az adatelemzést egyváltozós és többváltozós statisztikai módszerekkel történt.

A kutatás folyamán három hipotézist állítottunk, amelyek a következők:

I. Képzési rendszertől függetlenül a diákok úgy vélik, hogy az elméleti és a gyakorlati oktatás aránya megfelelő volt az iskolai évek alatt. Megtanították a diákokat a közismereti tantárgyakra és a szakmai ismeretekre egyaránt és élénkült a mobilitási hajlandóság egy jobb állás elérésért.

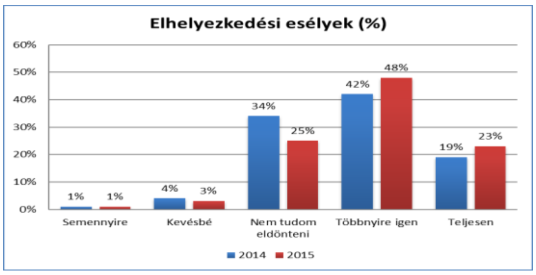
4. Kutatási eredmények

A felmérés folyamán vizsgált hiányszakmákat jellemzően férfiak választják, a 100%-ban fiúk töltötték ki. A születési évek megoszlása vegyesen alakult, a legfiatalabb tanuló 17, míg a legidősebb már 24 éves, amely magyarázható, hogy van olyan diák, aki az általános iskola tanulmányait folytatja itt, de van olyan is, aki az érettségi után döntött, hogy szakmát tanul.

A hiányszakmákról szerzett ismeretekre vonatkozóan vizsgálatra került, hogy milyen ismertekkel rendelkeznek az elhelyezkedési lehetőségekre, a munkaadói elvárásokra és a lakóhelyük közelében található munkalehetőségekre, a szakma presztízsére és a fizetésre vonatkozóan.

A 5. számú ábra bemutatja, hogy 2015-ös felmérés adatai alapján elmondhatólátható, hogy a hallgatók tájékozottabbnak érzik magukat az elhelyezkedési esélyeiket tekintve (68%). A megkérdezettek 23%-a, teljes mértékben tudja, hogy hol tudnak elhelyezkedni a végzést követően.

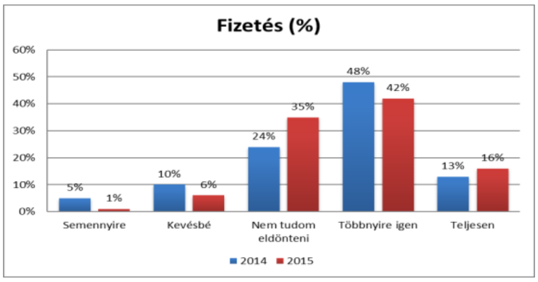
8. ábra Elhelyezkedési esélyek (%)



Forrás: saját szerkesztés N=100

A hallgatók 2014-ben többnyire tisztában voltak 42%, 2015-ben már nem tudták eldönteni (48%), hogy melyek a munkaadók tipikus elvárásai, ami meglepő, annak tekintetében, hogy a tanulók nagy többsége vállalatoknál töltötte a gyakorlati idejét. A hallgatók 43%-a szerint talál munkát a közelben munkát, a diákok 44%-a többnyire tisztában van vele, hogy milyen a feladatokat kell elvégezniük a munkájuk során és milyen eszközöket kell használniuk. 2015-ben a diákok 54%-a többnyire tisztában van a szakmájuk presztízsével, amely pozitív.

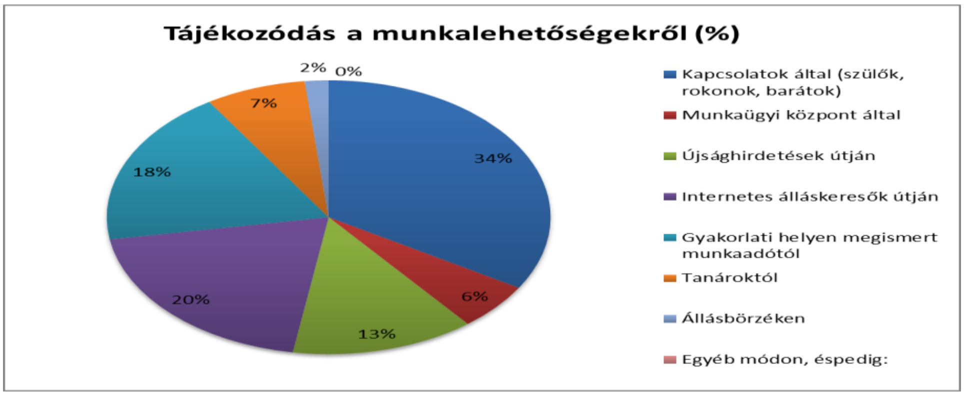
9. ábra Fizetések megítélése (%)



Forrás: saját szerkesztés N=100

A hallgatók fizetéssel kapcsolatban nem érzik magukat kellőképpen tájékozottnak, a 2014-es adatokhoz képest az látható, hogy emelkedett azok száma, akik nem rendelkeznek pontos információval ezen a területen. A hallgatók az elhelyezkedésükhöz, az álláslehetőségekre vonatkozó információk eléréséhez elsősorban a szülők, rokonok és barátok segítségét (34%) kérik. Az elérhető állásokkal kapcsolatban tájékozódnak a szülőkön kívül az internetes álláskeresési portálokon keresztül, a gyakorlati helyen keresztül, újsághirdetések alapján, tanáraiktól egyaránt. A hallgatók 72%-a olyan állást keres, ahol abban a szakmában dolgozhat, amit meg szerzett, 4% teljesen eltérő szakmában kíván elhelyezkedni és 5%-a bármit elvállalna, hogy legyen munkája. Az eredmény alapján elmondható, hogy a hallgatók a munkaerő-piacra kikerülve olyan állást keresnek, ahol abba a szakmában dolgozhatnak, amit tanultak, ez alapján elmondható, hogy nagyobb eséllyel maradnak egy adott cégnél hosszabb távon vagy a gyakorlati helyen.

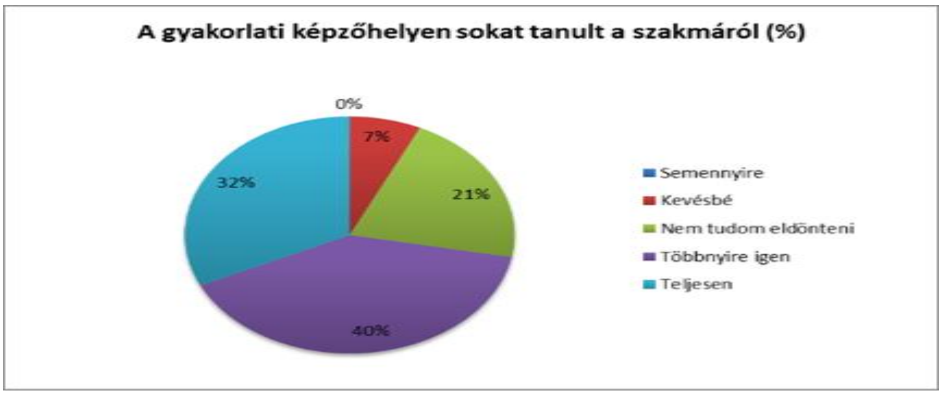
10. ábra Tájékozódás a munkalehetőségekről (%)



Forrás: saját szerkesztés N=100

A felmérés folyamán megvizsgálásra került, hogy a munkavállalók munkahely választását milyen tényezők befolyásolják. Az eredmények alapján elmondható, hogy mind a négy szakmában a munkahely választást a legnagyobb mértékben befolyásolja a jó társaság az adott munkahelyen. Számos kutatás rámutat, hogy az Y és Z generáció munkahellyel szembeni elvárásai megváltoztak, nagyobb a szabadság igényük, mint az idősebb korosztálynak. Ez megfigyelhető a kutatásban, az eredmények is rámutatnak, mert a második legfontosabb elvárának a „szabadon végezhető munka" lehetőségét jelölték meg a hallgatók és csak a harmadik legfontosabb dolognak tartják az átlagos munkabért.

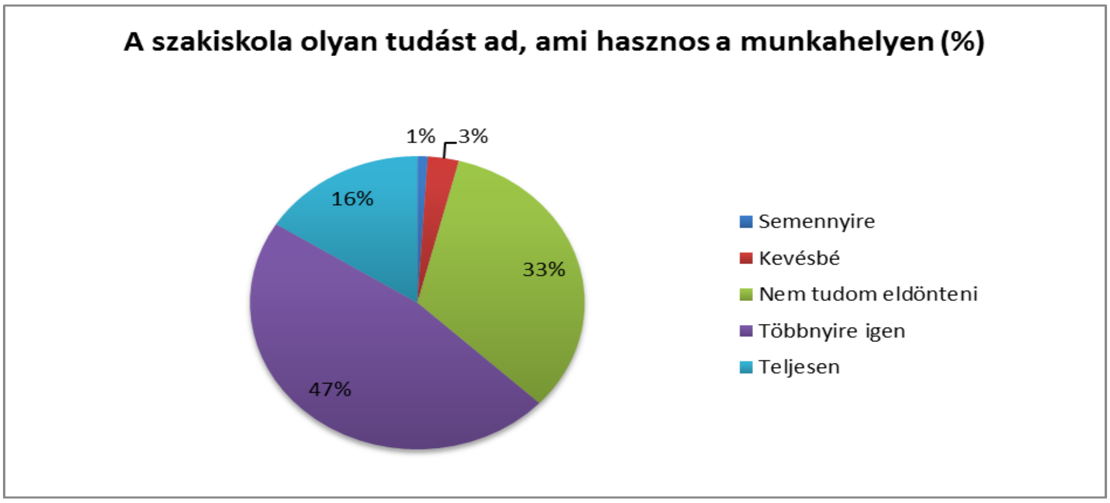
11. ábra Gyakorlati képzőhelyen tanultak hasznossága



Forrás: saját szerkesztés N=100

A szakiskola egy olyan szocializációs színtér, ahol a diákokat nem csak az elméleti anyagokra tanítják meg, hanem a (szak) tanárok tapasztalataikkal és életszerű példáikkal látják el a diákokat, hogy minél reálisabb képet kaphassanak a munkahelyi feladatokról és a munkával kapcsolatos elvárásokról. A megkérdezett hallgatók 39%-a szerint a szakiskola felkészíti őket a mindennapi életre, igaz 45%-a nem tudta eldönteni, amely alapján megállapítható, hogy ezeknek a hallgatóknak közel a fele, újból ugyanezt a szakmát és iskolát választaná. A hallgatók 72%-a szerint az iskolákban folyó oktatás keretén belül a hallgatókat felkészítik a vállalatoknál történő munkafolyamatokra, szakemberektől tanulhatnak, kérdezhetnek, olyan gépekkel és szerszámokkal dolgozhatnak életszerű körülmények között, melyek a végzést követően az elhelyezkedésnél tapasztalati segítséget nyújtanak (8. ábra). A hallgatók véleménye, hogy az elméleti és a gyakorlati oktatás egymáshoz viszonyított aránya megfelelő (77%) (9. ábra).

12. ábra Szakiskolai tudás hasznossága

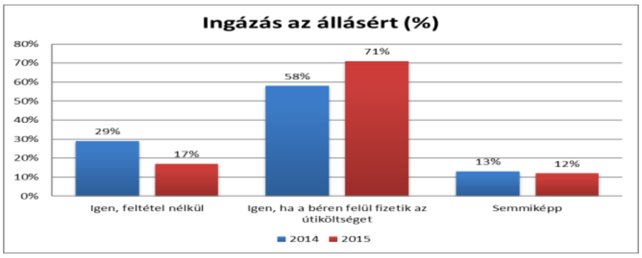


Forrás: saját szerkesztés N=100

A hallgatók a szakiskolai tanáraikról pozitív képet alkottak, 33%-uk teljesen egyetért és 45%-uk többnyire igen, azzal az állítással, hogy szaktanáraiktól sokat tanulhattak a képzési idejük alatt. A szakiskolai tanárok véleménye, attitűdje, a szakma szeretete nagymértékben befolyásolja a hallgatókat, hatással lehet a pozitív énkép kialakításában, jó irányba terelhetik őket, és megszerettethetik velük a szakmát. A hallgatók 78%-a pozitívan vélekedtek szakiskolai tanáraikról, a hallgatók 74-ánál igen erős szakma iránti szeretet alakult ki. A hallgatók 30%-a szerint a szakma, amit tanulnak, önmagában is elegendő lesz a munkaerőpiacon, 43%-a nem tudott állást foglalni és 27%-uk szerint szükség van egy második szakmára is.

Az hipotézis első része, mely szerint a képzési rendszertől függetlenül a diákok úgy vélik, hogy az elméleti és a gyakorlati oktatás aránya megfelelő volt az iskolai évek alatt, megtanítják a hallgatókat a közismereti tantárgyakra és a szakmai ismeretekre egyaránt igazolásra került. A hallgatók véleménye alapján (77%), a képzés folyamán a hallgatók megkapják az elméleti és gyakorlati képzéssel kapcsolatos ismereteket, tanműhelyekben és vállalatoknál is tanulhatnak profi szakemberektől és megfelelő arányúnak tartják a gyakorlati és elméleti oktatást.

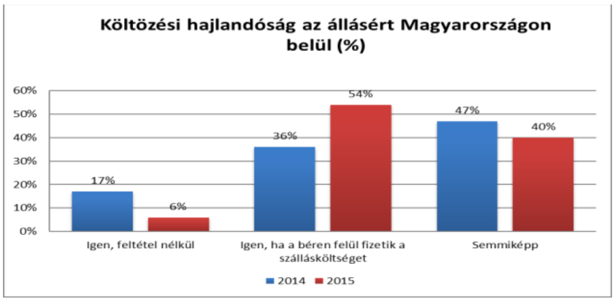
13. ábra Ingázási hajlandóság



Forrás: saját szerkesztés N=100

A munkaerő mobilitás fontos kérdés, amelyre a kutatás is kitér. A megkérdezett hallgatók között 12%-kal csökkent azok száma, akik feltétel nélkül vállalnák az ingázást az állásért és közel egy tizede egyáltalán nem költözne 2015-ben az előző felméréshez képest. Ezzel szemben 13%-kal nőtt azok aránya, akik ingáznának az állásért, ha a béren felül fizetik az útiköltséget. A felmérés vizsgálja, hogy a hallgatók akár költözési hajlandóságát egy állásért Magyarországon belül. Az eredmények alapján elmondható, hogy a megkérdezettek 17% vállalta a feltétel nélküli költözést 2014-ben, igaz 2015-ben ez megváltozott és már csak 6% költözne.

14. ábra Költözési hajlandóság



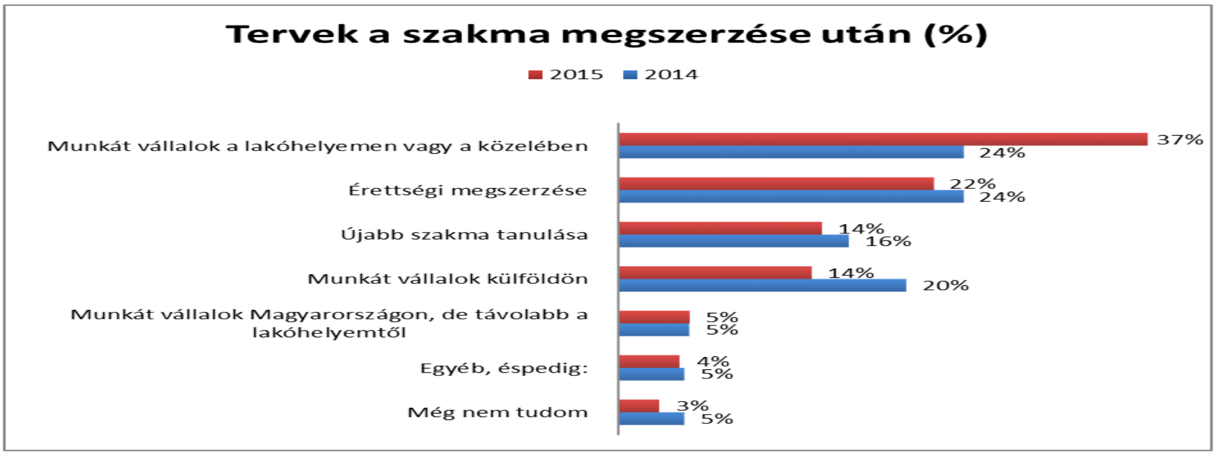
Forrás: saját szerkesztés N=100

A kétfelmérési időszakban megfigyelhető, hogy 2015-re 7%-kal csökkent azok aránya is, akik semmiképp nem vállalnák a költözést egy jobb állásért és 18-kal magasabb azok aránya, akik vállalnák a költözést, ha a szállásköltséget a vállalatok béren felüli juttatásként elszámolnák. A költözési hajlandóságot talán még jobban megfontolja az ember, mint az ingázást.

A hipotézis igazolása érdekében vizsgáltuk a kapcsolat szorosságát a költözési hajlandóság tekintetében Chi^2 négyzet és Cremer-féle együttható segítségével. A vizsgálati eredmények rámutatnak, hogy gyenge a kapcsolat – Cremer értéke: 0,24 - amely alapján megállapítható, hogy a költözési hajlandóság változott 2015-ben 2014-hez képest.

A kutatás vizsgálta a hallgatók jövőbeli terveit a szakma megszerzését követően (11. ábra). 2015-ben a hallgatók több mint egyharmada kilép munkaerő-piacra, amely emelkedést mutat 2014-hez képest.

15. ábra Jövőbeni tervek



Forrás: saját szerkesztés N=100

2014-ben a hallgatók 40%-a szeretné tanulmányait folytatni egy újabb szakma tanulásával vagy érettségi elvégzésével, amely eredmény egy enyhe 4%-os csökkenést mutat 2015-re. A megkérdezett hallgatók 14%-a külföldön szeretne munkát vállalni, amely 6%-os csökkenést mutat az előző vizsgálati időszakhoz képet. A külföldi munkavállalás csökkenése, hogy az adott megyében emelkedett a vizsgált szakmákban az álláshelyek száma, megfelelő lehetőséget találnak az elhelyezkedésre a fiatalok és elégedettek a számukra nyújtott munkalehetőségekkel mind anyagi, mind társadalmi megbecsülés szempontjából.

5. Összefoglaló

Magyarországon már évek óta problémát jelent a hiányszakmák kérdése, amelyet az állam különböző intézkedések által kívánja vonzóbbá tenni, színvonalukat növelni, a vonzeröjüket javítani, pozitív arculatot szervezni nekik és megfelelő státuszt elérni, hogy a diákok minél többen válasszák ezeket a képzéseket. A gazdálkodó szervezetek is részt vesznek ennek a sikernek az elérésében. A kutatási eredmények két év összehasonlításában érdekes képet mutat a hiányszakmák és a munkaerő-piaci igények kapcsolatában. Az eredmények rámutatnak, hogy a hallgatók hiányszakmákról szerzett ismeretei, az elhelyezkedési esélyeikkel kapcsolatban és a munkalehetőségekről a közelben tájékozottak, amely eredményeket alátámasztja, hogy a 15-24 évesek és a szakiskolát vagy szakmunkásképzőt végzettek munkanélküliségi rátája is évek óta csökkenő tendenciát mutat. A munkaadók tipikus elvárásaival, a munkakörülményekkel szemben a hallgatók bizonytalanok, nincsenek tisztában az elvárásokkal és a munkakörülményekkel. Alacsony tájékozottsági szintet mutatnak az eredmények a fizetési ismeretek területén egyaránt. A szakiskolai oktatás folyamán a hallgatók megszerzik azokat a tudás alapot, amely hasznos a munkahelyen és a gyakorlati képzési helyeken szakemberek segítik őket, hogy szakmájukról a legtöbbet tudjanak meg és használni is tudják ezt a tudást az életben. A munkaerő-piacokkal kapcsolatos ismereteiket a családi tapasztalatok és kapcsolatok erősen befolyásolják.

A vizsgálatok alapján az általunk felállított hipotézis, mely szerint a képzési rendszertől függetlenül a diákok úgy vélik, hogy az elméleti és a gyakorlati oktatás aránya megfelelő volt az iskolai évek alatt, valamint megtanították őket a közismereti tantárgyakra és a szakmai ismeretekre egyaránt elfogadásra került. A hipotézis második részében megfogalmazásra került a feltételezés, hogy a diákok hajlandók költözni egy jobb állás elérésért, mobilabbakká váltak a két vizsgálati időszak alatt. A kapott eredmények rámutatnak, hogy enyhe változás figyelhető meg ezen a területen, amely alapján elmondható, hogy a fiatalok mobilitása is változott. A fiatalok nyitottak ingázni egy a számukra szakmájuknak megfelelő munkahelyért, amely segíti szakmai fejlődésüket. A fenti kutatási eredmények tapasztalatai rámutatnak, hogy országos szinten nagyproblémát jelent a szakemberhiány. Fontos lenne, már az általános iskolában már 6-7. osztályban a pályaorientáció keretében a szakmák megismerése a diákokkal és pályaválasztási tájékoztatók segítségével a lehetőségek megismertetése. Javaslataink között szerepel Országos pályaorientációs rendszer kialakítása, amely segítséget nyújt a fiatalok részere a pályaválasztás lehetőségét életpálya-tanácsadási képzések segítségével. A rendszer segíti a fiatalokat a pályaválasztási döntéseik meghozatalában, nyomon követi pályafutásukat, biztosítja számukra az aktuális pályainformációs eszközök elérését. További javaslatunk új generációs pályaorientációs eszközök-, együttműködések fejlesztése és koordinációja a megyei munkaügyi központok és kirendeltségek, valamint a helyi kamarák és az oktatási intézmények között. Az együttműködések elősegítik a gazdaság és a munkaerő-piaci igények változásra a gyors és hatékony válaszokat az oktatás rendszerétől.

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Önéletrajz

Csehné dr. habil Papp Imola

Csehné Dr. Papp Imola a Szent István Egyetem Gazdaság- és Társadalomtudományi Kara, Társadalomtudományi és Tanárképző Intézet habilitált egyetemi docense, intézeti igazgató, a Munkaerőpiaci tanszék vezetője. Közgazdász diplomáját 1993-ban kapta meg a Budapesti Közgazdaságtudományi Egyetemen, majd 1996-ban az ELTE Állam- és Jogtudományi Karán jogi szakoklevelet szerzett. 2001-ben summa cum laude minősítéssel nyerte el a PhD fokozatot neveléstudományok területén az Eötvös Loránd Tudományegyetemen, a közgazdasági ismeretek gyakorlatorientált oktatása témakörben. Pályaorientációs pedagógus szakvizsgát tett 2004-ben (SZIE GTK). 2015-ben habilitált a Debreceni Egyetemen Gazdálkodás- és Szervezéstudományok területén.

Számos tantárgy oktatásában, a tananyagok fejlesztésében vett részt. Oktatott kötelező tárgyai tantárgyfelelősként: Munkaerő-piaci ismeretek, Munkaerő-piaci politika, Regionális munkaerő-gazdálkodás, Foglalkoztatáspolitika, Oktatásgazdaságtan, Oktatáspolitika, Emberi erőforrás gazdálkodás.

Részt vesz a Szent István Egyetem Gazdálkodás- és Szervezéstudományok valamint az Enyedi György Regionális Tudományok Doktori Iskola munkájában, opponensként, oktatóként, témakiíróként és témavezetőként. PhD-képzés keretében tárgyfelelőse

A foglalkoztatáspolitika területi vonatkozásai című tárgynak (SZIE GSZDI). A Magyar Tudományos Akadémia Emberi Erőforrások Gazdaságtana Tudományos Bizottság tagja; a Gazdálkodás az emberi erőforrásokkal albizottság titkára 2010-től; 3 folyóirat szerkesztőbizottsági tagja; International Research Institute szakértője; Magyar Közgazdasági Társaság, Magyar Regionális Tudományi Társaság, Humán Szakemberek Országos Szövetségének tagja.

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A Szent István Egyetem Gazdálkodás és Szervezéstudományi Doktori Iskola II. éves hallgatója. Közgazdász diplomáját 2012-ben szerezte a Szolnoki Főiskolán, majd ezt követően a Szent István Egyetemen Közgazdász szakoklevelet kapott és a Budapesti Corvinus Egyetemen Közgazdász-tanár oklevelet szerzett.

Számos tantárgy oktatásában vett részt: Emberi erőforrás gazdálkodás, Vállalkozástan, Vállalati Pénzügyek, Vállalatgazdaságtan, Személyes vezetés.

Kutatási területei: Menedzsment tanácsadás, Emberi erőforrás Gazdálkodás, Oktatásfejlesztés.

A Humán Szakemberek Országos Szövetségének a tagja.

Tőkeszerkezet a gyakorlatban- egy kérdőíves felmérés eredményeinek bemutatása

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A tőkeszerkezeti döntések, vagyis az idegen és saját források optimális arányának meghatározása során számos olyan tényező van, amely befolyással bír a mit, miből finanszírozzunk kérdésekre. Véleményünk szerint, az optimális tőkeszerkezet kialakítása, a jövedelmezőség és a hatékonyság fokozásán keresztül, kimutathatóan az eredmény növekedéséhez vezet.

A rövid elméleti összefoglalás mellett, jelen tanulmányban egy kérdőíves felmérés alapján vizsgálunk különböző tőkeszerkezetet érintő kérdéseket, az ezzel kapcsolatos véleményeket, a vállalkozások mérete (foglalkoztatottak létszáma, pénzügyi adatok), területi elhelyezkedése és iparági hovatartozása tekintetében. Kutatásunk során a források preferenciáiról, a cégvezetők finanszírozást, valamint a pénzügyi tanácsadást érintő ismereteiről, tapasztalatairól kívánunk képet adni. Ezáltal azokat hiányosságokat kívánjuk feltárni, amelyek kiküszöbölésén keresztül, a tőkeszerkezet tudatos alakításával, javítható a vállalkozások jövedelmezősége, hatékonysága.

Bevezetés

A gazdaság „motorjaiként” aposztrofált kis- és középvállalkozások (kkv-k) működésének támogatása, finanszírozási forrásaiknak bővítése napjainkban is meghatározó jelentőséggel bír mind a nemzeti, mind az Uniós gazdaságpolitikában, tekintettel a nemzetgazdaság egészében betöltött meghatározó szerepükre. Tudvalevő, hogy a hitel típusú források befolyásolják a vállalkozások tőkeköltségeit, amelyek hatással vannak a vállalat értékére. Ugyanakkor a különböző finanszírozási alternatívák közötti választás során több tényező együttes hatásának figyelembevételével kell a menedzsmentnek meghoznia döntéseit. Továbbá a tulajdonosi érdekek olyan tőkeszerkezet kialakítását kívánják meg, amely maximalizálja a vállalat jövedelemtermelő képességét, tehát a tőkeszerkezeti döntések, vagyis az idegen és saját források optimális arányának meghatározására vonatkozó kutatások az alapvető vállalati célok, azaz a profit és a tulajdonosok vagyonának maximalizálásában is kiemelkedő szerepet játszanak. Ennek keretein belül vizsgálják az egyes tőkeelemek (alternatív) költségeit, kockázatait valamint foglalkoznak a likviditás fenntartásával is. Mindezek gyakorlati alkalmazása, tekintettel az említett befolyásoló tényezőkre, minden vállalkozás esetében különböző módon és mértékben valósul meg. Jelen tanulmányban bemutatott kutatásunk során egy kérdőíves felmérés alapján a tőkeszerkezeti döntéseket befolyásoló tényezők közül elsősorban a cégvezetők kockázatvállaló képességét, valamint a saját és idegen források közötti preferenciákat, kiemelt figyelemmel a vállalkozás méretére és a cégvezetők iskolai végzettségére, szakmai tapasztalataira, továbbá megvizsgáljuk a tanácsadás, mint döntést előkészítő, támogató szolgáltatás igénybevételének gyakoriságát. A helyzetkép alkotás mellett tanulmányunk célja, hogy a tőkeszerkezet és a jövedelmezőség közötti korreláció teoretikus bemutatásán keresztül, felhívja a figyelmet a pénzügyi kultúra fejlesztésének, a stratégiai szintű pénzgazdálkodásnak a fontosságára.

Tőkeszerkezet

A vállalkozásokat a fogyasztókért folytatott verseny állandó fejlődésre, az erőforrások hatékony felhasználásra ösztöni (Túróczi, 2016, 2017). Az, hogy a vállalatok hogyan, milyen formában találják meg a versenyelőny-forrásaikat, azt számos tényező befolyásolja. Az azonban biztos, hogy ha egy vállalat tartósan versenyben szeretne maradni, elhanyagolhatatlan a vállalkozás megfelelő finanszírozási struktúrájának a kialakítása. Számos lehetőség áll a vállalkozások rendelkezésére, amennyiben forrás bevonása a cél. Bármilyen finanszírozási alternatíva révén is jut forráshoz a vállalkozás, a gazdálkodó szervezet tőkeszerkezeti döntéseinek középpontjában azon kérdés áll, hogy mi alapján dönt a pénzügyi vezető a lehetséges finanszírozási eszközök között, azaz miként alakítja a tőkeszerkezetet. Egyszerűen megfogalmazva a tőkeszerkezet nem más, mint a pénzeszközök azon kombinációja, amelyekkel a vállalat a reáleszközökbe történő beruházását finanszírozza (Myers, 2001). Ahhoz azonban, hogy a tőkeszerkezetet megfelelő egyensúlyban lehessen tartani, fontos szerephez jut a kontrolling tevékenység, mint a vezetés hatékonyságát támogató munkafolyamat, ami része a stratégiai és operatív irányításnak – tehát a modern menedzsment szemlélet elengedhetetlen eleme (Túróczi, 2015).

A vállalati tőkestruktúra csak a hosszú lejáratú idegen és a korlátlan ideig rendelkezésre álló saját tőkét jeleníti meg. Az idegen tőke mögött kötvénykibocsátást feltételezünk, a saját tőke léte pedig részvénykibocsátáson alapul (Perridon et.al, 2012). Ebből következően az idegen finanszírozás analóg a kötvényfinanszírozással, a saját finanszírozás azonos a részvényfinanszírozással (Katits, 2002; Tangl, 2016).

A tőkeszerkezet tehát nem más, mint a vállalat beruházásai által realizálódott pénzáramlások a vállalat eszközeire vonatkozó, hosszú távú pénzügyi követelések tulajdonosai közötti szétosztása. A menedzsment elsődleges feladata, hogy maximalizálja a vállalat értékét, és mindezt úgy, hogy a vállalat tőkestruktúrája hozzájáruljon ehhez.[7] Két központi kérdés megválaszolásán keresztül érhetik el mindezt. Egyrészt a beruházási döntések vizsgálata szükségeltetik, amely során azt vizsgáljuk, hogy az adott beruházás mennyivel járul a vállalat értékének növeléséhez. Másrészt az elemzés tárgyát kell, hogy képezze a finanszírozási döntés is, mely tulajdonképpen a forrásbevonás, azaz a tőkeszerkezet változtatásának a vállalat piaci értékére gyakorolt hatását jelenti. A vállalat top-menedzsmentje tehát, amikor azon központi kérdés megválaszolásáról kíván döntést hozni, hogy egy adott beruházást milyen formában finanszírozzon, valójában arról dönt, hogyan alakul a követelések

[7] Egy vállalat értékének meghatározására alapvetően két értékelési eljárási mód ismeretes. Az egyik, az úgynevezett ***Net operating income (NOI)*** – nettó működési eredmény. Ezen módszer alapján a vállalat értéke nem más, mint a vállalati operatív eredmény tőkeköltséggel diszkontált értéke. A másik módszer az úgynevezett ***Net income (NI)*** - nettó eredmény. Ezen módszer azonban a nettó eredményt veszi figyelembe a jelenérték számításakor, ezt diszkontálva a tőkeköltséggel.

tulajdonosainak összetétele (Krénusz, 2005). Ezen döntések hatására történik változás az idegen tőke és saját tőke arányában, vagyis a tőkeáttételi mutató értéke változik meg.

1.1.A vállalati tőkestruktúra

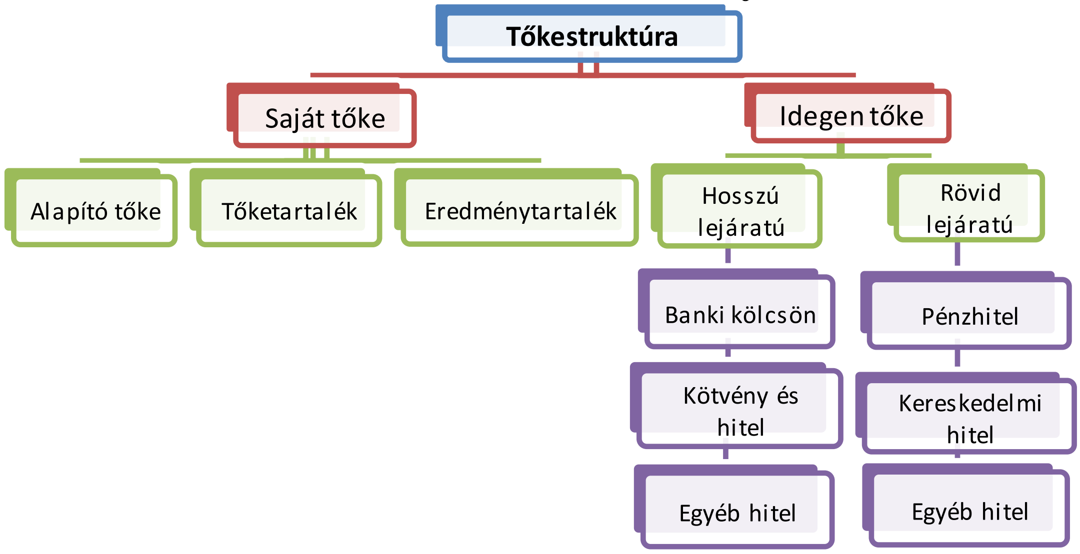
A következőkben a vállalati tőkeszerkezet elemzésére kerül sor. Ahhoz, hogy a folyamatok egyértelműek legyenek, fontosnak tartjuk, az alapvető fogalmak meghatározását. A vállalkozásoknak megfelelő nagyságú vásárlóerővel kell rendelkezniük ahhoz, hogy a termeléshez / szolgáltatásnyújtáshoz szükséges termelési tényezőket

- munkatermékeket,
- immateriális javakat,
- forgóeszközöknek minősülő különböző anyagokat,
- szolgáltatásokat és
- az élőmunkát

meg tudják vásárolni (Sóvágó, 2010). Mindezt együttesen *vállalkozói tőkének* nevezzük. A rendelkezésre álló tőke befolyással van a vállalkozás méretére, piaci mozgásterére valamint a profitszerzési lehetőségekre is. A tőkeszerzés szempontjából megkülönböztethetünk olyan forrásokat, amelyeket a vállalkozás maga hoz létre és olyan forrásokat is, amelyeket a tőkepiacon szereznek be. Ezek alapján ön- és külső finanszírozásról beszélhetünk.

Az 1. ábrán bemutatott tőkestruktúra egyes elemei közti választás során a menedzsmentnek több befolyásoló tényező együttes hatásának figyelembevételével kell meghoznia finanszírozási döntéseit. Ezeket a befolyásoló tényezőket két nagy csoportra bonthatjuk, így megkülönböztetünk mikró és makró tényezőket. Mikró tényezők alatt többek között az eszközök jellegét, az üzleti kockázatot, a menedzsment motivációját, szakértelmét, a vállalkozás növekedési kilátásait, gazdasági- pénzügyi helyzetét, a vállalati életciklust értjük. A tőkeszerkezeti döntéseket befolyásoló makró tényezők közé elsősorban az adott ország tőkepiacának és bankrendszerének fejlettségét, az infláció alakulását valamint a kamatszint nagyságát soroljuk.

1. ábra: A tőkeszerkezet sémája



Forrás: Sóvágó L. (2010): Vállalati pénzügyek alapjai

Az elsődleges kérdés tehát az, hogy létezik-e olyan optimális tőkeszerkezet, amellyel maximalizálni lehet a vállalat vagyonát. Ezen kiemelkedő kérdés mellett számos egyéb kérdés merülhet fel a tőkeszerkezetre vonatkozóan. *Pataki (2003)* az alábbi kérdéseket fogalmazta meg:

1. Létezik-e optimálisnak tekinthető tőkeszerkezet?
2. Növelhető-e a vállalat piaci értéke a tőkeszerkezet módosítása által?
3. Mennyi adósságot lehet vállalnia egy vállalkozásnak? (Adósság / Saját tőke aránya)
4. Milyen legyen az alkalmazott osztalékpolitika?
5. Ha a tőkeszerkezet optimumát meg lehet határozni, akkor mit tekintsünk az optimalizálás kritériumainak?

A finanszírozási lehetőségek közti választást számos elméleti modell kutatja, melyek többsége a tőkeszerkezetre, vagyis a saját- és idegen tőke arányára vezethető vissza. A modern vállalati pénzügyek története viszonylag még rövid múltra tekint vissza. Az 1950-es évektől kezdve egy sor addig feltáratlan teória született, amelyek együttesen egy újszerű finanszírozás alapjait teremtették meg. Gutenber (1987) szerint egy vállalat elsődleges célja az optimális szintű idegen finanszírozás megteremtése, ami a tőkeköltségek minimalizálásával érhető el. Ezt a szakirodalom tradicionális szemléletnek nevezi. A statikus modell *Modigliani és Miller (1958)* tőkeszerkezeti elméletén nyugszik. Az újszerű, neoklasszikus tőkeelméletek kiindulópontjának az 1950-es évek végén (1958) megjelenő *optimális tőkeszerkezet* elmélete tekinthető, melynek középpontjába az eladósodottság fokának (saját és idegen tőke aránya) a finanszírozási költségekre gyakorolt hatása került.

1.2.A finanszírozási stratégiák értelmezése

Ahhoz, hogy eredményes döntés születhessen, nem hagyható figyelmen kívül a vállalat finanszírozási stratégiája sem, hiszen ez is nagymértékben befolyásolja a helyes tőkeszerkezet kialakítását. A finanszírozási stratégia nem más, mint az eszközök és források lejárati struktúrájának összevetése (Wöhe et.al, 2013). Egy vállalkozás működésén belül alapvetően két típusú eszközökről beszélhetünk. Tartós finanszírozást igénylő, tartósan rendelkezésre álló eszközök és átmeneti finanszírozást igénylő, átmeneti eszközök. Tartósan finanszírozandó eszközök közé alapvetően a befektetett eszközöket sorolhatjuk. Azonban a forgóeszközöknek is van egy olyan része, amely forgóeszköz állomány a termelésben tartósan jelen van, amelynek a finanszírozásáról tartósan kell gondoskodni. Ezen forgóeszközök részét is a tartós eszközök közé kell sorolni. Létezik így egy olyan érték, amely folyamatos megújuláson megy keresztül és ez az érték az eszközállományban ott szerepel. (Pl. egy minimális készletszint a folyamatos termeléshez szükséges, ami azonban tartósan finanszírozandó.) Minden vállalkozásnál beszélhetünk tartósan rendelkezésre álló forrásokról, valamint átmenetileg rendelkezésre álló forrásokról (saját tőke és a tartósan rendelkezésre álló források).

A szakirodalom alapvetően 3 finanszírozási stratégiát különböztet meg, azonban azt gondoljuk, hogy létezik egy negyedik lehetőség is, ami talán a hazai kisvállalati szektorban a legmeghatározóbb. A vállalkozás finanszírozási egyensúlya akkor valósulhat meg, amennyiben az ún. ***illeszkedési elv***nek megfelel a vállalat mérlege. Az illeszkedés törvénye azt a közgazdasági összefüggést mondja ki, hogy a tartósan lekötött eszközöket tartós forrásból, míg az átmenetileg lekötött eszközöket pedig átmeneti forrásból célszerű finanszírozni. Vagyis azt mondhatjuk, hogy rendkívül fontos a források esedékességének, valamint az eszközök megtérülésének az összhangja (Illés, 2002). Ezen törvényszerűség alkalmazása alapján három különféle finanszírozási stratégia különböztethető meg.

1) *Szolid finanszírozási stratégia:* Teljes megfelelés az illeszkedési elvnek *(Elvi lehetőség)*
2) *Konzervatív finanszírozási stratégia:* Nagyobb arányú tartós forrás kerül bevonásra a tőkeszerkezetbe, a rövidlejáratú kötelezettségek rovására.
3) Agresszív finanszírozási stratégia: A rövid lejáratú források nem csupán az átmeneti eszközöket, hanem a tartós eszközöket is finanszírozzák
4) *Spontán finanszírozás:* A finanszírozási stratégia hiányát jelenti.

Gyakorlati megközelítésben nézzünk néhány fontos megállapítást: A források költségét tekintve azt mondhatjuk, hogy az agresszív stratégia a legolcsóbb és a konzervatív stratégia a legdrágább. A vállalkozás nyereségességének fokozásához az a stratégia képes legjobban hozzájárulni, amelyik a legkisebb költséggel jár, tehát az agresszív stratégia. Kockázati szempontból azonban a konzervatív stratégia a legkedvezőbb, hiszen ez alapvetően a tartós forrásokra támaszkodik. Ez a típus nagyon drága, azonban a legkisebb kockázat párosul mellé. Az agresszív finanszírozási stratégia pedig a legkockázatosabb. Alapvetően a kockázatok körében a likviditási és a refinanszírozási kockázatot különböztethetjük meg. A likviditási kockázatot a likviditási mutató értékével magyarázható, míg a refinanszírozási kockázat alatt azt értjük, hogy amennyiben döntően rövid kötelezettségek jelennek meg nagyobb részben, akkor felmerül a folyamatos megújításuk igénye. Az sem elhanyagolható, hogy milyen költségek mellett tudjuk megújítani ezeket.

Ezen szempontokat figyelembe véve próbálhatjuk megválaszolni azon kérdést, hogy melyik a legkedvezőbb stratégia. Természetesen egyértelmű válasz nem adható. A hazai kis- és középvállalkozások döntő hányada azonban nem aszerint kezdi el termelő vagy szolgáltatás nyújtó tevékenységét, hogy már a kezdetekkor elhatározzák, hogy milyen finanszírozási stratégiát fognak alkalmazni. Így azt mondhatjuk, hogy a finanszírozási struktúra (elsősorban a kisebb vállalkozásoknál) ad hoc jellegű, azaz spontán finanszírozást alkalmaznak. A vállalkozások fejlődésének egyes fázisaiban azonban visszamenőleg következtethetünk a korábban alkalmazott finanszírozási stratégiára. Erre alkalmas az ún. *nettó forgótőke* mutató, melynek értéke a forgóeszközök és a rövid lejáratú kötelezettségek különbségeként határozható meg. Létezik azonban egy másik meghatározási módszer is, amelynek keretében a nettó forgótőke értéke az alábbiak szerint is számítható:

hosszú lejáratú kötelezettségek – (befektetett eszközök – saját tőke)

A belső mérlegegyezőséget követően mindkét meghatározási mód azonos eredményre vezet. Amennyiben a számított nettó forgótőke értéke negatív előjelű, akkor agresszív finanszírozási stratégiáról beszélhetünk. Pozitív előjel esetében azonban mind a három finanszírozási típus előfordulhat. Minél nagyobb a pozitív előjelű nettó forgótőke értéke, annál valószínűbb a konzervatív stratégia megléte.

1.3. Tőkeáttétel fogalmának értelmezése és gyakorlati jelentősége

Minden vállalkozás működésében találhatóak olyan költségek, amelyek függetlenek a termelési vagy szolgáltatási tevékenységektől, valamint a vállalkozás bevételeinek és jövedelmeinek alakulásától. Ezen kötelezettségek megnövelik a tulajdonosok jövedelmének ingadozásait, a jövedelmek változékonyságát (Pataki, 2003). A vállalatok fix költségeinek a kockázat növelő hatását *tőkeáttétel*nek (leverage) nevezzük. A tőkeáttétel alapját a vállalkozások fix költségei képezik. A fix költségek egyrészt a folyó működéssel kapcsolatosak, másrészt pedig bizonyos finanszírozási források használatakor merülnek fel (Illés, 2009). A fix és a változó költségek összessége lassabban növekszik, mint az eladási forgalom. Mindebből következik, hogy az állandó működési költségek felnagyítják a gazdálkodó szervezet üzemi eredményének változását (pozitív vagy negatív irányban) az eladási forgalom változásához képest. Az állandó költségeknek ezt a felnagyító hatását mozgatóerő-hatásnak nevezi a szakirodalom. A tőkeáttételek esetében fontos megjegyezni a kockázat fogalmát is, hiszen a két fogalom szorosan összekapcsolódik. A pénzügyekben általában a jövőbeli cash-flow-kal kapcsolatos bizonytalanságot értjük kockázat alatt, vagyis azon lehetőséget, hogy egy befektetés jövőbeni tényleges hozamai eltérnek az elvárt hozamtól (Pálinkó, 2006). A kockázat alapján beszélhetünk üzleti és pénzügyi kockázatról (Volkart et.al, 2014). Az egyes kockázati típusok az adott tőkeáttételnél kerülnek elemzésre.

A tőkeáttételnek alapvetően két típusát különböztethetjük meg annak függvényében, hogy a felmerülő fix költségek a vállalatok költségszerkezetéhez vagy a tőkeszerkezetéhez kapcsolódnak.

Az eszközök használatához kapcsolódó állandó költségek hatását *működési tőkeáttételnek (DOL – degree of operating leverage)* nevezzük. A fix működési költségek közé többek között az értékcsökkenési leírást, a közüzemi díjakat, a bérleti és biztosítási díjakat, az alkalmazotti béreket és egyéb juttatásokat sorolhatjuk (Sóvágó, 2010). A működési tőkeáttétel azon felnagyító hatásként definiálható, amely a vállalat által használt fix működési kötelezettségekből származik. A működési tőkeáttétel mértéke azt fejezi ki, hogy az értékesítési forgalom adott szintjén a forgalom 1%-os változása esetén hány %-kal változik a vállalat működési eredménye. Számítása az alábbi képlettel történik:

$$\mathrm{DOL} = \frac{\text{Üzemi eredmény } \%\text{−os változása (EBIT)}}{\text{Eladási forgalom } \%\text{−os változása}}$$

Minél magasabb a DOL értéke, annál érzékenyebb a cég üzemi eredménye az eladási forgalom változására. Azt mondhatjuk, hogy a DOL nem más, mint egy vállalkozás üzleti kockázatának mérőszáma. Üzleti kockázat alatt pedig egy vállalkozás folyó működési eredményének (EBIT, kamatfizetés és adózás előtti jövedelem) bizonytalanságát értjük. Egy vállalkozás EBIT értékére számos tényező gyakorol hatást, közülük az eladási forgalom és a folyó működési költségek a legfontosabbak.

A *pénzügyi tőkeáttétel* a vállalkozások tőkeszerkezetével van összefüggésben. Pénzügyi tőkeáttétel (financial lecerage) akkor keletkezik, amikor a vállalt olyan forrásokat is használ befektetései finanszírozására, amelyekhez fix költségek kapcsolódnak (Illés ,2013). A pénzügyi tőkeáttétel (DFL - degree of financial leverage) azt fejezi ki, hogy a kamatfizetés és az adózás előtti jövedelem 1%-os változása hány %-os változást idéz elő a tulajdonosok jövedelmében.

$$\mathbf{DFL} = \frac{EPS\ \%-os\ változása}{EBIT\ \%-os\ változása}$$

Amennyiben egy vállalkozás a fent bemutatott tőkeáttétel mindkét típusát alkalmazza, a működési és a pénzügyi tőkeáttétel hatása összekapcsolódik, egymást felerősítik. A két tőkeáttétel multiplikatív hatásának együttesét kombinált tőkeáttételnek (combinen leverage) nevezzük. A kombinált tőkeáttétel mértéke (DCL – degree of combined leverage) azt fejezi ki, hogy az eladási forgalom 1%-os változása milyen mértékű változást idéz elő a tulajdonosok jövedelmében.

$$\mathbf{DCL} = \mathrm{DOL} \times \mathrm{DFL}$$

$$\mathbf{DCL} = \frac{EPS\ \%-os\ változésa}{Eladási\ forgalom\ \%-os\ változása}$$

A képlet alapján megállapítható, hogy amennyiben a pénzügyi vagy a működési tőkeáttétel növekszik egy cégnél, az egyben a kombinált tőkeáttétel növekedését is előidézi és ezen keresztül egységnyi árbevétel változás annál nagyobb változást idéz elő a tulajdonosok jövedelmeiben.

A tőkeáttétel alapos ismerete előnyt jelent(hetne) a vállalatvezetők számára, hiszen alkalmazása révén fokozható a jövedelmi szint. Problémát jelent sokszor a pénzügyi tőkeáttétel képletében szereplő EPS, vagyis az egy részvényre jutó nyereség értelmezése egy hazai normál vállalkozás esetén. Fontos azonban hangsúlyozni, hogy a pénzügyi tőkeáttétel nincsen részvénytársasági formához kötve, hiszen az EPS értelmezhető úgy is, hogy egységnyi jegyzett tőkére jutó adózott eredmény. Az, hogy a menedzsment mit választ egységnek (10.000 Ft, 100.000 Ft stb.) az már tőlük függ. Két probléma azonban felvetődik. Egyrészt ha nagyon alacsony a jegyzett tőke, akkor nincs értelme számolni a mutatóval. A másik probléma az EBIT megbízhatóságára vezethető vissza. Ugyanis ha a tulajdonosi "érdekeltség" fiktív költségelszámolásban ölt testet, akkor az eredménykategóriák tartalma megkérdőjelezhető.

Az utóbbi évtizedekben az volt megfigyelhető, hogy a tőkeáttétel foka növekedett. Azonban az elmúlt 2-3 év ezen szempontból teljesen más képet mutat, hiszen a kamatszintek mindenhol jelentősen zuhantak, így aztán a pénzügyi tőkeáttételnek a hatása kevésbé jelentkezik. A korábbi években azonban a magasabb kamatszintek és a magasabb pénzügyi tőkeáttétel miatt igen magas volt a kombinált tőkeáttétel foka is. A tőkeáttételek növekedése pozitív hatást is gyakorolhat a vállalkozásokra, amit azonban a vállalatvezetők gyakran figyelmen kívül hagynak. Ha egy cégnél magasabb a kombinált tőkeáttétel értéke, akkor egységnyi árbevétel változás hatására nagymértékben fog változni az EPS értéke. Amennyiben sikerül az árbevételt jelentősen növelni, abban az esetben ugrásszerűen nőhet a tulajdonosoknak a jövedelme. Azok a megfelelő pénzügyi kultúrával rendelkező vállalkozások, amelyek meglátják a tőkeáttételben rejlő pozitív lehetőségeket, képesek lehetnek azok hatását mesterségesen is befolyásolni. Ilyen esetben pl. a vállalat vezetése úgy dönthet, hogy akkor is vesz fel hitelt, ha még nem is lenne rá szükség feltétlenül, de kihasználják a benne rejlő lehetőségeket – még ha a kockázatok nőnek is -.

A primer kutatás bemutatása

A befolyásoló tényezők valamennyi csoportjára fókuszáló primer kutatásunk során azt vizsgáltuk, hogy a vállalkozások mérete, valamint a menedzsment szaktudása (iskolai végzettség szintje és szakterülete alapján) és tapasztalata (cégvezetéssel töltött évek száma alapján) hogyan befolyásolja az operatív és stratégiai szintű tőkeszerkezeti döntéseket, valamint ezek döntéseik meghozása során milyen arányban és milyen körülmények között veszik igénybe pénzügyi tanácsadó szolgáltatását.

1.4.Módszertan

Kutatásunkat a standard kérdőíves megkérdezést módszerére alapoztuk. A kvantitatív adatgyűjtés során használt strukturált kérdőív véglegesítése előtt próbakérdőívezést végeztünk. A kérdőívben zárt kérdések, továbbá skálatechnika és feleletválasztós kérdések is alkalmazásra kerültek. Az adatelemzés a Microsoft Excel, valamint az SPSS programcsomag segítségével történt. Az adatelemzést egyváltozós és többváltozós statisztikai módszerekkel végeztük. Mintavételi próbálkozásaink elején a reprezentativitásra törekedtünk, azonban azt tapasztaltuk, hogy a hazai társaságok félve nyilatkoznak a pénzügyi helyzetükről és a mindenkori gazdasági környezetről, beleértve a kormányzati, monetáris jellegű intézkedések általuk tapasztalt hatásaikat is. Így a reprezentatív mintavétel helyett a véletlen mintavétel módszerét alkalmaztuk, kiegészítve az ún. hólabda módszerrel, amelynek sajátossága, hogy amennyiben a vizsgálni kívánt csoport egyik/néhány tagját sikerül rávenni a kutatásban való részvételre, adatokat gyűjtünk, majd megkérjük, hogy adják meg más, a célzott populációba tartozó személyek elérhetőségét. (Schleicher, 2007)

A kérdőíves felmérés 2017-ben történt, az ország különböző régióiban működő 108 vállalkozás vezetője töltötte ki. A minta számossága és a mintagyűjtés alapján nem tekinthető reprezentatívnak, azonban a szerzők úgy vélik, hogy egy időbeli képet kaphatunk a menedzsment és vállalat valamennyi jellemzője, mint befolyásoló tényező és a tőkeszerkezeti döntések kapcsolatáról.

1.5. Az eredmények értékelése

Primer kutatásunk legfontosabb eredményeinek bemutatását a minta összetételének ismertetésével kezdjük.

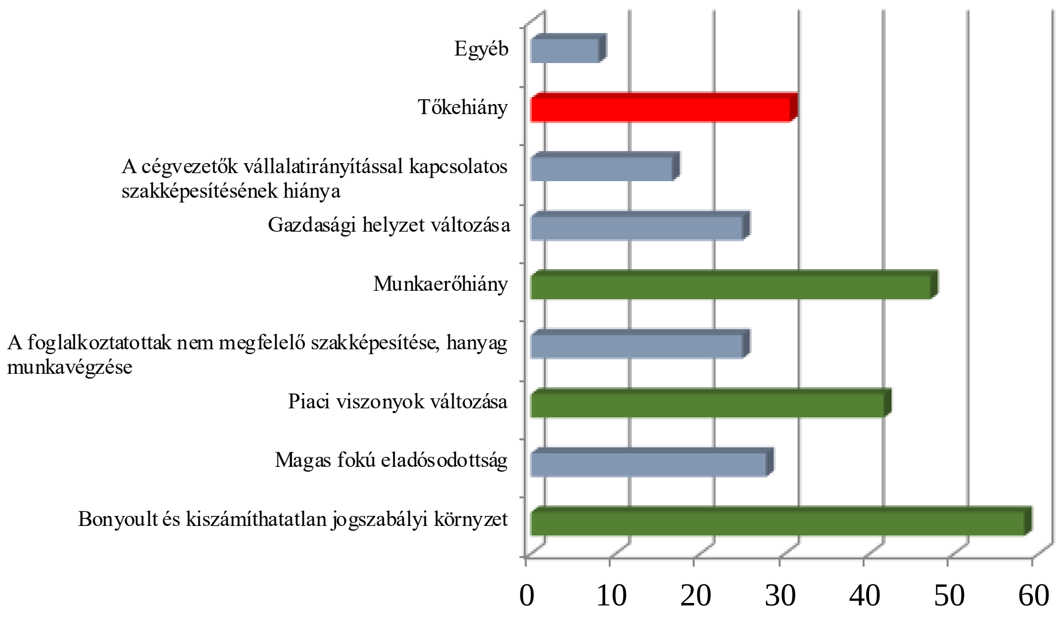
A foglalkoztatottak létszáma alapján történő csoportosításban az 1-9 főt foglalkoztató mikrovállalkozások aránya a legnagyobb (44%), az ettől nagyobb, 10-49 főt foglalkoztató kisvállalkozások a mintán belül 25%-os arányt képviselnek, míg a középvállalkozások (50-249 fő foglalkoztatott) a mintasokaság 31%-át alkotják.

A megkérdezett cégvezetők több mint ¾ része (42% egyetemi vagy magasabb, 36% főiskolai szintű) felsőfokú iskolai végzettséggel rendelkezik, így az alacsonyabb (felsőfokú szakképzés 8%, szakközépiskola/gimnázium 11% és szakiskolai 3%) képzettségi szinten lévő vezetők aránya nem éri el a 25%-ot.

A szakterület tekintetében a gazdasági végzettség (39%) dominanciája figyelhető meg, majd ezt követi a műszaki (22%) és az agrár (19%) terület. Alacsony arányukra való tekintettel a többi szakterületet (pl. jog, informatika, élelmiszeripari mérnök) a továbbiakban egyéb kategóriaként kezeljük.

Kutatásunk kiindulópontjaként arra kerestük a választ, hogy a gyakorlati cégvezetők szerint melyik az a 3 tényező, amelyik a leginkább veszélyezteti a vállalkozások hatékony működését. A kapott válaszok alapján (lásd 2. ábra) a bonyolult és kiszámíthatatlan jogi környezet jelenti a legnagyobb kockázatot, ezt követi a napjainkban egyre jelentősebb mértékben jelentkező munkaerőhiány, majd harmadik helyen a piaci viszonyok változása található. Ugyan az első 3 rizikófaktor között nem szerepel, de negyedikként, a válaszadók közel 30%-a gondolja úgy, hogy a tanulmány témája szempontjából kiemelkedő jelentőségű tőkehiány komoly veszélyeket jelent(het) a vállalkozás hatékony működése szempontjából.

2. ábra: A kockázati tényezők rangsora a kérdőívet kitöltők véleménye alapján



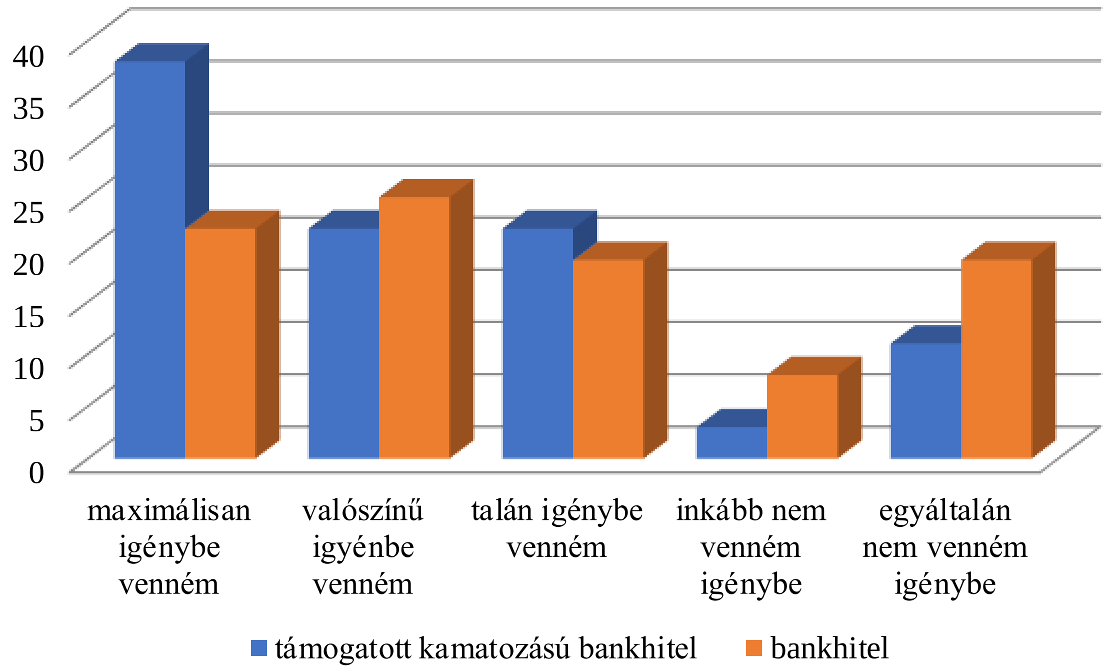
Forrás: Saját szerkesztés primer kutatás alapján

Majd megvizsgáltuk, hogy ennek a tőkehiánynak a mérséklése érdekében az egyes finanszírozási forrásokat milyen mértékben vennék igénybe a megkérdezett cégvezetők. Ennek eredményeként azt mondhatjuk, hogy a kedvező hitelpiaci konstrukciók ellenére is a megkérdezettek körében alacsony a támogatott kamatozású és a hagyományos bankhitelek népszerűsége. Nem éri el a 25%-ot azoknak az aránya, akik forrásszerzés esetén maximálisan igénybe vennék a **bankhitelek**et, és a **támogatott kamatozású bankhitelek** esetében is 40% alatti ez az arány, ugyanakkor a válaszadók több mint 15%-a egyáltalán nem fordulna a bankokhoz tőkeszerzés céljából. (lásd 3. ábra)

Egyébiránt a legtámogatottabb forrás a **visszaforgatott nyereség** (70%) és a **pályázati forrás** (55%). A **kockázati tőkét**, mint finanszírozási alternatívát a válaszadók 66%-a egyáltalán nem venné igénybe, továbbá forrásszerzés céljától a megkérdezettek több mint fele (53%)

semmiképp nem fordulna **barátok**hoz és **üzleti angyalok**hoz. Véleményünk szerint a kockázati tőke preferálásának nagymértékű elutasítása az adott vállalati életciklus mellett[8] az alacsony szintű pénzügyi kultúrával magyarázható.

3. ábra: Banki hitelek megítélése a kérdőíves felmérés alapján



Forrás: Saját szerkesztés primer kutatás alapján

A cégvezetők tőkeszerkezeti döntéseinek megismeréséhez a Likert-skálás megkérdezés módszerét választottuk, ahol összefüggést kerestünk a válaszok (egyetértési szintek) és a cégvezetők iskolai végzettsége között, azonban csak néhány esetben találtunk egyértelműen homogén csoportokat.

Az első állítás szerint a hitelfelvétel veszélyezteti a vállalkozás működését. A válaszadók közel fele (44%) nem ért egyet az állítással, ugyanakkor a tanácsadói tevékenységen keresztül ennek az aránynak a csökkentése a tőkeszerkezeti döntések elméleti hátterének ismeretében pozitív hatást gyakorolhatna a hitelpiac kiterjedése valamint a vállalati teljesítmények növekedése által a nemzetgazdaság teljesítményére is.

Az előzőekkel összhangban, a megkérdezettek alig fele (52%) egyetért azzal, hogy a vállalkozás stabil működése leginkább a nyereség visszaforgatásával érhető el.

Azzal az állítással, hogy a bankok elegendő és mindenki számára elérhető hitelkonstrukciót kínálnak, a gazdasági végzettségű cégvezetők közel 70%-a (a teljes minta közel fele) részben, vagy teljes mértékben egyetért, ugyanakkor sokan sorolták a kockázati tényezők közé a tőkehiányt. Az előző eredményekkel analóg, szintén az alacsony kockázatvállaló hajlandóságra, az

[8] A kockázati tőke olyan finanszírozási forrás, amely a pályájuk elején lévő, nagy potenciállal rendelkező, magas hozamot ígérő, de magas kockázatú, induló vállalkozások számár nyújt pénzügyi forrást.

eladósodottságtól való félelemre lehet következtetni. Ugyanakkor a válaszadók jelentős többsége (88%) problémának tekinti a szigorú hitelbírálatot.

Következtetések, javaslatok

A tőkeszerkezetre vonatkozó szakirodalmak áttekintése után rátértünk a finanszírozási és tőkeszerkezeti döntésekre vonatkozó empirikus kutatásunk eredményeinek ismertetésére.
Kutatásunk célkitűzése volt, hogy a vállalatvezetők és az általuk menedzselt vállalkozások különböző jellemzői alapján vizsgáljuk a tőkeszerkezeti döntések során felmerülő kockázatvállaló hajlandóságot valamint a szükséges ismeretek meglétét. Előzetes feltevésünkkel ellentétben, a tőkeszerkezetre vonatkozó döntések a menedzsment legmagasabb iskolai végzettségének szintjével, annak szakterületével nem hozható szoros összefüggésbe, mindez elsősorban a vállalkozás méretétől, iparági hovatartozásától és egyéb adottságaitól függ.
Tekintettel arra, hogy valamennyi nézőpont nem valós ismereteken alapszik, a napjainkban tapasztalható pénz és tőkepiaci trendekkel ellentétes véleményt tükröz, továbbá a kérdőív eredményei alapján elmondható, hogy pénzügyi döntéseik során a vállalkozásoknak csupán 55%-a vesz igénybe tanácsadói szolgáltatást, összességében a pénzügyi kultúra hiányával jellemezhetjük a hazai KKV szektort.
A fentiek, valamint az elméleti síkon megalapozott, a tőkeszerkezet és jövedelmezőség közötti korrelációra tekintettel fontosnak tartjuk a tanácsadás, mint szakértelmet és a piacra vonatkozó, naprakész ismereteket nyújtó szolgáltatás, a stratégiai tervezés átültetését a gyakorlatba, valamint a vállalkozások pénzügyi kultúrájának fejlesztését.

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A szerzők rövid életrajza

Gyurcsik Petronella

A Nemzeti Adó- és Vámhivatal Kelet-budapesti Adó- és Vámigazgatóságának munkatársa. Közgazdász oklevelét a Szent István Egyetem (SZIE) Gazdaság- és Társadalomtudományi Karán szerezte, pénzügy mesterszakon. Jelenleg a SZIE Gazdálkodás és Szervezéstudományok Doktori Iskolájában folytatja tanulmányait, ahol a kis-és középvállalkozások finanszírozását, tőkeellátottságát, a vállalati tőkestruktúra és a vállalati teljesítmény összefüggéseit kutatja, amely témakörökben folyamatosan publikál szakmai folyóiratokban és rendszeresen ismerteti kutatási eredményeit tudományos konferenciákon.

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Számos tantárgy oktatásában vett részt: Emberi erőforrás gazdálkodás, Vállalkozástan, Vállalati Pénzügyek, Vállalatgazdaságtan, Személyes vezetés.

Kutatási területei: Menedzsment tanácsadás, Emberi erőforrás Gazdálkodás, Oktatásfejlesztés.

A Humán Szakemberek Országos Szövetségének a tagja.

Üzleti és társadalmi innovációk beágyazottsága, kapcsolata[9]

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Absztrakt

A vevői elégedettség elérése és fenntartása a sikeres üzleti tevékenységek előfeltétele. A gyors technológiai és társadalmi innovációk időszakában a versenyképesség erősen függ az innovációtól. Az innováció-központú stratégiák ma fontosabbak, mint a költségcsökkentési stratégiák. Bár Schumpeter tágabb értelemben határozta meg az innovációt, beleértve a piaci és szervezeti innovációkat is, a tanulmányok gyakran figyelmen kívül hagyják az innováció gazdasági, vezetési-szervezési és társadalmi elemeit. A fejletteb területeken megfigyelhető technikai innovációk gyakran nem elérhetők a kevésbé fejlett területek számára, ahol a társadalmi innováció mint új eszköz és modell kínál felzárkózási lehetőséget.

Szervezeti szinten az innovációval kapcsolatos tanulmányok régóta a technológiai innovációra koncentráltak. Az elmúlt két évtizedben a társadalmi innováció hatásainak vizsgálata az innovációs tanulmányok új területe. Ezt az új irány részben azzal magyarázható, hogy számos empirikus tapasztalat kimutatta, hogy a társadalmi innováció nélkül a technológiai újítások lehetőségei csak részben hasznosíthatók. Az új technológiák bevezetése gyakran szükségessé teszi a szervezeti struktúrák és folyamatok megváltoztatását.

Tanulmányunkban az üzleti és társadalmi innovációk beágyazottságát, kapcsolatát vizsgáljuk. A kutatás fő célja azon szervezetek azonosítása és vizsgálata, amelyek az innováció segítségével jó gyakorlatot szolgáltatnak. A vizsgálat során az üzleti és társadalmi innovációs lehetőségek mellett az újszerű együttműködések szerepét határozzuk meg a versenyképesség növelése érdekében, kiemelve a jó gyakorlatok fontosságát.

Kérdőíves felmérés segítségével vizsgáljuk a szervezeti szintű innovációs lehetőségeket és törekvéseket, azonosítva az innovációs folyamat szereplőit, típusát, eredményeit és akadályait. A felmérés külön vizsgálja az üzleti és társadalmi innovációk közti kapcsolatot, a versenyképesség növelése érdekében végzett komplex innovációs tevékenységet.

A vizsgálat során arra a következtetésre jutottunk, hogy az üzleti és társadalmi innovációk egyformán fontosak a gazdasági, társadalmi és technológiai fejlődés megvalósításában. Az innovatív területek bővülése miatt az innovációk egymást kiegészítő folyamatok. A jó példák összegyűjtése során egyfajta adatbázis jön létre, amely lehetőséget teremt további innovációk generálására.

[9] A kutatást az EFOP-3.6.2-16-2017-00007 azonosító számú, Az intelligens, fenntartható és inkluzív társadalom fejlesztésének aspektusai: társadalmi, technológiai, innovációs hálózatok a foglalkoztatásban és a digitális gazdaságban című projekt támogatta. A projekt az Európai Unió támogatásával, az Európai Szociális Alap és Magyarország költségvetése társfinanszírozásában valósul meg.

Kulcsszavak: innováció, társadalmi innováció, versenyképesség, komplex innovációs tevékenység, jó gyakorlatok, innovációk beágyazottsága

1. Bevezetés

Az innovációt napjainkban a modern gazdaságok versenyelőnyeinek egyik legfontosabb forrásaként tartják számon [1]. A gazdaság fejlődésének, a hosszú távon nyújtott magas színvonalú teljesítménynek meghatározó tényezője lehet a megvalósult innováció, magasabb rendű versenyelőnyökhöz innovációra van szükség [2].

A tudás megszerzésének, adaptálásának és létrehozásának képessége meghatározza a vállalatok, szervezetek innovációs lehetőségeit, és ezen keresztül azok versenyképességét. Az Sundquist-jelentés (1988) szerint a technológiai, gazdasági és társadalmi változások kölcsönösen egymástól függenek, és a technológiai innováció hosszú távon pozitív hatással van a gazdasági fejlődésre [3]. A hosszú távú versenyképességet fokozza a technológiai fejlődés, a tanulási képesség és az innovációs képesség [4], [5]. Barsi [6] rámutatott arra, hogy ma a versenyelőnyök nem a termelési költségek csökkentéséből származnak, hanem a technológiai, szervezeti és irányítási innovációk adaptálásából.

Az innováció fogalmához köthető szakirodalmakat áttekintve, véleményünk szerint a 20. század végéig a legteljesebb meghatározás Schumpeter nevéhez kötődik [7], [8]. Ezt a definíciót alkalmaztuk kutatásunkban is.

„Az innováció új, vagy jelentősen javított termék (áru vagy szolgáltatás) vagy eljárás, új marketing módszer, vagy új szervezési-szervezeti módszer bevezetése az üzleti gyakorlatba, munkahelyi szervezetbe, vagy a külső kapcsolatokba” [9]. Az innováció definícióinak a tanulmányozása viszont rávilágít egy fontos problémára, az innováció relativitásának a kérdésére. Kotler [10] szerint „innovációnak tekintünk minden olyan árut, szolgáltatást vagy ötletet, amelyet valaki újnak észlel. Az ötletnek már hosszú története lehet, de annak, aki azt újnak látja, innovációnak számít.”

Az innováció térben és időben eltérő megjelenése relatívvá teszi annak újdonság tartalmát. Fontos tehát, hogy a vállalat számára új legyen, de nem kell szükségszerűen újnak lennie az ágazatban vagy a piacon. Ezáltal az értelmezés túlmutat az innováció „újítás” követelményén, azaz adott helyen az adott időben kell újdonságnak számítani, és ez már innováció. Véleményünk szerint ez az értelmezés elfogadható és helytálló, és meggyőződésünk, hogy ez biztosíthatja az innováció gondolatának, társadalmasításának a sikerét és a vállalati teljesítményéhez történő hozzájárulásának kimutathatóságát.

A technológiai és üzleti innováció nem tud választ adni minden társadalmi kihívásra. A természeti, anyagi erőforrások egyre szűkebben állnak rendelkezésre, így szükségessé válik a befektethető javak minél ésszerűbb, minél nagyobb társadalmi és gazdasági hatékonyságot elérő felhasználása. A hosszú távú megoldásokat igénylő társadalmi kihívások, amelyek egyaránt fakadhatnak belső és külső okokból (pl. elöregedés, migráció, hátrányos helyzetű térségek) újszerű társadalmi együttműködéseket követelnek meg. A társadalmi innováció szükséges lépés a fejlődés és a versenyképesség javításához, ahol az innovátorok szerepe hangsúlyos. Az innovátorok a helyi közösség, vagy tágabb értelemben a társadalom tagjai, akik szükségleteik ismeretében új vagy újszerű megoldásokkal elégítik ki a társadalmi kihívások determinálta igényeket.

A tanulmány vizsgálja az üzleti és társadalmi innovációk közti kapcsolatot, a versenyképesség növelése érdekében végzett komplex innovációs tevékenységet. A kutatás fő célja azon szervezetek azonosítása és vizsgálata, amelyek az innováció segítségével jó gyakorlatot szolgáltatnak. Az interjúk és kérdőíves felmérés során feltárt jó gyakorlatok közül két példa esettanulmányként kerül bemutatásra. Az esetfeldolgozás lehetővé teszi azon keretmodell azonosítását, amely az innovációk rendszerszerűsége mellett az üzleti és társadalmi innovációk közi kölcsönhatást is igazolja.

2. Irodalmi áttekintés

2.1. Üzleti és társadalmi innováció

2.1.1. Üzleti innováció

Általánosan elfogadott, hogy az üzleti innovációk alapvető célja a profitszerzés, azaz az ötletek generálása alapvetően nyereségszerző szándékkal valósul meg, valamint az üzleti innováció a termék- vagy technológiai innovációt, eljárás innovációt, szervezet innovációt és marketing innovációt foglalja magába. Az üzleti innováció célja a cég teljesítményének javítása, és általában a szellemi tulajdonjogok védelme. Az üzleti vagy más módon piaci hasznosítású innovációkat a következő tulajdonságokkal jellemezhetjük: eladható, alkalmazás után a vevőnek nem kell feltétlenül együttműködnie az innovátorral, a megvásárolt javakat, szolgáltatásokat, eljárásokat maga is használhatja rendeltetésszerűen. Ez jelenti az üzleti innovációk teljes piacképességét [11].

Az üzleti innovációról több szerző is megállapítja, hogy az innováció spillover (tovagyűrűző) hatásán keresztül nemcsak az innovátor számára, hanem a többi félnek, például a stakeholdereknek, például fogyasztóknak és a versenytársaknak is előnyös [12], [13], [14].

Az üzleti innovációból származó előnyöket az innovatív cég nem tudja teljes mértékben kihasználni, és az eljuthat más vállalatokhoz és a szélesebb közösséghez, feltételezve annak akár társadalmi hasznosulását. Az eladó innovátor ugyanakkor törekedhet az üzleti haszon fokozása érdekében a kapcsolat fenntartásara, akar kényszerpályák kijelölésével is. Ezért alkalmaznak olyan módszereket, melyek a további együttműködést serkentik. Ilyenek például a garancia feltételekhez kötött együttműködés, a fejlesztési opciók, az avulási figyelmeztetések. A megvalósult innovációk további jellemzője, hogy annak eredménye megismételhető, sokszorosítható, azaz legfeljebb jogi kizárólagossága, védelme teremthető meg (bár az informatikai jelenlét ezt is módosíthatja).

Ez az eredeti, lényegében az innováció hasznosulásának az üzleti gyakorlathoz kötődő megközelítése mára elavult, de a lényeges összefüggéseket jól mutatja. Napjainkra az innováció során felhasznált termelési tényezők köre tovább bővült, egyre gyakrabban képezik olyan erőforrások, mint a természeti és társadalmi környezet, a jogrend, a politikai viszonyok, a technológiai környezet, az erkölcsi normák stb. [11], [15].

Bár még széles körben elfogadott, hogy az innovációt a gazdasági folyamatok kontextusában szokás értelmezni, viszont az eredeti gazdasági, üzleti innováció értelmezésen érdemes túllépni. A társadalmi innovációt kutatók szerint ez úgy valósulhat meg, hogy az innováció fogalmát és folyamatát kiterjesztjük a környezetre is.

2.1.2. Társadalmi innováció

A társadalmi innováció a közösség jól-létét növelő, a társadalomban felmerülő kihívások kezelését segítő folyamat. Egységesen elfogadott definíciója nem ismert. Az OSLO Kézikönyv innováció meghatározását vizsgálva egy olyan fogalomként értelmezhető, amely a társadalomban megjelenő szükségletek kielégítését eredményezi, új vagy újszerű együttműködések, struktúrák mentén.

1. táblázat: A társadalmi innováció fogalmának értelmezései

SZERZŐ	ÉV	FOGALOM, ELMÉLET
Tarde, G.	1899.	társadalom mint bővülő hálózatos gazdaság
Hoggan, F.	1909.	társadalmi helyettesítés
Gábor, D.	1970.	a technikai innovációk elszakadtak a társadalmi újításoktól
Drucker, P.	1980.	innováció társadalmi kategória is
Zapf, W.	1989.	társadalmi változás
Mumford, D. M.	2002.	új ötletek - közös cél
Hazel, C.	2003.	társadalmi problémák megoldása az érintettek bevonásával
Mulgan, G.	2007.	társadalmi innováció által létrehozott társadalmi érték
Pol, E. - Ville, S.	2009.	életminőség javítása

Forrás: saját szerkesztés, G. Fekete [16] alapján

A társadalmi innováció folyamat, amely új vagy újszerű együttműködések formájában növeli a közösség cselekvési hajlandóságát [17]. A társadalmi innovációs törekvések fókuszában a közösség igényeinek kielégítése, problémáinak megoldása áll, ugyanakkor téves elképzelés kizárólag alulról szerveződő, állampolgári bevonáson alapuló folyamatként értelmezni. A társadalmi újítások hangsúlyos szerepe tetten érhető a regionális és makroszintű intézkedések hatására is. Ez a megállapítás előre vetíti azon csoportosítást, amely a társadalmi innovációk mikro- mezo- és makroszintjét különbözteti meg [18]. Véleményünk szerint a társadalmi innovációk formai csoportosítása egyaránt jelent megvalósulási (megvalósítási) kategóriákat és több szintű innovációs megjelenést. A civil szervezetek bevonása mint mikro szintű kezdeményezés jelenik meg, amelyet kiegészít a közösségi igényekre való reagálás (mezo szint) és a társadalom átalakítását eredményező makro szintű folyamat.

A társadalmi innováció a közösség jól-létének javítása érdekében új megoldásokat fogalmaz meg az adott közösség problémáira, és mint a kihívásokra reagáló eszköz, újszerű megközelítést eredményez a regionális aránytalanságok kezelésében is. A magterületeken a technikai és üzleti innovációk megoldást jelentenek az életminőség fejlesztési kérdéseiben, a lemaradó, periferiális területeken azonban szükségszerű olyan új kezdeményezések ösztönzése, mint a társadalmi újítások.

2.1.3. Üzleti és társadalmi innováció kapcsolata

A társadalmi innováció és a műszaki-gazdasági innovációk szoros összefüggésben állnak egymással. A társadalmi innováció egyfajta közege és kerete a technikai innovációk megvalósításának [19]. Komplementer folyamatokként az új innovatív bázisok – mint a társadalmi újítások területe – segítik a technikai innovációk megvalósítását és eredményességét, ugyanakkor egymás erejét növelve képesek a társadalom jelenlegi kihívásaira reagálni. A műszaki és gazdasági innovációkon túli innovációtípusok előtérbe kerülése összefüggést mutat az innovációk közti kölcsönösség feltételezésével.

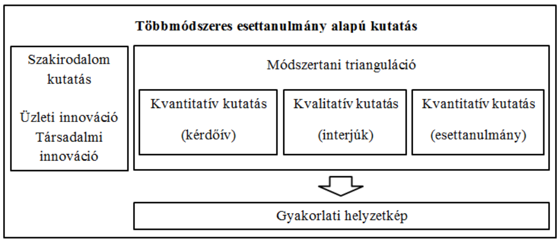
A társadalmi kezdeményezések hangsúlyos szerepére felfigyelt Gábor Dénes is, aki 1970-ben megjelent könyvében [20] tudományos, műszaki, biológiai és társadalmi innovációkat vizsgált, és arra a megállapításra jutott, hogy a technikai innovációk jelentősen elszakadtak a társadalmi újításoktól. Véleménye szerint a műszaki innovációk túlsúlya aránytalanságokat okozott az innovációk folyamatában, mivel a társadalmi jólét (és jól-lét) növelése érdekében tett erőfeszítések lemaradtak, a perifériára szorultak. Ebben az értelemben a társadalmi innováció olyan átfogó keretprogram, ami elsősorban nem a technikai innovációk mellett párhuzamosan tevékenykedő kezdeményezés, hanem az innovációk összességét ellenőrző és szabályozó „reform" [20]. A társadalmi innováció fogalmát Drucker [21] mélyítette el azzal a megállapításával, hogy újításra az élet minden területén szükség van, az újító kezdeményezések nem korlátozódhatnak csak a műszaki és gazdasági színterekre. Az 1980-as évektől a perifériális helyzetben lévő területek a felzárkózásra való igénnyel jelentkeztek. Ebben a felzárkózási folyamatban jelentős szerepe lett a helyi, közösségi szinten értelmezhető újító ötleteknek, a társadalmi innováció tevékenységének. A társadalmi innováció a technikai innovációkkal együttműködve képes a helyi, a közösség szintjén megjelenő kihívásokra reagálni, és a közösség jól-létét növelni. Az innováció társadalmi kategória is, és szükséges lépcsőfok a gazdasági fejlődéshez, a versenyképesség növeléséhez. A társadalmi innováció ösztönzését olyan új (vagy újszerű) együttműködések, kapcsolódások és szervezeti formák segítik, amelyek önmagukban is innovációként funkcionálnak a társadalom jól-létének növelése érdekében. A regionális aránytalanságokból fakadó lemaradások kezelésében és a felzárkózási lehetőségek megteremtésében jelentős szerepe van a társadalmi innovációnak. Zamf megfogalmazása szerint a „társadalmi innovációkkal új utakat, célokat érünk el, legfőképp új szervezeti formákat, új szabályozásokat, új életstílust, amelyek a társadalmi változás irányát megváltoztatják, a problémákat könnyebben megoldhatóvá teszik, és ezek értékesek, adaptálhatók és intézményesíthetők lesznek" [22].

3. Módszertan

A kutatás során a „háromszögelés" (triangulation) technikájának alkalmazásával kvantitatív és kvalitatív módszerek ötvözésére törekedtünk, mivel az üzleti és társadalmi innováció kapcsolatában a főbb változók meghatározása egynél több mérési módszer használatát kívánja meg. A „mérés háromszögeléseként" az adott probléma eltérő módon válik elemezhetővé, több adatforrás, módszer felhasználásával, és a következtetések érvényességének ellenőrzése is fokozható [23].

A mikro szintű vizsgálat során az üzleti és társadalmi innováció fogalmára, gyakorlatára vonatkozó kérdőív segítségével mértük a szervezeti szintű üzleti és társadalmi újításokat. Üzleti és társadalmi innovációt megvalósító vállalatok, társadalmi vállalkozások és civil szervezetek bevonásán alapult a megkérdezés, a minta a vizsgált szakirodalom, valamint az üzleti és társadalmi innovációt vizsgáló projektek alapján került meghatározásra. A felmérés résztvevői a Miskolci Egyetem partnerei, magyarországi vállalatok és szervezetek. A felmérést követően esettanulmány készítése segítette a társadalmi kezdeményezések kvalitatív vizsgálatát. A vizsgálat célja: a mikro szintű üzleti és társadalmi innovációk azonosítása, generálási lehetőségeinek meghatározása és a kapcsolatuk vizsgálata.

16. ábra: Kutatási módszertan



Forrás: saját szerkesztés

A kérdőíves felmérés és interjúk bemutatására, valamint az esettanulmányok feldolgozására az Eredmények fejezetben kerül sor.

4. Eredmények

4.1. <u>Online kérdőíves felmérés</u>

A kérdőíves felmérést 2017. szeptember és október hónapokban végeztük. A kérdőív 4 kérdéscsoportban összesen 15 kérdés kapcsán vizsgálja az üzleti és társadalmi innovációk beágyazottságát és kapcsolatát Magyarországon. A kérdőívet 128 szervezet, vállalat töltötte ki. A vizsgálatban való részvétel önkéntes, a válaszadás anonim volt, a felmérés lebonyolítása EvaSys adatfeldolgozó rendszerrel történt.

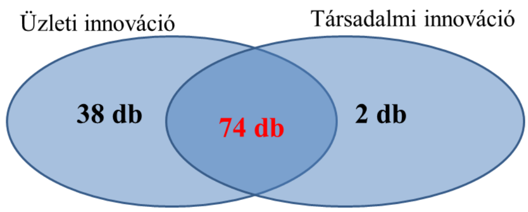
A kérdőív kérdéscsoportjai:

- általános szervezeti információk,
- technikai innovációkra vonatkozó kérdések (fogalom, tervezett és megvalósított innovációk, sikerek és akadályok),
- társadalmi innovációkra vonatkozó kérdések (fogalom, tervezett és megvalósított innovációk, sikerek és akadályok),
- technikai és társadalmi innovációk kapcsolata, várható kölcsönhatás.

A mintában Magyarországon telephellyel rendelkező vállalatok, szervezetek, önkormányzatok, kamarák, egyéb szakmai szervezetek vannak jelen, ahol a válaszadók általában valamilyen vezető beosztásban tevékenykednek.

Az első kérdések arra irányultak, hogy megtudjuk, hogy a megkérdezettek közül vannak-e olyanok, akik üzleti és/vagy társadalmi innovációt végeztek. A közel 500 megkérdezett vállalat és szervezettől 128 válasz érkezett, és abszolút pozitív eredménynek tekinthetjük, hogy egyre többen végeznek innovációs tevékenységet, amit a felmérés is alátámaszt, mindössze 14 olyan válaszadó volt, aki nem valósít meg sem üzleti, sem társadalmi innovációt.

17. ábra: Üzleti és/vagy társadalmi innovációt megvalósító szervezetek, vállalatok



Forrás: saját szerkesztés

A kérdőíves felmérés alapján 74 olyan vállalat, szervezet azonosítható, amely üzleti és társadalmi innovációt egyaránt megvalósít. Megállapítható, hogy elenyésző a kizárólag társadalmi innovációt végző szervezetek száma. Az interjúk alapján bizonyíthatóvá vált, a társadalmi innováció az idő előrehaladtával üzleti innovációt generál, és az üzleti innovációkhoz is kapcsolódik társadalmi innovációs tevékenység az esetek kb. 50%-ban.

Az alábbi táblázatok tovább vizsgálják, hogy innováció megvalósulása esetén a válaszadók milyen típusú innovációkat hajtanak végre.

2. táblázat: Végzett-e innovációt az ön szervezete az elmúlt 5 évben?

		Termék innováció	Technológia/gyártási eljárás innováció	Szervezeti innováció	Marketing innováció
Igen	112	48	68	82	38
Nem	16				

Forrás: saját szerkesztés

3. táblázat: Végzett-e társadalmi innovációt az ön szervezete az elmúlt 5 évben?

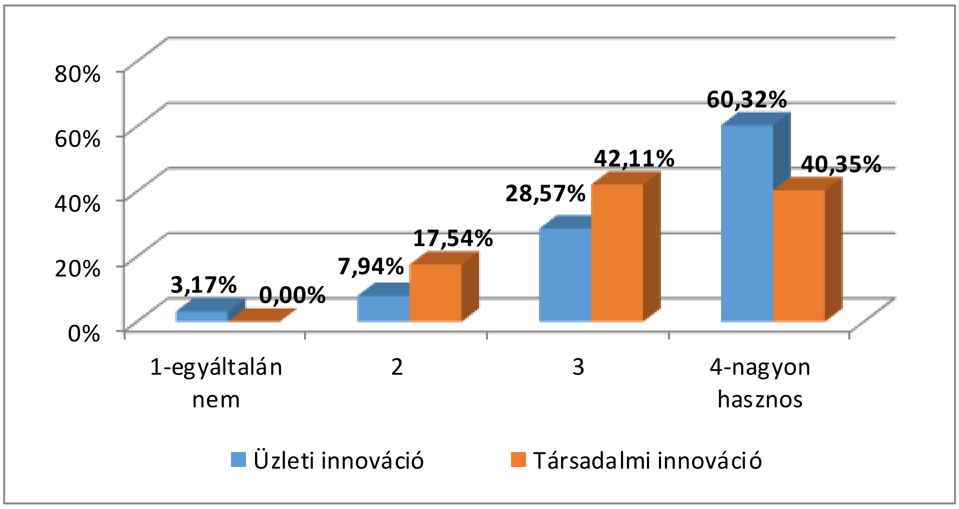
		Önkéntesség	Oktatás	Kultúra	Egészség	Helyi igény	Együttműködés	Egyéb
Igen	76	40	76	44	40	44	70	6
Nem	52							

Forrás: saját szerkeszté

s

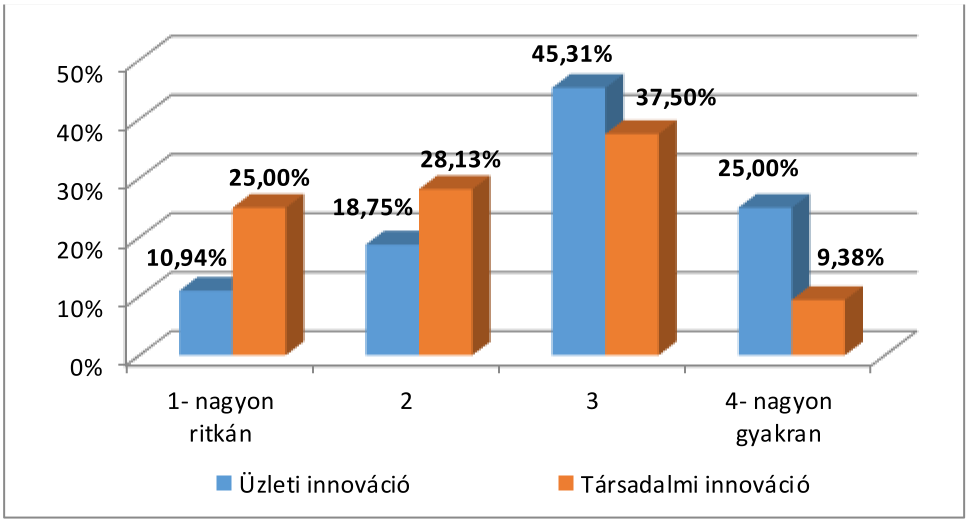
A társadalmi innováció esetén az egyéb kategória többnyire a fiatalok továbbtanulási, képzési és mentorálási folyamatait foglalja magában.

18. ábra: Véleménye szerint hasznos-e az innováció/társadalmi innováció megvalósítása az Ön szervezete számára?



Forrás: saját szerkesztés

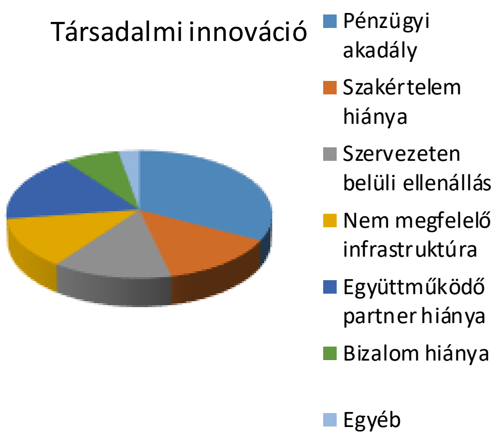
19. ábra: Milyen gyakran végez innovációt az Ön szervezete?



Forrás: saját szerkesztés

Hasonlóképpen alakul az üzleti és társadalmi innováció tekintetében azok hasznosságának megítélése. Minkét esetben többségben vannak azok akik, ha megvalósítják az innovációt, akkor azt mindenképen hasznosnak tartják és többen vannak a mintában a rendszeres innovációt végzők, mint akik eseti jelleggel teszik azt.

20. ábra: Véleménye szerint milyen akadályai lehetnek az innovációnak / társadalmi innovációnak (ha nincsen) vagy a gyakori innovációnak (ha csak eseti jelleggel fordul elő) az Ön szervezeténél?



Forrás: saját szerkesztés

A kérdőíves felmérés alapján az üzleti és társadalmi innováció főbb akadályai:

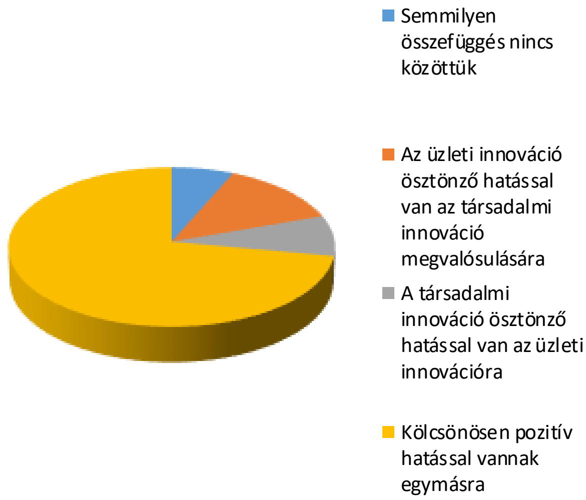
- pénzügyi,
- szervezeten belüli ellenállásbeli,
- szakértelem hiányából fakadó korlátok.

Az üzleti innováció egyéb akadályai között szerepel:

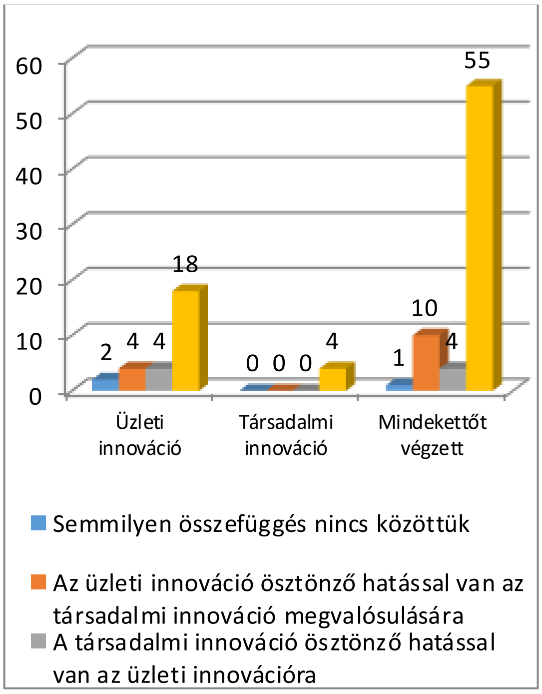
- az innovációt nem a szervezet hasznosítja,
- a tulajdonos szeret mindent kézben tartani, így sokszor nehéz az előrelépés,
- szakmai konferenciákon hasznosítják a tudást,
- szükség van a vevők jóváhagyására, ez időnként hosszabb időt vesz igénybe,
- speciális körülmények, természeti hatások kiküszöbölésének nehézségei jelentkeznek.

A társadalmi innovációt gátló egyéb tényezők közül kiemelkedik a szabad kapacitás hiányának szerepe.

21. ábra: Véleménye szerint van-e kapcsolat az üzleti innováció és a társadalmi innováció között?



22. ábra: Véleménye szerint milyen kapcsolat van az üzleti innováció és a társadalmi innováció között? (üzleti és/vagy társadalmi innovációt végzettek körében)



A harmadik kérdéscsoport az üzleti és társadalmi innováció kapcsolatát és annak beágyazódottságát vizsgálja. A válaszadók többsége (több, mint 90%) szerint megfigyelhető, kapcsolat, sőt közel 70% úgy gondolja, hogy ez egy kölcsönösen egymást ösztönző pozitív kapcsolatot jelent. Tovább elemezve az összefüggéseket megfigyelhetjük, hogy aki egyaránt végez üzleti és társadalmi innovációt, az ő esetben még erősebben megfigyelhető ez a kölcsönösen ösztönző hatás.

A kérdőíves felmérés alapján kijelenthető, hogy az üzleti innováció fogalma ismert, a társadalmi innováció fogalmát viszont kevesen ismerik. A megvalósított innovációk újdonság-foka szerint az újító kezdeményezések újak a szervezet számára vagy az országban, legfőbb akadályuk pedig a pénzügyi források hiánya.

4.2. Interjú

A kutatás során 7 üzleti és 7 társadalmi innovációt megvalósító vállalat, szervezet képviselőjével készítettünk interjút. A vizsgálat elsődleges célja az üzleti és társadalmi innovációk kapcsolatának elemzése, beágyazottságuk igazolása volt. A kölcsönhatás vizsgálata során olyan vállalatokat, szervezeteket kérdeztünk meg, akik az előzetes kutatás, valamint a kérdőív alapján innoválnak, illetve üzleti és társadalmi újításokat is megvalósítanak.

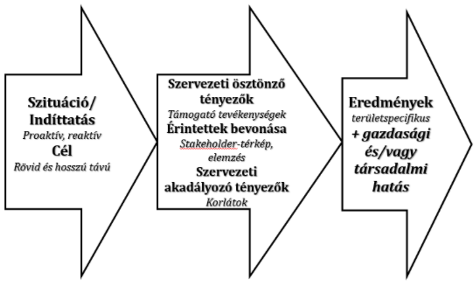
A félig strukturált interjú kérdéscsoportjai:

- általános szervezeti információk,
- üzleti innováció mint saját koncepció
- társadalmi innováció mint saját koncepció,
- megvalósított üzleti és/vagy társadalmi innovációk,
- tervezett üzleti és/vagy társadalmi innovációs törekvések,
- üzleti és társadalmi innovációk kapcsolata (és lehetőségei).

Az interjúk alapján megállapítható, hogy társadalmi innováció sok formában van jelen, de mást értenek alatta. A főbb akadályok – a kérdőíves felméréstől kissé eltérően – elsősorban a szakértelem és az önkéntesség hiánya. Szintén gátló tényezőként jelenik meg az együttműködő partnerek korlátozott száma, és a bizalom, valamint a pénzügyi források hiánya.

A kérdőíves felmérés és interjúk alapján az alábbi keretmodellt határoztuk meg.

23. ábra: Innovációs folyamat rendszerszerű működése - tényezők modellje



Forrás: saját szerkesztés

A keretmodell az innovációk rendszerszerűségét is mutatva három tényezőcsoportra bontja az innovációs folyamatot. Az indukáló feltételek jelentik a kiindulási szituációt és a reakciót az innovációs kihívásokra, valamint a kitűzött cél részletes, rövid, illetve hosszú távú meghatározását. A transzformáció során megjeleníthetők a szervezeti ösztönző és akadályozó tényezők, valamint az érintettek bevonása. Az eredmények vizsgálata során azonosíthatóvá válnak azok a gazdasági és/vagy társadalmi hatások, amelyek az innováció elsődleges eredményei felett jelentkeznek.

4.3. Esettanulmány

A keretmodell tesztelése két – üzleti és társadalmi innovációt megvalósító szervezet – esettanulmányként való bemutatásával zajlott.

4.3.1. Üzleti innováció – esettanulmány

Üzleti innovációk megvalósulásának kutatása már elég hosszú múlttal rendelkezik, mely többségében termék- vagy eljárás innovációkat vizsgál. Ezt a kérdőíves felmérés eredményei, valamint Deák, Kiss [24] korábbi ilyen irányú kutatásai is alátámasztják. A kiválasztott esettanulmány egy olyan termék- és eljárás innovációt mutat be, melynek a gyakorlati bevezetése pozitív társadalmi hatást is generált. Egy Borsod–Abaúj-Zemplén megyei vállalakozás siló tartályos fuvarozó tevékenysége során a tartálykocsik tisztítása végeztével veszélyes hulladék keletkezett, melynek kezelése számos megoldandó problémát jelentett a vezetőnek. Innovációs projekt során egy magyarországi kutatóhellyel történt szakmai együttműködés révén kifejlesztettek egy önjáró gépezetet, mely emberi tényező igénybevétele nélkül végzi a tartálykocsit tisztítását és az új innovatív tisztítási technológiának köszönhetően a folyamat végtermékeként keletkező folyadékot nem kell külön veszélyes hulladékként kezelni, hanem szabadon elvezethető a csatornarendszerbe. A megvalósult új termék és eljárással a vállalat innovációs díjat is elnyert és külön kiemelték annak környezetkímélő tulajdonságait.

4.3.2. Társadalmi innováció – esettanulmány

A társadalmi innováció mint új eszköz a mindennapi kihívások megoldására, leginkább a települések szintjén érhető tetten. A regionális szinten történő elemzés során ismertté válnak azon önkormányzati innovatív megoldások is, amelyek új együttműködések (szervezetek és egyének között) formájában jönnek létre, megteremtve a fenntartható, rugalmas és nyitott települési szintű vezetést. . A társadalmi innováció esetén az innovátorok főképp polgármesterek vagy civil szervezetek vezetői, akik a közösség érdekében fejlesztést végeznek, illetve gazdasági innováció elindításával társadalmi kihívásokra is választ adnak [22].

Egy Szabolcs-Szatmár-Bereg megyei kis település példája megfelelő módon igazolja azon feltevésünket, amely szerint a társadalmi innováció további innovációkat, pozitív irányú gazdasági elmozdulást generál. Az esettanulmány címe: Malac-valóságshow[10]. Az önkormányzat támogatásával megvalósuló program sertéstartási lehetőséget kínál a résztvevők számára. A folyamat során nincs szükség személyes megjelenésre, interneten keresztül rendelhető meg az állat, amelyet majd a sertéstelepen nevelnek szakképzett dolgozók. A malac tulajdonosának lehetősége nyílik – webkamerán keresztül – az örökbefogadott állat megtekintésére, ellátásának meghatározására, azaz minden döntés a tulajdonosé. A kezdőösszeg befizetésén túl 6 havi részletben kell hozzájárulni a sertés gondozásához. Ezt követően lehetővé válik a feldolgozás, amely termékei hazavihetők vagy tovább értékesíthetők (a környék üzemei felvásárolják).

A program értékelése a tényezőcsoportok alapján:

- Szituáció/indíttatás: önkormányzat helyi igényekre reagál (nincs munkahely, turizmus fejlesztésre szorul, újszerű együttműködés igénye).
- Cél: munkahelyteremtés (szakképzett munkaerő), állampolgárok bevonása.
- Szervezeti ösztönző tényezők: szakértelem hasznosítása, helyi sajátosságok kihasználása, önfenntartás ösztönzése.
- Szervezeti akadályozó tényezők: önkéntesség és bizalom hiánya.
- Érintettek bevonása: önkormányzat, társadalmi vállalkozások állampolgárok és civil, illetve gazdasági szervezetek, vállalkozások újszerű együttműködése.
- Eredmények: 100 malac, 8 új munkahely (főállású), turizmus fejlődik, helyi tudás kiterjesztése valósul meg + gazdasági hatás: helyi bevételnövekedés.

5. Következtetés

Az innovációs eredménytáblát és más innovációs teljesítményt mérő kimutatást elemezve láthatjuk, hogy gazdasági növekedésünk sokkal kisebb hányadát teszi ki az innováció. Míg az Amerikai Egyesült Államok és Nyugat-Európában a gazdasági növekedés 70-75 százaléka az innovációból adódik, míg hazánkban ez mindössze 42-43 százalék, továbbá folyamatosan csökken a bejelentett szabadalmak száma. A technológiai és üzleti innováció nem tud választ adni minden társadalmi kihívásra, a természeti és anyagi források egyre szűkebb rendelkezésre állása miatt szükségessé válik a befektethető javak nagyobb társadalmi és gazdasági hatékonyságot elérő felhasználása, a társadalmi innováció megjelenésére.
Az üzleti és társadalmi innovációt vizsgáló kutatás alapján megállapítható, hogy az újítások az újdonság foka szerint többnyire a szervezet számára jelentenek új megoldásokat. Az üzleti innovációt megvalósítók egy idő után az újszerű együttműködések során társadalmi innovációt generálnak, valamint a társadalmi innovációt szinte minden esetben üzleti innováció is követi, így igazolható, hogy komplementer folyamatok.
A társadalmi innováció mint új eszköz és modell vesz részt – az üzleti innováció mellett – a versenyképesség növelésében. A társadalmi innováció mint peremfeltétel segíti az üzleti innovációk megvalósítását.
A kutatás további kutatási irányokat is kijelöl. A továbbiakban fókuszba kerül a stratégiai összehangolás és a világos, felelősségteljes cél meghatározása és

[10] http://legyenmalacod.hu/

vizsgálata, amely az innováció (üzleti-technológiai, vagy társadalmi) megvalósíthatóságát javítja. Külön elemezzük a vezetés elhivatottságát az ügy iránt, amelynek szerepe meghatározó. Ezek mellett az érintettek bevonása is kulcsfontosságú, így egy ilyen irányú elemzés is elengedhetetlenné válik.

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A szerzők rövid életrajza

Tóthné Kiss Anett

2006 óta a Miskolci Egyetem oktatója vagyok. Főbb kutatási területem: innováció, innovációs teljesítménymérés, továbbá projektmenedzsment, kompetenciamenedzsment, teljesítménymenedzsment témában is kutatok és oktatok. Oktatói munkám mellett az egyetemen minőségügyi referensi feladatokat látok el.

Balaton Károly

2015. februártól tanít egyetemi tanárként a Miskolci Egyetem Gazdaságtudományi Karán. Ezt megelőzően 37 évig oktatott a Budapesti Corvinus Egyetemen és jogelődjeinél. 2016-tól vezeti a kar Vállalkozáselmélet- és Gyakorlat Doktori Iskoláját. Oktatási és kutatási területe a vezetés és szervezés, a stratégiai menedzsment és a társadalmi innováció. Publikációi számos hazai és nemzetközi folyóiratban jelentek meg.

Az egyetemi hallgatók vállalkozói hajlandóságának intézményi meghatározói

S. Gubik Andrea, Bartha Zoltán

Miskolci Egyetem

Absztrakt

Széles körben elfogadott, hogy a vállalkozói aktivitás fontos összetevője a gazdasági fejlődésnek, a munkaerőpiaci előrejelzések ráadásul azt mutatják, hogy a munkaerő egyre nagyobb része válik önfoglalkoztatóvá a jövőben. A sikeres vállalkozóvá válás meghatározói nagyon összetettek, cikkünk e területhez kíván hozzájárulni az egyetemi hallgatók vállalkozói hajlandósága és aktivitása, valamint az intézményi tényezők közötti kapcsolat vizsgálatával. Elemzésünkhöz többek között a GUESSS adatbázist (az egyetemi hallgatók vállalkozói hajlandósága és aktivitása), a GLOBE felmérést (normák és értékek), és a Világbank Ease of Doing Business adatait (formális szabályok) használjuk fel. Vizsgálatunkba az OECD országokat vonjuk be.

Bevezetés

Empirikus tesztek igazolják, hogy van kapcsolat a vállalkozói aktivitás és a gazdasági növekedés között (Van Stel e al. 2005), ezért a közgazdaságtan egyik alapproblémáját, a gazdasági fejlődés forrásainak kutatását, a vállalkozói aktivitás mögött meghúzódó tényezők feltárásaként is megfogalmazhatjuk. Napjainkban a vállalkozói aktivitást és a vállalkozói eredményességet az ún. vállalkozói ökoszisztémák működésével szokás modellezni (ld. pl. Szerb 2017, Tóth-Pajor, Farkas 2017). Isenberg (2010) a vállalkozói ökoszisztéma hat kulcselemét emeli ki (melyek még további összetevőkre bonthatók): politika, kultúra, tőke, piacok, humán tőke, támogatás.

A gazdasági fejlődés kutatásának egy másik, napjainkban ugyancsak népszerű irányzata az ún. intézményi megközelítés. Ezen irányzat egyik legismertebb alakjának, Douglas Northnak a definícióját használva, az intézmények (az idézet pontos helyén: intézményi szerkezet) formális szabályokból, informális korlátokból és a kikényszerítésük módjainak kombinációjából állnak (North 2005, p. 5). Látnunk kell, hogy a vállalkozói ökoszisztéma Isenberg-féle modelljében az intézmények ugyancsak helyet kapnak, tehát megállapítható, hogy a vállalkozói aktivitásra az intézmények is hatást gyakorolnak. Hatásuk elsősorban a politikai összetevőnél (pl. a vállalkozásindításhoz és működtetéshez kapcsolódó szabályok rendszere, az adózás és ösztönzés szabályai), és a kultúránál (pl. milyen belső mozgatói vannak a vállalkozóknak) jelenik meg, de a többi között is találhatunk intézményekhez köthető elemet (pl. hitel- vagy tőzsdei szabályozás, oktatási rendszer).

Tanulmányunkban a vállalkozói aktivitás és a formális (szabályozás) és informális (kultúra) intézményi elemek mérhető változói közötti kapcsolatot vizsgáljuk. A vállalkozói aktivitást a GUESSS (Global University Entrepreneurial Spirit Students' Survey) felmérések segítségével számszerűsítjük, vagyis arra vonatkozóan vannak adataink, hogy az egyetemi hallgatók körében hányan folytatnak vállalkozó tevékenységet (vállalkozói aktivitás), ill. hányan terveznek vállalkozást indítani (vállalkozói szándék). A formális intézmények mennyiségi ismérveit a Világbank Doing Business adatbázisából emeltük át, az informális intézményeket pedig a GLOBE projekt (House et al. 2004) által kifejlesztett kérdések segítségével mértük, mely kérdések – ezek egy szűk köre, ami négy kulturális dimenzió kvantifikálására használható – a GUESSS adatbázisban is megtalálható volt.

A cikkben ismertetjük a vállalkozási tevékenység intézményi meghatározottságának irodalmát, bemutatjuk a kultúra mérésének GLOBE-féle módszertanát és a vállalkozói aktivitással való összefüggésének empirikus tesztjeit. Ezt követően áttekintjük az adatforrásainkat, részletesen leírjuk az elemzésünk eredményeit, és végül kitérünk az ezekből levonható következtetésekre.

Irodalmi háttér

Az új intézményi közgazdaságtan, mely elnevezést Oliver Williamson nevéhez kötik (Snowdon 2016, p. 114), megközelítésmódjában erős kettőség érvényesül. Mikroökonómiai aspektusból az intézmények azért fontosak, mert a nem tökéletesen racionális egyének gazdasági viselkedésének értelmezésében segítenek. Makroszempontból viszont abban rejlik a jelentőségük, hogy bizonyos intézmények gazdasági értelemben hatékonyabb viselkedésre ösztönöznek, mint mások, ami a fejlődés kulcstényezőjévé teszi őket. A makroszempontú irányzat tesztjei ugyancsak két csoportra oszlanak: egyes szerzők az intézmények makrogazdasági teljesítményre gyakorolt hatását elemzik (pl. Knack, Keefer 1995, Ahlerup et al. 2009, Tabellini 2010) mások viszont a vállalati teljesítménnyel való kapcsolatot vizsgálják. Chacar és társai például megállapítják, hogy az intézmények olyan mérőszámai, mint a trösztellenes szabályok erőssége, a képzetlen munkaerő piacának rugalmassága vagy a termékfelelősség szabályozásának erőssége hatnak a vállalatok teljesítményére (Chacar et al. 2010). Rámutattak arra is, hogy a kevésbé szabályozott környezetben (Nagy-Britannia) létrejövő start-upok kisebb mérettel indulnak, és gyorsabban növekednek, mint a jobban szabályozott környezetben (Spanyolország) lévők

(Capelleras et al. 2008). Lu és társai kimutatták, hogy Kínán belül a tulajdonjogot jobban védő városokban a vállalatok termelékenysége magasabb (Lu et al. 2011). A tanulmányunkban bemutatott elemzés ez utóbbi kutatási irányhoz áll közel. Azt mutatja be, hogy a formális és informális intézmények mérőszámainak országokra jellemző értékei milyen kapcsolatban állnak a társadalom egy csoportjával, az egyetemi hallgatóknak a vállalkozói aktivitásával és vállalkozói hajlandóságával.

Az új intézményi közgazdaságtan megosztott abból a szempontból is, hogy mik tekinthetők intézményeknek. North már idézett definíciója szerint a formális és informális szabályok egyaránt intézménynek minősülnek, és az informális szabályok egyik legfontosabb összetevője maga a kultúra. Voigt (2012) külső és belső kikényszerítésű szabályokat különít el; belső kikényszerítésű az, amit a közösség tagjai magukra és mindenki másra is érvényesnek, kötelezőnek éreznek, és éppen ezért megint csak szorosan kapcsolódik a kultúrához. Az, hogy milyen viselkedési szabályok érvényesek a szűk, családi közösségeken belül, ill. a tágabb közösségben, belső kikényszerítésű, társadalmilag kódolt szabály, de egyben egy olyan tényező, amit a kultúrakutatások, például a GLOBE is mér.

Más szerzők igyekeznek határozott különbséget tenni az intézmények és a kultúra között (pl. Tabellini 2010, Maseland 2013). Ebben a megközelítésben a kultúra nem minősül intézménynek, azoknál mélyebb meghatározója az emberi viselkedésnek, és ezen keresztül a különböző szinteken mérhető gazdasági teljesítménynek. Mi elfogadjuk az intézmények kettős, formális és informális jellegét, és ezért a formális szabályokat, valamint a kultúra összetevőit is intézményeknek tekintjük.

Az intézmények mérése

A formális intézmények mérésére a Világbank Doing Business indexét használjuk fel. Ez az index az egyes országok üzleti szabályozását, valamint annak a vállalatindításra és vállalati működésre gyakorolt hatását méri és veti össze 11 indikátor felhasználásával (World Bank, 2018, 12.). Ezek:

1. Vállalkozásindítás: egy korlátolt felelősségű vállalat indításához szükséges eljárások, időigény, költség és a befizetett tőkeminimum;

2. Építési engedélyek ügyintézése: egy kereskedelmi raktárépület megépítéséhez szükséges eljárások, időigény és költség, valamint a minőség-ellenőrzés és a biztonsági rendszerek az építkezés engedélyezési keretein belül;

3. Elektromos áramhoz való hozzáférés: az elektromos áramra csatlakozáshoz szükséges eljárások, időigény és költség, a villamos-energiaellátás megbízhatósága és a díjszabás átláthatósága;

4. Ingatlan nyilvántartásba vétele: az ingatlantulajdonjog átruházásához szükséges eljárások, időigény és költség, és a földhivatali nyilvántartási rendszer minősége;

5. Hitelfelvétel: ingó jelzálogjog és a hitelinformációs rendszer;

6. Kisebbségi befektetők védelme: kisebbségi részvényesek jogai kapcsolt felekkel folytatott ügyletekben és a vállalatirányításban;

7. Adófizetés: a vállalat kifizetései, időigény, a teljes adó és hozzájárulási ráta, valamint az adózást követő teendők;

8. Külkereskedelem: egy komparatív előnnyel rendelkező termék exportjának- és egy autóalkatrész importjának időigénye és költsége;

9. Szerződések érvényesítése: kereskedelmi jogvita rendezéséhez szükséges időigény és költség, a bírósági eljárások minősége;

10. Csődeljárások hatékonysága: a fizetésképtelenség időigénye, költsége, eredménye és a visszafizetés aránya, a jogszabályi keretek erőssége;

11. Munkaerőpiaci szabályozás: a foglalkoztatás rugalmassága és a munkahelyek minősége.

A tanulmányok az indikátorokat alkotó változók értékei mellett megadják a DTF (distance to frontier) pontszámot is, amely azt mutatja, hogy az egyes indikátorok esetén a vizsgált gazdaság milyen távol van a legjobb teljesítménytől. A 0 és 100 közötti skálán a 100 a bevált legjobb gyakorlat „frontier" pontszámát jelenti. Rendelkezésre állnak továbbá az indikátorok szerinti és az összesített Doing Business rangsorok is.

A Doing Business adatokat számos esetben megtaláljuk a gazdasági növekedés befolyásoló tényezőinek felderítésére irányuló empirikus munkákban (lásd például Hanusch 2012, Djankov et al. 2006), az FDI szerepének vizsgálata során (Busse, Groizard 2006), de vannak törekvések az innovációval (Dutz et al. 2011) és a munkatermelékenységgel (Dall'Olio at al., 2013) való kapcsolatuk felderítésére vonatkozóan is. A vállalkozói aktivitással való összefüggés vizsgálatára csak kevés példa található a szakirodalomban. Klapper szerzőtársai (2008) például pozitív összefüggést találtak a rangsorbeli elhelyezkedés és a vállalkozássűrűség, valamint az újonnan alapított vállalkozások aránya között. A vállalkozói hajlandósággal való összevetésükre nem találtunk példát a szakirodalomban.

A kultúra mérése

A nemzetek közötti kulturális különbségek kimutatásának egyik úttörője Hofstede, aki évtizedek óta kutatja a témát. Immár hagyományosnak mondható elméletében öt kulturális dimenziót különít el:

1. Hatalmi távolság: az alacsonyabb beosztású, kevesebb hatalommal rendelkező egyének milyen mértékben fogadják és várják el a hatalmi egyenlőtlenségeket;
2. Individualizmus vagy kollektivizmus: az identitás az egyénre alapozott, vagy pedig az identitást az a csoport határozza meg, amihez az egyén tartozik;
3. Maszkulinitás: mennyire különülnek el élesen a nemi szerepek, és mennyire képezi a társadalmi együttélés alapját az anyagi siker;
4. Bizonytalanságkerülés: milyen mértékben fenyegetik, bizonytalanítják el a társadalom tagjait az ismeretlen helyzetek, a kiszámíthatatlan, megszokottól eltérő fejlemények;
5. Hosszú vagy rövid távú orientáció: mennyire részesítik előnyben az előretekintő, újító és pragmatikus megközelítést a hagyományokra épülő, megszokottal szemben.

Részben Hofstede munkájára is alapozva 1994-ben indították el az ún. GLOBE (Global Leadership & Organizational Behavior Effectiveness) projektet (House et al 2004). A GLOBE projektben dolgozók immár a kultúra kilenc dimenzióját különítették el, amik részben egybeesnek, részben különböznek Hofstede dimenzióitól (Bakacsi 2012, 14. o.):

1. Hatalmi távolság: Hofstedével megegyező kategória;
2. Bizonytalanságkerülés: Hofstedével megegyező kategória;
3. Intézményi kollektivizmus: annak a mértéke, hogy a szabályok és normák mennyire bátorítják és jutalmazzák az erőforrások kollektív elosztását és a kollektív cselekvést;
4. Csoportkollektivizmus: annak a mértéke, hogy az egyének mennyire juttatják kifejezésre büszkeségüket, lojalitásukat és összetartozás-érzésüket (a 3. és 4. dimenzió Hofstede individualizmus változójának kibontása);
5. Nemi egyenlőség: annak mértéke, hogy a társadalom mennyire minimalizálja a nemi szerepek közti különbségeket;
6. Asszertivitás: annak mértéke, hogy az egyének kapcsolataikban mennyire határozottak vagy agresszívek;
7. Teljesítményorientáció: annak a mértéke, hogy mennyire bátorítják a csoporttagokat a teljesítmény növelésére és a kiválóságra;
8. Jövőorientáció: annak mértéke, hogy az egyének mennyire hajlamosak a tervezésre, a jövőbe való befektetésre, a jelenlegi fogyasztás elhalasztására (megfeleltethető Hofstede hosszú vagy rövid távú orientációjának);

9. Humánorientáció: annak a mértéke, hogy a szabályok és normák mennyire bátorítanak a méltányos, önzetlen, gondoskodó viselkedésre (az 5-6-7., ill. 9. dimenzió Hofstede maszkulinitás változójának alaposabb kiterjesztése).

Hofstede, ill. a GLOBE dimenziói elméletileg hatást gyakorolnak a vállalkozói aktivitásra. Azokban a társadalmakban, ahol a kockázatvállalást és az önálló döntéseket preferálják, a konformizmussal, csoportérdekekkel és a tradícióval szemben, vagyis jellemző rájuk az individualizmus, az alacsony bizonytalanságkerülés és hatalmi távolság, valamint a maszkulinitás, a vállalkozói magatartás elvileg népszerűbb és elterjedtebb kellene hogy legyen (Hayton et al 2002).

Az elvégzett empirikus vizsgálatok általában visszaigazolják az előzetes várakozásokat, bár jellemzően csak alacsony szintű összefüggést tudnak kimutatni a kulturális dimenziók és a vállalkozói aktivitás különböző mérőszámai között. Shane 1993-as tanulmánya, ami 33 országban vizsgálta Hofstede dimenziói és az innovativitás közötti kapcsolatot, megállapítja, hogy az individualizmussal pozitív irányú, a bizonytalanságkerüléssel és a hatalmi távolsággal pedig negatív irányú a kapcsolat. Davidsson és Wiklund (1997) Svédország hat régiójában mérte fel az egyének kulturális értékeit, és ezt vetette össze az egyes régiók cégalapítási adataival. Ezt megelőzően Davidsson (1995) egy hasonló vizsgálatot folytatott le, ahol a különböző kulturális változókból összeállított ún. vállalkozói értékek indexét vetette össze a cégalapítások számaival. Mindkét elemzés gyenge de szignifikáns hatást talált olyan értékek esetében, mint a teljesítmény orientáció, önállóság iránti igény, változtatás orientáció, kockázat érzékelés stb.

Számos tanulmány született a nemzeti kultúrák és a vállalkozók értékei közötti kapcsolatról. Mitchell és társai (2000) hét országban, vállalkozók és nem vállalkozók körében végzett felmérése megállapítja, hogy az individualizmus és a hatalmi távolság asszociációs kapcsolatban áll a vállalkozásindítási döntéssel. Mueller és Thomas 2000-es munkája kilenc ország hallgatóit mérte fel, megállapítva, hogy azokban a kultúrákban a legerősebb a vállalkozói orientáció, ahol erős az individualizmus és alacsony a bizonytalanságkerülés. McGrath és társai (1992) kilenc országban, vállalkozók és nem vállalkozók felmérésével készült vizsgálata megállapítja, hogy a nemzetiségi hovatartozástól függetlenül a vállalkozók magas hatalmi távolság, individualizmus és maszkulinitás értékeket mutatnak, viszont alacsony körükben a bizonytalanságkerülés.

Zhao és társai (2012) a GLOBE projekt dimenzióinak bevonásával elemezték 42 ország (köztük Magyarország) vállalkozói aktivitásának alakulását. Munkájukban figyelembe vették az egyes országok fejlettségi szintjét (az egy főre jutó GDP-t használva mérőszámként), és a vállalkozói aktivitás változatos indikátorait (a GEM projekt következő

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négy változóját: korai fázisú vállalkozások, megállapodott vállalkozások, gyorsan növekvő vállalkozások és innovatív vállalkozások) használták. Megállapítják, hogy a hatalmi távolság, a csoportkollektivizmus és a humánorientáció segíti a korai fázisú és a megállapodott vállalkozásokat az alacsony és közepes fejlettségű országokban, a fejlett országokban viszont visszaveti az ilyen típusú vállalkozásokat. A bizonytalanságkerülés, a teljesítményorientáció és a jövőorientáció segítik a gyorsan növekvő és innovatív vállalkozásokat, elsősorban a fejlett országokban. Megjegyzendő, hogy Zhao és társai az eddig bemutatott tanulmányokkal szemben azt feltételezik, hogy a bizonytalanságkerülés és a gyorsan növekvő, ill. innovatív vállalkozások között pozitív kapcsolat áll fenn. Ezt azzal magyarázzák, hogy a szabályok lefektetése strukturált és hatékony működést tehet lehetővé (példaként Németországot és Japánt említik), ill. az is felmerül érvként, hogy az erősen strukturált vállalatok saját vállalkozás indítására ösztönözhetik a kötetlenebb környezetet preferáló, vállalkozó szellemű alkalmazottakat. Elemzésük végül nem mutatott ki markáns szignifikáns kapcsolatot a bizonytalanságkerülés és a vállalkozói aktivitás között.

Baliaeva és társai (2015) az általunk is elemzett adatbázis felhasználásával tekintette át Hofstede dimenziói és a hallgatók vállalkozói szándékai közötti kapcsolatot. A szerzők arra jutnak, hogy a hallgatók vállalkozói szándékai erősebbek az individualista társadalmakban, és gyengébbek a magas bizonytalanságkerüléssel jellemezhető kultúrákban.

Az empirikus irodalom megállapításai több ok miatt is óvatosan értékelendők. A kapcsolat, bár létezik, gyengének tűnik. Aligha vitatható, hogy a nemzeti kultúra hatással van a politikai-gazdasági intézményekre is, amik viszont szintén befolyásolhatják a vállalkozói aktivitást. Amikor a vállalkozás indítással kapcsolatos attitűdöket vizsgáljuk, probléma lehet, hogy a kulturális sajátosságok visszatükröződnek a válaszokban (Hayton et al 2002). A bizonytalanságok is indokolttá teszik a téma további vizsgálatát.

<u>Vállalkozói aktivitás és vállalkozói hajlandóság mérése</u>

A vállalkozói aktivitás mérésére számos statisztika alkalmas. Gyakran használják a vállalkozássűrűség adatait (1000 lakosra jutó vállalkozások száma), vagy a vállalkozók arányát a foglalkoztatottak számához viszonyítva, az önfoglalkoztatók arányát, vagy vállalat demográfiai adatokat (pl. születési ráta). A megkérdezetteken belül.

A vállalkozói hajlandóság mérése, azaz hogy mutat-e az egyén szándékot saját vállalkozásának beindítására, szintén fontos kérdés a vállalkozási szakirodalomban. Bár a szándék nem feltétlenül realizálódik saját vállalkozás létrehozatalában, mégis a vállalkozói aktivitás fontos mérföldköve.

Számos munka fellelhető, amely a vállalkozási folyamat legfontosabb befolyásoló tényezőinek beazonosítását célozza meg. Ezek egy része az oktatás szerepét hangsúlyozza, azon belül is kiemelti a tapasztalás, valós körülmények között történő tanulás szerepét (Szirmai, Csapó 2006, Imreh-Tóth 2015, Borsi, Dőry 2015).

Az egyéni tulajdonságok közül a kockázatvállalási hajlandóságot, a függetlenség kialakítására való törekvést (Meager et.al. 2003), innovatív gondolkodást hangsúlyozzák a szerzők. Számos cikk foglalkozik a társadalmi környezet szerepével a vállalkozási folyamatban (lásd például Autio és Wennberg 2010), azt hangsúlyozva, hogy az egyén közösségének normái és attitűdjei rendkívüli módon befolyásolják az egyén vállalkozói viselkedését. Meghatározó lehet továbbá a nemzeti kultúra szerepe, mint ahogy arra számos korábban ismertetett kutatás rávilágít. Ezek egyik csoportja a nemzeti kultúra egyéni jellemzőkre gyakorolt hatását vizsgálja (mint például Thurik, Dejardin 2012, Thomas, Mueller 2000), másik része aggregált vállalkozói statisztikákkal hozza összefüggésbe az egyes kulturális dimenziókat (mint például Zhao, Li, Rauch 2012, Shane, Kolvereid, Westhead 1991). Nyilvánvaló befolyásoló továbbá a támogató rendszer, az hogy hogyan lehet forrásokhoz jutni, a vállalkozásindításnak, a vállalkozási folyamatnak milyen adminisztratív terhei vannak, milyen adóteherrel kell számolni stb.

A szerteágazó irodalomban eligazodást jelenthetnek azok az összetett modellek, amelyek a fenti hatásokat (egyén, társadalom, intézményrendszer) egy komplex rendszerbe igyekszenek besűríteni. Ezek közül Ajzen tervezett magatartás elméletét (Ajzen 1991, 2006) már több tanulmányban is teszteltük a GUESSS adatbázis segítségével (Gubik 2013, Gubik 2016).

A modell elemei a következők:

1. Attitűdök: Minél kedvezőbb az egyén vállalkozásindítással összefüggő beállítottsága (attitűdje), annál nagyobb lesz a vállalkozásindítási szándéka is.

2. Szubjektív normák: Minél inkább úgy észleli az egyén, hogy környezete pozitívan viszonyul vállalkozásindítási elképzeléseihez, annál inkább várható, hogy szándékot mutat majd saját vállalkozásának megvalósítására.

3. Észlelt magatartási kontroll: Minél inkább úgy érzi az egyén, hogy képes irányítása alatt tartani az eseményeket, annál inkább szándékában állhat saját vállalkozási tevékenységbe fogni.

4. Én-hatékonyság: Minél inkább úgy érzi az egyén, hogy birtokában áll a vállalkozásindításhoz szükséges képességeknek és tudásnak, annál inkább elképzelhetőnek tartja saját vállalkozásának beindítását.

Most a modell elemeit arra használjuk fel, hogy a formális és informális intézményi tényezők általunk vizsgálatba bevont dimenzióival való kapcsolatukat megvizsgáljuk.

Adatforrás és módszerek

A vállalkozással összefüggő változók (aktivitás, hajlandóság) és a GLOBE 4 változójának () mérésére a GUESSS kutatás 2016-os adatbázisát használjuk fel. Ebben 50 országból összesen 127.509 hallgató adatai találhatók meg. Jelen elemzésbe olyan OECD országokat vontunk be, amelyekben a válaszok száma meghaladta a 300-at. Az így összeállt minta résztvevő országok szerinti megoszlását az 1. táblázat mutatja.

1. táblázat: A vizsgálatba bevont országok és a mintaelemszámok

	Ország	Gyakoriság	%
1.	Amerikai	353	0,5
2.	Anglia	1074	1,4
3.	Ausztrália	2359	3,1
4.	Ausztria	3755	4,9
5.	Belgium	771	1,0
6.	Chile	6077	8,0
7.	Csehország	1135	1,5
8.	Észtország	811	1,1
9.	Finnország	532	0,7
10.	Franciaország	714	0,9
11.	Görögország	649	0,9
12.	Írország	807	1,1
13.	Japán	1490	2,0
14.	Kanada	297	0,4
15.	Korea	2603	3,4
16.	Lengyelország	6388	8,4
17.	Magyarország	5182	6,8
18.	Mexikó	1207	1,6
19.	Németország	15984	21,0
20.	Olaszország	4446	5,8
21.	Portugália	4685	6,2
22.	Spanyolország	7373	9,7
23.	Svájc	2943	3,9
24.	Svédország	606	0,8
25.	Szlovákia	3266	4,3
26.	Szlovénia	575	0,8
	Összesen	76082	100,

Forrás: saját szerkesztés

A kulturális dimenziók esetében is a GUESSS adatbázist használtuk fel, mert így frissebb adatokhoz jutottunk, valamint egyén szintű válaszokkal rendelkezünk. Két megkötéssel kell számolni e döntés eredményeképpen. Egyrészt a felsőoktatásban részt vevőkre vonatkozó értékellel rendelkezünk, másrészt csak 4 GLOBE dimenzió hatását tudjuk értékelni (amelyekre vonatkozóan volt kérdés a GUESSS kérdőívben). Ezek és az ezeket alkotó változók a következők:

Csoportkollektivizmus (IGC):

1. A társadalomban, ahol élek a gyerekek büszkék szüleik egyéni teljesítményére. (1-7-ig terjedő Likert skála, 1=egyáltalán nem értek egyet, 7= teljesen egyetértek)

2. A társadalomban, ahol élek a szülők büszkék gyermekeik egyéni teljesítményére. (1-7-ig terjedő Likert skála, 1=egyáltalán nem értek egyet, 7= teljesen egyetértek) (1-7-ig terjedő Likert skála, 1=egyáltalán nem értek egyet, 7= teljesen egyetértek)

3. A társadalomban, ahol élek az öregedő szülők a gyerekeikkel élnek együtt. (1-7-ig terjedő Likert skála, 1=egyáltalán nem értek egyet, 7= teljesen egyetértek)

4. A társadalomban, ahol élek a gyerekek otthon laknak egészen a házasságkötésükig. (1-7-ig terjedő Likert skála, 1=egyáltalán nem értek egyet, 7= teljesen egyetértek)

A hatalmi távolság (PD):

1. A társadalomban, ahol élek a rang és a hierarchiában elfoglalt pozíció kiváltságot jelent. (1-7-ig terjedő Likert skála, 1=egyáltalán nem értek egyet, 7= teljesen egyetértek)

2. A társadalomban, ahol élek, egy személy befolyása meghatározóan…

   …azon a képességén múlik, hogy mennyire képes hozzájárulni a társadalomhoz (közösséghez).

   …az egyének pozíciójából eredő hatalomtól függ. (1-7-ig terjedő szemantikus differenciálskála, 1=első válasz, 7=második válasz)

3. A társadalomban, ahol élek a követőktől elvárják, hogy …

   …kérdés nélkül engedelmeskedjenek a vezetőnek.

   …megkérdőjelezzék a vezetőket nézeteltérés esetén. (1-7-ig terjedő szemantikus differenciálskála, 1=első válasz, 7=második válasz)

4. A társadalomban, ahol élek a hatalom …

   …felül koncentrálódik.

   …megosztott a társadalmon (közösségen) belül. (1-7-ig terjedő szemantikus differenciálskála, 1=első válasz, 7=második válasz)

Bizonytalanságkerülés (UA):

1. A társadalomban, ahol élek a rend és a következetesség a hangsúlyosak, a kísérletezés és innováció rovására. (1-7-ig terjedő Likert skála, 1=egyáltalán nem értek egyet, 7= teljesen egyetértek)

2. A társadalomban, ahol élek a legtöbb ember megtervezetten él, kevés váratlan eseménnyel az életében. (1-7-ig terjedő Likert skála, 1=egyáltalán nem értek egyet, 7= teljesen egyetértek)

3. A társadalomban, ahol élek a társadalmi elvárások és útmutatások kinyilvánítottak, így mindenki pontosan tudja, mit is várnak el tőle. (1-7-ig terjedő Likert skála, 1=egyáltalán nem értek egyet, 7= teljesen egyetértek)

4. A társadalomban, ahol élek vannak betartatandó szabályok és törvények. Csaknem minden esetben igaz. Ritkán fordul elő. (1-7-ig terjedő Szemantikus differenciálskála, 1=első válasz, 7=második válasz)

Teljesítményorientáció

1. A társadalomban, ahol élek, az egyéneket teljesítményük folyamatos javítására ösztönzik

2. A társadalomban, ahol élek, a jutalom

   … kizárólag a teljesítményen kívüli tényezőkön múlik (pl. rang)

   .... kizárólag a teljesítményen múlik (1-7-ig terjedő szemantikus differenciálskála, 1=első válasz, 7=második válasz)

3. A társadalomban, ahol élek, a teljesítmény javítását szolgáló innovativitást.

   Nem jutalmazzák

Jól érezhetően jutalmazzák (1-7-ig terjedő szemantikus differenciálskála, 1=első válasz, 7=második válasz)

A vállalkozói aktivitás és a vállalkozási tervek mérésére a következő változókat használtuk fel:

1. Van-e már saját vállalkozásod/egyéni vállalkozó vagy-e? (Igen, Nem)

2. Teszel-e jelenleg lépéseket saját vállalkozásod elindítása/egyéni vállalkozóvá válásod érdekében? (igen, nem).

A tervezett magatartás elmélet tényezői az alábbi 1-7-ig terjedő Likert skálán mért változók számtani átlagaként adódtak:

1. Vállalkozásindítási szándék:
   - Kész vagyok valamit tenni azért, hogy vállalkozó lehessek.
   - Szakmai célom, hogy vállalkozó legyek.
   - Mindent meg fogok tenni azért, hogy elindítsam és működtessem saját vállalkozásomat.
   - Elhatároztam, hogy a jövőben létrehozok egy céget.
   - Nagyon komolyan gondolkoztam már egy vállalkozás elindításán.
   - Határozott szándékom, hogy egyszer majd saját vállalkozást indítsak.

2. Attitűdök:
   - A vállalkozóvá válás számomra több előnyt jelent, mint hátrányt.
   - A vállalkozói karrier számomra vonzó.
   - Ha lenne lehetőségem és erőforrásom, vállalkozó lennék.
   - Vállalkozónak lenni nagy megelégedettséget jelentene számomra.
   - Ha választhatnék, inkább vállalkozó lennék.

3. Észlelt magatartási kontroll:

- Általában képes vagyok megvédeni saját érdekeimet.
- Amikor terveket készítek, majdnem biztos vagyok abban, hogy valóra is váltom azokat.
- Általában képes vagyok befolyásolni, hogy mi történjen az életemben.

4. Szubjektív normák:

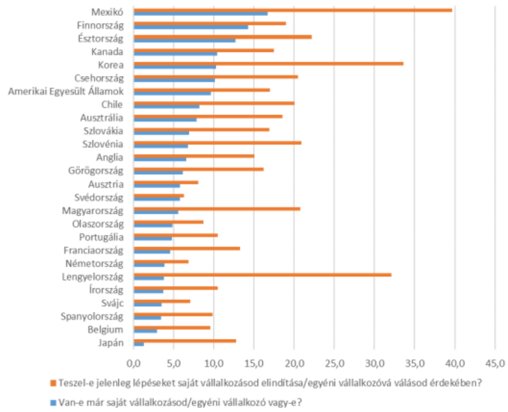
- Ha vállalkozó lennél, hogyan vélekedne környezeted? Közeli család/Barátok/Diáktársak.

A Doing Business értékeket a kutatás honlapjáról gyűjtöttük össze, ahol a módszertanról is lehet tájékozódni (http://www.doingbusiness.org/).

Eredmények

Az 1. ábra a vállalkozói aktivitást és terveket mutatja a megkérdezett hallgatók körében. Jól látható különbségeket tapasztalunk a vizsgált országok között mind a meglévő vállalkozások arányában, mind pedig a tervezett vállalkozásokat tekintve (nascent entrepreneurship).

1. ábra: Vállalkozói aktivitás és vállalkozási tervek alakulása a vizsgált országokban



Forrás: saját szerkesztés

A vállalkozást tervezők jelentős része nem akar vállalkozóként dolgozni tanulmányai befejeztével (38,7 százalékuk). A már vállalkozóknál még rosszabb arányokat találunk, itt a válaszadók 55,5 százaléka nem szeretné a végzést követően folytatni a vállalkozási tevékenységét. Ez arra utalhat, hogy a tervezett vállalkozások inkább a tanulmányok finanszírozására szolgálnak, nem pedig hosszú távú vállalkozói célok megvalósítására. Ugyanerre utalhat az önfoglalkoztatók magas aránya (átlagosan 65 százalék, de jelentős nemzeti eltérések figyelhetők meg). A vállalkozók és vállalkozást tervezők között vélhetően nagy a kényszervállalkozók aránya.

A következőkben azt nézzük meg, hogy a vállalkozói hajlandóság és a vállalkozói aktivitás milyen összefüggéseket mutat a formális és informális intézményekkel. Ehhez ország szintű adatokra van szükség, amit esetenként az adatbázis az egyéni válaszainak aggregálásával (számtani átlagok számításával) állítottunk elő.

A vállalkozói hajlandóság és aktivitás és a kulturális tényezők összefüggései

Első lépésben a vállalkozási szándék intézményi és kulturális meghatározottságát vizsgáltuk. Ahogy kiszámolhattuk a nemzeteket jellemző kulturális dimenziók átlagos értékeit (ami a nemzeti GLOBE értékek kiszámításának módszertana), ugyanúgy járunk el a tervezett magatartás elmélete modelljének alkotóelemeivel is. Meghatározhatjuk például, hogy a vállalkozásindításra irányuló attitűd összességében alacsonyabb, vagy magasabb egy adott országban a többi vizsgált országgal összevetve. Így az Ajzen modell eredeti céljától és felhasználásától eltérően megadjuk azok nemzeti értékeit, majd ellenőrizzük, hogy ezek az értékek és a kulturális dimenziók nemzeti értékei között megfigyelhető-e tapasztalati együttmozgás. A szakirodalomban eddig ilyen próbálkozással nem találkoztunk. A (2. táblázatban) ennek a vizsgálatnak az értékeit foglaltuk össze.

2. táblázat: A vizsgált változók korrelációs mátrixa

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1 Vállalkozásindítási szándék	1								
2 Attitűdök	,981** 0,000	1							
3 Észlelt magatartási kontroll	,643** 0,000	,616** 0,001	1						
4 Szubjektív normák	,622** 0,001	,629** 0,001	,746** 0,000	1					
5 Én-hatékonyság	,864** 0,000	,832** 0,000	,812** 0,000	,748** 0,000	1				
6. IGC	,807** 0,000	,790** 0,000	,500** 0,009	,448* 0,022	,744** 0,000	1			

7. UA	,311 0,122	,279 0,168	,585** 0,002	,233 0,252	,471* 0,015	,169 0,410	1		
8. PD	,523** 0,006	,522** 0,006	-,373 0,061	,072 0,726	-,358 0,072	,625** 0,001	,152 0,459	1	
9. PO	-,042 0,837	-,070 0,734	,300 0,137	,399* 0,044	,182 0,374	-,236 0,246	,262 0,195	-,559** 0,003	1

*** 0,01 szinten szignifikáns kapcsolat, *0,05 szinten szignifikáns kapcsolat*

IGC: csoportkollektivizmus; UA: bizonytalanságkerülés; PD: hatalmi távolság; PO: Teljesítményorientáció

Forrás: saját szerkesztés, N=26

Látható, hogy a vállalkozásindítási szándék és befolyásoló tényezői (attitűd, norma és kontroll) szignifikánsan összefüggnek a vizsgálatba bevont kulturális tényezőkkel.

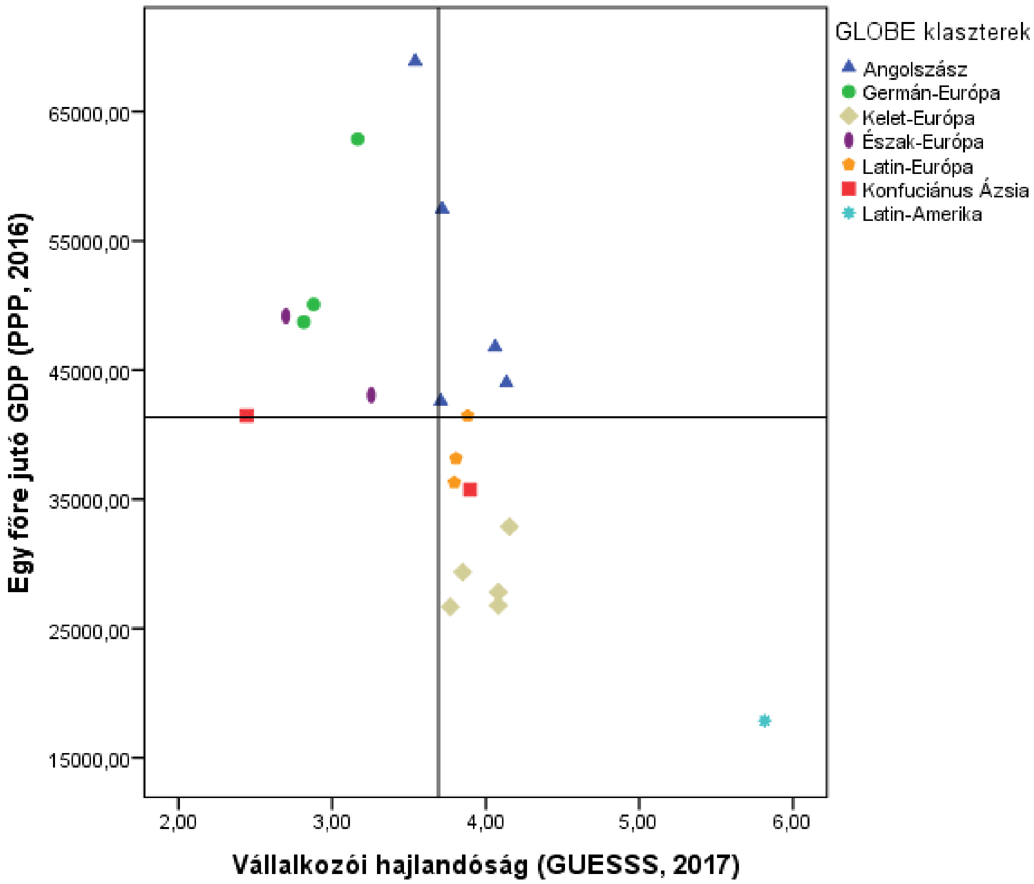
A csoportkollektivizmus az attitűdökkel, a normákkal, az én-hatékonysággal és az észlelt magatartási kontrollal egyaránt pozitív irányú szignifikáns kapcsolatban van, de közvetlenül a vállalkozásindítási szándékkal is korrelál. A legmagasabb értéket az attitűdök és a vállalkozásindítási szándék esetén kaptuk. A csoportkollektivizmus magas értékei összetartó, lojális kultúrára utalnak (Bakacsi 2008), ami vizsgálataink eredményei szerint egyúttal a magas vállalkozói hajlandósággal is együtt jár.

A bizonytalanságkerülés dimenzió az észlelt magatartási kontrollal és az én-hatékonysággal korrelál szignifikánsan. A kapcsolat pozitív irányú, ami arra utalhat, hogy minél fontosabbak a kialakult normák és szabályok a bizonytalanság csökkentésében, annál nagyobb a társadalom tagjainak magabiztossága egy adott feladat végrehajtására vonatkozóan.

A hatalmi távolság dimenzió a vállalkozásindítási szándékkal és az attitűdökkel mutat összefüggést, ugyanakkor az egy főre jutó GDP kontrol alatt tartása mellett ez a hatás már nem figyelhető meg. A három változó további vizsgálata arra derít fényt, hogy az egy főre jutó GDP negatív kapcsolatban áll a hatalmi távolság változóval (ezt az összefüggést a szakirodalom is említi, lásd például Hofstede 2001, Cox et al. 2011) és a vállalkozói hajlandósággal egyaránt.

Végül a teljesítményorientáció és a szubjektív normák között is szignifikáns összefüggés található, ami a GDP hatásának kiszűrése mellett is fennáll. Ekkor azonban az észlelt magatartási kontrollal való szignifikáns összefüggés is megjelenik. A szubjektív normák a környezet reakcióit fejezik ki, amely magas teljesítményorientáció esetén (ami a teljesítmény növelésére és a kiválóságra való ösztönzést jelenti), egyúttal a vállalkozói eredmények elismerését is jelenti.

Azt tapasztaltuk, hogy az egy főre jutó GDP meghatározó a vállalkozási hajlandóság alakulásában, miközben a kulturális tényezők is jellegzetes eltéréseket okoznak. A hatás szemléltetésére a GLOBE kulturális dimenziói szerint csoportosítottuk be a vizsgált országokat (House et al. 2004, Northouse 2007), majd ábrázoltuk a gazdasági teljesítmény és a vállalkozói hajlandóság dimenzióiban (2. ábra). A GLOBE kulturális besorolásából 4 általunk vizsgált ország hiányzik, Chile, Csehország, Portugália és Szlovákia, így ezeket az országokat nem tartalmazza a 2. ábra.



1. ábra: A vállalkozói hajlandóság és a gazdasági teljesítmény közötti kapcsolat

Forrás: saját szerkesztés a GUESSS 2016 és a World Development Indicators, 2017 alapján

A kelet-európai országok jól elkülönülő csoportot alkotnak, átlag alatti gazdasági teljesítmény és átlag feletti vállalkozói hajlandóság jellemzi őket. Kulturális értékeiben családcentrikus és lojális társadalmak, alacsony jövő- és teljesítményorientációval.

Latin-Európa országai (Franciaország, Olaszország, Spanyolország) vállalkozói hajlandóságot tekintve hasonló értékekkel rendelkeznek, mint a kelet-európai országok, miközben azonban gazdasági teljesítményük jobb. Itt is fontos a család és a közösség, miközben értékelik az egyéni autonómiát is.

A germán-európai országok (Ausztria, Németország, Svájc) alacsony vállalkozói hajlandósággal írhatók le, az angolszász országok (Anglia, USA, Kanada, Írország, Ausztrália) pedig átlagos, ill. a feletti értékekkel, mindkét csoport esetén magasabb az egy főre jutó GDP az átlagosnál. Az előbbit eredményorientált, versenyző társadalomnak írja le a GLOBE, amelyben a magas bizonytalanságkerülés miatt fontos szerepet kapnak a szabályok, az angolszász klaszter fő jellemzője pedig a verseny és a teljesítmény társadalom általi értékelése, valamint az individualizmus.

Második lépésben a kulturális dimenziók és a vállalkozói aktivitás összefüggéseit vizsgáltuk meg. Azt találtuk, hogy a teljesítményorientáció kivételével nincs szignifikáns kapcsolat a változók között. Itt közepesen erős pozitív irányú kapcsolatot találtunk (a parciális korrelációs együttható értéke 0,515, p=0,008).

<u>A vállalkozói hajlandóság és aktivitás és formális intézményi tényezők összefüggései</u>

Első lépésben az Ease of Doing Business rangsor és a vállalkozásindítási szándék és legfontosabb befolyásoló tényezői közötti kapcsolatot vizsgáltuk meg. A szándék és a rangsorbeli elhelyezkedés esetén fordított arányosságot találtunk (Pearson féle korrelációs együttható=0,388, p=0,05). Ez azt jelenti, hogy a magasabb vállalkozói hajlandóság éppen a kedvezőtlenebb formális szabályozás esetén jellemző.

A Doing Business index indikátorait megvizsgálva csak kevés szignifikáns összefüggésre bukkantunk. A lineáris korrelációs együttható szignifikáns értékeit csak az elektromos áramhoz való hozzáférés, az adófizetés és a csődeljárások hatékonysága indikátorok esetén fedeztük fel, mindhárom esetben negatív volt a megfigyelt kapcsolat. Mivel az egyes indikátorokat a DTF pontszámmal emeltük be a vizsgálatba, a nagyobb érték jobb gyakorlatra utal. Azaz a negatív kapcsolat azt jelenti, hogy a jó gyakorlatokkal leírható országok alacsony vállalkozói hajlandósággal rendelkeznek. A GDP hatását kontroll alatt tartva már csak a hitelfelvétel indikátor és a külkereskedelem indikátor mutatott szignifikáns összefüggést a vállalkozásindítási szándékkal. Az előbbi esetén pozitív, az utóbbinál negatív összefüggést fedezünk fel.

A vállalkozói aktivitás esetén sem a Doing Business index, sem azok indikátorai nem mutattak szignifikáns összefüggést, eltekintve a hitelfelvétel indikátortól, ahol közepesen erős kapcsolatot találtunk (0,566, p=0,03).

Összefoglalás és további kutatási irányok

A vállalkozói aktivitásnak a gazdasági növekedésre gyakorolt pozitív hatása miatt a gazdaságpolitikák célja a vállalkozások indítását, a vállalkozási folyamatot minél inkább támogató szabályozási környezet kialakítása. Ezt a környezetet, az úgynevezett formális intézményi tényezőket cikkünkben a Világbank Doing Business indexének indikátoraival mértük.

Elemzéseink arra mutatnak rá, hogy ezek a törekvések nem, vagy csak részben érik el a nekik szánt hatást, mert a vállalkozási hajlandóság sokkal inkább az informális intézményi tényezők által meghatározott. Munkánkban ezt az összefüggést a GLOBE felmérés kulturális dimenzióinak segítségével mutattuk meg. Az aktivitás, amely vállalkozói hajlandóság nélkül nem jöhet létre, kevés összefüggést mutat a vizsgálatba bevont változókkal.

Eredményeink szerint a gazdasági fejlettség szignifikánsan összefügg a vállalkozói aktivitással és a hajlandósággal, ugyanakkor a GUESSS adatbázison (amely egyetemi hallgatók válaszait tartalmazza és amely 26 OECD országra állt rendelkezésre) negatív irányú összefüggés mutatkozott. Ez arra utalhat, hogy a vállalatok száma, a vállalkozók aránya és a vállalkozássűrűség statisztikák nem képesek pontosan visszaadni a szektor makrogazdasági hatását. Jobb megközelítést ad a gyors növekedésű vállalkozások (gazellák) aránya, egyes vállalatdemográfiai adatok használata, vagy a lehetőség és kényszer motiválta vállalkozók kettéválasztása a szektor gazdasági jelentőségének vizsgálatában.

Elemzésünk korlátját jelenti, hogy a kilenc kulturális dimenzió közül csak négy hatását mérhettük, ugyanis csak ezekkel kapcsolatos kérdéseket tartalmazott az adatbázis. Gyengíti az eredményeket továbbá, hogy csak 26 OECD tagországra vonatkozóan rendelkezünk adatokkal, ráadásul a mintaelemszámban jelentős nemzeti eltérések vannak.

Bár a szakirodalomban elsősorban az általunk is mért dimenziók hatását elemzik, használható eredmények adódhatnak további dimenziók (például a jövőorientáció) bekapcsolásából. A vállalkozók csoportosításával (például foglalkoztatottak száma, teljesítmény szerint) árnyalhatók lennének a kapott eredmények.

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A szerzőkről

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Szállodai érték és élmény dimenziók meghatározása a digitális éra szegmenseinek esetében

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Absztrakt

Napjainkban a turisztikai és szállodai szolgáltatások iránti kereslet és legfőképpen az élmények tartalma átalakult és szegmensenként más-más elvárásokkal és értéket jelentő elemekkel párosult. Ez a fogyasztói szokásokban végbemenő változás nagy mértékben határozza meg a turisztikai szolgáltatók és ezen belül is a szállodák menedzsment és marketing tevékenységét itthon és külföldön egyaránt. Jelen tanulmány a digitális korszak szülöttei esetében vizsgálja a szállodai élményt meghatározó elemek fontosságát.

Kulcsszavak: szálloda, Z generáció, digitális bennszülöttek, élmény, érték

Bevezetés

Napjaink piaci struktúráját tekintve nem kérdés, hogy a sikeres vállalati működés és a piacorientáció egyik vezérfonala a feltárt vevői igény kielégítése. Így a vállalat versenyképességét döntő mértékben meghatározza, hogy képes-e tartósan, vevőinek értéket teremteni (Chikán – Demeter, 2004).

Gallarza – Gill (2008) tanulmányában szintén hangsúlyozza, hogy a vevőknek nyújtott érték vizsgálata, egyrészt annak a menedzsment számára fontos stratégiai vonatkozásai miatt, másrészt a fogyasztói magatartásvizsgálatok tekintetében is releváns és meghatározó. A fogyasztói érték vizsgálatára, mint a hosszú távú üzleti teljesítmény (Oh, 2000), illetve az ismételt vásárlás (Jayanti – Ghosh, 1996) egyik fő indikátorára, napjainkban az akadémiai világ és a szakmai kutatások is növekvő figyelmet fordítanak.

A menedzsment irodalom elismert fogyasztói érték kutatói, Woodruff (1997), Holbrook – Hirschman (1982), Holbrook (1999) és Sparks et al. (2007) is mindannyian hangsúlyozzák, hogy az érték leginkább a fogyasztói élményekben ragadható meg. Az élményérték és a vevő számára jelentkező érték közötti kapcsolat vizsgálatának egyik jelentős területe lehet a szállodaipar, hiszen jellegéből adódóan az élménynyújtás kiemelt szektora.

Napjainkban a turizmus és azon belül kiemelten a szállodák piacán is a fogyasztói elvárások gyors ütemű változását láthatjuk a vásárlói magatartás átalakulása miatt. A Horwath HTL turisztikai megatrend kutatásában megállapította, hogy bár nem a legnagyobb fogyasztói szegmens, de biztosan a legmeghatározóbb és legerősebb fogyasztói csoport jelenleg az Y (Millennials) és a Z (iGen / Click'n go children / Screenagers) tagjai.[11] E szegmensek szülöttei, 86 millióan vannak és 200 milliárd dolláros vásárlóerővel rendelkeznek, amivel ők képezik a legjövedelmezőbb szegmenst a szállodák számára.[12] Kiváló technológiai érzékkel és tudással rendelkeznek, kommunikációs, fogyasztói és élményigényük is teljesen különbözik az előző generációk igényeitől, ugyanakkor e szegmensek egymáshoz viszonyított vásárlási szokása és élményelvárása között is különbségek figyelhetők meg. A szolgáltatóknak már nem csupán az Y generációs igényeknek való megfelelésre kell törekedniük, hanem versenyképességük növelése érdekében minél hamarabb a Z generáció élményelvárásait is meg kell ismerniük, azokra fel kell készülniük, hiszen e nemzedék fogyasztói szokásai alapjaiban változtatják meg a szolgáltatók eddigi piaci stratégiáját, menedzsment és marketing politikáját. Jelen tanulmány e legfrissebb fogyasztói szegmens, a digitális bennszülöttek, azaz a Z generáció szállodai szoláltatásokkal szembeni elvárásait és a számukra élményt jelentő tényezőket vizsgálja. Kutatási kérdéseinket mindezek értelmében az alábbiak szerint határoztuk meg:

K1. Mi jellemzi a Z generáció utazási szokásait?

K2. Milyen elvárásokat támasztanak a szállodákkal szemben, és ezek közül melyek a legfontosabbak?

A tanulmány következő fejezete nemzetközi kitekintésben vizsgálja az említett szegmensek fogyasztói szokásait és a szállodai szakma kihívásait. Ezt követően ismertetjük kutatásunk módszertanát. A tanulmány eredményeink bemutatásával és következtetéseink levonásával zárul.

Irodalmi áttekintés

Fogyasztói elvárások, értékek és élmények

A fogyasztói magatartás, a fogyasztói igény, elvárás és érték kutatások, valamint ezekkel párhuzamosan a fogyasztói élmény kutatások a „kereslet húzta” piaci átrendeződések és a személyre szabott szolgáltatások iránti igény elterjedése miatt nemcsak a nemzetközi turisztikai piacon, hanem hazánkban is egyre gyakoribbak, hiszen a fogyasztók számára teremtett érték a vállalatok, szolgáltatók versenyképességének feltétele (vö. Kulcsár (2017)). E fogyasztói érték koncepció több megközelítés alapján is vizsgálható: termékközpontú értékesítési szemléletből kiindulva (Kozma, 2009) a Kotler-féle marketing-koncepción (vö. Kotler, 2003) és a közelmúltban előtérbe

[11] http://29b8je4dgl4v2ndf9h4bmut9.wpengine.netdna-cdn.com/files/2015/12/Tourism-Mega-Trends4.pdf Letöltés: 2016. 10. 10

[12]: Junvi Ola (2015) How to Get Millennials to Join Your Hotel Loyalty Program, http://hospitality.cvent.com/blog/junvi-ola/how-to-get-millennials-to-join-your-hotel-loyalty-program

kerülő CRM-en keresztül a fogyasztói élmény-menedzsmentig (Kozma, 2009). Ezen újabb értelmezések szerint a fogyasztói érték nagyrészt szubjektív (Hofmeister et al., 2003), azaz a fogyasztó személyes véleményét tükrözi arról, hogy a kapott termék és szolgáltatás mennyiben felel meg elvárásainak, és annak érdekében, hogy ezt a vállalkozások megértsék és beépíthessék piaci stratégiájukba, nagy kihívásokkal kell szembenézniük.

Az értéknek e szubjektív megfogalmazása igen átfogó, melyet a vevői értékdimenziók (value dimensions) fogalmán keresztül bonthatunk ki (Gelei, 2006). Az értékdimenziók elemeire bontják a vevői értéket, azt mutatják meg, hogy a kapott termék-, szolgáltatáscsomagnak melyek azok a fontosabb összetevői, dimenziói, amelyek jelentős mértékben hozzájárulnak a vevői érték növekedéséhez.

A szálloda szektorban megjelenő fogyasztói értékdimenziók feltárásához releváns megközelítés a multidimenzionalitás vizsgálata. A fogyasztói érték összetevői között

- egyrészt megjelenhetnek a racionális (kognitív) döntésből adódó és funkcionalitásra összpontosító dimenziók (pl. az egyes szolgáltatáselemek ára és minősége),
- másrészt a fogyasztó termékkel kapcsolatos megítélésére ható affektív dimenziók (pl. a hangulat, érzések, kapcsolatok, élmények).

Az élmény értékdimenzió tágabb értelemben is értelmezhető, előfordulhat, hogy az affektív dimenziók összességét magában foglalja. De Yuan – Wu (2008) szerint akár a teljes fogyasztói értékítélet alapulhat magán a komplex élményen. A hotel szektorban a fogyasztói (vendég) élményelvárások adhatják a fogyasztói érték legnagyobb részét, a különválasztás ezért nehézkes, leginkább a fent említett affektív és kognitív dimenziók mentén elvégezhető. Mivel napjaink legnagyobb vásárlóerővel rendelkező szegmensét az Y és Z generáció tagjai adják, fogyasztói szokásaik és a számukra értéket/élményt jelentő tényezők feltárása kiemelten fontos úgy a turizmusban, mint a többi szektorban egyaránt.

<u>Az Y generáció elvárásai és fogyasztási szokásai</u>

E szegmensek számára a legfontosabb a hatékony, gyors és naprakész információáramlás a különböző online felületeken, mint a Facebook, Twitter, Yelp, Tripadvisor stb. Az Y generáció már mindent elektronikusan intéz: a szállodai foglalástól kezdve a bejelentkezésig, az éttermi számla rendezésén keresztül a szállodával kapcsolatos problémáik lerendezéséig bezáróan. Késmárki-Gally (2015) szerint, a digitális korszakban pl. egy elektronikus piactér nemcsak a kereslet és kínálat találkozásának helyszíne, hanem egy tudásbázis is.

Az Y generáció utazása előtt, elsődlegesen a különböző online véleményoldalakat tanulmányozza (pl.: Tripadvisor) és bizalmát abba a szállodába helyezi, amelyről a legjobb visszajelzéseket olvassa. Yu és Singh

(2002) szerint az elektronikus kereskedelem egyik legnagyobb kihívása, a bizalom megteremtése a felek között. Baranyai (2017) úgy véli, hogy nemzetgazdasági ágazattól függetlenül kijelenthető, a partnerek közötti magas szintű bizalom a gazdasági tranzakciók hatékonysága és eredményessége szempontjából kulcsfontosságú. Például Baranyai et al. (2017) kutatásában igazolta, hogy a termelők közötti magasabb szintű bizalom statisztikailag is igazolhatóan jobb teljesítményt és a jobb pénzügyi eredményességen keresztül magasabb elégedettséget eredményezett egy termelői szerveződésben. Ez a szállodaiparban is így működik, hisz minél elégedettebb a vendég egy adott szállodával és annak szolgáltatásával, annál jobb véleményt fog írni az online vendégvisszajelző oldalakra, amivel növeli a szálloda népszerűségét és egyben bevételét is.

A Milleniálisok szívesen szállnak meg az úgynevezett" lifestyle hotelekben" utazásaik során. A lifestyle szálláshelyeket a BLLA[13] a boutique hotelek egy újabb generációjaként határozza meg, melyek egy adott szállodalánchoz tartoznak. Ezen szállodák magukban foglalják a boutique szállodák elemeit – kis méret, modern, különleges design- ugyanakkor biztosítják utazóik számára a szállodaláncból adódó előnyöket is, mint például a hűségprogram rendszert és a kellemesebb árfekvést.

A HOTREC megbízásából 2017-ben a TCI Research is felmérést készített arról, hogy az utazók a szállodáktól és éttermektől milyen szolgáltatásokat és termékeket várnak el a jövőben.

Az Y generációs vendégek jellemzően olyan szállodákat keresnek, amelyek trendi dizájnt, digitális újításokat és személyre szabott szolgáltatásokat is nyújtanak, továbbá a helyi változatos programok mellett biztosítják számukra a „wow" hatást."[14] A felmérés olyan tendenciákat, információkat tartalmaz, melyek segíthetik a turisztikai szolgáltatókat vendégeik megtartásában, elégedettségük fokozásában.

A TCI Research vezérigazgatója, Olivier Henry-Biabaud megállapítja: *"A szállás és az étkezés két olyan szempont, amelyek egyre inkább befolyásolják a látogatók élményét egy adott helyen. A több választási lehetőség miatt a vendégeknek magasabb elvárásai vannak a szállodákkal és éttermekkel szemben, amelyeknek törekedniük kell, hogy még inkább megkülönböztessék magukat versenytársaiktól, egyedibbé váljanak. A felmérésből kiderül, hogy az ágazatnak számos lehetősége van arra, hogy megfeleljen a „gondtalan utazás" iránti igénynek, a különleges vendégelvárásoknak, miközben*

[13] Boutique & Lifestyle Lodging Association, https://www.xotels.com/en/glossary/lifestyle-hotel. Letöltve: 2017.11.04

[14] Ma már csak ilyen szállodába megy az Y generáció, http://kamaraonline.hu/cikk/ma-mar-csak-ilyen-szallodaba-megy-az-y-generacio Letöltve: 2017.11.05

sértetlenül megőrzi a klasszikus, valódi vendéglátás érzetét".[15]

A vásárlói igényekre történő gyors reagálást segíti elő az új technológiák és trendek alapos ismerete is. Éppen ezért a legnagyobb szállodai márkák elkezdtek összeolvadni a különböző boutique szállodaláncokkal, amire az egyik legjobb példa az IHG (InterContinental Hotels Group PLC) és a Kimpton[16] egyesülése, miután rájöttek arra, hogy az Y generáció vásárlói szokásai eltérnek az eddigiektől, hisz nem a standardizált szolgáltatásokat, hanem a személyre szabottakat részesítik előnybe.[17]

Az új innovatív technológiai megoldások egyre több vendéget vonzanak a digitális éra generációjából is. Az egyik ilyen nóvumot már több nemzetközi szállodalánc is alkalmazza, bár egyelőre még csak a hűséges, visszatérő vendégprogramban részt vevő vásárlók körében. Ennek keretében a vendégek már elektronikusan is be tudnak jelentkezni érkezéskor a szállodába, amit megtehetnek mobiltelefonról, vagy akár egy Apple óráról is. Ez a folyamat úgy működik, hogy amikor a vendégszoba visszaigazolása megtörténik, a vendég azonnal kap egy sms-t, melyben a szálloda tájékoztatja a vendéget a szobaszámról, a bejelentkezés és kijelentkezés idejéről, illetve egyéb fontos információkról. Az érkezés napján, az új technológiai megoldásnak köszönhetően, a vendégnek nem kell személyesen odafáradnia a recepcióhoz, hanem egyszerűen csak felmegy a szobájába és vagy a telefonját, vagy az Apple óráját tudja szobakulcsként alkalmazni (Sanghi, 2014). Jelenleg kizárólag az Apple céggel van ilyen szállodai megállapodás.

A Hilton Worldwide világszerte több, mint 3 700 szállodájában vezette be a hűségprogramban (HHonors) résztvevő vendégek számára a digitális vendégérkezést szobaválasztási funkcióval. A Starwood szállodalánc már több szállodai márkájánál – mint az Aloft, Element és W hotelek – is bevezette a mobiltelefonos szobakulcs megoldást.[18] A láthatatlan vendégérkezés egyfelől jó a szállodának, hisz ezzel a megoldással csökkenteni tudják a Front Desk túlterheltségét, másfelől jó a vendégeknek, hisz kényelmes, nyugalmas, gyors szolgáltatásban részesülhetnek, mely még a szálloda Tripadvisor pontjainak növekedésében is megnyilvánulhat (Kinsella, 2015).

Bár a turisztikai, szállodai szektor egyik legmarkánsabb szegmense jelenleg az Y generáció, a szakemberek már elkezdték

[15] Ezeket az élményeket keresik a vendégek a hotelekben és az éttermekben, http://turizmusonline.hu/friss/cikk/ezeket_az_elmenyeket_keresik_a_vendegek_a_hotelekben_es_az_ettermekben, Letöltés: 2017.11.05.

[16] https://www.kimptonhotels.com/ihg-faq, Letöltve: 2017.11.05

[17] Millennials in the hospitality industry: how hotels need to adapt, https://www.daylighted.com/blog/millennials-in-the-hospitality-industry-how-hotels-need-to-adapt/ Letöltve: 2017.11.04

[18] Hilton Worldwide Truly Opens Doors: Company to Roll Out Mobile Room Keys in 2015 at Hundreds of U.S. Hotels Across Four Brands, (2014, November 03) http://www.hiltonworldwideglobalmediacenter.com/index.cfm/newsroom/detail/27701, Letöltés dátuma: 2015.03.21

feltérképezni az őket követő Z generáció jellemzőit, szokásait.

A Z generáció fogyasztási és költési szokásai

A Horwath HTL kutatása[19] szerint a Z generációra, amely teljesen integrálódott a digitális világba és könnyen alkalmazkodik a változásokhoz, különös figyelmet kell fordítania a turizmus szektornak, pl. a szállodáknak felül kell vizsgálniuk hosszú távú stratégiáikat, és mérlegelniük kell, hogy az általuk nyújtott szolgáltatások megfelelnek-e e nemzedék szükségleteinek és elvárásainak. Ami eddig hatékonyan működött a szállodákban, nem biztos, hogy továbbra is hatékony lesz e fogyasztói szegmens esetében. E generáció fogyasztói szokásainak megismerését és a hozzájuk való alkalmazkodást mihamarabb el kell kezdeni. A Z generáció valós idejű információkat, rövid, mégis nagyon hatásos üzeneteket vár el, többnyire képekben és videókban, olyan csatornákon keresztül, amelyek lehetővé teszik számukra az interakciót, az együttes létrehozást (co-creation) és az információk megosztását. Hangulatjelekkel és matricákkal kommunikálnak, amelyek a hagyományos szövegeket helyettesítik.

A turisztikai szolgáltatónak meg kell tanulniuk a digitális bennszülöttek speciális nyelvét, hogy interakcióba léphessenek és kommunikálhassanak velük. A Z generációnak nyújtott szolgáltatások piacának megteremtése érdekében a vállalatoknak több platformon keresztül kell megismertetniük a történetüket, bemutatni értékeiket, kiváló márkákat létrehozni, társadalmilag felelősnek lenniük, e fogyasztói csoportot is felnőttként kell kezelniük, tisztelniük kell véleményüket, hogy létrejöhessen a közösen kialakított szolgáltatás. A szolgáltatások fogyaszthatóságának és személyre szabásának szükségessége esetükben most nagyobb, mint valaha.

A Pécsi Egyetem Z generációjával kapcsolatos projektjében[20] a szegmensről az alábbiakat írták le Kései (2011) kutatása alapján. A Digitális Generáció még gyorsabban éli életét, mint az Y generáció, melynek momentumait folyamatosan megosztja a nyilvánossággal.

Fontos számukra: a személyi szabadság, a praktikusság, az elektronikus eszközök ismerete és magas szintű kezelése, valamint a kezdeményezőkészség és bátorság. Nem félnek a változástól, hisz ebbe a makro környezetbe születtek bele, továbbá nem érdekli őket a szabályok betartása sem. Nem igazán tudják érzéseiket kifejezni, így a szavak és érzelmek kevésbé jellemzik a generációt. Fogyasztói szempontból a lojalitás nem erősségük.

Tari (2011) ugyanakkor felhívja a figyelmet arra is a Z generáció kapcsán,

[19] http://29b8je4dgl4v2ndf9h4bmut9.wpengine.netdna-cdn.com/files/2015/12/Tourism-Mega-Trends4.pdf Letöltés: 2016. 10. 10.

[20] Pál Eszter (2013): A Z generációról, TÁMOP-4.2.3-12/1/KONV-2012-0016 , Tudománykommunikáció a Z generációnak, Projektvezető: Dr. Törőcsik Mária PTE KTK egyetemi tanár

hogy ők az első globális nemzedék, ami azt jelenti, hogy – nemzetiségtől függetlenül – ugyanazon ételeket és zenéket szeretik, ugyanabban a kultúrában nőttek fel, sőt ugyanazokat a divatmárkákat használják a világ minden részén, hisz mindenki, mindig online van, akár okos telefonokon, vagy akár más információs technológiai eszközön.

A Z generáció online költési szokásait térképezte fel Roché (2016), aki cikkében leírja, hogy 2020-ra már a Z generáció teszi ki a vásárlók legnagyobb csoportját: 40%-ban az Egyesült Államokban, Európában, Brazíliában, Oroszországban, Indiában és Kínában, 10%-ban pedig a világ többi részén.

A szolgáltatóknak tudomásul kell venniük, hogy ez a generáció merőben más, mint elődeik. Meg kell érteni, hogy ezek a nagyon fiatal emberek, komoly hatással bírnak a gazdaságra, éppen ezért ismerni kell fogyasztói szokásaikat, költési mintájukat.

A digitális generáció 4 kulcsfontosságú költési szokásai a következők:[21]

1. Vásárlásaik során, nem márkahűek

”A Z generáció számára, maguk a termékek sokkal fontosabbak, mint a márka. Ezek a vásárlók nagyon gyorsan és könnyen váltanak márkát, abban a reményben, hogy magasabb minőséget találnak.” (Martin-Wilbourne Partners)

2. Evés, alvás, légzés csak digitálisan

A Z generáció állandóan a digitális környezetben él. Éppen ezért a kereskedelemmel szemben is digitális elvárásai vannak.

3. Saját kutatást végeznek

A Z generáció kb. 57%-a végez saját kutatást a vásárolandó termékek körében, mielőtt meghozná vásárlási döntését.

4. Szívesebben vásárolnak online

A Z generáció jövedelmének jóval magasabb részét költi el online, mint az előző generációk. Minél többen kerülnek ki majd közülük a munkaerőpiacra, annál nagyobb lesz online költésük is.

A szolgáltatóknak nem csak azzal kell tisztában lenniük, hogy a Z generáció mikor, mit és hol vásárol, hanem azzal is, hogy ezek a vásárlások milyen technológiai eszközökön keresztül történnek.

Az Egyesült Államokban az IBM és a National Retail Federation (NRF) legfrissebb tanulmánya szerint[22] a Z generáció vásárlása során, személyre

[21] Michael Roche (2016): Know Your Consumer: 4 Online Spending Habits of Generation Z, http://payments.cardinalcommerce.com/spending-habits-of-genz, Letöltés: 2017.11.19.

[22] Helen Leggatt: 98% of Generation Z shop in-store, but challenges ahead for retailers (2017): http://www.bizreport.com/2017/01/98-of-generation-z-shop-in-store-but-challenges-ahead-for-re.html, Letöltés: 2017.12.30

szabott szolgáltatást, interaktív élményeket, valamint a legújabb digitális megoldásokat (előnyöket) várja el a szolgáltatótól.

A felmérésből többek között az is kiderül, hogy a Z generáció mire költ. Nagyon érdekes, hogy a lista élén 77%-kal az ételek és italok állnak, amit a bútorok (76%) és háztartási eszközök (73%) követnek, majd a sort, negyedik helyen az utazások (66%) foglalják el.

A leggyakrabban használt technológiai eszközök pedig: az okos telefon (75%), laptop (45%), számítógép (30%), tablet (10%), Xbox (8%), interaktív, okos TV (3%), illetve hordható eszközök pl.: óra (1%).[23]

A tanulmányból is jól érzékelhető, hogy a szolgáltatóknak képezniük kell magukat ahhoz, hogy ne veszítsék el a legújabb generációt.

Módszertan

Tanulmányunk célja a digitális bennszülöttek, azaz a Z generáció fogyasztói szokásainak és elvárásainak megismerése a szállodai szolgáltatások esetében. Empirikus pilot kutatásunkat alapját egy kérdőíves megkérdezés adta, melynek mintavételi keretéül a Budapesti Metropolitan Egyetem Turizmus-vendéglátás alapszakos és Turizmus-menedzsment mesterszakos nappalis és levelezős hallgatóinak listája szolgált. A kérdőíves vizsgálat az elérhető legjobb módszer az olyan kutató számára, aki a közvetlen megfigyeléshez túlságosan nagyméretű alapsokaság leírásához akar eredeti adatokat gyűjteni. A kérdőíves vizsgálatok nagyszerűen megfelelnek nagyobb alapsokaság attitűdjeinek vagy orientációinak mérésére is. Jellemzőjük viszont az alacsony érvényesség és a magas megbízhatóság is, ezért a kérdések kialakítására, megfogalmazására és sorrendjére nagy hangsúlyt kell fektetni. Az eredmények jól általánosíthatóak, de figyelmet kell fordítani a „túláltalánosítás" elkerülésére, azaz a kritikus esetek elemzésére is célszerű gondot fordítani (Babbie, 2000).

Online felületen készített, retrospektív kérdőíves kutatásunkba azon hallgatók kerülhettek be, akik az elmúlt fél évben legalább egy vendégéjszakát eltöltöttek szállodában itthon vagy külföldön. A kitöltött kérdőívek száma 406 db, melyek közül az adattisztítás után kutatásunkban felhasználható volt 332 db (N). Generációs megoszlást tekintve mintánk közel kiegyensúlyozott, hiszen a válaszadók 45%-a, 149 fő az Y generáció, míg 55%-a a Z generáció tagjai közül került ki.

A kérdőív zárt típusú, nominális, ordinális, illetve Likert-skálán mért kérdéseket tartalmazott. A kérdőíves felmérés előtt az érvényesség növelése érdekében tesztkérdőívezést végeztünk,

[23] https://nrf.com/resources/retail-library/uniquely-gen-z, Letöltés: 2017.12.30.

melynek következtében néhány kérdésfeltevést és válaszalternatívát módosítottunk. A felmérésre 2017. novemberében és decemberében került sor.

Kutatási eredmények

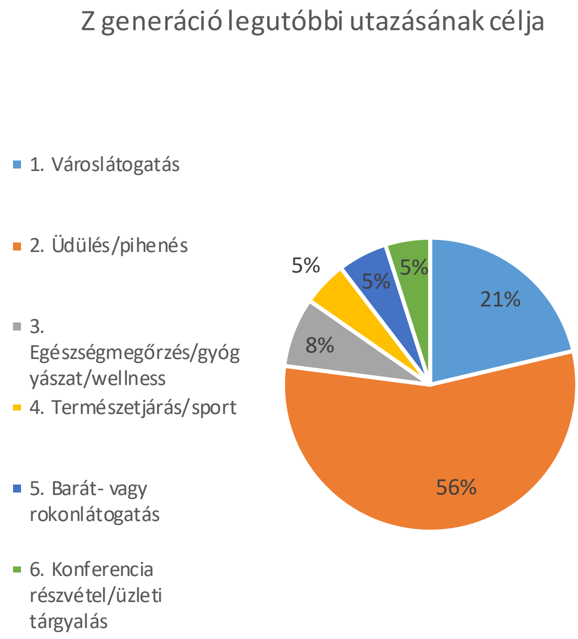
Empirikus kutatási eredményeink feldolgozása során leíró és összehasonlító statisztikai elemzéseket végeztünk annak érdekében, hogy kutatási kérdéseinkre választ kapjunk, ily módon pedig párhuzamot vonhassunk adott mintán a hazai Z generáció utazási szokásai és szállodai elvárásai, valamint a nemzetközi kutatások megállapításai között.

<u>A Z generáció utazási szokásai</u>

A 332 főt számláló mintában a férfiak és nők aránya 18% és 82%. Kormegoszlást tekintve mintánk 45%-át az Y, míg 55%-át a Z generáció tagjai adták.

A Z generációhoz tartozó kitöltőink utazási céljai jól igazodnak a magyar lakosok által a központi statisztikák gyűjtése során megjelölt utazási célokhoz (ld. 1. ábra).

24. ábra: A Z generáció legutóbbi utazásának célja

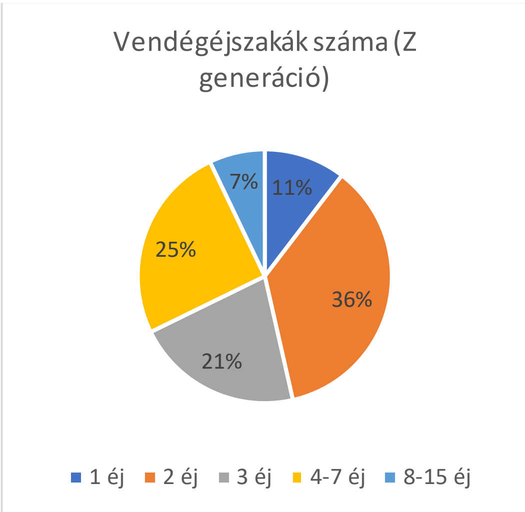


Forrás: Saját empirikus kutatás

A megkérdezettek többsége (56%-a) üdülési és pihenési célból utazott az elmúlt fél évben, a második leggyakoribb utazási cél a városlátogatás volt (21%), melynek oka leginkább a fapados repülőjáratok adta európai nagyvárosok kedvezményes és gyors elérési lehetősége, valamint az egyetemisták kulturális turisztikai szolgáltatások iránti megnövekedett fogyasztási igénye. Harmadik leggyakoribb utazási cél a wellness és egészségmegőrzés (8%) volt, míg e szegmens konferencia, VFR, illetve természetjárás és sport célú utazásainak száma elenyésző (5%).

A minta szállodában töltött idejét vizsgálva (ld. 2. ábra) az egy hétvégés, azaz 2 éjszakás tartózkodások gyakorisága a legnagyobb (36%), ezt követően a 4-7 éjszakás tartózkodások (25%) kedveltek, míg a tradicionális hosszabb, akár kéthetes utazások aránya csekély (7%).

2. ábra: Szállodában töltött éjszakák száma



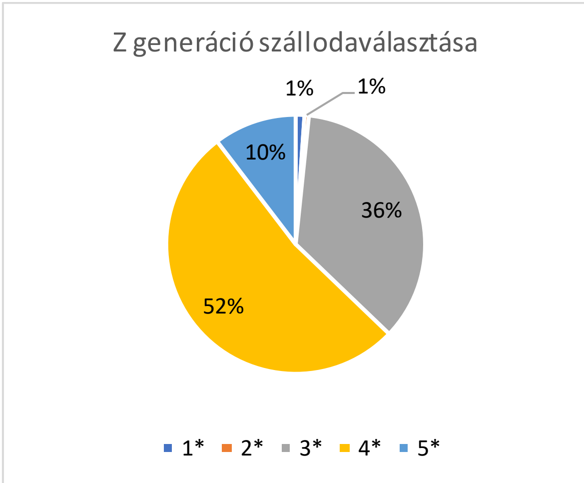
Forrás: Saját empirikus kutatás

Az utazások rövid időtartamával azonban fordított arányosságot mutat azok gyakorisága, hiszen a Z generációs kitöltők 60%-a évente 3-nál több alkalommal is utazik, így utazási szokásaikra nem csupán az éves 1-2 „fő utazáson" való részvétel jellemző, hanem ezek mellett több rövidebb látogatást is szerveznek különböző desztinációkba.

Felmérésünkben vizsgáltuk a kitöltők lojalitását is az adott szállodához. Az ismételt visszatérés a megkérdezettekre nem volt jellemző, a Z generáció 78%-a nem lojális a szállodákhoz.

A választott szálloda kategóriáját tekintve (ld. 3. ábra) jellemzően 4 csillagos szállodákat választanak szálláshelyként (52%), de kedveltek a 3 csillagos szállodák is (36%).

3. ábra: Z generáció által választott szállodák

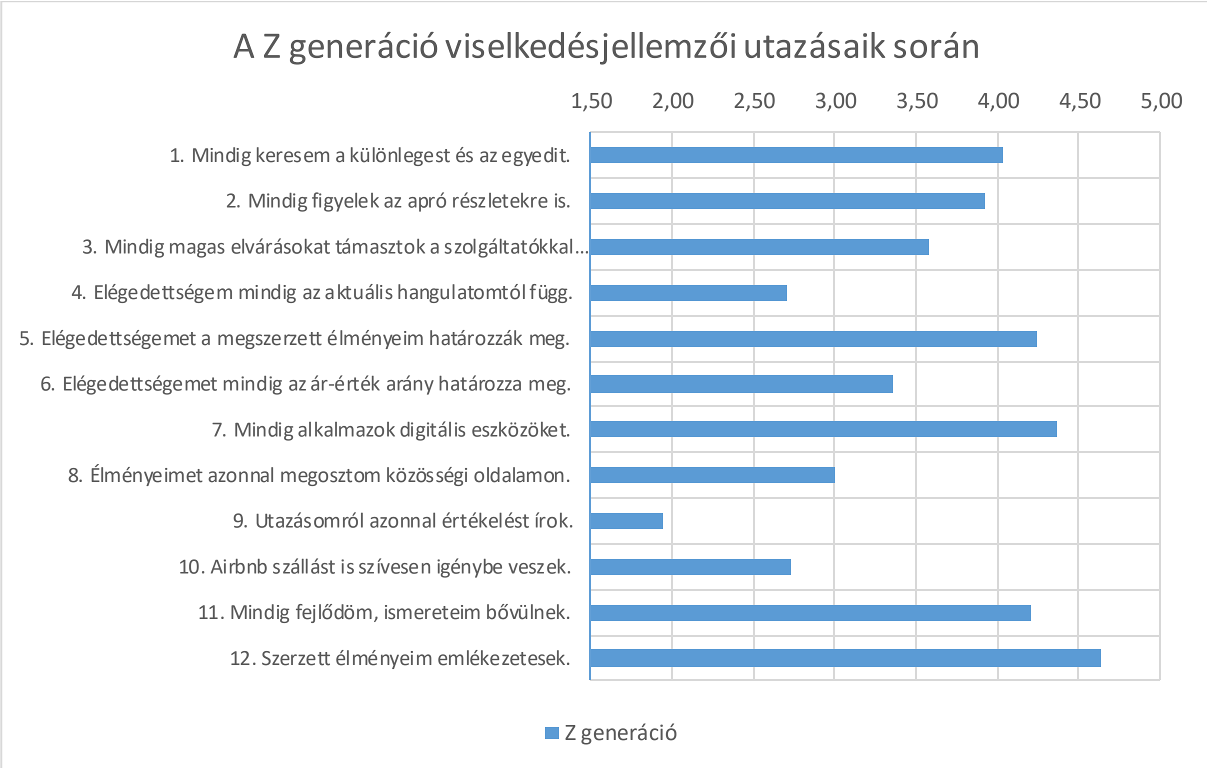


Forrás: Saját empirikus kutatás

Ez az eredmény összefüggésben áll azzal a ténnyel, hogy a Z generáció tagjai tanulmányaik mellett dolgoznak és rendszeres jövedelemmel rendelkeznek, így képesek megfizetni a magasabb kategóriájú szállodákat is. Kutatásunkból az is kiderült, hogy 1 és 2 csillagos szállodákban, panziókban, hostelekben csak nagyon kevesen szállnak meg, arányuk elenyésző, 1-2 százalék csupán.

Kutatásunk során vizsgáltuk, hogy mennyire igazak bizonyos viselkedésjellemzők az alanyainkra utazásaik alatt (1=egyáltalán nem igaz, 5=teljes mértékben igaz). Összességében igaz e generáció tagjaira, hogy utazásaik alkalmával leginkább a különleges, egyedi programokat és szolgáltatásokat keresik, elégedettségüket a megszerzett élményeik befolyásolják. Élményeik összekapcsolhatók a digitális eszközhasználat lehetőségével, hiszen e lehetőségeket folyamatosan keresik, élményeiket általában közösségi oldalaikon is megosztják, ellenben nem jellemzi őket, hogy utazásaikat online felületen azonnal értékelnék. (Ld. 4. ábra)

4. ábra: Z generáció viselkedésjellemzői utazásaik során



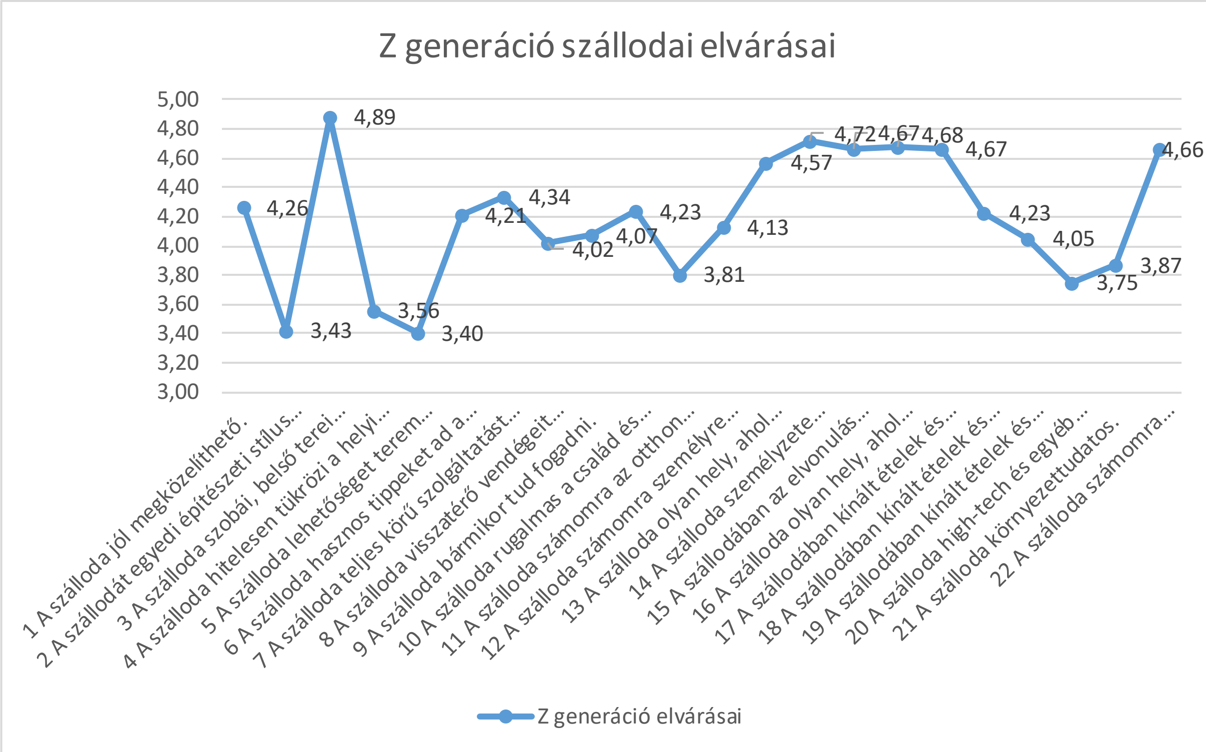
Forrás: Saját empirikus kutatás

A továbbiakban a Z generáció számára értéket jelentő tényezőket és a szállodákkal szemben támasztott legfontosabb elvárásaikat ismertetjük.

<u>A Z generáció számára értéket jelentő tényezők, legfontosabb szállodai elvárásaik</u>

Az alábbi, 5. ábrából jól leolvasható, mely tényezők jelentenek értéket a Z szegmens számára, illetve az is, az egyes tényezők között, melyek a legfontosabbak.

5. ábra: Z generáció viselkedésjellemzői utazásaik során

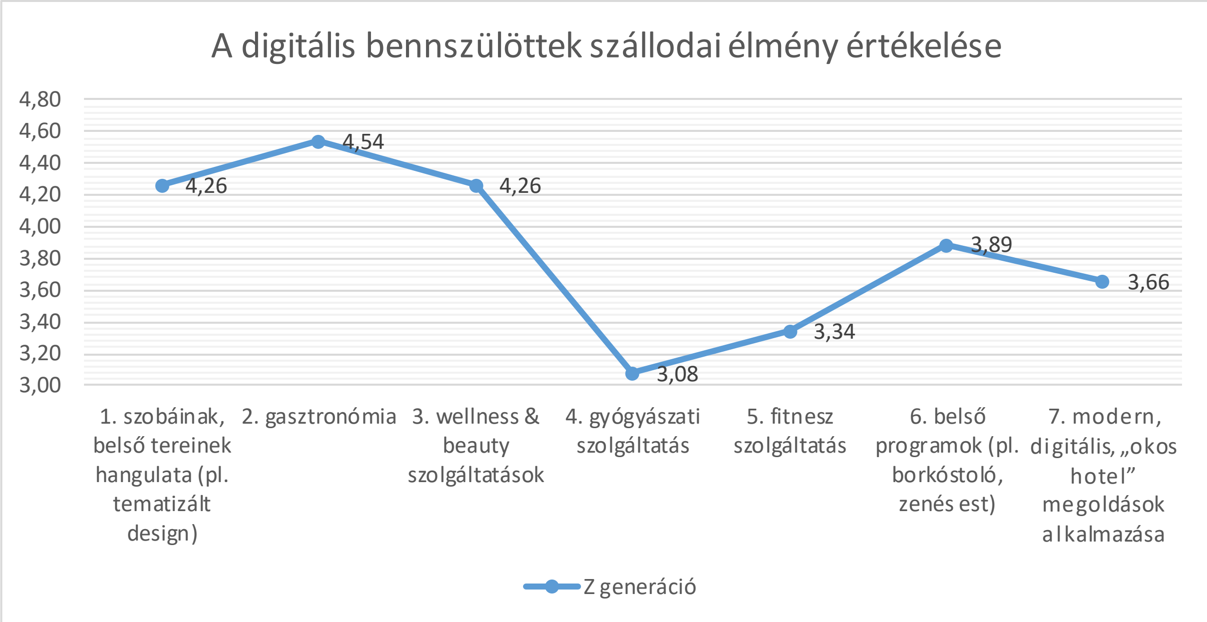


Forrás: Saját empirikus kutatás

A szegmens szállodákkal szemben támasztott legmagasabb (4,5 érték feleletti) elvárása 1. a szobák tisztasága (4,89), azaz első helyen egy kognitív, minőséghez kötött értékdimenziót jelöltek meg, majd 2. a barátságos és vendégszerető személyzet (4,72), 3. a biztonság (4,68), illetve 4. helyen az elvonulási lehetőség (4,67) és az ízletes ételek, italok (4,67) fontossága kiemelkedő. Ezt követően szintén kiemelkedő fontossággal bír számukra a 5. az ár-érték arány (4,66), valamint 6. a rekreációs, feltöltődési lehetőség (4,57).

Kíváncsiak voltunk, mekkora élményt jelent a Z generáció számára a szállodák által nyújtott szolgáltatások köre (ld. 6. ábra). Az értékelést az alanyok 1-től 5-ig terjedő skálán végezhették el, ahol az 1 „az egyáltalán nem jelent élményt számomra”, az 5 pedig „az igazi élményt jelent számomra” válaszopciót jelölte.

6. ábra: Z generáció viselkedésjellemzői utazásaik során



Forrás: Saját empirikus kutatás

Az ábrából jól látható, a digitális éra szülöttei számára legmagasabb élményértéket a szálloda gasztronómiai szolgáltatásai jelentenek, majd ezt követik a wellness/beauty szolgáltatások, melyek ugyanolyan élménydúsak számukra, mint a szálloda hangulata, belső tereinek design-ja. Ezt követően e generáció tagjai a szállodai belső, tematikus programokat kedvelik, valamint tetszik nekik, ha a szálloda modern és „okos hotel" megoldásokat is alkalmaz. Fiatal koruk ellenére azonban a sport és fitnesz szolgáltatások nem jelentenek kiemelkedő élményt számukra.

Következtetések

Pilot kutatásunk során célunk volt feltárni korunk egyik meghatározó fogyasztói szegmensének, a Z generációnak az utazási szokásait, valamint választ kerestünk arra a kérdésre is, mi jelent számukra értéket szállodai tartózkodásuk során, milyen elvárásokat támasztanak a szállodákkal szemben, valamint a szállodák által nyújtott szolgáltatások élményt jelentenek-e számukra.

Eredményeink a tekintetben igazodtak a már tényként kezelt nemzetközi trendekhez, miszerint napjaink turistái éves szinten inkább többször utaznak több élményt is keresve e magatartással, de utazásik hossza lerövidül. Turistáink egyre kevésbé lojálisak, láthattuk, hogy a Z generáció tagjai sem azok, új élményékre vágynak, keresik az egyedit, a különlegest utazásaik során, valamint a személyre szabott élményeket, melyeket digitális eszközök segítségével meg is osztanak közösségi oldalaikon. Láthattuk, hogy kedvelik a hotelek „okos megoldásait”, azaz szolgáltatásainak digitalizációját, ugyanakkor ez számukra nem annyira élményként, inkább elvárásként jelenik meg.

A magyar Z generáció jellemzői abban a tekintetben viszont eltérést mutatnak a nemzetközi kutatások megállapításaihoz képest, hogy legfontosabb elvárásuk a szállodákkal szemben a kognitív értékek megléte, pilot kutatásunkban ez a szobák tisztaságára vonatkozó minőségi tényezőt jelentette, ezt követően a fontossági rangsorban már affektív értékdimenziók jelennek meg, mint a vendégszeretet, relaxáció, gasztronómiai élmények. A szegmens számára kiemelten fontosnak vélt ár dimenzió csupán mindezek után következik az elvárás rangsorban.

A szegmens növekvő vásárlóerejét bizonyítja, hogy a mostani fiatal generáció felsőfokú tanulmányai mellett dolgozik is, teljes értékű jövedelemmel rendelkezik, melyet szívesen költ utazásra, szállodaválasztásai során pedig a magasabb áron elérhető 4 csillagos szállodákat választja legszívesebben. Napjaikban nagyobb gazdasági potenciál van ebben a szegmensben, mint az előző generációk ifjú korában, másképp is kell kezelni őket, értékrendjük, igényeik és kommunikációs nyelvük megismerése és az arra adott hatékony szolgáltatói válaszok a kínálati oldal, így a szállodák jövőbeni versenyképességét is meghatározzák.

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Az Employer Branding helyzete Magyarországon

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Bevezetés

„Az élőmunka, mint az alapvető termelési tényezők egyike, a vállalati tevékenység egyik fő erőforrása." (Bereczk, 2013, 3.) Minősége, rendelkezésre állása alapvetően meghatározza a vállalat versenyképességét, azonban a jelenlegi munkaerőpiacon *a megfelelő munkaerő megtalálása és megtartása komoly kihívást jelent a humán szakemberek számára*.

Jelenleg a *hazai munkaerőpiacot az kettősség jellemzi*, miszerint bizonyos szektorokban a cégek munkaerőhiánnyal küzdenek, miközben a társadalomban még mindig jelentős a munkanélküliek száma. Ezt a kettősséget részben a strukturális munkanélküliség okozza, mely szerint a munkaerő kereslete és kínálata nem találkozik egymással. Ennek okai elsősorban az eltérő kompetenciák, valamint az országon belüli területi elhelyezkedés. Ahhoz, hogy a HR szakemberek ennek ellenére biztosítani tudják a vállalat számára a szükséges munkaerőt, azzal is foglalkozniuk kell, hogy a munkaerőpiacra olyan *új generációk léptek és lépnek be*, akik számára az elkötelezettség nem magától értetődő, és akik komoly elvárásokat támasztanak a vállalatok felé a munkahelyi körülményekkel, a munka feltételeivel kapcsolatban. A mai fiatalokat az önmegvalósítás, az ambíció, a siker, a kreativitás, az innováció, az újító szellem, a folyamatos tanulás, a szakmai fejlődés jellemzi. (Tompa, 2010) Számukra sokkal fontosabb a család, mint a munka, és a korábbi generációknál többre tartják a munka-magánélet egyensúlyát. (Tari, 2010) Ez a generáció néhány évente új kihívásokra és előrelépési lehetőségre vágyik, így maximum 2-3 évre lehet őket lekötni, ami a vállalatok szempontjából meglehetősen rossz tendencia. (Tompa, 2010) A munkahelyek váltása természetes számukra, ha jobb ajánlatot kapnak, kilépnek, mivel nem jellemző rájuk az elköteleződés. (Ferincz - Szabó, 2012)

Emiatt a munkaerő-piaci helyzet miatt a téma jelentőségét a munkaerő megtartásának és vonzásának fontosságában, ezáltal pedig a fluktuáció egészséges szintre való csökkentésében látom, hiszen egyetlen vállalat számára sem jelent pozitív jövőképet, ha a munkavállalói állománya a magas fluktuációs szint miatt szinte folyamatosan cserélődik. Ehhez azonban figyelmet kell szentelniük munkaadói márkájuknak. Kádár és Takács definíciója szerint „*az Employer Branding olyan átfogó szaktevékenység, amelynek célja vonzó, megkülönböztető és hiteles munkáltatói személyiség (márka) kialakítása HR, marketing és kommunikációs területek együttműködésével, a felső vezetés stratégiai támogatásával, azon céllal, hogy a kiemelt tehetségeket és hiányszakmák szakértőit a vállalathoz vonzzuk, megtartsuk, illetve a meglévő munkavállalók elkötelezettségét növeljük az eredményesség érdekében*." (2016)

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Irodalmi áttekintés

Az Employer Branding HR aspektusa

Horváth szerint az a cég, amely nem törekszik önként a munkavállalói elégedettségre, az hosszú távon kudarcra van ítélve. *A munkavállalók elégedettsége a munkahely vonzóságán túl a bevételekre, a versenyképességre, a tőzsdei besorolásra és a brandre is komoly hatással van.* (2016) A munkáltatói márkaépítés HR elemei meglehetősen komplex témákat foglalnak magukban. A toborzás, a kiválasztás, a fejlesztés, javadalmazás összességében járulnak hozzá ahhoz, hogy a munkáltató valóban vonzó, egyedi és megkülönböztethető legyen a munkavállalók és a jelöltek körében. A jelenlegi munkavállalók azok, akik közvetlen szereplői ezeknek a folyamatoknak, így ők azok, akik véleményükkel elősegíthetik azok optimalizálását. (Kádár - Takács, 2016.). Csikós-Nagy szerint a munkavállalók elkötelezettségét nagyban befolyásolja, hogy elégedettek-e a munkába járás idejével, feltételeivel, a műszakbeosztással, túlóra lehetőségével és annak pénzügyi vonzatával, a szállásoltatás feltételeivel, a munkafeltételekkel, munka jellegével, a környező munkáltatókhoz képest elérhető bérszínvonallal, egyéb juttatásokkal, a cég hírnevével, a vállalati légkörrel, valamint a vezetők emberi bánásmódjával, a kiválasztási, beillesztési folyamat kidolgozottságával, a szervezeti változások menedzselésével. (2016)

Ebből kiindulva úgy gondolom, hogy a vállalatoknak érdemes foglalkoznia a munkaidő, a juttatási rendszer, a munkahelyi légkör és a munkahelyi körülmények, a vezetői bánásmód, valamint a toborzási és kiválasztása, illetve a hozzákapcsolódó beillesztési folyamat jelentőségével, és megítélésével, helyzetével, mint a munkaadói márka legjelentősebb összetevőivel.

A márkaépítés lépései

Mint már említettem, *az employer branding többek között a HR, a marketing és PR osztályok, valamint a felsővezetők együttműködésével alakítható ki.* Jelen tanulmányban főképp a HR tevékenység jelentőségével foglalkozom, de emellett elengedhetetlenül fontosnak tartom bemutatni a márkaépítés egyes lépéseit, ahol az említett osztályok együttműködésére kiemelten szükség van, valamint azokat a tényezőket, amelyek a munkaadói márka kommunikációjának szempontjából bírnak nagy jelentőséggel.

A munkaadói márka kialakítása során a külső és belső aktivitás együtt szükségeltetik, a megjelenés, bevonzás, toborzás-kiválasztás külső kommunikációja mellett a megtartás, a lojalitás, a belső kommunikáció, a képzések, a szakmai lehetőségek, a közösen megélt események szintén elengedhetetlenül fontosak. Ezeket a folyamatokat viszont csak úgy lehet összehangolni és eredményesen kezelni, ha azt valóban egy stratégiai programba foglalva, felelős vezető irányítása alatt a szakterületek együttműködve, lépésenként építkezve valósítják meg a vállalatnál. (Kádár - Takács, 2016) Fontos, hogy *csak azt és akkor kommunikálja a vállalat kívül és belül, ha az a háttérben valóban megérett a működtetésre.* Ahhoz, hogy ez így történjen, pontosan meg kell határoznia a vállalatnak, hogy ki mikor mit tesz, vagyis tisztáznia kell a felelősségi köröket és az elvégzendő feladatokat már a tervezés fázisában. (Kádár - Takács,

2016) Kádár és Takács szerint egy teljes Employer Branding folyamat időtartama általában 1-3 év, Csermely szerint ez az időtartam a *vállalat nagyságától és az iparág komplexitásától függően akár 5-10 évig is eltarthat.* (2011) Érdemes tehát a vállalatoknak minél hamarabb felismernie és elismerni a munkaadói márkaépítés fontosságát, különben komoly versenyhátrányba kerülhetnek azokkal a konkurens vállalatokkal szemben, akik már elkezdtek foglalkozni a jelenlegi helyzetük felmérésével, vagy akár már a stratégiájuk kialakításánál tartanak.

1. Lépés: Jelenlegi helyzet felmérése

Akárcsak a stratégiai tervezésnél, vagy más menedzsment részlegek funkcionális tervének elkészítésénél, a munkaadói márka felépítésének *első lépése szintén a jelenlegi helyzet felmérése, elemzése*, hiszen ennek alapján tudja meghatározni a vállalat, hogy milyen további lehetőségei vannak. A mindennapi működés során biztos, hogy észrevehetünk olyan elemeket, amelyekre lehet építeni, amelyek a későbbiekben a márka alapjait képezhetik, hiszen ezek az elemek már most szerves részei a vállalati kultúrának. Csermely szerint „minden vállalatnak van egy bizonyos szintű vonzereje a munkaerő-piacon, még annak a munkahelynek is, amelyik nem fordít semmilyen plusz energiát és pénzt a tehetségek vonzására." (Csermely, 2011, 16.) Takács szerint is *a tudatosan felépített employer branding stratégia a már meglévő alapokra épít, azokat egészíti ki és szervezi egy logikai rendszerbe.* Szerinte a következő területek bizonyos elemei biztosan alkalmasak arra, hogy a márkaépítés alapjául szolgáljanak egy vállalat számára, így ezek vizsgálata elengedhetetlen a sikeres Employer Branding stratégia kialakítása során:

- Értékek, vállalati célok és kultúraelemek feltárása, elemzése

A vállalat céljai meghatározhatók a küldetésnyilatkozat, vagyis a küldetés és a jövőkép elemzésével, valamint a stratégiai célokhoz kapcsolódó operatív, illetve funkcionális tervben megjelölt célok megismerésével. A vállalati kultúra elemzésével feltárhatóak a vállalat értékei, illetve azok a szervezeti erőforrások, amelyek a *vállalati kultúrából adódnak*, és amelyekre az Employer Branding stratégia kialakítása során, mint a vállalat egyik erősségére építeni lehet. Ilyen szervezeti erőforrások lehetnek a vállalathoz kapcsolódó érzések, értékek, hiedelmek és attitűdök, amelyek a *vállalaton belüli szokások, történetek, problémamegoldó és konfliktusfeloldó módszerek, illetve hagyományok* formájában testesülnek meg. Szintén idetartozik, hogy például van-e a vállalaton belül elvárt öltözködési forma, vagy, hogy a munkavállalók fontosabbnak tartják-e a csoportcélokat egyéni céljaiknál, valamint hogy valóban egyenlő esélyekkel rendelkeznek-e a nők illetve a férfiak a vállalaton belüli érvényesülés és előrelépés szempontjából. Mészáros szerint a kultúra látható elemeinek vizsgálatánál elemezhetjük például a cég honlapját, az itt található információkat, vagy a cég épületét, az irodákat, ezek elrendezését, kialakítását, berendezését, a munkatársak öltözetét, a demográfiai adatokat. A nem látható elemek vizsgálatához, szervezeti kultúra feltárásához megfigyelést, csoportos és egyéni strukturálatlan vagy félig strukturált interjút, valamint kérdőívet is alkalmazhatunk, illetve alkalmazhatjuk ezek valamilyen kombinációját is, attól függően, hogy mennyi időt és anyagi erőforrást tud a vállalat a szervezeti kultúra mérésére és ezen keresztül a márkaépítésre fordítani. (Mészáros, 2013)

- Vállalat erősségeinek definiálása

A vállalat erősségeinek meghatározásakor tulajdonképpen arra a kérdésre keressük a választ, hogy mi teszi a vállalatot vonzóvá, és a versenytársak – akár iparági, akár szakmai – körében egyedivé. Ilyen erősség lehet például a jó munkakörnyezet, a rugalmas munkaidő, a home office lehetősége, a nemzetközi háttér, a külföldi tapasztalatszerzés lehetősége, a magas színvonalú képzési rendszer, a gyakornoki program, a karrierlehetőségek, a vezetők megfelelő személyisége és alkalmassága, a munkatársak összetartása és a csapatmunka, vagy éppen a kiemelkedő bérezési és javadalmazási rendszer.

- Belső-külső célcsoportok azonosítása és jellemzőik meghatározása: hatékony bevonzás és megtartás alapja

Mind a vállalaton belül, mind pedig a vállalaton kívül meg kell határoznunk különböző célcsoportokat, hiszen a különböző dimenziók alapján szegmentált *csoportoknak különböző elvárásai és igényei vannak* a vállalattal, a munkafeltételekkel, a munkakörnyezettel, a munkaidővel, a juttatásokkal és az előrelépési lehetőségekkel kapcsolatban is. Teljesen más elvárásokat fog támasztani a munkahellyel kapcsolatban egy kisgyermekes anyuka, akinek valószínűleg fontos szempont lesz, hogy a vállalat családbarát munkahely-e, mint egy egyetemistának, aki a gyakornoki programban szeretne részt venni. Számára valószínűleg a tapasztalatszerzési és az előrelépési lehetőségek, valamint az egyetemi tanulmányokhoz igazítható rugalmas munkaidő lesznek kulcstényezők a gyakornoki hely kiválasztásakor. A belső célcsoportok tekintetében is fontos kiemelni, hogy beosztás és szakma függvényében teljesen más igényekkel rendelkezhetnek az egyes munkavállalók. Ez persze a vállalat tevékenységi körétől is függ, hiszen más elvárásai lesznek egy szolgáltató vállalat marketingesének, mint egy szalag mellett dolgozó gyári munkásnak. A célcsoportok azonosításához elemezhetjük a munkaköröket, illetve felhasználhatjuk a dolgozókról rendelkezésre álló adatokat. Ehhez nagy segítség lehet az is, ha a vállalat rendelkezik személyügyi informatikai rendszerrel, ami nagyban elősegíti a szükséges adatok gyors elérését.

Az említett tényezők vizsgálatán túl a vállalatoknak *elemeznie kell a munkaerőpiac helyzetének alakulását, a munkaerőpiac szereplőinek igényeit*. Előbbi keretein belül helyi és országos szinten is érdemes vizsgálatokat folytatni például a népesség alakulására, a munkanélküliségi rátára, a körzet lakosság megtartó képességére, illetve oktatási intézmények munkaerő kibocsátásra vonatkozóan. Ezenkívül ismerni kell az egyes szakmák keresletét az iparágban és a térségben, valamint a vállalaton belül. A vállalaton belüli emberi erőforrás igényt a belső kínálat és az ehhez kapcsolódó tervezési mutatók (fluktuáció, stabilitási index, általános szolgálati idő, hiányzási arány, túlórák aránya, megüresedett állások betöltéséhez szükséges idő) vizsgálatával, valamint az előrejelzési módszerek (vezetői döntés, Delphi-módszer, trend analízis, munka tanulmányok módszere, illetve számítógépes modellek és számítógépes szimulációk) segítségével állapíthatjuk meg. (Vekerdy, 2008) A kereslet és a kínálat találkozásán túl a *munkavállalói preferenciáknak és a vállalat által kínált munkáltatói ajánlatoknak is összhangban kell lenniük a munkavállalók vonzása és megtartása érdekében*. Az elemzési folyamat hossza függ a célcsoportok számától, a szegmensek nagyságától és a vállalat méretétől is.

- Dolgozói elégedettség, elkötelezettség felmérések

A dolgozói elégedettséget mérhetjük kérdőívvel, vagy akár interjút is készíthetünk bizonyos emberekkel úgy, hogy az érintettek minden területet képviseljenek. Mindenképpen lehetőséget kell adni nekik, hogy elmondhassák azokat az esetlegesen felmerülő problémáikat, amelyek megnehezítik számukra a mindennapi munkavégzést, és amelyek megszüntetésével elkötelezettségük nagyban növelhető lenne. Fontos, hogy elmondhassák felmerülő ötleteiket is. Ha egy kolléga távozik a cégtől, tudjuk meg a távozásának valós okát, mert ha az valamilyen változtatható tényező, akkor annak módosításával megakadályozhatjuk, vagy legalábbis késleltethetjük további munkatársak távozását. A dolgozói elkötelezettségről árulkodik számos fentebb említett mutató értéke is.

- Cultural Fit (Soft skills) definiálása

Itt arra a kérdésre keressük a választ, hogy kik, illetve milyen tulajdonsággal rendelkező személyek lehetnek sikeres munkavállalók a vállalatnál. A válasz megtalálásához nagy segítség lehet a munkakörök elemzése és a munkakörökhöz szükséges kompetenciák feltérképezése, valamint a karrier utak, az előrelépési lehetőségek tisztázása. Ehhez szorosan hozzátartozik az elvárt vezetői kompetenciák meghatározása is. Ezek elősegítik a célcsoportok megtalálását és a szervezeti kultúra vizsgálatát, hiszen *a szervezeti kultúra is befolyásolja, hogy milyen kompetenciákkal kell rendelkeznie annak, aki a vállalatnál szeretne dolgozni*.

- Külső-belső fogyasztói márkamérések, márkaismertség kutatások eredményeinek analizálása

A jelenlegi helyzet megismeréséhez hozzátartozik az is, hogy *a jelenlegi munkaadói márka ismertségét felmérjük mind a vállalaton belül, mind pedig a vállalaton kívül, hiszen a jelenlegi helyzet alapozza meg a jövőbeli cselekvési lehetőségeket*. Ennek ismeretében a vállalat meg tudja határozni, hogy mi az, ami már most is jól működik, ami megfelel az elvárásoknak, így a későbbiekben még inkább lehet rá építeni, és mi az, amin változtatni kell, hogy olyan munkaadói márkát tudjon kialakítani a vállalat, ami *valóban vonzó és hiteles*. Az ismertség mérésén túl azokról a *platformokról is információkat kaphat a vállalat, amelyeken hatékonyabban tud kommunikálni*, és melyek azok, amelyek nem minősülnek megfelelő csatornának, mert a rajtuk keresztül közvetített üzenetek nem érnek el a célszemélyekhez vagy célcsoportokhoz.

- Iparági sajátosságok meghatározása (Takács, 2016.)

Elképzelhető, hogy az adott iparág, amelyben a vállalat tevékenykedik, olyan sajátosságokkal rendelkezik, amely vonzóbbá teszi az iparágat más iparágakhoz képest a munkavállalók számára. A kérdés az, hogy kihasználja-e ennek előnyeit a vállalat a toborzás során, kellő mértékben *épít-e az iparág* *erősségeire*. Ilyen sajátosság figyelhető meg például a telekommunikációs szektor esetében, amit gyors ütemű fejlődése, és innováció igénye miatt vált az utóbbi időben igen népszerűvé a fiatalabb generációk körében, nem csak az informatikai szakemberek, hanem más területek szakemberei számára is.

2. Lépés: Alternatív lehetőségek kidolgozása, a megfelelő megoldás megtalálása és megvalósítása

Mivel a munkaadói márkaépítés célja végső soron kettős természetű, - hiszen egyszerre *célja a jelenlegi dolgozók megtartása, elkötelezettségük növelése, valamint az új munkavállalók vonzása is* – így a márkaépítés folyamatának magában kell foglalnia mind a megtartáshoz, mind pedig a vonzáshoz tartozó lépéseket.

Úgy gondolom, hogy csak az a vállalat tud valóban vonzó lenni a lehetséges jelöltek körében, amelyik képes megtartani a jelenlegi munkavállalóit, vagyis képes hosszútávon is megfelelni a munkavállalók igényeinek. A jelenlegi helyzet felmérése és elemzése után a vállalatnak különböző alternatív lehetőségeket kell felvázolni a dolgozók elégedettségének és a vállalat erősségeinek illetve gyenge pontjainak, valamint az iparág sajátosságaiból adódó lehetőségek ismeretében.

Az alternatívák kidolgozása magában foglalja *a kommunikációs stratégia kialakítását*, a márka megtervezését és a köztudatba való bevezetését, a konzisztens vállalati magatartásra alapozva. Arra kell koncentrálni, hogy mire van szüksége a jelenlegi és jövőbeli dolgozóknak, ezután a vállalat képességét kell megteremteni arra, hogy azt az élményt tudja nyújtani a munkavállalóknak, amire vágynak.

Az alternatívák kidolgozása közé tartozik a *konkrét változtatások megtervezése és a legoptimálisabb megoldás bevezetése*. Ilyen változtatás lehet például a rugalmas munkaidő vagy a távmunka bevezetése, egy gyakornoki vagy rotációs program kialakítása, vagy családbarát munkahellyé válva céges gyermekmegőrző kialakítása, esetleg egy teljesítményértékelési, képzési és előléptetési rendszer vagy egy vezetőképző program kialakítása, illetve egy egészségmegőrző program, vagy egy pihenőszoba kialakítása is, de ide tartozik a toborzási, kiválasztási és beillesztési folyamatok felülvizsgálata és optimalizálása, vagy egy ajánlási rendszer bevezetése is. *Azt, hogy az adott vállalatnál mire van igény, a belső felmérések eredményeiből lehet meghatározni*, érdemes viszont mind a toborzási, mind pedig a képzési és előléptetési rendszerek kialakítására, optimalizálására erőforrásokat allokálni a humán erőforrás megfelelő áramlása érdekében. A HR-nek hosszú távú, proaktív, márkaépítő és fenntartó folyamatként kell ezekre a területekre tekintenie.

A munkáltatói arculat kiépítése hosszú folyamat, ami azonban mindenképpen kifizetődő, mivel *hosszú távú, tartós és nehezen másolható versenyelőnyt biztosít a vállalat számára*. Ha a vállalat ígéretei nem esnek egybe a munkavállaló tapasztalataival, a munkavállaló fejében kognitív disszonancia jön létre, ennek következtében elbizonytalanodik, hogy nem jó döntést hozott a vállalatot illetően, és panaszainak hangot ad, megosztja ismerőseivel, amihez kiváló teret jelentenek a közösségi portálok. Az ilyen panaszok aláássák a munkaadói arculatot, így csak azt kommunikálhatjuk magunkról, ami valóban megfigyelhető a vállalatnál, ami hiteles. (Csermely, 2011)

A külső és belső kommunikáció tekintetében szintén alapos tervezésre, és a kommunikációs csatornák hatékonyságának ismeretére van szükség, amelynek mérését még érdemes a jelenlegi helyzet elemzésekor megvalósítani. A belső kommunikációs csatornák esetében használhatunk belső levelező rendszert, megbeszéléseket, belső újságot, hirdetőtáblát, belső céges Facebook csoportot, illetve szervezhetünk különböző rendezvényeket is, amelyek szintén erősíthetik a vállalati kultúrát és a munkatársak közötti összetartást. Külső kommunikációs eszközként a különböző online platformokkal számolhatunk, mint a cég weboldala és karrieroldala, a Facebook, a LinkedIn, a Youtube vagy a céges Blog, illetve különböző híroldalak, vagy egyéb érdekelt platformok, ahol megjelenhetünk. Ezekről a platformokról a későbbiekben még részletesebben említést teszek. Szintén a külső kommunikációhoz tartozik, ahogyan a velünk kapcsolatba lépőkkel, kapcsolatban állókkal kommunikálunk, legyen az illető egy jelölt, egy ügyfél vagy akár az egyik partnerünk képviselője.

A munkaadói márkával kapcsolatban lényegesnek tartom megemlíteni Csermely véleményét, mely szerint „fontos elkülöníteni a fogyasztói márkától és teljesen különböző erőforrásokat allokálni a kiépítésére. Ez nem azt jelenti, hogy a két márka ne támogathatná egymást, sőt szinte elképzelhetetlen, hogy míg a cég fogyasztói márkája a túlélésért küzd, munkáltatói márkája szárnyal." (Csermely, 2011, 53.) Könnyebb dolga van egy olyan cégnek a munkáltatói márka kommunikációjának és megjeleníthetőségének szempontjából, melynek látható és megfogható a terméke. Minden cég igyekszik bevonni termékét, fogyasztói márkáját a munkáltatói márka kommunikációjába.

3. Lépés: Az eredmények mérése, értékelése, a folyamatok javítása

Kádár és Takács véleménye szerint összehasonlítható adatok és után követés nélkül a tevékenység nem válik kézzelfoghatóvá, így más döntéshozó területek könnyen mondhatják, hogy nincs konkrét eredmény. *Nincs egyetemes módszer a munkáltatói márka hatékonyságának mérésére vonatkozóan, a vállalatok különböző mérő skálát használnak, hogy visszajelzést kaphassanak a munkáltatói márkaépítéssel kapcsolatos projektjeik megtérülésére vonatkozóan.* A BDO kutatásai alapján a vállalatok jelentős részénél a munkavállaló elkötelezettsége (44%), fluktuáció (41%), jelentkezők száma (34%), a felvétel minősége (33%) és egy munkavállaló kiválasztására fordított költség (33%) alkotja a megtérülési mutatószámot. (Hegedüs - Nagy, 2014)

Az Kádár és Takács szerint az említett mutatókon túl érdemes még a *munkaviszony hosszát, a pályázatok számát, a pótlás idejét és a döntési folyamat időtartamát, a döntés és az ajánlat kiadása közötti időtartamot, a kiadott ajánlatok és a visszamondások arányát is vizsgálni.* Ezen túlmenően az eredmények értékelésének elengedhetetlen részét képezi *a toborzási költségek - beleértve a hirdetési, kiválasztási tesztek és AC-k költségét is– alakulásának, a belső ajánlások számának és beválásának, valamint a belső mozgások alakulásának és a horizontális, illetve vertikális karrierlépcsők számának mérése* is. (2016)

A HR fókuszú mérőszámokon túl érdemes a belső és külső kommunikációt is nyomon követni, számszerűsíteni. Ide tartozik például az offline csatornák közül belső újság kiadásainak vagy megírt cikkek száma, a belső rendezvények, közlemények száma. Az online csatornák közül a Facebook aktivitások száma (dolgozói like-ok, hozzászólások, követők száma), a megnyitott dolgozói e-mailek száma, vagy a belső kérdőívek (kommunikációra vagy rendezvényekre vonatkozóan) kitöltési aránya. Külső kommunikáció szempontjából szintén érdemes az online platformokat vizsgálni, mint például a Facebook, LinkedIn, Youtube, Blog és weboldal, karrieroldal aktivitásokat, látogatottságot és visszafordulási arányt. Ezenkívül a munkaadói márka ismertségének, vagy egyéb a jelenlegi helyzet elemzése során mért mutatók újbóli mérése is célravezető lehet. (Kádár - Takács)

Egy alaposan kidolgozott, és sikeresen felépített munkaadói márka számos pozitívummal rendelkezik. *A márkaépítés haszna az üzleti eredményekben, a rekrutációs költségekben, a csökkenő fluktuációban, a márka növekvő külső ismertségében, a jobb munkavállalói teljesítményben és az elkötelezettebb, lojálisabb munkatársakban realizálódik*, a hosszú távú hasznok tehát igen jelentősek. (Csermely, 2011) Ennek következtében tehát érdemes időt, pénzt és emberi erőforrást allokálni a folyamatok megtervezésére, lebonyolítására és után követésére.

Módszertan – A munkavállalói oldal vizsgálata

A vizsgálat célja

Kutatásom célja, hogy egy nagyobb mintát vizsgálva megismerjem a munkavállalók munkahellyel kapcsolatot elvárásait, szükségleteit. *Az igények alapos ismerete elősegíti a vállalatok számára az ideális munkahely kialakítását, természetesen saját erősségeik feltárása után, azokra építve.* Ehhez kapcsolódóan a munkahelyváltás leggyakoribb okait is szeretném feltárni, hiszen az ideális munkahely fontos jellemzője, hogy az erősségek kihasználásán túl *igyekszik a negatív tényezők hatásait minimalizálni a munkavállalók pszichikai és fizikai egészsége, biztonsága és elkötelezettségük növelése érdekében.* A kutatásban résztvevők elvárásait generációk szerint szegmentálva is vizsgálni fogom annak érdekében, hogy lehetséges eltéréseket fedezzek fel a különböző generációk prioritásaiban. Ezen túlmenően a válaszadók álláskeresési szokásait is szeretném mélyebben megismerni, beleértve az általuk használt csatornákat, platformokat. Kutatásom részét képezi a mobilitási hajlandóság vizsgálata is mind a hazai, mind pedig a külföldi munkavállalás esetében. Úgy gondolom, hogy a magyarországi vállalatoknak ma már nem csak belföldi versenytársaival - legyen az iparági vagy szakmai – kell versenyeznie a megfelelő munkaerőért, hanem a külföldi vállalatokkal is, hiszen utóbbiak a kedvezőbb gazdasági környezetnek köszönhetően magasabb fizetést tudnak ajánlani a munkavállalóknak, így növelve azok mobilitási hajlandóságát, akár ingázásról, akár kinti letelepedésről van szó, komoly befolyást gyakorolva ezzel az ország munkaerő-ellátottságára, versenyképességére. Véleményem szerint abban az esetben, ha a hazai munkahelyek jobban megfelelnének a munkavállalók igényeinek, csökkenne a külföldön munkát vállalók száma is, ami főleg a hiányszakmák esetében lenne rendkívül fontos amellett, hogy a jól képzett hazai munkaerő által képviselt humántőke hozadékát szintén érdemes az ország határain belül kamatoztatni.

Hipotézisek

1. Hipotézis: Első hipotézisemben azt feltételezem, hogy a kutatásban résztvevők jelentős része generációs hovatartozástól függetlenül többnyire az online felületek segítségével keres állást vagy néz utána a cégeknek.

Ahogyan a szakirodalmak feltárása során már említettem, a különböző generációk épp úgy, mint a mindennapi életben, az online szokásaik tekintetében is eltérőek, hiszen más hatások érték őket, életük különböző szakaszaiban találkoztak az internettel és a digitális világgal, így az ahhoz való hozzáállásuk, alkalmazkodó képességük is eltérő. Ennek ellenére azok a generációk, akik jelenleg a munkaerő-piacon aktívan jelen vannak, kénytelenek voltak elfogadni az online platformok térnyerését és az általuk generált változásokat, így az idősebb generációk (főleg a Baby Boom és az X generációk) számára is elengedhetetlenül fontossá vált, hogy ismerjék és használni tudják a digitális eszközöket, és alkalmazkodni tudjanak a változásokhoz. Ezek alapján feltételezem, hogy mára már nem figyelhető meg szignifikáns különbség az egyes generációk álláskeresési és információszerzési szokásai és lehetőségei között, a különbség inkább abban rejlik, hogy az egyes generációk tagjai mire figyelnek fel. Amíg a fiatalabb generációk (Y és Z) a több érzékszervre ható, intenzívebb bejegyzéseket veszik észre, addig az idősebb generációk (X és Baby Boom) számára a kevésbé látványos tartalmak sem jelentéktelenek.

2. Hipotézis: Második hipotézisem szerint a válaszadók ideális munkahellyel kapcsolatos legfontosabb elvárásai alapvetően megegyeznek különböző tényezők mentén vizsgálva a mintát, azonban az egyes szegmensek rendelkeznek sajátos attitűdökkel.

Úgy gondolom, hogy minden munkavállalónak vannak alapvető elvárásai egy ideális munkahellyel kapcsolatban, amelyek meghatározzák munkahely-választási preferenciáikat. Mivel a hazai gazdasági helyzetben az átlagos életszínvonal fenntartásához is magasabb fizetésre van szükség, így a fizetés többek között ilyen alapvető tényező hazánk munkaerő-piacán. Szintén ilyen alapvető tényezőnek tartom a biztonságos munkakörülményeket is. Maslow szükséglethierarchia modellje szerint a fiziológiai szükségletek és a biztonság olyan alapvető emberi szükségletek, amelyek kielégítetlensége nélkül az ember nem foglalkozik magasabb szintű igényeivel. A fiziológiai szükségletek közé tartozik például az evés, a biztonsághoz pedig a lakhatás, amelyek kielégítéséhez megfelelő mértékű fizetésre van szükség.

Ezen túlmenően azonban azt gondolom, hogy az egyes generációk – így különböző életszakaszban lévő munkavállalók - más-más elvárásokat támasztanak egy ideális munkahellyel szemben, valamint eltérések lehetnek az alapján is, hogy milyen ágazatról, milyen végzettségű munkavállalóról van szó, illetve az ország melyik régiójáról, megyéjéről beszélünk.

3. Hipotézis: Harmadik hipotézisem szerint a válaszadók összességében hasonló elvárásokat támasztanak a munkahelyekkel szemben belföldi, de jelenlegi lakóhelyétől eltérő megyében található, vagy külföldi munkalehetőség esetén.

A jelenlegi gazdasági helyzetben, az átlagos életszínvonalat figyelembe véve úgy gondolom, hogy mindkét esetben a mobilitási hajlandóságot leginkább befolyásoló tényező a fizetés, ezt pedig a fejlődési és karrierlehetőségek követik. Véleményem szerint azonban eltérések figyelhetőek meg a különböző generációk mobilitási hajlandósága, valamint az azt befolyásoló tényezők között, hiszen egy középkorú, családos ember számára feltételezhetően más tényezők lesznek fontosak költözéssel, ingázással járó belföldi vagy külföldi munkavállalás esetén, mint egy fiatal munkavállaló számára, aki még nem alapított családot és munkahelyeit is könnyebben váltogatja folyamatos kihívást és új lehetőségeket keresve.

Módszer és minta

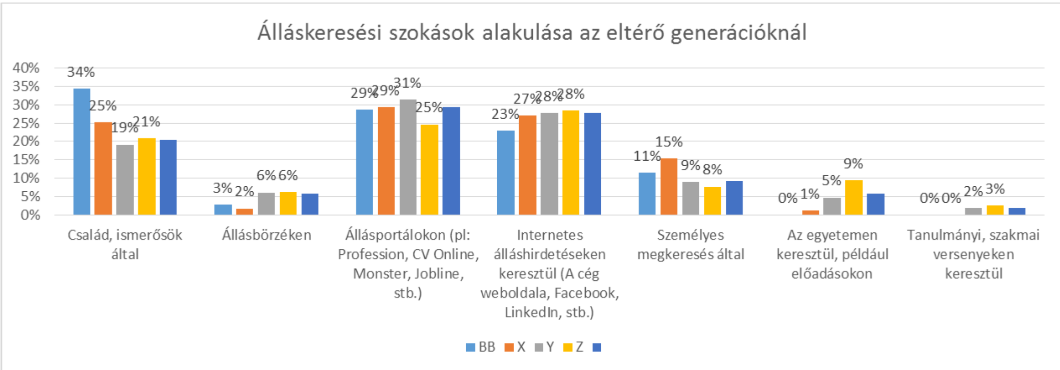
A vizsgálathoz kvalitatív módszert, írásbeli kikérdezést, *kérdőívet alkalmaztam*, melyben a válaszadók demográfiai adataira - így nemére, életkorára, iskolázottságára és lakóhelyére - tanulmányaira és munkatapasztalatára, azok területére, hazai és külföldi munkatapasztalatuk hosszára, *munkahelyi elvárásaikra, álláskeresési szokásaikra*, azok csatornáira és platformjaira, valamint jövőbeli terveire, *mobilitási hajlandóságára kérdeztem* rá. Az elvárások vizsgálata során 35 tényezőt soroltam fel, amely a szakirodalmak feltárása alapján releváns befolyásoló tényező lehet munkahelyválasztás esetén, majd ezeket a tényezőket egy 5 fokú Likert skálán értékeltettem a válaszadókkal. A jövőbeli elképzelések szempontjából azt vizsgáltam, hogy milyen tényezők azok, ami miatt a hazai munkavállalók mobilitási hajlandósága nő, milyen okokból vállalna munkát az országon belül más megyében, vagy az országhatáron kívül. Ezt követően azoktól a válaszadóktól, akik jelenleg dolgoznak, a munkahelyválasztás okaira, a munkahelyen megfigyelhető szokásokra, valamint az esetleges munkahelyváltási okokra is rákérdeztem. A válaszadást nem tettem kötelezővé az egyes kérdéseknél, részben azért, mert nem minden kérdés volt minden válaszadónál releváns, részben pedig azért, mert úgy gondolom, hogy ha nem gyakorlok nyomást a résztvevőkre azzal, hogy minden kérdésemre választ várok, akkor a kitöltési hajlandóság is növelhető, ezt a vizsgált mintám elemszáma, és mintavétel időtartama is alátámasztja. A kutatásban résztvevők válaszaikat önkitöltős módszerrel rögzítették, a kérdőívet 2017. januárjában bármikor elérték online formában. A kérdőív linkje online megosztható, terjeszthető volt, a mintavétel hólabda módszerrel készült. Azért ezt a mintavételezési módszert választottam, mert a kutatás szempontjából egyáltalán nem fontos a kitöltés helyszíne, ellenben a kérdőív ezzel a módszerrel viszonylag rövid idő alatt meglehetősen sok emberhez eljutott, heterogén mintát létrehozva. A minta minimális nagyságát 500 főben határoztam meg, a kitöltők száma ezt jóval meghaladta, így a mintavételezés sikeresnek és széleskörűnek mondható. A kapott válaszok rendszerezéséhez és értékeléséhez az Excel programot használtam, a közölt táblázatok és diagramok is ennek segítségével készültek. A válaszok értékeléséhez leírós statisztikai módszereket alkalmaztam, mert a számszerű adatok ezzel a módszerrel egyértelműen vizsgálhatóak, azonban a későbbiekben szeretném a mintát más típusú módszereknek is alávetni, mert úgy gondolom, hogy többféle elemzési módszer az összefüggések mélyebb megértését segíti elő amellett, hogy további fontos tényezőkre hívhatják fel a figyelmet.

A kérdőívemet *összesen 889 fő* töltötte ki, a válaszok száma kérdésenként eltérhet. A válaszadók 17 és 62 év közöttiek, többségük nő. A demográfiai adatok (végzettség, életkor, nem, lakóhely) alapján a minta heterogénnek tekinthető, mind végzettség, mind szakterület, mind pedig munkatapasztalat alapján. Az általános iskolai végzettségtől a doktori iskoláig, a munkatapasztalat hiányától a többéves munkatapasztalatig, számos különböző területen dolgozó válaszadót sikerült elérnem, a fizikai munkástól a cégvezetőig.

Eredmények

1.Hipotézis: *A kutatásban résztvevők jelentős része generációs hovatartozástól függetlenül többnyire az online felületek segítségével keres állást vagy néz utána a cégeknek.*

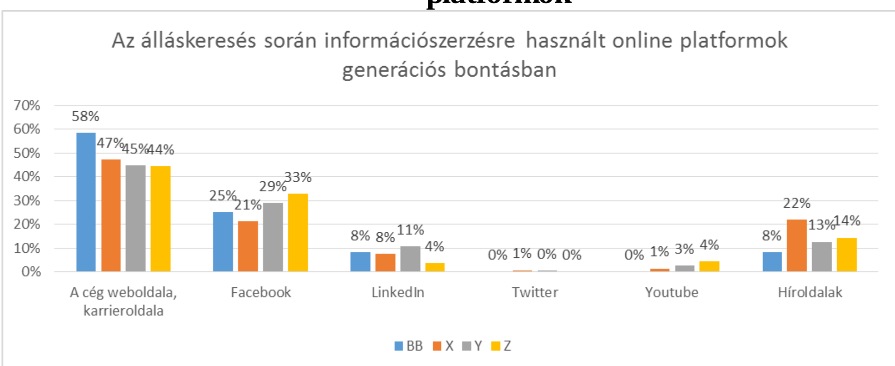
1. Ábra: Az álláskeresési szokások alakulása az eltérő generációknál



Forrás: Saját kutatás alapján

A 1. ábra alapján a generációs különbségek ellenére az *állásportálok és az internetes álláshirdetések a legelterjedtebbek* a munkavállalók körében. Ezt követi a *családon és ismerősökön* keresztül történő álláskeresés, illetve a személyes megkeresések. Érdekesség, hogy a Baby Boom generáció esetében magasan a leggyakoribb a személyes kapcsolatok általi munkakeresés, valamint az, hogy az állásbörzék igen magas látogatottsága ellenére ez az álláskeresési forma egyik korosztály esetében sem bír különösebb jelentőséggel.

2. Ábra: Az álláskeresés során információszerzésre használt online platformok

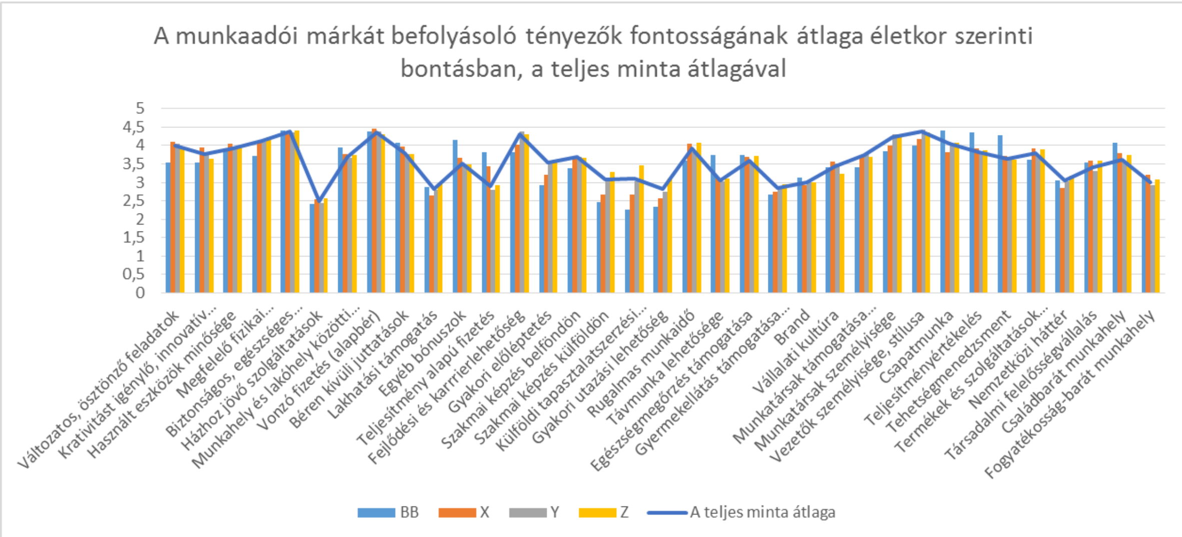


Forrás: Saját kutatás alapján

Ahogy a 2. ábra mutatja, a cégekről való információszerzés esetén a válaszadók korkülönbségre való tekintet nélkül a *cég weboldalát, karrieroldalát, valamint a Facebookot* jelölték a leggyakrabban használt platformnak. A karrieroldalak használata az idősebb - Baby Boom (1946-1964) és X (1965-1979) – generációk esetében gyakoribb, a Facebook pedig nem meglepő módon a fiatalabb, Y (1980-1994) és Z (1995-2010) generációk között elterjedtebb. Ezt követik a híroldalak, valamint a LinkedIn, ezzel szemben a Youtube és a Twitter ilyen célú használata elenyésző.

2.Hipotézis: *Az egyes generációk elvárásai között igen nagy eltérések figyelhetőek meg egy ideális munkahely kapcsán, azonban a legfontosabb tényezők megegyeznek.*

3. Ábra: A munkaadói márkát befolyásoló tényezők fontossága

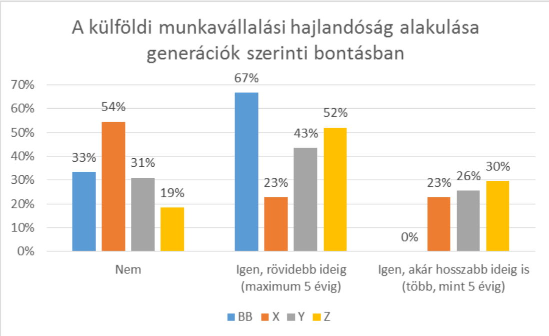


Forrás: Saját kutatás alapján

A megkérdezettek szerint a legfontosabb a *vezetők személyisége, a biztonságos munkakörülmények, a vonzó fizetés, a fejlődési és karrierlehetőségek*, valamint a *munkatársak személyisége, a megfelelő munkakörnyezet és a csapatmunka*. Ettől jelentősen csak a Baby Boom generáció prioritásai térnek el, számukra a teljesítményértékelés, a tehetségmenedzsment, az egyéb bónuszok és béren kívüli juttatások, a családbarát munkahely és lakóhely-munkahely közötti távolság is fontos. A teljes minta szerint legkevésbé fontosak a házhoz jövő szolgáltatások, a gyakori utazási lehetőség, a lakhatási támogatás, a gyermekellátás támogatása és a teljesítményalapú fizetés. Az idősebb generációk számára a külföldi tapasztalatszerzési lehetőség és a külföldi szakmai képzések a legkevésbé fontosak. (3. ábra)

3.Hipotézis: *A munkavállalók számára a külföldi munkavállalás a hazai munkavállalás alternatívája.*

4.és 5. Ábra: A külföldi munkavállalási hajlandóság alakulása

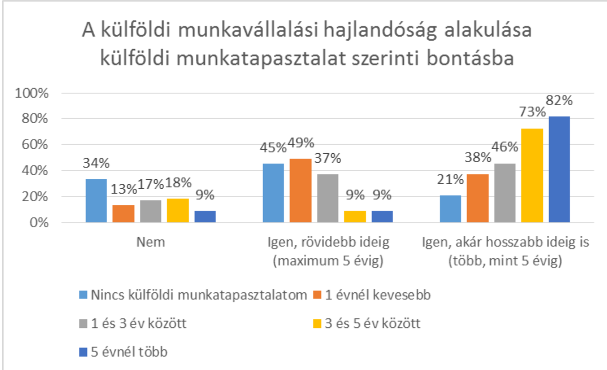


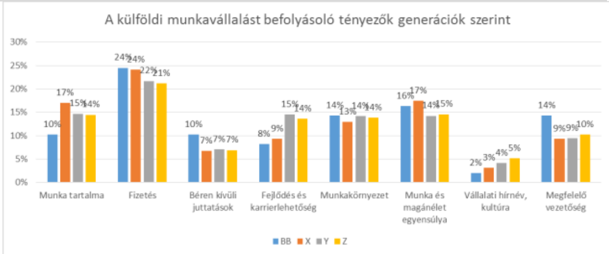
Forrás: Saját kutatás alapján

Az 4. ábra alapján a Baby Boom generáció egyáltalán nem, vagy csak rövidebb időre vállalna külföldi munkát, az *X generáció több, mint fele nem, másik fele viszont rövidebb és hosszabb időre is el tudná képzelni a külföldi munkavállalást*. Az *Y generáció majdnem fele, a Z generáció pedig több, mint fele kipróbálná rövidebb időre a külföldi munkavállalást*, negyedük pedig hosszabb távon is el tudja így képzelni jövőjét.

A külföldi munkatapasztalat szerint a vízválasztó 1 és 3 év között van, afölött a külföldi lehetőségekben gondolkodók többsége hosszabb távon is maradna, 1-3 év esetén a mérleg nyelve még a rövidtáv felé billen. (5. ábra) A teljes mintát nézve a *külföldi munkavállalás lehetősége egyértelműen felmerül a hazai munkavállalók fejében, konkurenciát jelentve így a hazai vállalatok számára.*

1. Ábra: A külföldi munkavállalási hajlandóságot befolyásoló tényezők





Forrás: Saját kutatás alapján

Ahogyan a 6. ábrán látszik, a *külföldi munkavállalást leginkább motiváló tényezők a fizetés, a munka és magánélet egyensúlya, a munka tartalma és a munkakörnyezet*. Érdekesség, hogy a legidősebb generációt kevésbé érdekli a munka tartalma, fontosabb számára a megfelelő vezetőség és a béren kívüli juttatások. A fiatalabb generációknál fontos még a fejlődés és karrierlehetőség is.

Következtetések

Következtetésképpen elmondható, hogy érdemes vizsgálni, hogy mely tényezők minősülnek alapvető elvárásnak, illetve *érdemes foglalkozni a toborzási célcsoporttal életkor, szakmák és területi eltérések szerinti prioritásokat is vizsgálva. Figyelembe kell venni azt is, hogy mi motiválja a hazai munkaerőt a külföldi munkavállalásra, mert jelentős* *részük alternatívaként tekint a külföldi cégekre.*

Kutatásom során arra az eredményre jutottam, hogy a munkavállalók elvárásai az olyan alapvető tényezők, mint a vonzó fizetés, az vezetők és a munkatársak személyisége, a biztonságos munkakörülmények, valamint a megfelelő munkakörnyezet megegyeznek, azonban *különböző szempontok szerint vizsgálva a munkavállalói csoportokat, eltérő az egyes tényezők fontossága.*

Minden korosztály leginkább az *online platformok segítségével keres állást, szerez információt a cégekről*, így a vállalatoknak ezeken a csatornákon keresztül kell kommunikálnia a leendő munkavállalókkal.

A tanulmányom leglényegesebb mondanivalója azonban az, hogy *az employer branding a különböző területek együttműködési kényszere miatt egy átgondolt stratégiát, vezetői támogatást, körülhatárolt célokat, és alapos tervezést igényel, emellett kreativitásra is szükség van, mert sokszor egy jól kialakított kampánnyal lehet a legnagyobb eredményeket elérni, ehhez azonban a munkavállalók és a környezet alapos ismeretére van szükség.*

A vállalatok kénytelenek lesznek felismerni a téma jelentőségét és lépéseket tenni munkahelyként való megítélésük javítására, így makroszinten befolyásolhatják a munkaerő-piac változását, csökkenthetik annak egyensúlytalanságait és a munkaerő elvándorlását is. Ennek következtében *javíthatják az ország versenyképességét, hiszen a humántőke az egyik legfontosabb, legspeciálisabb tényező, amely megfelelő alkalmazása előre viszi mind a gazdaság, mind a társadalom fejlődősét.*

Módszertan - A munkáltatói oldal vizsgálata

Kutatásom másik részét a hazai vállalatok vizsgálata képezi. Témaválasztásomkor egyik kutatási célomként azt jelöltem meg, hogy feltárom mind a munkavállalók elvárásait, mind pedig a munkáltatók által használt toborzási és kommunikációs csatornákat, illetve azt, hogy a munkáltatók szerint mik azok a munkahely-választási szempontok, amelyek jelentősen befolyásolják a munkavállalók döntését és, hogy ezeket a munkaadók mennyire tartják fontosnak. A válaszadó szervezeteket méret, tevékenységi kör és földrajzi elhelyezkedés szerint is szerettem volna megvizsgálni, de a válaszadó szervezetek alacsony száma erre csak korlátozottan ad lehetőséget. Ezen túlmenően vizsgáltam azt is, hogy a válaszadó szervezeteknél milyen folyamatok, rendszerek vannak, amelyek befolyásolják a munkaadói márkát és segítenek, segíthetnek megtartani a jelenlegi és vonzani a lehetséges munkavállalókat.

Hipotézisek

1. ***Hipotézis**: Negyedik hipotézisemben azt feltételeztem, hogy a munkáltatók jelentős része mind offline, mind online toborzási platformokat is használ, azonban nem használják ki megfelelően a „nem megszokott" toborzási platformok által nyújtott lehetőségeket.*

A toborzás számos online és offline platform segítségével lehetséges, mint például az állásportálokon megjelenő álláshirdetések, a céges weboldal vagy karrieroldal, a Facebook-on vagy LinkedIn-en megjelenő álláshirdetés, de ide sorolhatjuk a Twitter vagy a Youtube ilyen célú használatát is. Az offline platformok közé sorolhatjuk a munkatársai ajánlási rendszert, valamint az állásbörzéket, az egyetemekkel való együttműködést –például a duális képzéseket, vagy az előadások tartását –, valamint a tanulmányi és szakmai versenyek szervezését. Utóbbiak nagyban megkönnyíthetik a gyakornoki programokba bevonható, tehetséges fiatalok megtalálását és toborzását.

2. ***Hipotézis****: Ötödik hipotézisem feltételezései szerint eltérés figyelhető meg a munkavállalók szempontjából fontosnak ítélt tényezők jelentőssége között különböző szempontok szerint vizsgálva az egyes szervezeteket.*

Úgy gondolom, hogy mind a tulajdonosi szerkezet, mind a szervezet mérete, tevékenységi köre, valamint földrajzi elhelyezkedése jelentősen befolyásolja azt, hogy mit gondolnak a munkavállalók preferenciáiról. Természetesen a tevékenységi kör és a földrajzi elhelyezkedés determinálja a vállalat szükséges munkaerő-állományát, így a célcsoport elvárásait is, azonban a munkavállalói oldal vizsgálata alapján a legfontosabb tényezők megegyeznek az egyes munkavállalói szegmensek esetében, így indokoltnak tartom, hogy a vállalati oldalt is megvizsgáljam ebből a szempontból. A szervezetek eltérő mérete szintén más-más szervezeti kultúrát jelent, ami a munkavállalók oldaláról is más elvárásokat jelent, így a méret szerinti eltéréseket a méretből adódó kultúraelemek is befolyásolják. Mindazonáltal a tényezők fontossági sorrendje is számos érdekes kérdést vet föl a témával kapcsolatban.

A módszer

A vizsgálathoz kvantitatív módszert, írásbeli kikérdezést, kérdőívet alkalmaztam, melyben először a szervezetek alapadataira, így a méretére, tulajdonosi szerkezetére, tevékenységi körére és székhelyére, telephelyeire, valamint a fluktuáció mértékére kérdeztem rá. Ezt követően a szervezet által használt toborzási és kommunikációs platformokat, valamint a válaszadó vállalat toborzási célcsoportjait mértem fel. Kérdőívem utolsó részében a szervezet munkaadói márkaépítéshez való hozzáállásáról, annak fontosságáról, és arról tettem fel kérdéseket, hogy stratégiai kérdésként kezelik-e, illetve ha már foglalkoznak a kérdéssel, akkor eddig milyen lépéseket tettek vagy milyen lépéseket terveznek a márkaépítés kapcsán. Ezen kívül a szervezet oldaláról is megvizsgáltam azt a 35 tényezőt, amelyeket a munkavállalóknak szánt kérdőívben is szerepeltettem. Itt is egy 5 fokú Likert skálán értékeltettem a válaszadókkal az egyes tényezők fontosságát, azonban itt a kérdés úgy hangzott, hogy a jelenlegi és leendő munkavállalók szempontjából mennyire tartják fontosnak az egyes tényezőket. Kutatásom egyik lényeges pontja, hogy a munkaerő-piac keresleti és kínálati oldalán álló szereplőinek válaszait összevessem, és az eltérések lehetséges okait feltárjam. A kérdőívem további kérdése a tényezők fontosságán túl az volt, hogy a válaszadóknak egy 23 tételes listából kellett kiválasztania azokat az eszközöket, vagy folyamatokat, amelyek az ő szervezetükben működnek. A felsorolás elemei és az előző kérdésben említett 35 tényező között nagy átfedés volt azért, hogy a fontosságon túl az egyes folyamatok mintabeli gyakorisága is mérhető legyen.

A minta

A kérdőívemet összesen 60 szervezet munkatársai töltötték ki. A képviselt szervezetek között egyaránt megtalálhatóak mikro, kis és közép, valamint nagyvállalatok is. A mintában összesen 5 mikrovállalkozás (10 főnél kisebb), 7 kisvállalkozás (10 és 49 fő közötti munkavállalói létszám), 20 középvállalat (50 - 249 munkavállaló), és 28 nagyvállalat, tehát legalább 250 fős munkavállalói létszámmal rendelkező vállalat szerepel. Ennek alapján a KKV szektor 32, a nagyvállalati szektort pedig 28 szervezet képviseli a mintában.

A válaszadó szervezetek tulajdonosi szerkezet szempontjából nagyrészt vagy csak külföldi, vagy csak hazai tulajdonúak. A mintában összesen 3 szervezet jelölte a vegyes tulajdonosi szerkezetet, még valamivel több, mint a válaszadók fele, 33 szervezet külföldi, 23 pedig tisztán hazai tulajdonban van.

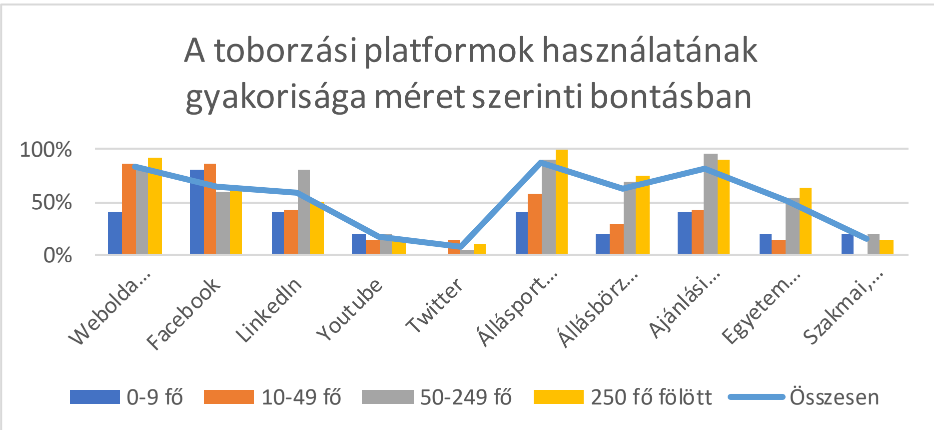
A válaszadó vállalatok telephelyét, illetve székhelyeit vizsgálva elmondható, hogy az ország összes megyéjéből kaptam válaszokat, megyénként legalább 5-öt. A válaszadó szervezetek közül összesen 44 érdekelt a fővárosban is, illetve 2 válaszadó országosnak jelölte tevékenységét.

Közép-Magyarországi régióból, tehát Budapestről és Pest megyéből összesen 54, a Nyugat-Dunántúlról (Győr-Moson-Sopron, Vas és Zala megyék) 26, a Dél-Dunántúlról, vagyis Somogy, Tolna, és Baranya megyékből 22, a Közép-Dunántúli régióból (Fejér, Veszprém és Komárom-Esztergom) pedig 26 válasz érkezett. A Dél-Alföldről, Bács-Kiskun, Csongrád és Békés megyékből 25, az Észak-Alföldi régióból (Jász-Nagykun-Szolnok, Hajdú-Bihar, Szabolcs-Szatmár-Bereg megyék) 26, Észak-Magyarországról, Borsod-Abaúj-Zemplén, Heves, Nógrád megyékből szintén 22 szervezet töltötte ki a kérdőívet.

Eredmények

Negyedik hipotézisemben azt feltételeztem, hogy a munkáltatók jelentős része mind offline, mind online toborzási platformokat is használ, azonban nem használják ki megfelelően a „nem megszokott" toborzási platformok által nyújtott lehetőségeket.

2. Ábra: A toborzási platformok használatának gyakorisága méret szerinti bontásban



Forrás: Saját kutatás alapján

A toborzási platformok használatának gyakoriságát a 7. ábra mutatja. A válaszadó szervezetek a legtöbbször az állásportálokat, a weboldalt vagy karrieroldalt és az ajánlási rendszert használják. Ezt követi a Facebook 65 és az állásbörzék 63%-os gyakorisággal. Alig több, mint a válaszadók fele használja a LinkedInt, vagy működik együtt egyetemekkel. A Youtube és a Twitter toborzási célú használata, valamint szakmai vagy tanulmányi versenyek szervezése a legritkább a szervezetek körében.

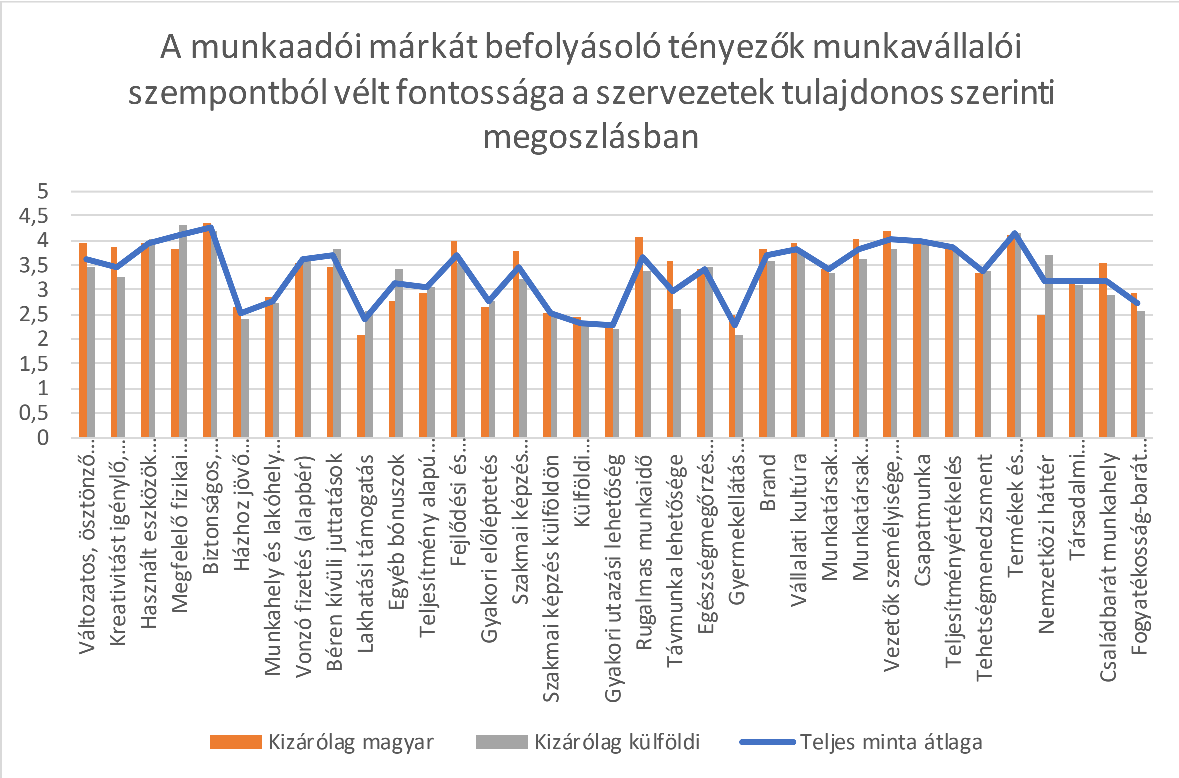
A mikro és kisvállalkozások által használt felületek meglehetősen hasonlóak, egyedül a weboldalak és az állásportálok használatának gyakorisága marad el a mikrovállalkozások esetében a kisvállalkozásokétól. Ezek esetében a Facebook, a weboldalak, az állásportálok a leggyakoribbak, de arányuk az állásportálok esetében már jócskán elmarad a közepes és nagyvállalatoktól. Az egyetemekkel való együttműködésben és a versenyek szervezésében a mikrovállalkozások megelőzik a kisvállalkozásokat, azonban így is elmaradnak nagyobb versenytársaiktól. A versenyek esetében érdekesség, hogy bár egyik szervezeti méret esetén sem jelentős, gyakoriságuk mégis a mikrovállalkozások esetén a legmagasabb, a középvállalkozásokkal együtt.

A közép és nagyvállalatok esetében az online lehetőségek között az állásportálok (a nagyvállalatok 100%-a), valamint a weboldal, karrieroldal, az offline platformok esetében pedig az ajánlási rendszer, valamint az állásbörzék gyakoriak. Jelentősen kisebb az aránya a Facebook vagy a LinkedIn toborzási célú használatánál, azonban a középvállalatok esetében igen magas, 80%-os értékkel a LinkedIn a harmadik leggyakoribb toborzási platform. Az egyetemekkel való együttműködés valamivel több, mint válaszadók felénél fordul elő, azonban a versenyek aránya a közép és nagyvállalatok esetében is alacsony. A Youtube és a Twitter toborzási célú használata szintén nem gyakori, habár érdekesség, hogy a mikro és középvállalkozások esetében a legnagyobb a Youtube használatának aránya.

Összességében elmondható, hogy a vállalatok használnak mind online, mind offline platformokat toborzásuk során, azonban számos olyan lehetőséget nem használnak ki megfelelően, amellyel üzeneteiket pontosabban tudnák közvetíteni célcsoportjaik felé. Mivel minden szervezetnek szüksége van utánpótlásra, így kénytelenek nyitni a fiatalabb munkavállalók felé is, akik az egyetemeken vagy versenyeken közvetlenebbül elérhetőek, még akkor is, ha közvetlen toborzásra ez a csatorna kevésbé alkalmas, a munkaadói márka üzeneteinek közvetítésére megfelel.

Ötödik hipotézisem feltételezései szerint eltérés figyelhető meg a munkavállalók szempontjából fontosnak ítélt tényezők jelentőssége között különböző szempontok szerint vizsgálva az egyes szervezeteket.

3. Ábra: A munkaadói márkát befolyásoló tényezők fontossága tulajdonos szerinti bontásban



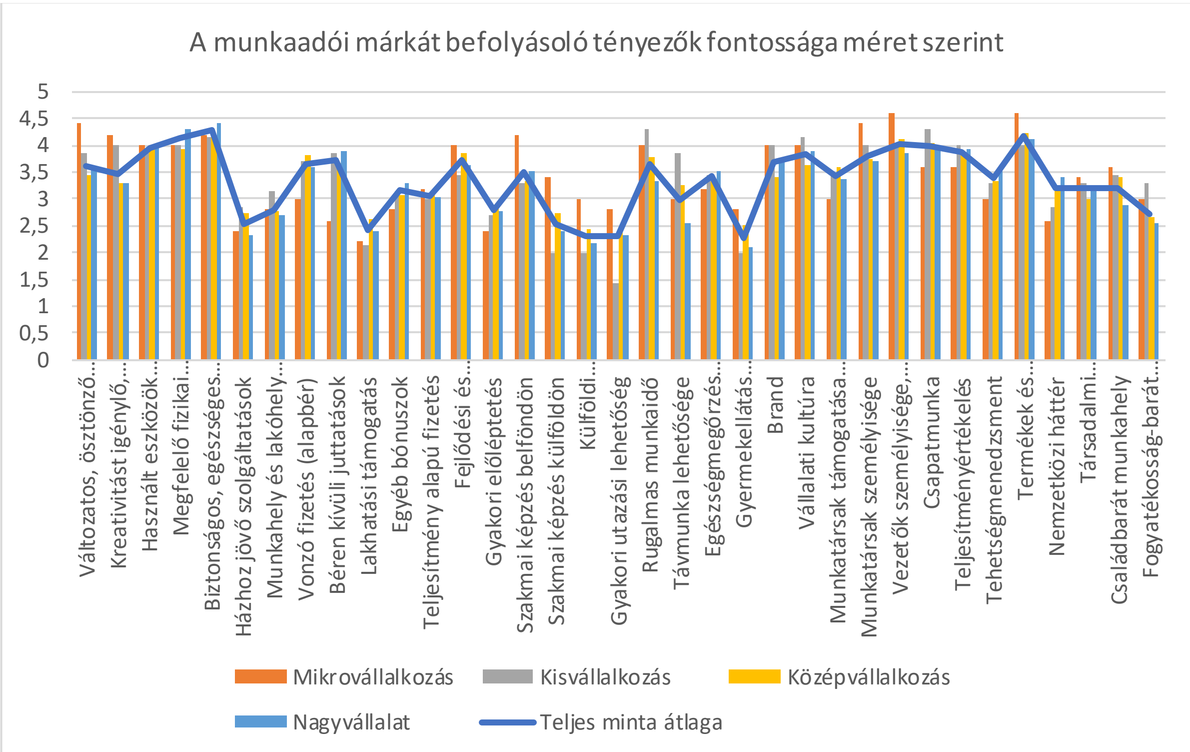
Forrás: Saját kutatás alapján

A munkáltatók szerint a munkavállalók munkahely-választási preferenciáit leginkább befolyásoló tényezők a biztonságos és egészséges munkakörülmények, a termékek és szolgáltatások kiváló minősége, a megfelelő fizikai munkakörnyezet, a vezetők személyisége és stílusa és a csapatmunka. A legkevésbé fontosnak ítélt tényezők a gyermekellátás támogatása, a gyakori utazási lehetőség, a külföldi tapasztalatszerzési lehetőség, a lakhatási támogatás és a házhoz jövő szolgáltatások. Az munkaadók válaszaiban azonban jelentős eltérések figyelhetőek meg aszerint, hogy hazai vagy külföldi tulajdonú a vállalat. A vegyes vállalatokat a kis elemszám miatt nem vizsgáltam meg külön. (8. ábra)

A hazai vállalatok szerint a legfontosabb a biztonságos és egészséges munkakörnyezet, a termékek és szolgáltatások minősége, ezt követi a vezetők személyisége és stílusa, majd a rugalmas munkaidő, a munkatársak személyisége, a fejlődési és karrierlehetőség, valamint a változatos, ösztönző feladatok és a vállalati kultúra. A külföldi tulajdonú szervezetek válaszai alapján ezzel szemben a megfelelő fizikai munkakörnyezet, a biztonságos és egészséges munkakörülmények, a termékek és szolgáltatások minősége, a csapatmunka, a használt eszközök minősége, a béren kívüli juttatások és a teljesítményértékelés a legfontosabb tényezők. Érdekes különbség van a hazai és a külföldi cégek között a változatos, ösztönző feladatok, a kreativitást igénylő, innovatív feladatok, a fejlődési és karrierlehetőségek, a hazai szakmai képzések, a rugalmas munkaidő, a távmunka, a családbarát és a fogyatékosság-barát munkahelyek fontosságának megítélésében a hazai vállalatok javára. Ezzel szemben a lakhatási támogatás, az egyéb bónuszok, a béren kívüli juttatások és a nemzetközi háttér számottevően fontosabb a külföldi vállalatok szerint, bár ez utóbbi nem meglepő.

Összegezve az eredményeket elmondható, hogy az, hogy hazai vagy külföldi vállalatról van szó, valamint az ebből adódó szervezeti és kulturális különbségek nagymértékben befolyásolják az egyes tényezők fontosságát. Ennek egyik oka az anyaországban megfigyelhető társadalmi viszonyok, illetve hogy mekkorák a hatalmi távolságok, hogy individualista vagy kollektivista az adott társadalom. Mindazonáltal a hazánkban tevékenykedő vállalatoknak alaposan ismernie kell a hazai körülményeket, munkaerő-piacot, hogy képes legyen vonzani és megtartani a munkavállalóit, fenntartva ezzel versenyképességét.

4. Ábra: A munkaadói márkát befolyásoló tényezők fontossága méret szerinti bontásban



Forrás: Saját kutatás alapján

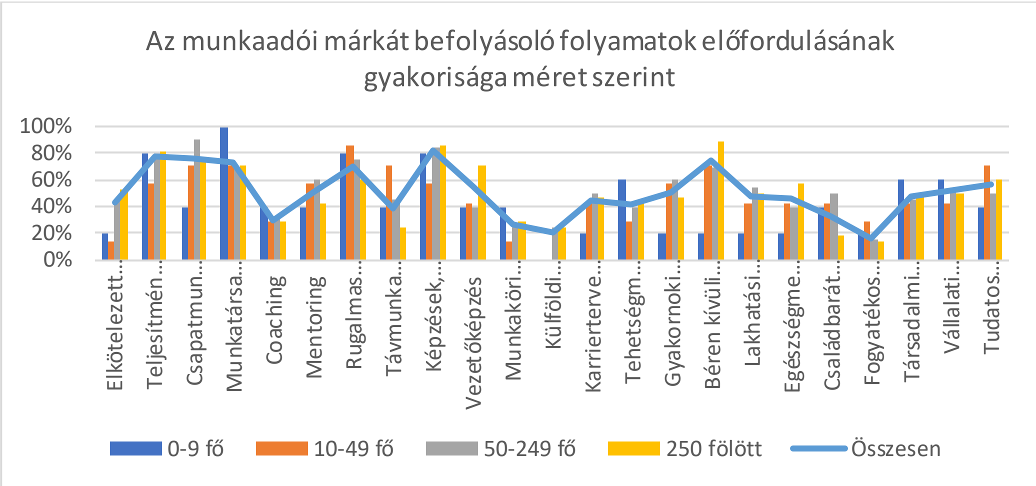
A tulajdonosi háttér után a válaszadó szervezeteket méret szerinti megoszlásban is vizsgáltam, a tényezők fontosságával kapcsolatban. A mikrovállalkozások szerint a legfontosabb tényezők a vezetők személyisége, stílusa, a termékek és szolgáltatások kiváló minősége, a munkatársak személyisége, a változatos és ösztönző feladatok, a biztonságos és egészséges munkakörülmények, a kreativitást igénylő, innovatív feladatok és a belföldi szakmai képzések. Ezzel szemben a legkevésbé fontos a lakhatási támogatás, a gyakori előrelépés, a házhoz jövő szolgáltatások, a nemzetközi háttér, és a béren kívüli juttatások. Az eredmények önmagában nem meglepőek, hiszen a vállalat mérete, struktúrája és kultúrája megmagyarázza például a nemzetközi háttér vagy a gyakori előrelépés lehetőségének minimális fontosságát, a vezetők és munkatársak személyiségének kiemelkedő jelentőségét, valamint a hazai szakmai képzések és a változatos feladatok hangsúlyosságát. Azonban az átlaghoz és a többi vállalattípushoz képes mért relatív fontosság érdekes kérdéseket vet fel. Ilyen például a fejlődési és karrierlehetőség fontossága, ami a gyakori előrelépés alacsony fontosságával párosul, illetve a külföldi tapasztalatszerzési lehetőség és a gyakori utazási lehetőség magasan átlag feletti értéke. Szintén átlag feletti a családbarát munkahely fontossága, ezt azonban a kis létszám és a családi vállalkozások vagy munkatársak közötti családi kapcsolatok magyarázhatják.

A kivállalkozások szerint a rugalmas munkaidő, a csapatmunka, a vállalati kultúra, a biztonságos és egészséges munkakörülmények és a vezetők személyisége a legfontosabb tényezők, ezzel szemben a gyakori utazási lehetőség, a gyermekellátás támogatása, a külföldi tapasztalatszerzési lehetőség és a külföldi szakmai képzés és a lakhatási támogatás a legkevésbé fontosak. A kis létszám itt is megmagyarázza a kultúra, a vezetők személyisége, a csapatmunka és a rugalmas munkaidő fontosságát. A kisvállalkozások átlag felettinek tartják a kreativitást igénylő, innovatív feladatokat, a munkahely és lakóhely közötti távolságot, a rugalmas munkaidőt, a távmunka lehetőségét, a brandet és a vállalati kultúrát, valamint a fogyatékosság-barát munkahelyként való működést. Érdekesnek tartom, hogy a mikrovállalkozásokhoz képest a kisvállalkozások számára fontosabb az atipikus munkavégzési formák működtetése, de a munkaszervezési kérdések kapcsán ezeknek a rendszereknek a bevezetése és működtetése, valamint a fogyatékosság-barát szervezet kialakítása feltételezhetően könnyebben kialakítható, illetve feltételezhetően több rá az emberi és anyagi erőforrás, de kevesebb az igénye, mint egy közép vagy nagyvállalatnak.

A középvállalkozások számára a biztonságos munkakörülmények, a vezetők személyisége, a termékek és szolgáltatások minősége, a csapatmunka és a megfelelő fizikai környezet a legfontosabbak. A legkevésbé fontos tényezők a gyakori utazási lehetőség, a külföldi tapasztalatszerzés, a gyermekellátás támogatása, a fogyatékosság-barát munkahely és a munkahely-lakóhely közötti távolság. A közepes méretű vállalkozások szerint átlag feletti a vonzó fizetés, valamint a családbarát munkahely fontossága.

A nagyvállalatok szerint a biztonságos munkakörülmények, a megfelelő fizikai munkakörnyezet, a termékek és szolgáltatások, valamint a használt eszközök minősége, a csapatmunka és a teljesítményértékelés a legfontosabbak. Legkevésbé fontos gyermekellátás támogatása, a külföldi tapasztalatszerzési lehetőség, a házhoz jövő szolgáltatások, a lakhatási támogatás és a gyakori utazási lehetőség. A nagyvállalatok esetében érdekesség, hogy szinte csak a nemzetközi háttér és a béren kívüli juttatások átlag felettiek – habár ezek a méretből adódnak, hiszen a béren kívüli juttatások a nagyvállalatok számára jelentenek költséghatékony megoldás -, valamint, hogy a távmunka lehetősége jóval az átlag alatt van. (9. ábra)

5. Ábra: A munkaadói márkát befolyásoló folyamatok előfordulásának gyakorisága méret szerint



Forrás: Saját kutatás alapján

Hipotézisem értékeléséhez nem csak az egyes tényezők fontosságára, hanem az alkalmazott eszközök és folyamatok gyakoriságára is kíváncsi voltam. A leggyakoribbak a képzések és tréningek tartása, a teljesítményértékelés, a csapatmunka és csapatépítés, valamint a béren kívüli juttatások. Ezzel szemben ritka a külföldi tapasztalatszerzési lehetőség és a fogyatékosság-barát munkahelyek száma. Ezek az átlagos mintát nézve valamelyest összhangban vannak a korábban ismertetett adatokkal, habár a teljesítményértékelést és a béren kívüli juttatásokat nem jelölték kiemelten fontosnak a szervezetek. (10. ábra)

Jelentős eltérések vannak a szervezeteket között a méret szerint vizsgálva őket. A mikrovállalkozások esetén a leggyakoribb a munkatársak véleményének meghallgatása, beépítése (100%), a képzések és tréningek, a teljesítményértékelés és a rugalmas munkaidő. A legkevésbé gyakori a külföldi tapasztalatszerzési lehetőség, az elkötelezettség mérése, a karriertervezés, a gyakornoki program, a béren kívüli juttatások, a lakhatási vagy utazási támogatás valamint az egészségmegőrzés támogatása. Ezek az alacsonyabb profitból adódhatnak, hiszen ezekhez a tényezőkhöz jelentős anyagi erőforrásokra van szükség. Átlag feletti azonban a tehetségmenedzsment, a vállalati kultúra fejlesztése és a társadalmi felelősségvállalás. A kisvállalkozások estében a rugalmas munkaidő, a távmunka lehetősége, a csapatmunka és csapatépítés, valamint a béren kívüli juttatások a leggyakoribbak. Esetükben alacsony az elkötelezettség mérésének, a munkaköri rotációnak, valamint a coachingnak az előfordulása. Érdekes, hogy a magukat fogyatékosság-barátnak nevező vállalatok közül a legtöbb kisvállalkozás.

A közepes méretű vállalatoknál a képzések és tréningek, a csapatmunka, csapatépítés, a rugalmas munkaidő, a teljesítményértékelés és a béren kívüli juttatások a leggyakoribbak. Ritka ezzel szemben a fogyatékosság-barát munkahelyek száma, a munkaköri rotáció, a coaching és a vezetőképzés. Utóbbit meglepő adatnak tartom egy 50-249 fős vállalat esetén, ahol egyébként átlag feletti a karriertervezés gyakorisága, a gyakornoki program és a mentoring előfordulása, valamint a családbarát munkahelyek száma.

A nagyvállalatok esetében a béren kívüli juttatások, a képzések és tréningek, a teljesítményértékelés és a munkatársak véleményének beépítése és a csapatmunka, csapatépítés, illetve a vezetőképzés a leggyakoribbak, a válaszadó nagyvállalatok több, mint 70%-ánál megfigyelhetőek ezek a folyamatok. Alacsony, 30% alatti ezzel szemben a fogyatékosság és családbarát munkahelyek száma, ritka a távmunka lehetősége, a külföldi tapasztalatszerzési lehetőség, a munkaköri rotáció valamint a coaching előfordulása.

Következtetések

Összegezve az eredményeket elmondható, hogy van eltérés az egyes tényezők fontosságát illetően különböző szempontok szerint vizsgálva az egyes szervezeteket, azonban a kutatás gyengesége, hogy a méreten és a tulajdonosi szerkezeten túl további szegmentálásra nem volt lehetőség a minta alacsony elemszáma miatt. A válaszok alapján azonban valószínűsíthető, hogy a méret, a kultúra és a szervezeti struktúra nagyban befolyásolja, hogy milyen tényezőket tartanak fontosnak az egyes vállalatok, így vannak különbözőségek, amelyekre érdemes építeni a munkaadói márka kialakítása során. Függ azonban az iparágtól és a toborzási célcsoporttól is, hogy mit érdemes a szervezeteknek kihangsúlyozniuk kommunikációjuk során.

Köszönetnyilvánítás

Az Emberi Erőforrások Minisztériuma ÚNKP17-2 kódszámú Új Nemzeti Kiválóság Programjának támogatásával készült

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A szerző rövid életrajza

Kovács Kata

2014 szeptemberében kezdtem meg tanulmányaimat a Szent István Egyetem Emberi erőforrások alapszakán. Tudományos tevékenységem 2015 novemberében kezdődött, akkor személyiségpreferenciák és csoportszerepek közötti összefüggéseket kutattam. Előadásommal több konferencián részt vettem, valamint 3. helyezést értem el az Országos Tudományos Diákköri Konferencián. Egy évvel később kezdtem el foglalkozni jelenlegi kutatási témámmal, az employer brandinggel, melyről több konferencián tartottam már előadást, és több publikációm is megjelent már a témában.

Az idei évben, már Vezetés és szervezés mesterszakos hallgatóként szeretném kutatásomat tovább folytatni, további szakemberek és vállalatok bevonásával, hogy ágfogó képet kaphassak mind a munkavállalók, mind pedig a munkáltatók álláspontjáról, alkalmazott módszereiről.

7th Parallel Session

Roles of Organic farming in the enterpreneurship

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Introduction

The history of organic farming has been lasting for almost 100 years. Different ways, regulations hepled the organic farming growing and spreading. The main important rules are lack of using of chemicals and artificial fertilizers. Biodynamic methods have other plus rules for example using preparations to cure the condition of soil and Earth. The strict rules mean market advantages for the producers and retailers.
For 20 years, the growth of organic farming has been almost significant in the world. According to more authors and surveys, it seemed significant turnover growth and production growth, this alternative farming method has taken a significant part in the agri-food trade and its related food trade. But there was great expectation, it did not happen. More to say, it only took place in a few countries. From the side of production, in the countries with large free pastures (Argentina, China, Australia). We can see 4 different cathegories. There were countries whose had great developing in sales and lands. For example Germany, Austria, USA. 2nd category was the mentioned exporters with great lands but there was no high level turnover inland markets. 3rd one is the great importer countries where the increase of land is not significant but the demand for the organic products is large. For example, Switzerland. And there are countries whose organik production and markets are very low.

Literature review and conzeptualization

We can speak about organic farming and agriculture as a method to help to achieve sustainable food system. According to facts the organic methods nedd more land than convertional one and can reduce N-surplus and pesticide use. This method can reduce the food wastage and production and consumption of animal products. The output of greenhouse gas emission is reduced with organic agriculture. The need of food in the world had increased for centuries. (Muller at al. 2017)
According to statistics from Kaposi, the number of European population is estimated to be 67 million in 1500, 89 million in 1600, 95 million in 1700 and 146 million in 1800. The starting point for growth was Great Britain. How did it get that the 17th Quarter of the 1740s dropped to 28.2 per cent by 1901 in terms of birth rates, but the death rate even lowered from 32 per thousand to 16.1 per thousand? (Kaposi, 1996) According to Korten (Korten, 1996), the English workers worked in worse conditions than American slaves in the twentieth century. By correcting these miserable living conditions, factors such as health or hygiene have become better due to lower mortality rates. On the other hand, improving agricultural productivity, the so-called agricultural revolution, has made it possible for the people's organization to become stronger and to extend the expected age. For the simple reason that there was something to eat and food was constantly available throughout the year. Some of the people were starving, hunger strikes certain areas or

periods. For example the cause of the Irish emigration wave can be traced back to hunger in the 19th century. Public health has also improved. The 18th century of epidemics disappeared in Western Europe. The smallpox also fell back. They were able to build a sewer network, closed settlements were introduced to the national circulation, and thus to trade, by the development of transport. As a result of the increased average age, labor force capacity increased, helping to meet the needs of the increased labor force of industry and agriculture. The economy grew more than the population, so labor shortages were more typical than unemployment. (Kaposi, 1996)

The intensification of agriculutre has increased food avability but this caused some environmental effects. There was an increase in reacive nitrogen over supply and eutrophication of land and water, biodiversity losses and increase of greenhouse gas emission. In the future the production will increase by 50% to fulfill the requirement of 9 billion people by 2050. We can see the change of customs of eating. We have to solve the problem of negative environmental impact. What is the solution of this question? We have to look at other solutions such as holistic methods. We have to look at other ways as organic farming, reduction of animal food and so on. Organic farming has lower yields and therefore it needs larger areas to produce the same amount as conventional production system. So the environmental benefits of organic system is lower if we measure it per unit of product than per unit of area. The conversation from conventional to organic has two main effects. There is a reduction of lifestock feed from arable land, and in animal numbers and products supply. These effect to the environment. Plus there are reductions of food wastage. The conclusion is that organic agriculture can onlí contribute to world's food supply if there will be some conditions realized. It is necessary a well designed food system in which reducing the number of animals and using feed and food wastage. In global level reducing animal product consumption in human diet is a strategy for more sustainable food systems to help the strengthen of natural resource use, human health and environment protection. If the production side reduce the animal product output we would be able to affect this system. organic agriculture can contribute to providing sufficient food and improving environmental impacts but it is important to use high levele of legumes and reduce the food competing feed use, livestock product quantities and food wastage. But changes in the side of consumption are important because these changes can help to reduce the important of the need for yield increases. It can help to provide an optimal food system. The main tasks are increasing yields, organic production and reducing watage and animal numbers and product consumption. And we need these to combine to reach these goals. (Muller at al. 2017)

For the purpose to analyse the changes and results of organic farming we have to look at the statistics about organic agriculture and markets. 2015 figures are the most fresh data a vailable in the world. According to these, 50.9 million hectares of organic farming were cultivated worldwide. This means 6.5 million hectares increase compared to 2014 and 20.7 million hectares compared to 2005 figures. If we can see the continent-sharing, the largest increase was in territory increase in Australia and Oceania and it was followed by Europe's growth with 1 million hectares growing. Australia has achieved this large growth to involving 97% of organic areas, with large-scale pastures. Significant land area growth of 17% was found in free

pastures, which make up the 2/3 of the organic areas. Important to say not a high-tech horticulture or cereal production is a major part of the area, but the easy-to-expand, accessible, migratory pastures are. With this tendency poorer countries and regions can involve territories to organic farming. The ratio of areas is 20% of all organic areas, typically with rice growing, green fodder, oil seeds and cotton, and seed production. The share of the permanent crop is 4 million hectares, accounting for 8% of the total area. It includes grapes, walnuts, coffee, olive oil and tropical fruits. Australia and Oceania has almost half of the world's organic rated areas, while Europe is one quarter and Latin America with 13%. There is a new cathegory. The size of the wilderness areas is 39.7 million hectares. This means that these areas may not be owned by the farmer, but are typically in the hands of a forestry, and the collection and collection of crops (eg. mushrooms, forest berries, raisins, etc.) sell or process. This activity is typically a way of earning income for the poorer countries and societies. For these people, having own land is impossible in many cases, but owners of large land or forest areas contribute to the exercise of this activity, they can offer herbs and forest crops.
The crisis appeared in 2008 had a great impact onto the food consumption, especially the orgainic farming products, which was mostly negative (Csiszárik-Kocsir–Medve, 2014, Csiszárik-Kocsir-Fodor-Medve, 2014). But there is an increase from 2013, therefore the number of producers was 2.4 million in 2015. Producers typically come from Asia, Africa and South America. This also means that two continents, Africa and Asia have smaller plant typically, and South American producers do not have large farms in average, apart from livestock farming. This is the reason for growing. Not surprisingly, most organic farmers came from these continents.
India (585,000), Ethiopia (203,000), Mexico (200,000) are counted as leaders. Compared to the previous year, there was a 7% increase in the number of growers, who are more than 160,000. It is typical that only a quarter of growht is territorial growth, but 89% of the producer increase is affected by the developing countries and their own markets. These producers can sell their products in an export market and the developed markets and their consumers can buy them. (Willer, Lernoud 2017)
In 2015, organic food and beverage sales amounted to $ 81.6 billion in the world's global markets. North America and Europe accounted for 90% of this. Production is scattered across the globe, while consumption is concentrated on two continents. The stongest market are in these continents. The other is that the number of consumers in these countries is not large, the solvency of the layer is narrow and the change in their consumer preference affects demand and supply. Organic markets are luxury ones in most cases. The stable turnover needs strong solvency and willingnes buying these kind of food. If we look at the country's turnover, we can see that the United States has a turnover of 35.8 billion euros, followed by Germany (8.6 billion euros) and France (5.5 billion euros). The European Union's turnover is below the US's total turnover, but it is still significant, as it accounts for 35.1% of the world's total organic turnover by EUR 27.1 billion. China is next with its 4.7 billion euros turnover. But last case some questions appeared with the reliability of the rating system. It is also worth examining the per capita consumption. We can see connection between willingness to consumption and solvency with this indicator. It shows what countries are concentrated on consumption. In this indicator, we are not

examining the countries with the highest consumption in the absolute value but the magnitude of individual consumption. We have more than € 170 average personal consumption per year in Switzerland, Denmark, Luxembourg and Sweden. In these countries, the market share of organic products is well above the 7% in the world. 8.4% in Denmark and 7.7% in Switzerland, for example. (Willer, Lernoud 2017)
North America has the largest organic product market in the world. With an annual turnover of 43.3 billion dollars (39.03 billion euros). The United States is the largest market for which the market for organic products accounts for up to 5% of total food turnover. Indeed, in the category of fresh vegetables, fruits reach 10% of organic food. This is followed by the turnover of dairy products, with a similar percentage, of which milk and yogurt are the leading products. As domestic supply does not reach demand levels, organic products are imported from almost all continents. Only vegetables and fruits can satisfy demand, and for all other products the import is decisive. At the same time, both the US and Canada have appeared in international organic trade, typically with EU, Swiss and Far Eastern exports. Major commercial units are characterized by their own branded products in the organic product market. (Willer, Lernoud 2017)
In Europe, the organic product turnover was EUR 31.1 billion (EUR 28.03 billion). Typically, Germany, France, Italy and Switzerland have the highest turnover, but Denmark has the largest market share, with 8.4% of organic food being harvested. Europe is also characterized by the fact that its largest retail company stands out with its own branded organic products with its own label. For example, Dennree has more than 200 units in Germany and Austria, or Biocoop with approximately 400 stores in France, but 300 Collobora B'io units in Italy, while many large chain stores have opened an organic supermarket such as REWE or Auchan.
Let's compare the organic and the fair trade world market. Total turnover was $ 7.3 billion. In order to combine organic with fair trade, we use the average annual rate of the European Central Bank, which was 1,1095 (EUR / USD) in 2015. Thus, the fair market value in euros is EUR 6.58 billion. We can see that the market of organic products has been more than 12 times the fair trade market, it is a market with a larger turnover. It is based on other principles and shows a special value when a product follows both principles, but the pursuit of health in this case means a stronger market than generosity and morality. It is also understandable if we accept some of the contents of the Maslow's need pyramid, since the need for health is more fundamental than morality. (Willer, Lernoud 2017)
It can be seen that the markets of organic products are developing very dynamically, and we can see that this development seems to be unbroken. Both product range and demand are expanding from year to year. According to some visions, by 2030, 50% of the European land will be guided by the principles of health, environmental protection, care and integrity. For this, dynamic growth indicators need to be kept in mind. This is still realistically feasible. At the same time, we can also see that one of the sources of danger is that this will not happen if Europe misses the possibility of bringing it closer together and eliminating the gap between supply and demand over the longer term. That is, supply is not able to catch up. This is partly political, partly economic. (Willer, Lernoud 2017)
The markets of organic products in the developed parts of the world are constantly growing and developing in

Europe. To what extent is variable. For example, retail sales grew twice in Sweden (45%) or France (10%); but in Belgium (3.8%) or in the UK (4%), growth was below the average in 2014. There is also a large spread among EU Member States as regards per capita consumption. Slovakia and Bulgaria have the worst ratios but Denmark and Luxembourg are leading.

At present, the following trends are observed in EU organic products markets.

- Dynamically strengthening retail markets. This market is growing steadily every year in Europe. It accounts for 3-4% of all food consumption today.
- Consumers spend more and more on organic food in absolute terms. For example, between 2005. and 2014. this increase was 110% and from EUR 22.4 (2005) to EUR 47.4 (2014) on average per person. During this time period, all food and non-alcoholic beverages consumed by households remained virtually constant, rising by only 13%.
- Some premium organic products have achieved more than the average market share in their product categories. Organic eggs have 11-22% share in Austria, Belgium, Finland, France, Germany and the Netherlands.
- Milk products have a 5-10% share in Austria, Germany or the Netherlands, for example. Biotech alone reached 15.7% in 2014 in Austria.
- In the fruit and vegetable market, 20% of the products in many countries are organic products. Italy, Ireland, France, Germany and Sweden, for example. (Meredith, Willer, 2016)

It can be said that the potential of organic products has not yet been dumped. Research has shown that women, young people and foodies are most interested in organic products. Although nearly every consumer is aware of organic production, communication can still be improved. About half of consumers are aware of the difference between organic and non-organic production and the exact terms of certification. In the United States, 92% of consumers say organic-products have the same good taste as traditional ones, and waiting for a better taste in Western Europe is one of the main reasons for the consumption of organic products. Professional cooks also agree with this.

If we want to combine the size of organic areas with the size of the market, we can state the following. Organic cultivation accounts for 5.7% of the EU's total cultivated land. So the size of the cultivated land is higher than the turnover. Average area growth has fallen to 1.1% in 2014. The number of producers increased by 0.2% over the same period. In many countries we find stagnation in the number of producers, especially in pioneering countries such as Denmark, Austria, or Germany, the United Kingdom. (Meredith, Willer, 2016)

Table 1: Organic production and market according to country groups

Country group	Retail turnover (billion euro)	consumption per person (euro)	The number of producers	Area (million ha)	% of whole area
EU-28	24	47,4	257 525	10,3	5,70%
Europe	26,2	35,5	339 824	11,6	2,40%
World	62,6	8,3	2 260 361	43,7	1%
EU-15	23,5	58	194 979	7,8	6,10%
EU-13	0,5	4	62 546	2,4	4,70%
CPC	0,005	0,1	73 375	0,5	1,50%
EFTA	2,1	154	8 500	0,2	4,40%
Other european countries	0,1	1	424	0,7	0,20%

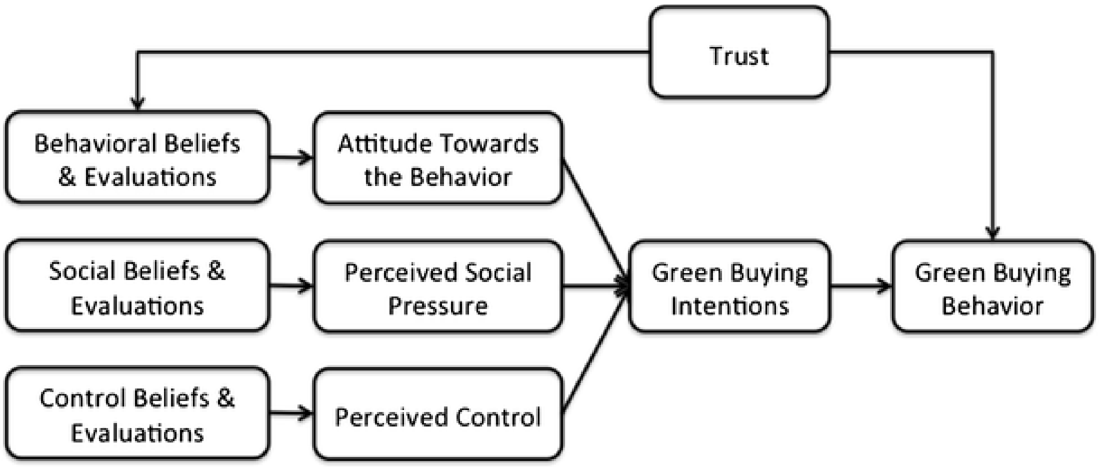
Source: Meredit, Willer, 2016.

This is also confirmed by Luczka, which is behind the spatial growth of traffic growth. Many organic farmers in Poland are forced to sell their product as a conventional one because they do not meet demand for supply. In Central and Eastern Europe, the main reason for this is the average price of high ecological products. (Luczka, 2016)

If we want to analyse of the consumption of organic food, we have to consider different factors which can explain the causes of the consumption. First, we have to analyse the question of the trust of consumers. According to organic food's rules there are a lot of standards, regulations kept by producers and retailers. There are some feedback and control to the keeping the rules but in many cases only administrative rules have been kept. Because the food sample control is very expensive. Therefore administration control used by controllers. It is much more cheaper way but easier to delude. In Hungary we could hear some legends about it. So I suppose the trust is essential question of organic food consumption. There were some scandals and illness in the short past years which destroyed the trust in food safety. But at the same time, It drawned attention to the importance of food security. Therefore some alternative food system which can fulfill the requirement of food safety, increased in turnover and quantity. In general lot of consumers are skeptical towards organic food. They do not have possibility to control the compliance of regulations for example the using of chemicals, artificial fertilisers. Organic means a special quaility threfore the trust in the product and producer is essential to buy the product. (Daugbjerg et al. 2014).)

Trust in social relationships is a psychological phenomenon (cognitive, behavioral, and emotional) that is the subject of the individual, whose belief is that the other will manifest itself (behave, feel, think) against us as we expect him or her to do. So the trust is an attitude, expectation in the other direction, with respect to the other's behavior. (Budavári-Takács, 2011) Theory of Planned Behaviour found that personal attitudes towards organic food and social norms were important for organic consumers where the consumption can be affacted by behavoiur and intention of consumers.

Figure 1. The impact of trust on organic buying behaviour in a planned behaviour framwork



Source: Nuttavuthisit and Thogersen, 2017.

Theres is gap between the consumer's intention to buy organic food products and their actual buying. The trust is a key factor to strengthen organic market. (Nuttavuthisit and Thogersen, 2017.)

Channels in different countries differ from country to country. France, Italy and Germany have achieved strong market growth in recent years. Typically, specialized retailers perform a larger sales slice. Expertise and the size of sales space play an important role in sales. Nevertheless, we can see that the supermarket countries have been able to continually increase the sales of organic foodstuffs (eg Austria, Denmark, Sweden, Switzerland and the United Kingdom). At the same time, in countries such as Germany, specialist marketing channels (organic shops) have grown significantly, while the sale of supermarkets has stagnated before 2014.

Almost half of retailers engaged in the trade in mass products increased the turnover and supply of natural products. The most successful merchants have developed their own labeling product line to designate and differentiate their natural products. (Richman, 1999)

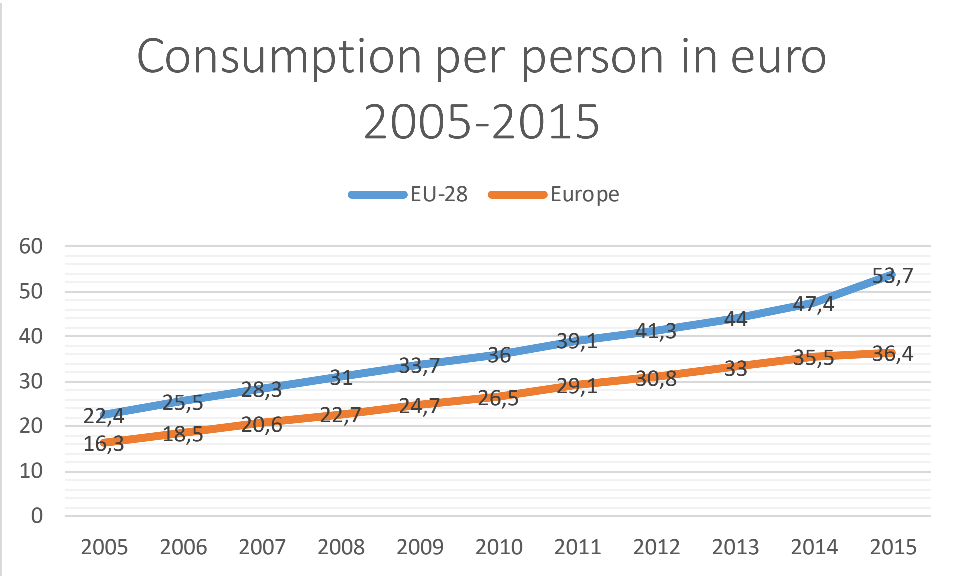
There are many products that have a significant share of the entire sales market:

- In many countries, organic eggs are one of the success stories of the entire retail market. For example, Switzerland and France have a market share of more than 20%. In most other countries where data is available.
- Organic fruits and vegetables continue to be very popular with European organic-consumers. After the egg, organic vegetables have the highest market share, which is 9 to 15% of the sales volume of all vegetables sold in Switzerland, Austria and Germany. For example, fresh carrots have only 30% market share in Germany.
- In some countries, organic dairy products account for about 5% of all milk production. In Switzerland, they still reach 10%
- Individual products can achieve a much larger market share. In Germany, organic baby food and meat supplements,

representing more than 40% and 60%, are good examples.

● On the other hand, products such as organic beverages (except wine) and meat (especially poultry) generally have a low market share. Often, these products are highly processed and / or very cheap in the traditional market. Growth trends in European organic food and farming

Figure 2. Consumption per person in Europe



Source: Meredit, Willer, 2016. and Willer Lernoud 2017.

Marketing and communication are other important tools in the hand of the producers. Some consumer groups want to pay high price premium for organic products. Target-oriented communication and communication strategy can help to reach the marketing purpose of organic food. Product-specific information about organic food attributes may offer another way of differentiating organic products from conventional ones. (Illlichmann and Abdulai, 2013)

If an organic product is raw and unprocessed has a positive influence on the market share. Consumers in the wealthy markets prefer raw and unprocessed organic products over low-processed and highly processed ones. If a product is processed with high level, the lower its market share. The consumers think these kind of products are more naturalness and mean healthier lifestyle. And the plus premium price can affect the level of the market share of these kind of products. As these are more expensive than its conventional one, it has a clear disadvantages on the market. So it is true that in more countries consumers do not like plus prices in organic method. If the price of a product is too high consumers tend to buy less and the market share decreases. Maybe it would be surprising but if a product is relatively important for the household, the consumer tends to buy it in non organic type. Less important goods have higher organic market shares. This contradicts the fact that health is increasingly important to consumers. According to another survey there is no connection between animal welfare and organic consumption. As animal welfare in organic farming is much more important than non organic way we can beleive that there is a connection but there is no. Maybe the reason is that consumers of organic food are also more likely to be vegetarian than non-organic buyers. (Götze et al, 2016)

Material and methodology

The literature reserach consisted of domestic and international literature of recent years, and there was also own research. In addition to a questionnaire survey by consumers, deep interviews with producers were also given. Based on these lessons learned, analyzing the changes in recent years to find the underlying causes.
A survey was made with 102 students about organic habits and willingness. They are daily students of University of Óbuda. There are 20 questions. Some questions about demography, some about purchasing, motivation, habits and about marketings.

My hypotheses are the following.
H1 In the last 10 years, consumption of organic food in the domestic food consumption has not increased significantly in quantity or turnover.
H2. A major obstacle to the procurement of domestic organic products is the scarcity, time and distance of purchasing opportunities, especially in rural areas.
H3 Another important cause of low consumption is mistrust and related ignorance. Awareness could improve the consumption of this product range.

Results

In some countries the food safety is low therefore the asio of organic food is higher than in normal case. But more consumers do no know what organic labeling and rules means, so what are the characteristics of organic food. Xie found that consumers knew very little about the organic food in the aspect of knowledge of concept, law and brand. (Xie, 2013) More writers (Ellen, 2011, Haghjou, 2013) studied that the consumers are willing to pay more for organic food but not more than 30-40%. The attitude of consumers can be affacted by the place of the purchase, the education, age, religion of consumers, the quality of organic food and their emitional factors. (Lockie et al, 2004.) According to Wang and Liu (2014) some factors can affact about the consumer behaviour. 1. Demographic characteristics, recognition of organic food (it could improve their willingness to buy this kind of food.), value driving factors (the awareness of food safety, health, environmental protection, animal protection), related factors about the theory of planned behaviour (the attitude about purchase, subjective norms, perceived behaviour control), factors of consuming motivation. The last one includes for example health motivation, mood, convenience, sensory appeal motivation, natural contents, price, weight controlling, familiary, political value and religion motivation. There are the most tipical factors which can affect to the consumer behaviour of organic food. (Wang, Liu, 2014)
According to Irandoust (2014) in Sweden the probability of purhasing organic food is increasing with higher income, therefore economic factors (price, household income) affect the intensity of organic food consumption. As the effect is not linear, the consumers are not willing to pay above a certain levele of price difference with conventional products. Health, quality, environmental benefits can help the consumers to buy organic products. The probability of buying organic food is not influenced by social and demographic factors for example education, cultural background, gender and age in Sweden. (Irandoust, 2016)

Health consciousness affects positively to organic food's consumption and social consciousness has negatively affect to it. There is no connection between environmental consciousness and consumption. (Hansen et al, 2018). According to Mondelaers et al, (2009) health is more important in the choice than sustainability. (Mondelaers et al., 2009) Hansen et al. (2018.) has the same opinion. Organic food identity had a positive influence on food behaviour with low levels of openess to change. Organic food ivolvement was positively connected to both organic food and its behaviour and female are more likely to build a positive organic food identity than males. Age negatively influenced intentional organic food behaviour. Females and younger people are more likely to intend to be a positive attituders toward organic food behaviour. Consumers" social surroundings and food types affected the willingness of purchase of organic food. Hansen et al, 2018).

By repeating a 2006 research, I compared what happened and what has happened in the past 11 years. In addition to the demographic data, the questionnaires examined household income and the typical consumer and consumption habits. The questionnaire asked about the qualification of organic products, such as their beneficial and disadvantageous properties. She has been researching what kind of foods typically are placed in the basket of consumers and what are the main purchasing locations. He also looked at the motivations of consumption, and sought out the possible even more acceptable surcharges.

According to Hofer, the consumption of organic products also plays an important role in the health and environmental aspects of economic competitiveness. However, he adds that the cause of health is due to the consumption of organic products, while the other two aspects are the consequence. Because of the health reason, consumption can be increased, with the consequence of increasing production, which calls for the product structure to improve, with which competitiveness also increases. This also implies a more environmentally friendly technological presence, which will improve the environmental performance of production. (Hofer, 2009)

The survey consisted of a questionnaire of 20 questions, both on the one hand and on the other by selected consumers. The survey is still ongoing, so at the time of writing this article only the processing of less than 100 questionnaires was possible. Over time, this number will increase and reach the hundreds of magnitude. The survey is true that it can not be considered representative at this time, but its results are similar to those of Hofer's research conducted 11 years ago.

The respondents are tipically university students with average 23 years old living with parents without having children. 23,5% is working somewhere and studying at the university. The income of the household has 125 thousand HUF deviation which means medium value because the average is 326,5 thousand HUF. A household pay 16,5 % of income for food which means the Hungarian average. Its deviation is high with 43,8 thousand HUF.

The most important are the price and the foreign origin for the young consumers. The less important thing is reliability. As I mentioned most people do not know exactly what organic farming mean. Young students think the advantage of organic is lack of chemicals and good quality. The main problem of organic products was the higher consumer price of the respondents. He followed the question of reliability and non-domestic affiliation. Among its benefits, it is clear that its chemical non-chemical properties and its environmental impact are considered. So the positive effect on health has come out in this case. Reliability and quality are also important for consumers. So, an important aspect of the consumption of organic products is how far the producer and the goods are trusted. So there is not enough certification here, credibility and confidence in the qualification process and in the qualifiers are important for the consumer.

The location of the place of purchase for the interviewees was of the utmost importance and, accordingly, many people buy hyper- or supermarket products if they are consumed at all. Typically, they only consume organic products on a monthly basis and the amounts to be paid for them did not reach 10,000 HUF (35 euros) per month. The role of specialty shops in Germany seems to be negligible. Typical purchase of organic products is that when shopping in the shopping cart is sold in the basket.

Consumption motivations include better quality, healthier status and environmental aspects as they generally link these properties to organic products. Just as the consumption of self-made product and the health aspects are of paramount importance. Just as the use of advertising opportunities did not play a role in motivating factors.

Consumption also has attractive packaging and availability, so the right distribution channels are required to have a higher consumption of this product range.

According to consumer impressions, the price of organic products is roughly twice that of traditional products. What they would tolerate for consumers is very similar to the 20-30% premium known in the literature. So the interviewees are very price-sensitive about this product range. In order to spread the product range to lower prices, confidence-building and a good example of friends and acquaintances are needed to make these products more appropriate.

Indeed, it is also apparent from consumers' inquiries that, in order to promote better distribution, it is essential to broaden and deepen awareness, to strengthen and apply advertising campaigns. In addition, with the help of unique marketing tools, the consumer can be increased by using more modern, digital means of marketing. (Cairns, 2013)

Conclusion

The health factor of domestic organic-products is the great importance, but the consumer price of the product range is one of the biggest obstacles to widespread use of these products. The role of mistrust is significant. The surveyed consumers are skeptical as to whether the product is truly organic or not reliable. This fits in with the fact that consumers do not have reliable and thorough knowledge of organic production, its rules and procedures. Developing awareness should definitely be given more emphasis if we want to exploit the market potential of this segment in our country. Indeed, over the past decade, consumption of organic food has not increased in terms of quantity and turnover in HUF, in proportion to domestic food consumption. This was also confirmed by the questionnaire results. One of the main reasons for the downturn in particular a decline in food expenditure of households on organic products. This is partly true, as the respondents were not justified by the income situation as reducing their spending, but with the scarcity of sales channels, excessive consumer prices and the scarcity of knowledge on organic products was still the cause of the decline.

Another major obstacle to the procurement of domestic organic-products is the scarcity, time and distance

of purchasing opportunities, especially in rural areas. This is true in the region, the capital is becoming less and less. Hyper- and Supermarkets are becoming increasingly popular in these products.
H1, H2 and H3 became true because in the last 10 years, consumption of organic food in the domestic food consumption has not increased significantly in quantity or turnover. The reason for this was a crisis in 2008-2009. and the mistrust of consumers, and higher price of these products and the lack of distribution channels. Awareness could improve the consumption of this product range. It is necessary to develop the knowledge of these kind of products and inform the consumers about the advantages. Last one is develop the trust and decrease the price and awareness the important of health in youngers' mind.

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ICUBERD

Brief biography

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Analysis of women's labour market activity

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Abstract

An important target of the Europe 2020 Strategy is to increase the labour market activity. Accordingly by 2020 each member state should ensure that the employment rate among people aged 20-64 reaches 75 percent. In line with this, the increase in the employment rate among the domestic fiscal policy objectives get special importance. Analyzing the domestic employment data series it can be clearly established that women's participation in the labour market is permanently and significantly behind the men’s one. Only 51.3% of economically active women are employed. For this reason, it is worth to examine the factors affecting women's labour market activity.

Based on domestic statistic we examine women’s employment rate by age groups, profession and education. In terms of the economic analysis of women's labour market situation the labour supply willingness of women upbringing young children deserves special attention, as their decision may be significantly influenced by governmental measures. While only a few mothers in the Western European countries can afford to remain inactive for many years after the birth of their child, in Hungary, working before the child’s 2nd birthday is less socially accepted. In the light of the above mentioned, we pay particular attention to the analysis of the employment situation of women with young children and based on our study we suggest government measures to increase the employment rate among women.

Keywords: labour market activity, employment, women, upbringing young children, child care benefit

Introduction

In Hungary, the so-called CEDAW Convention was proclaimed in 1982 which is a UN document on the Elimination of all forms of discrimination against women. In this, special attention is given to the maintenance of equality rights in the field of employment, which is controlled by the CEDAW Committee. The latest revision took place in 2013, where our country was alerted to the need to increase employment, to eliminate gender wage differences and employment segregation. However, to achieve the 75% employment rate of the Europe 2020 strategy, it is a strong potential if also women's employment is managed to increase. (Országgyűlés, 2017)

In the 21st century a tendency can be discernible in the countries of the European Union, so in Hungary as well. Namely parents want to have children always later and later. According to a study of the Demográfiai Portré

(*Demographic Portrait*) (Kapitány–Spéder, 2011) the age of the child-taking women extended to 30 years and this trend has continued since then. The proportion of graduates is growing rapidly among women having a child, which clearly shows the importance of reconciling work-careers and childbearing. At the same time, the conditions for flexible employment, home office or even family-friendly workplaces have come into view. Based on Hungarian statistical data and empirical experiences we formulated some hypothesis about which factors influence significantly the labour activity of women. Based on Eurostat and OECD data we tried to verify our assumptions and formulate some suggestions to improve women's employment rate.

Literature review

<u>Women on the labour market – Hungary and the European Union</u>

It is no longer a question that families with children should get extra benefits that is offered by the state in various ways. (Kristó, 2015) According to this the Hungarian family support system can be seen as generous, which supports first of all the home care of children until the age of three. (Makai–Blaskó, 2012) The two main benefit forms are GYES (child care allowance) and GYED (child care benefit). GYED is a benefit for women who has to be insured, and needs at least 365 days of insurance during the last 2 years before delivery (doesn't need to be uninterrupted). GYES is entitled to all mothers of the child up to the age of 3 years, and no previous employment is required. In addition, other elements of the state's social care system make up the backbone of the family support system, the GYET (child-raising allowance), to parent, foster parent or guardian who raises 3 or more minor children in his or her household, the family allowance to parent of children from the birth until learning in public education and GYED extra for mothers studying / performing in higher education. Makai Zsuzsanna and Blaskó Zsuzsa formulated in their study of 2012 that Hungary has spent more for these benefits as the average of the European countries.

The former childbearing pattern is ceasing – very similar to the West-European trends – in Hungary always more and more women postpone the first child's commitment to the early thirties. In this context, we can read more and more about the fact that the education level largely determines in which labour market situation the women have children. In our country it can be observed that graduated women have child almost exclusively as employed or previously employed. With the transformation of society, women are increasingly trying to reconcile work and family, without the employment the childbearing is almost unimaginable. (Kapitány–Spéder, 2011) To leave the labour market for 2 or 3 years in so strong competition is always harder and more risky for women having children. It's not accidental that the role of the flexible employment, the part-time employment, the family-friendly workplaces or the home-office system have come into view.

At the same time, according to a 2011 study (Seres, 2011), Hungary is lagging at the end of the EU ranking for part-time employment, and since then there has not been much change in our flexible employment trend in Hungary, which has become an unused reserve for labour management (Országgyűlés, 2017)

It turned out from a study of Corvinus University, Institute of Management in

2014 – which is based on a research by 10 companies, where employee-friendly environment was created – "that flexible working arrangements help workers with children to solve their tasks in time, but they mean also a great challenge for them." Among others it cause stress for the mother if she has to hurry to the nursery for her child while she still has a lot to do and she has to do it at night. By the way tension was generated among employees with small children because some of them returned to work some weeks after her childbirth but others stayed at home for the whole GYES-period. (Primecz, 2014) According to a new study of 2017 – where 1127 parents of children aged under 14 was asked about their workplace whether it is family friendly or not – 70% of the Hungarian parents with small children doesn't work in a family friendly workplace. Most of the respondent parents want to have more leave in summer in order to solve the problem of the summer child care easier. It also turned out from the analysis that in the long turn, it is worth for companies to be child-friendly as employees well appreciative their jobs and it can be a more promising offer for a new workforce. (Gyaraki, 2017)

If we examine the whole European Union we can find that the proportion of part-time workers is increasing continuously, but there is a still significant gap between the genders. (Seres, 2011) According to the 2017 labour force statistic of Eurostat this proportion was the highest in the Netherlands, Germany and Belgium. 31,4% of employed women aged between 20-64 work in part time in the 28 member states of the EU, which is significantly higher than men's 8,2%. A Spanish research confirms it as well. According to this the ratio of part-time works increased in the last few years in the European Union. Thanks to a strategy which improves the maintenance of work-family balance primarily among women and provides employers with a labour market resources. (Mireia, 2017)

Hungary – Employer

Employers don't want to employ mother with small children for many reasons. Some jobs are connected with multi-shift works schedule and in this case the mothers have to solve child care at any time of the day. The supervision is connected with fees which mean significant cost in the family budget. In addition, shift work is linked with typically lower wages, which clearly shows that these people prefer to be absent from their workplace. If the mother works in normal working hours, the employer may also see a significant risk in the mother's work performance fluctuation, as she is hardly chargeable with overtime and the days of sick leave because of the child's illness can be significant as well. Nevertheless, mothers who stay away from their jobs for 2 years are unable to perform their jobs with the same efficiency as a result of technological development and (in certain jobs) due to changes in legislation. To solve this latter problem, it may be a solution for mothers to carry out further trainings, possibly retraining during the childcare period. In order to increase the employment of mothers with young children among employers, the government provides a discount on the employer's wage contribution. The employers may reduce the social contribution tax liability by 22 percent of the gross salary, up to a maximum of HUF 22,000 per month, if they employ a person who receives or has received a child care allowance in the past two years. In the 3rd year of employment, the wage contribution obligation can be reduced by 11 percent and a maximum of HUF

11,000. This government action clearly encourages job seeking of mothers with young children. However, the supply side of the labour market, which shows the willingness to work of mothers with young children, can be significantly behind the desirable level. Therefore, in the following, we examine the impact of cash benefits on the labour supply of women with small children at the employee's perspective.

Hungary – Employee

If the mother has a legal relationship before childbearing, based on which cash health insurance can be paid, she will receive 70% of her previous wage as maternity benefit until the child's age of two (1997. évi LXXXIII. törvény). As a result of the different contributions and tax bases, the measure of child care benefit (GYED) does not simply results a 30 per cent reduction in disposable income. If we look at the situation of a mother with a gross salary of 129,000 HUF, we can say that she earned 66.5 percent of her gross wage before her maternity benefit as a monthly income (HUF 73,815). By contrast, GYED amounts to 70 percent of the minimum wage (77,700 forints), which is only charged by personal income tax and pension contributions, so the available income is realized at HUF 58,275. Based on the ratio of the difference between the two sums (73.815-58.275 = 15.540) to the net wage (73.815), it can be stated that there is actually a 21.05 per cent decrease in the amount of the household's disposable income during the period of GYED. In addition, the amount of GYED benefits is maximized in the year 2017 at HUF 178,500, which means a gross allowance of HUF 255,000 (~ gross wage) taking the 70 percent reduction into account. This means that somebody with a gross salary of 255,000 HUF is entitled to the gross HUF 178,500 GYED benefit as well as a women with 500,000 HUF gross salary. In the latter case, the mother's net income was HUF 332,500 before childbirth, while during GYED (the net amount of 178,500 HUF benefit) she earns only HUF 133,875. On this basis, the disposable income of the household decreases with HUF 198,625, which results a 59.74 percent loss of income. (Table 1.)

Table 1. Disposable income in the case of different income levels

Gross wage HUF	Net wage HUF	Gross GYED HUF	Net GYED HUF	Difference HUF	Change compared to previous level of income
129.000	85.785	90.300	67.725	-18.060	-21,05%
255.000	169.575	178.500	133.875	-35.700	-21,05%
500.000	332.500	178.500	133.875	-198.625	-59,74%

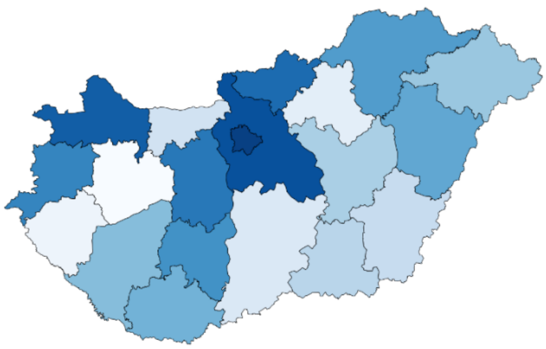
Source: own calculation based on legislation

Based on the above introduced things, we can conclude according to the conditions of rational economic behavior that we can rather face work during the GYED period (GYED-extras) in the case of women whose gross income was higher than 255,000 HUF because here the decrease in disposable income is over 21,05%.

In addition to the definition of cash benefits, it is important to examine how typical is in Hungary to work before the child's 2nd birthday, to which the statistics are provided by the National Health Insurance Fund. In the last month of 2015, the share of working women with children younger than 2 years was only 8.04 percent. It is clear from this that the Hungarian households do not really use the opportunities of law. Examining the willingness to work of women with

GYED over HUF 230,000[24], we can conclude that 13.3% of them worked during the GYED period in December 2015, which is a striking difference compared to the 8.04% of the national average. This clearly confirms the hypothesis that government regulations in favor of labor market return typically increase the activity of households with higher incomes. (Figure 1.)

Figure 1. The proportion of claimants with a GYED over 230 000 HUF per county, 2015



Source: own calculation based on the data of OEP, December of 2015.

In addition to the income situation, it is important to mention that there are of course jobs or activities that are less likely to have the mother at the same time as raising young children. There are jobs where because of scheduling, child care cannot be fully solved and in this case working during the GYED period is not a real alternative for the mother. The professions where working during the GYED period is typical are the professions required a higher qualification as a school leaving exam (22,02%), armed forces employees (22,28%) and business executives (10,49%). In questionnaire surveys of previous researches more people saw the limitation of the ability to work with small children in the inflexible working hours. Flexible working time is less typical in our country, so it is mostly identified by part-time employment, which of course is not the same, but it does provide more free time with the children than a full-time job (over 36 working hours per a week). On the other hand, according to the data of December 2015, we find that over 80 percent of the workforce who works with a toddler performs more than 36 hours per week during the GYED period.

The current regulation clearly encourages families with children that the mother should return to the labour market before her child's the age of two. However, it is clear that parents are less likely to live with this option. The reason for this is complex and can be traced back to several factors. The typical position of mothers with small children is that the intensive maternal presence for three years is indispensable for the healthy development of the child. On the other hand, it is less typical in our country to work from home, since part-time employment is more likely to be achieved. There is also a significant problem in the lack of number of nursery places in our country, which is indispensable for the employment of mothers with small children. Data of 2015 show that in all counties except of the capital there are over 5 children in the age of 0 to 2[25] for one free nursery place, which means that every fifth child 's daily care is solved today (KSH, 2015). Thus, every 5th mother has only the opportunity to return to the labour market before her child's 2nd birthday.

[24] Higher than the upper limit of benefits in 2015

[25] KSH: population aged between 0 and 2 / total number of existing nursery places (public and private)

Methodology

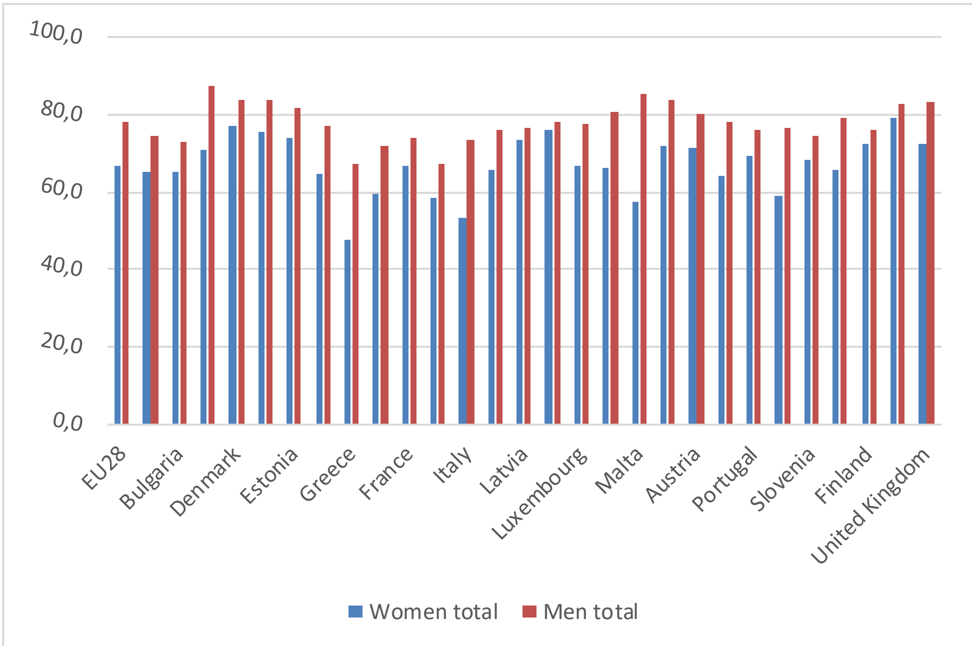
The empirical data show that the pretty generous child care benefit system partly results the low employment rate of women having young children and this rate doesn't increase despite of the upper introduced legislative discounts. Based on this we formulated a hypothesis: The longer the parental leave and a higher the child care benefit is in a country the lower the activity rate of women with young children is.

In the followings we made an analysis from data of Eurostat and OECD. The aim of this analysis to verify or confute or hypothesis which were formulated based on the above introduced Hungarian situation. We try to find countries which can serve as best practice in the labour market situation for Hungary. Countries where the activity rate of mothers is high enough. During the examination we used regression analysis to examine the connection between economical features, shares and proportions. Data are show on figures for the better understanding.

Results

First of all we want to introduce the European situation in general.

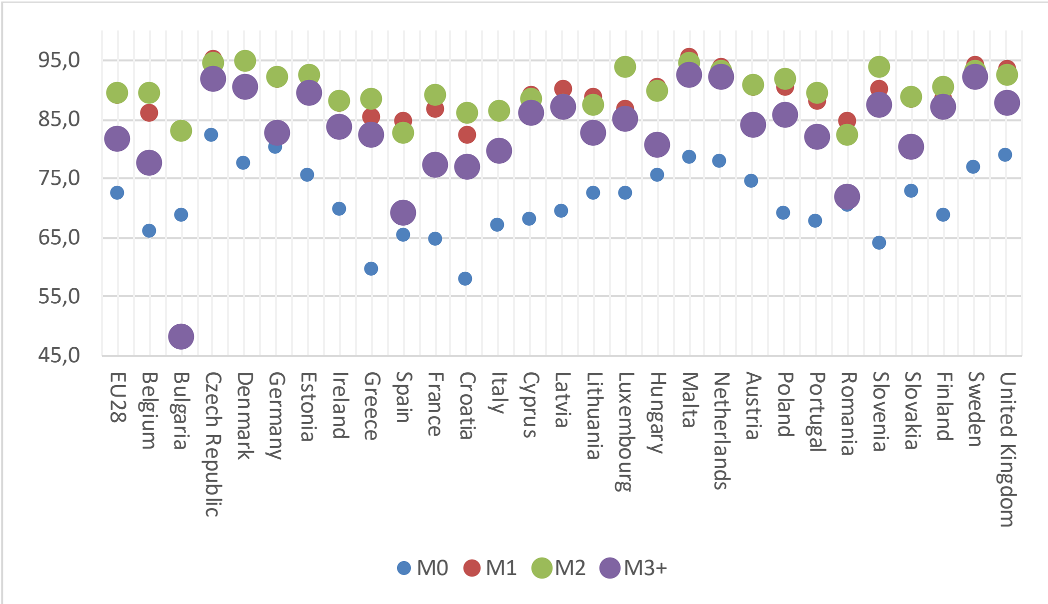
Figure 2. Activity rate of women and men (2016, %)



Source: Eurosat, 2017b

As we can see the activity rate of women is in every member states lower than the activity rate of men. (Figure 2.) The gap between the rates is in Latvia (2,8 pp) and Lithuania (1,9 pp) is the lowest. In contrast, the gap is extremely high in Malta (28,1 pp) in Italy (20,2 pp) and in Greece (19,4 pp). In our studies point of view it's interesting how the number of the children influences the activity rate especially of women but men as well. First some words about men.

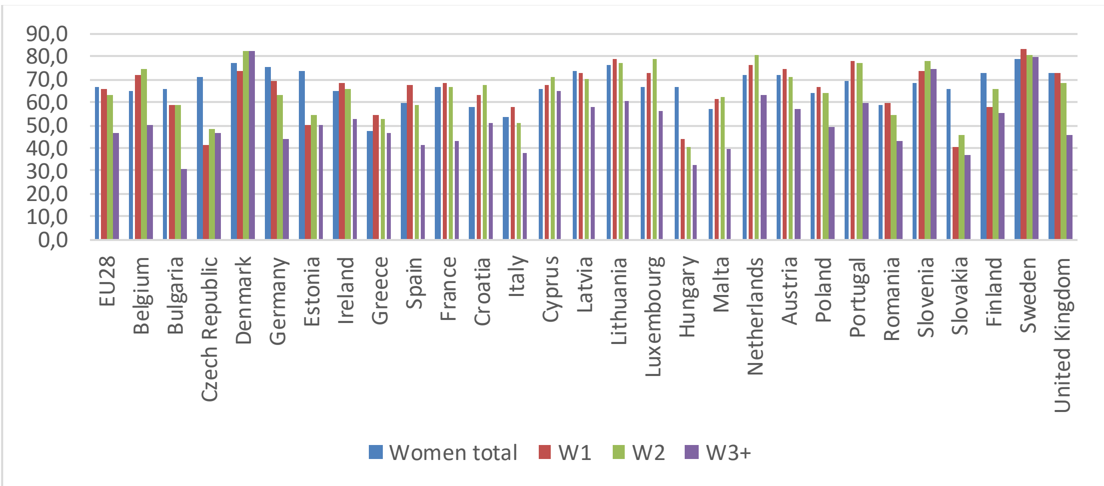
Figure 3. Activity rate of men (2016, %)



Source: Eurostat, 2017b

Except of Bulgaria we can state that the increasing number of children means increasing activity rate of men in the EU. (Figure 3.) This increasing activity should compensate the women's labour force and naturally their household incomes falling out.

Figure 4. Activity rate of women with children (2016, %)

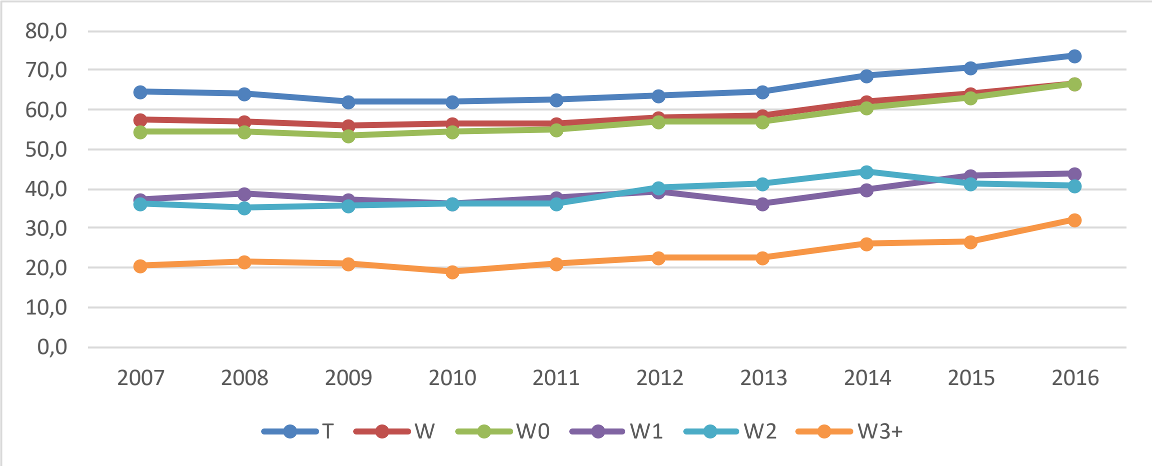


Source: Eurostat, 2017b

As we also supposed the activity rate of women decreases with the increasing number of children. (Figure 4.) In most of the countries the decrease is pretty significant. It's clear that the turning point is the birth of the third child. The situation is the worst in three newly joined states: in Bulgaria, Hungary and Slovakia plus in Germany. In these four countries the activity rate of women with 3 or more children is less than 60% of the activity rate for the whole women population. A best performing three states are two Scandinavian ones: Sweden and Denmark plus Slovenia. In these countries the activity rate is even higher among women with more than 3 children then the activity rate of women generally. Based on the data Denmark, Sweden and Slovenia could be examples as best practices for Hungary in increasing the activity rate of women. So we may find the reason of the high data of the above mentioned countries.

If we examine this in Hungary we can find the same not only in 2016 but also if we examine longer time series. (Figure 5.) The activity rate decreases with the increasing number of children. The turning point is the third child also in Hungary but we can say that there is a huge gap between the rates with and without children. Data on activity of women with children stay always below 50%. It's not too high especially if we consider the target number of 75% of the EU. Another important statement based on the figure: we cannot find any drastic and significant changes in the last ten years so family policy measures did not have much impact.

Figure 5. Activity rate in Hungary in the different categories (%)



Source: Eurostat, 2017b

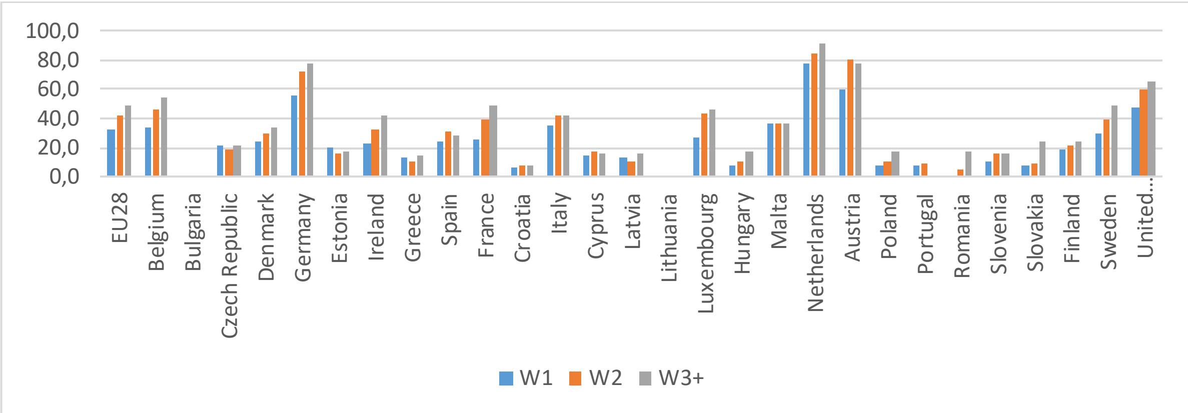
According to some studies women's labour market participation is high when there are wide range of opportunities for part-time work. We assumed that the high activity rate of women with more children for example in Denmark is because of the high proportion of part-time worker mothers. If we examine the percentage of part time workers in the EU we can find an extremely high gap between the data. Part-time work is typical for women and the difference is increasing with the increasing number of children. (Table 2.)

Table 2. Percentage of part-time workers in the EU (2016, %)

	1 child		2 children		3 children or more	
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
EU28	4,9	33,0	4,9	41,9	8,1	48,4
Gap	28,1		37,0		40,3	

Source: Eurostat, 2017a

Figure 6. Part-time worker women in the different categories (2016, %)

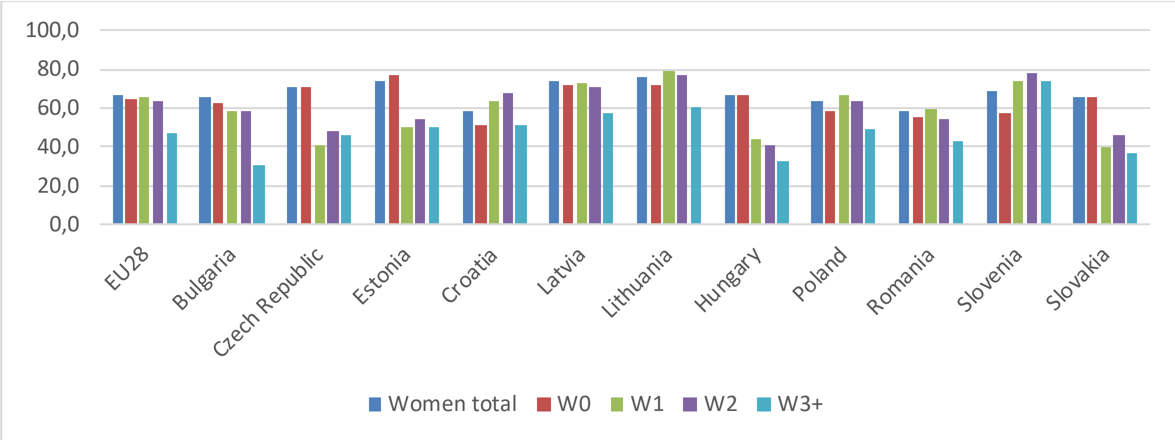


Source: Eurostat, 2017b

The number of women working in part-time jobs is increasing with the number of the children. (Figure 6.) Data certifies our hypothesis only partially. From the selected three countries part-time work is widespread only in Sweden (in the case of 3+ children 48,8%) but it's not significant higher as the EU-average (in the case of 3+ children 48,4%). Denmark's and especially Slovenia's performance is quite bad. So we cannot state that part-time work is a clear solution for improving labour market activity of women with children. In the case of these two countries we should examine their social policy measures in details. So based on the part-time worker's and on the activity rate's data we need to examine the Netherlands, Austria and Sweden in the future. These are the three countries where not only activity rate but also the percentage of part time workers is pretty high.

As there are some non-economic reasons for staying at home with children instead of working we found it important to examine the former socialist countries separately. (Figure 7.) We supposed that in these countries there is a "cultural tradition" or social expectation because of the former maternity and parental leave systems. We found that there is only one exception among these countries: Slovenia. In this member state the activity rate of women with children is even higher as the generally activity rate of women as we've already mentioned.

Figure 7. Activity rate of women in the former soviet influenced countries (2016,%)

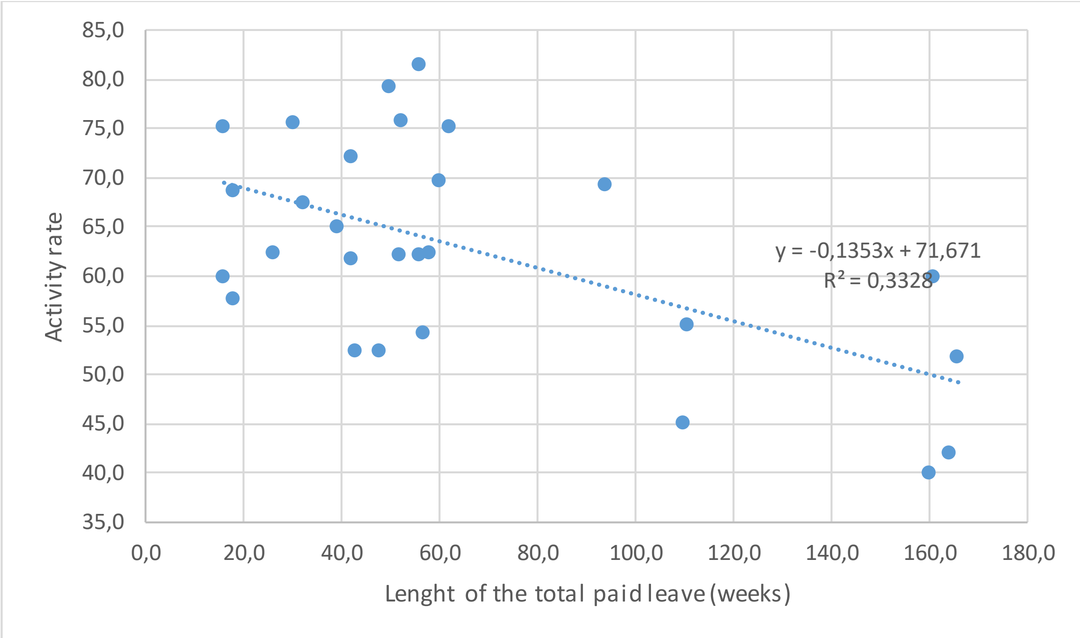


Source: Eurostat, 2017b

There are also OECD data about how long women can stay at home after the birth of their child. These period can be divided into two parts: maternity leave and parental/home care leave. Maternity leave is around the time of childbirth. According to the ILO convention it has to be at least 14 weeks. This is the same length as the current EU directive. Parental leave and home care leave are employment protected leave of absence for employed women. Home care leave provide care until the child's second or third birthday and exists only in few countries. This part of leave tends to be paid only at a low percentage or a flat rate. We have data not only how long women can stay at home but also the rate of their previous salary they get during the leaving period. (OECD, 2016)

We supposed that somehow there is a relation between the length of the maternity, parental and home care leave and the activity rate on the one hand and a relation between the average amount of the payment for this period and the activity rate on the other hand. Based on the OECD data we examined this question. Comparing EU28 countries we hardly found any relations between the data. We find the strongest relation between the length of the total paid leave and the activity rate of women with children under 6. Its Pearson correlation coefficient is -0,58 so there is a medium strong negative relation between the examined variables. To sum it up a governmental measure reflecting on the length of parental leave or on the sum of the benefit doesn't change directly the activity rate of women with children. (Figure 8.)

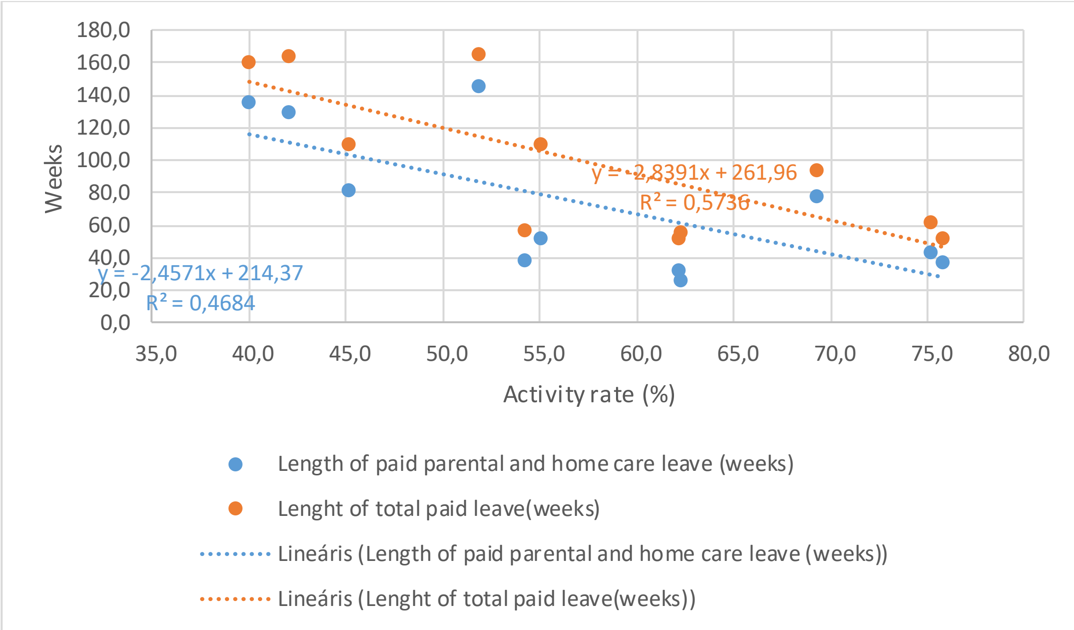
Figure 8. Relation between the length of the total paid leave and the activity rate of women with children under 6



Source: own calculation based on OECD, 2016 and Eurostat, 2017b

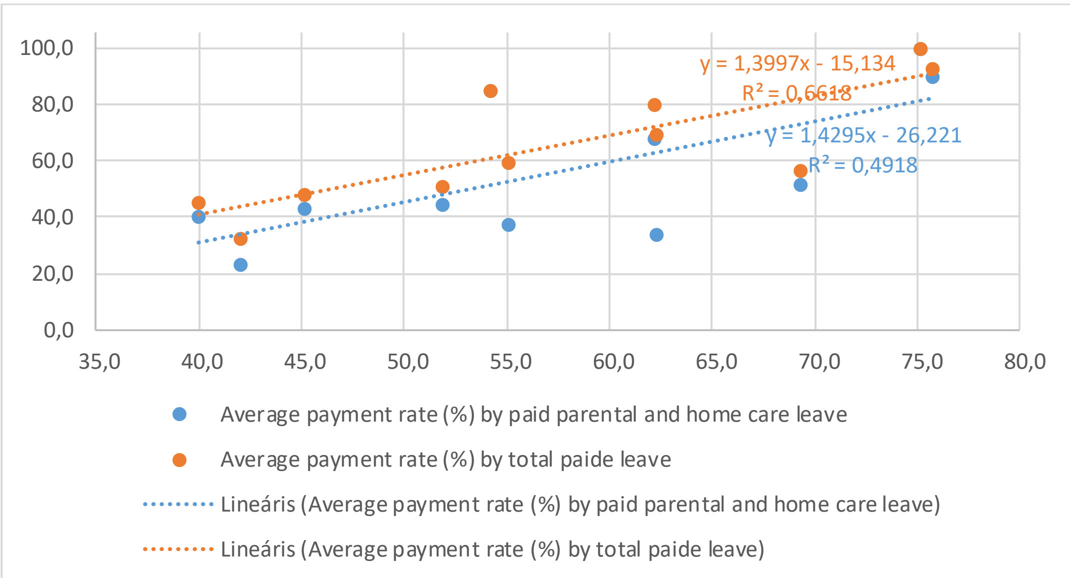
Supposing some historical and "cultural" reasons we examined the former socialist countries separately. Their data show a completely different result. In the case of women with children aged under 6 there is a quite strong negative relation between the length of the total paid leave and the activity rate (Pearson correlation coefficient=-0,76). So the longer women can stay at home with their children the higher is the possibility not to return to the labour market. Interestingly we found a positive relation between the average payment rate and the activity rate. In the case of the total leave period the Pearson correlation coefficient is 0,81 and in the case of the parental leave period it is 0,7. So the higher is the benefit the higher is the possibility for working. Our results are summarized in the following figure: (Figure 9 – 10.)

Figure 9. Relation between length of the leave categories and the activity rate of women with children aged under 6



Source: own calculation based on OECD, 2016 and Eurostat, 2017

Figure 10. Relation between different average payment rate categories and the activity rate of women with children aged under 6



Source: own calculation based on OECD, 2016 and Eurostat, 2017b

Conclusion

We examined the labour activity situation of Hungarian mothers. On the one hand there is a need to increase the activity rate of women with young children. In the last few years there are plenty of government regulations to help women to return to the labor market. But if we examines data of a longer period (the last 10 years) we cannot find any drastic and significant changes so family policy measures did not have much impact on activity rate. On the other hand we found that the Hungarian family support system is very generous, which supports first of all the home care of children until the age of three. Hungary has spent more for these benefits as the average of the European countries

The willingness to work of mothers with young children can be significantly behind the desirable level. We found that government regulations in favor of labor market return typically increase only the activity of households with higher incomes. In the post-soviet member states of the EU there is a positive relation between the average payment rate and the activity rate. So the higher is the parental benefit the higher is the possibility for working.

Flexible working time is not a real solution in Hungary because it is completely identified with part-time work (even if it is not the same) and 80% of working mothers works more than 36 hours a week.

With the analysis of the European data we had the aim to find countries which can be best practices for Hungary. The best performing states are two Scandinavian ones: Sweden and Denmark plus Slovenia. In these countries the activity rate is even higher among women with more than 3 children then the activity rate of women generally. We assumed that in these countries the system of part-time work results so high rates but data didn't verify our hypothesis. It is true that part-time work is typical for women and the gap between the two gender is increasing with the increasing number of children Based on the data the Netherlands, Austria and Sweden are the three countries where not only activity rate but also the percentage of part time workers is pretty high. So these countries these countries are worthy of further examination.

We can verify our hypothesis "The longer the parental leave and a higher the child care benefit is in a country the lower the activity rate of women with young children is" only partly. Comparing EU28 countries we hardly found any relations between the data. But we verified the hypothesis in the case of former Easter-Block countries. In the case of women with children aged under 6 there is a quite strong negative relation between the length of the total paid leave and the activity rate. So the longer women can stay at home with their children the higher is the possibility not to return to the labour market. This result verified the existing of a "cultural" or rather social factor, which strongly influences the labour supply of mothers.

To sum up our study we can say that we identified some countries (the Netherlands, Austria and Sweden) which can be good example for us but the solution for the problem of activity rate is very complex. The existing tax- and contribution discounts have significant results only in some part of the society. Part-time work in its existing form is neither a solution. And last but not least data show that the so-called "cultural" factors paly more important role in women's decisions than we supposed. So government measures have to focus on changing it as well step by step.

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Strategic Simulations

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Abstract

A strategic simulation game is a practical way to teach economics for university students. The purpose of this paper is to discuss why these simulations are useful in education and what positive learning outcomes they provide.

The topic is relevant because many universities use strategic simulations in the USA and Western Europe but in Hungary they are often neglected. Simulation games can help students to more deeply understand what they learn. The term business simulation is clarified as it is very different to mini-games in complexity. One way to categorize the simulations is the visibility of the underlying mathematical model, which can be visible (transparent-box) or hidden (black-box). These two types of simulations are also compared to each other. Other important aspects as simulations like engagement and feedback are also discussed.

This paper discusses why these complex simulations are useful in the education and what positive learning outcomes they may cause. Several previous researches all around the world prove that business simulations are useful to make education more practical. This paper examines which skills are these, and how much simulation games can help developing these skills. Skills included in this research are strategic overview, planning, decision making, teamwork, financial and mathematical knowledge. These skills are very useful for entrepreneurs. As simulations are different, they develop different skills.

The research method of this paper is quantitative primary research done by questionnaire. This research is ongoing for 10 years now. The survey taken at the University of Pécs, Faculty of Business and Economics is discussed which compares three simulations: Business Simulation Workshop (BSC), Multinational Management Game (MMG) taught at the place of the research and one third-party simulation used in company trainings. The research findings show the three simulations compared to each other regarding which simulation develops what type skills or knowledge. Comparison is made by an own questionnaire research and conclusions are drawn.

Goals and methodology

When students learn theoretical subjects like business management, finance and marketing, there is a common issue which they face. They can read several books but it is hard to understand how to use the knowledge in practice. Schools make huge efforts to solve the problem, but there is still much to do. Business simulation games can help students to understand more deeply what they learn. The goal of this paper is to discuss the positive aspects of teaching business simulation games. As simulation games are simulating companies, these skills are crucial to be an entrepreneur.

The paper describes what are simulation games and what can be their positive effects in the education. Firstly, a literature survey is done, later the results of own surveys are shows. This is the main methodology of the research. Primary data from own surveys is analysed and compared to secondary data of an external survey. Consequences are drawn from the summary of all surveys used.

Terminology of business simulations

It has to be clarified what a business simulation is. There are several names of these games. Sometimes they are called business games, management flight simulator, learning environment, microworld, etc (Maier-Größler, 1998). In this paper I will not make difference between these names. I use business simulator and business game as synonyms, like the same way as for instance, Keys and Wolfe 1996, or Klein and Fleck 1990; in contrast Lane 1995, who distinguishes between simulation and game. I call business simulation a software which simulates a company, where groups of students have to make decisions. The company works on markets, where there are competitors - often other groups of students.

Many people draw an equation between simulation games and mini-games. Mini-games are much less complex than simulations; they don't give the opportunity for the players to understand a situation deeply. Mini-games can be learned very fast, but they are not useful for education (Prensky 2005). Examples for mini-games can be the default Windows games or the applications found Facebook nowadays. The main purpose of complex simulations is to learn complex problem solving (Funke-Frensch 2007).

Positive effects of business simulation games in the education

We can learn facts and skills. The traditional Central European education systems are mainly based on teaching facts. Nowadays these systems face a huge problem: facts can be searched for and found on the internet easily and knowing facts do not result in so much competitive edge like before. The US educational system is more based on teaching skills, which is more useful nowadays. Many economic universities in the USA use simulation games. From the 1990s simulation games have become more and more popular also at universities in Europe and computer games are very widespread nowadays in entertainment.

Several researchers evaluated the use of computer games in classrooms and found them useful in many areas. A report from The Next-Generation Student (2003) shows that students learn the best when they are engaged, need to think critically, solve problems, and make choices and decisions. Simulation can address these learning characteristics. Most of the simulation games used in education are made for purely education purposes, only few commercial games are used in classrooms. An UK research showed that in case of pure commercial games mostly economic simulations were used, like Simcity and Tycoon games. Simcity is a game where players have to build and manage a city. Tycoon games are usually stand for simulations of profit-orientated companies, like Transport Tycoon etc. These games are relevant to a large number of subject areas that make the simulation more cost effective and increase the possible chances of use (Kirriemuir-McFarlane 2003). Bectra reported the use of other strategic games as well, which are rather like state simulators as Age of Empires, where the player has to manage an ancient empire (Dawes-Dumbleton 2001). They reported similar research results as Kirriemuir and McFarlane (2003) who write that SimCity worked well to assist in the development of numerical skills, RollerCoaster Tycoon is appropriate for developing business and economics skills. These games are complex enough to be able to experiment with different strategies. For example, in SimCity students can design a city, but if it is not supported by well-thought-out infrastructure, the citizens would leave and the city would decline. Positive side effects of computer simulation games included the increased use of library where computers were situated with the simulation game installed. The research found that most of the games in the study could be used to support the learning outcomes identified in advance by the teachers. The developed skills were IT skills, motivation, collaboration and thinking skills. The method of using simulation games is well suited to deal with complex interrelated problems. (Markus 1997). At our faculty we use simulation games in the education since 1980 (Barakonyi 2015).

Simulations are often used not only in classrooms but for industrial training as well. They can help to understand the operation of a company better because workers can test various situations with them. Crookall and Oxford (1990) emphasise the use of simulation games to provide such richness in the learning phase which might be difficult to obtain by other training techniques and methods. Simulations encourage the 'aha-effect' when the behaviour of the simulation game or its results provide new insights (Villegas-Rapp-Savén 1993). Several special industrial simulations are created based on the request of companies. There are companies who develop such simulations for request.

Figure 1. Students are playing business simulation games at University of Pécs, Faculty of Business and Economics in 2007

Source: (own photo, 2007)

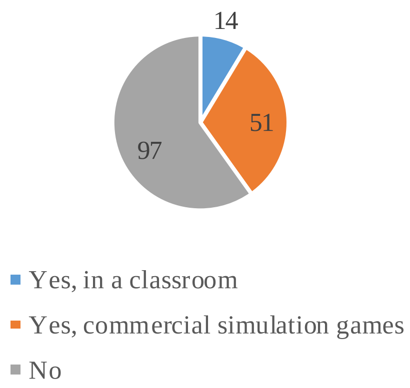
Sample of the own survey

It is looking obvious to analyse which skills are developed by playing with simulation games. Since 2007 I have been asking students who learn business simulation games at the University of

Pécs, Faculty of Business and Economics about their experiences. For the research I used a questionnaire, in several semesters, with the same questionnaire. The sample consists of Bachelor level students of the University of Pécs, Faculty of Business Economics. The questionnaire was filled in on paper anonymously at the last Business Simulation lesson of the semester. Answering the survey was optional. Anonymity and this both ensures the students give proper information. The survey was asked in two periods: between 2007-2011 and in 2017 spring and autumn semester. The latest data is from December 2017. The total sample of my research is 155. Not all of the questionnaires were filled in properly so in case of skills development I could analyse 151 answers for BSC and 147 answers for MMG simulation game. I excluded the answers from the sample where both BSC and MMG parts were invalid. 89 male and 65 female students filled in the questionnaire (one student did not answer the question about the gender). 14 of the students already played with similar games in their education. Business simulation games mentioned was the Ecosim Student Management Competition, Global Management Challenge, Kalypso, K&H Cup, MarkStrat, MESE, NNInsurance, Supermarket Simulation, Tata Business Game and VEMP. From these, I will discuss the Ecosim Student Management Competition in more details in this paper. 51 of the answering students already played with commercially available business simulation games outside their education. This result shows the innovative approach business simulations represent in the education.

Figure 2. Did you play similar business simulations earlier?

(multiple answers were possible)



Source: (Own research, 2007-2017)

In the following part I show some of my findings throughout this research.

Comparison of three business simulation games

At the University of Pécs, Faculty of Business and Economics students play with two simulation games. One of the simulation games is called BSC (Business Simulation Challenge) which has been developed at the University of Pécs by Tibor Kiss. This is an environment conscious business simulation (Kiss 2003). My experience and previous researches show this is the only such complex business simulation in the world (Kiss 2003, Markus 1997). The other simulation is called MMG (Multinational Management Game), developed by J. Bernard Keys and Robert A. Wells in the USA. Orova (2005) had a similar research, where some of the questions were the same, so results can be compared easily. Orova used a Post Simulation Game developed by Ecosim Kft, in this paper I call this 'Ecosim' simulation, however, it is important that there are several more different Ecosim simulations, which I do not analyse in this paper. The Ecosim Student Management Game and Ecosim's NNInsurance simulations were also mentioned by some students in the answers shown in Figure 2.

Figure 3. The question about skills asked in the questionnaires

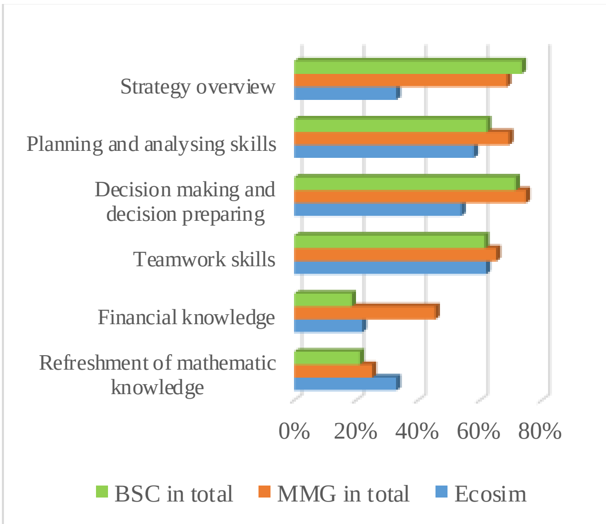
In your own opinion, which of your following skills were developed by the simulation game? (you can choose multiple answers)

- ☐ *Refreshment of mathematic knowledge*
- ☐ *Planning and analysing skills*
- ☐ *Strategy overview*
- ☐ *Financial knowledge*
- ☐ *Decision making and decision preparing*
- ☐ *Teamwork skills*

Source: (own survey 2007-2017 and Orova 2005)

The research was done by a questionnaire, which included the questions in Figure 3. Students could choose multiple answers. It depends on the simulation which skills it develops more. Results shows that in case of the included three simulations there are skills which are developed well and some skills that are not developed so much. The decision making and decision preparing, planning and analysing, teamwork skills and strategy overview skills received the best results, overall in average over 50% responded positively of improving these skills. We have to conclude, that strategy overview came 4th in the skills ranking list overall, but if we count only the BSC and MMG simulations that are used in university education and the base of my own survey, it comes in 2nd in the ranking of the developed skills. This is particularly important as the main goal of using these simulations are to give students a strategic view on companies while they learn other subjects in other courses in economics. The overall best result in the survey was planning and analysing skills in case of MMG with a result of 75%. Planning and analysing is very crucial in strategic planning and strategic management. (Barakonyi 1999) Financial knowledge and refreshing mathematical knowledge received a much worse response, less than 30% in average. The worst result was financial knowledge in case of BSC simulation game with 19% not much in ahead of refreshing mathematical skills by the same simulation game. Figure 4 shows the results in details.

Figure 4. Skills developed by the simulation games

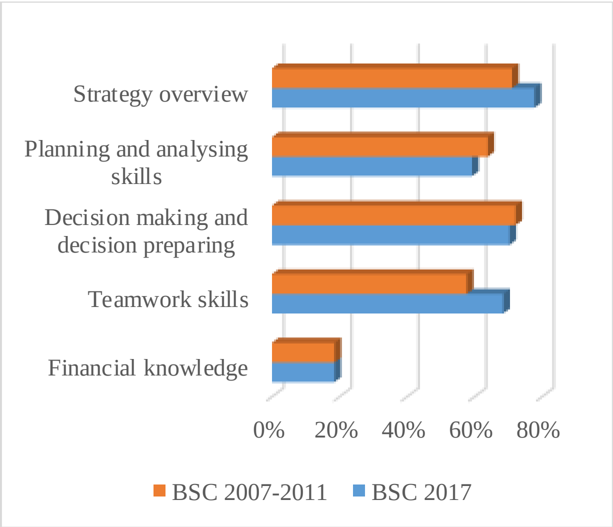


Source: (own survey 2007-2017 and Orova 2005)

All the simulations included in the research help the students to work in teams. Modelled companies in these simulations are always managed by a team of students, decisions are made by consensus helping to improve team working skills. Based on the transparency there are two type of simulations: black-box simulations and transparent-box simulations which are also called sometimes white-box simulations (Kiss 2003). Transparent-box simulations provide structural information about the underlying model that can help to understand the working of the simulation model better for the players who can examine not only the results of their decisions in this case but also the causes (Größler 1997). In the research transparent-box simulations are represented by BSC, black-box simulations are represented by MMG and Ecosim. In all simulation games there is a pressure to make decisions in time. Furthermore, students have to make decisions in unpredictable situations as well, which makes them learn decision making and decision preparing skills. Ecosim is played for a whole day with several decision periods, so in this case the pressure on decision makers is much more than on a usual university lecture which happens once a week. BSC as a transparent-box simulation simplifies the process as it shows predications for the outcome of the decisions. BSC and MMG are both very good in developing strategic overview, which is one of their main purpose in education. This skill is developed by playing for lots of periods, in these games the number of periods are between 10-25 in one game. The long-time perspective allows students to plan for long-time, which causes the same effect as playing with SimCity (Kirriemuir-McFarlane 2003). Less number of periods does not allow evolving a strategic overview; however these simulations can be still very useful for other purposes as discussed previously.

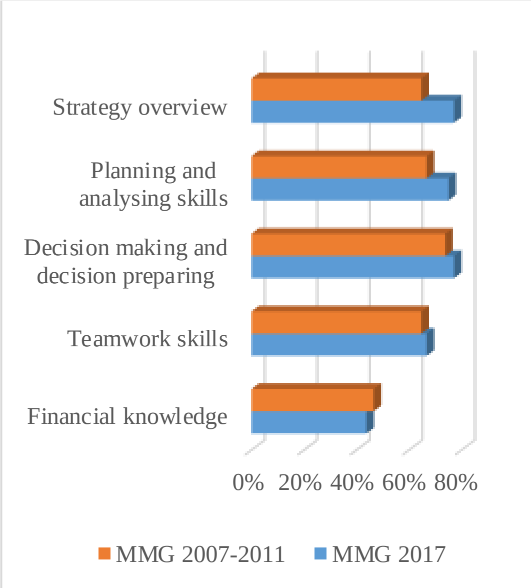
It can be interesting to analyse the development of skills between the two time periods of my survey (2007-2011 and 2017). I am looking to answer the question if there is a difference between the development of the skills in the two time periods. Figure 5 and Figure 6 shows the skills developed by BSC and MMG simulations according to this idea.

Figure 5. Skills developed by BSC simulation game



Source: (own survey 2007-2017)

Figure 6. Skills developed by MMG simulation game



Source: (own survey 2007-2017)

The result show that in case of BSC we cannot see a dig difference in average. Two of the developed skills increased, two decreased and one remained the same. However, in case of MMG we can see an increase in four skills and only one of them decreased slightly. So the result of the survey show that in today's educational environment MMG simulation is even appropriate than between 2007-2011. There is an increase in strategy overview skills in case of both simulations. In case of MMG we can see the biggest increase in this skill. As we use these simulations for teaching strategy in a practical way this ensures that what we do is good for its purpose. It is good to see that teamwork skills increase in case of both simulations. Teamwork is getting more and more important is today's economy (Titkos 1998).

To look beyond the positive effects it is worth examining how much simulations can contribute to make university lectures more practical than theoretical. To analyse this, I asked a few other questions, mostly regarding the BSC simulation. The questions could be answered between 1-5. First of these questions is showed in Figure 7.

Figure 7. Question about understand of the relationship between functional areas

Could BSC game promote the better understanding of the relationship between functional areas?

(1) Not at all ← □ □ □ □ □ → *Definitely yes (5)*

Source: (own survey 2007-2017)

Regarding the BSC simulation, 154 students gave answer regarding the question of helping to understand the relationship between functional areas of a company. The survey resulted in an average of 3.51 value, which means that BSC helps to understand the relationship between functional areas in a company.

Figure 8. Question about transparent box theory

How could the „Transparent box theory" (you can see the exact operation of the system) promote the better understanding of the business and market processes? (Such elements are in the game: forecast details, and accounting details.)

(1) Not at all ← □ □ □ □ □ → *Definitely yes (5)*

Source: (own survey 2007-2017)

Regarding the preference of the transparent-box or black-box I asked the question in Figure 8. The answers show an average of 3.45, which means that BSC as a transparent-box simulation helps the better understanding of the simulation model. On the other hand some students rather like the black-box model. Some students do not like to investigate the working of the simulation model and find it rather challenging to find out how it works. To collect more information I asked the students the question shown in Figure 9.

Figure 9. Question about the preference of black-box or transparent box

Which one do you prefer? Black-box (you can't see the algorithm of the game, like in the case of MMG) or transparent-box (you can see how the software calculates everything, like while playing with BSC)?

Black-box (like MMG) ← □ □ □ □ □ → *Transparent-box (like BSC)*

Source: (own survey 2007-2017)

Based on 146 answers the result shows high variation of 1.44. The average is 3.38 which shows the advantage of transparent-box simulation. About 44% of respondents answered one end of the scale. 17% absolutely prefer the black-box simulation (MMG) and 27% of the students rather prefer the transparent-box simulation (BSC). Others did not have so extreme answers. To conclude, based on the information showed previously in Figures 4-5-6 black-box simulation is better for developing skills but students rather prefer the transparent-box simulation. This result is shown by the analysis of only two simulations, so we cannot state this is always the case in all simulations.

Other important features of simulation games

When playing a business simulation game not only the simulation model is important, but other aspects as well. There are features which make business simulations better than others. One of these features is engagement. Simulations have to engage players to keep them motivated. One way to achieve this is to provide feedback. Usually when students are rewarded for completing a task they change their attitude and engage more in the game. Traditional video games continuously bombard users with challenges to solve. This maintains attention but not valuable for education because these games are reactive in this way. Users try to accomplish some challenges and the strategy is too tightly defined without enough freedom. For education purposes a game has to be proactive, which means that the player can make a wide variety of decisions and he or she receives feedback soon (Bos).

In usual business simulation games this means that the feedback is received in form of a report at the end of each period. The length of one period can vary between 10 minutes and one hour. In my search of 2007-2011 I asked how much is the optimal time for a BSC decision. Based on the answers of 90 students the optimal time for a period in case of BSC game is around 14 minutes. Dependent on task characteristics and difficulty this time can vary a lot, there is a time pressure which is optimal (Größler 1999). Usually in black-box simulations students may need more time to be able to make a decision.

Another important aspect of simulation games is the design of them, called the user interface. In some simulations it is very simple, but in every case it should be clear and informative as it always serves the user. There is a need for easy handling. Good visibility enhances testability and contributes to group participation as well (Kreutzer 1993).

Conclusions

Business simulations are useful to make education more practical. There are several cases shown in this paper where simulations were used effectively. As simulations are different they develop different skills. I compared these skills based on my own survey and a third-party survey of totally three business simulation games. My survey is a part of an ongoing research for 10 years now. The result show that business simulations mostly develop planning and decision making skills, helps students to learn how to work in teams and provide them a strategic overview of the company. These skills are crucial for entrepreneurs. One way to categorize business simulations is the visibility of the underlying mathematical model, which can be visible (transparent-box) or hidden (black-box). Black-box simulations help students to understand the working of a company better, but transparent-box simulation is rather liked by the students. There are more features which are important for a simulation, these include engagement, providing feedback and user interface.

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Hungarian Social Enterprises and their possible customers, duties and challenges

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Abstract

The concept of social entrepreneurship means many quite different things to researchers. A uniform, widely accepted definition does not exist despite of the fact that many domestic and international researches have dealt with the exploration of the area. The sector is undergoing a major transformation today in Hungary. In the recent years the role of community/state/European sources was noticeably diminished, while the entrepreneurial income started to increase.

In our study, first we are describing the actual positions of the social enterprises among traditional enterprises and then we are summarizing their challenges and tasks in the growing (and often global) competition by the results of a questionnaire addressing the potential customers of their products and services.

Keywords: social entrepreneurship, questionnaire, sectorial research, consumers, consumer behavior, market positions

Introduction

Social enterprise as a concept can be considered relatively new in domestic and foreign literature, even though its content has been a known phenomenon for decades. In many cases - quite rightly - different concepts, social economy actors, NGOs, third sector and non-profit organizations, social cooperatives are included in these definitions.

Uniform, widely accepted definition does not exist, despite the fact that different factors (eg. legislative requirements) would require a more concrete one. It can be said that the recent domestic research in the area contributes to the clarification of the term (Frey M. 2007. G. Fekete et al. 2017, Varga É. 2014)

Beyond the analysis of secondary sources (mainly statistical data provided by the Central Statistical Office) it can be an exciting research question how organizations think about their goals of their foundations, their framework of operation and their future opportunities.

As researchers of the Faculty of Economics at the University of Miskolc we conducted a basic research in 2017, during which we collected the main characteristics of the sector.

Based on the focus group interviews and the results of questionnaire survey, new research hypothesis were formulated targeting the opinion of natural persons on the social embeddedness of the sector and the awareness of their activities.

In our study we will first outline the results of the questionnaire survey that we have analyzed, and then we draw conclusions on what tasks social enterprises have regarding their products/services, prices, place and promotion.

Social Enterprises in international and Hungarian literature

The predecessors of social enterprises have been presented in some form of the majority of civilizations for thousands of years. The recently known model of their operation was first introduced in England than in every developed countries of Europe and finally in the less developed regions of the eastern and southern Europe, parallel to the development of societies during the industrial revolution. Their operation is aimed to solve social problems and tasks. In Hungary - thanks to the fracture caused by the period of socialism - their significance has fallen below the level similarly developed countries.

Social enterprise as a concept today is not well defined in the literature, even though it was first published in the 60's and 70's in the international sources.

There is a relatively widely used concept described by NEST EUROPE Nonprofit Ltd. in Hungary: a social enterprise is ‘a deliberately planned entrepreneurial activity that has created to solve social problems on an innovative way. Social enterprises can be non-profit organizations that use relevant business models to achieve their missions and can be for-profit organizations that have significant social impact in addition to their business goals’ (Tóth L. 2011).

In international literature there are three basic groups of the perception of the concept. The first highlights that they are a non-profit organization following business principles, the second describes that they seek to obtain income from different sources the third focuses on their positive social (positive) effects (Szűcsné M. K. - Sasvári P. 2015).

In the Social Business Initiative of the European Commission, social enterprises serve the interests of the community (social, social, environmental) and they don’t focus on profit maximization. Thanks to their products or services and their production or organization methods, social enterprises are often innovative. They often give jobs to the most excluded members of society. They contribute to social cohesion, employment and the reduction of inequalities’ (Simons R. 2000).

In the United Kingdom may be thanked to different state model, social enterprises are organization that derive most of their revenues from the sale of goods or the provision of services, unlike nonprofit organizations whose donations are essential.

With this brief overview, it is also clear that the concept is not fully described, although there are common points, overlaps but there are still be many differences in interpretation, and conflicts between the main groups.

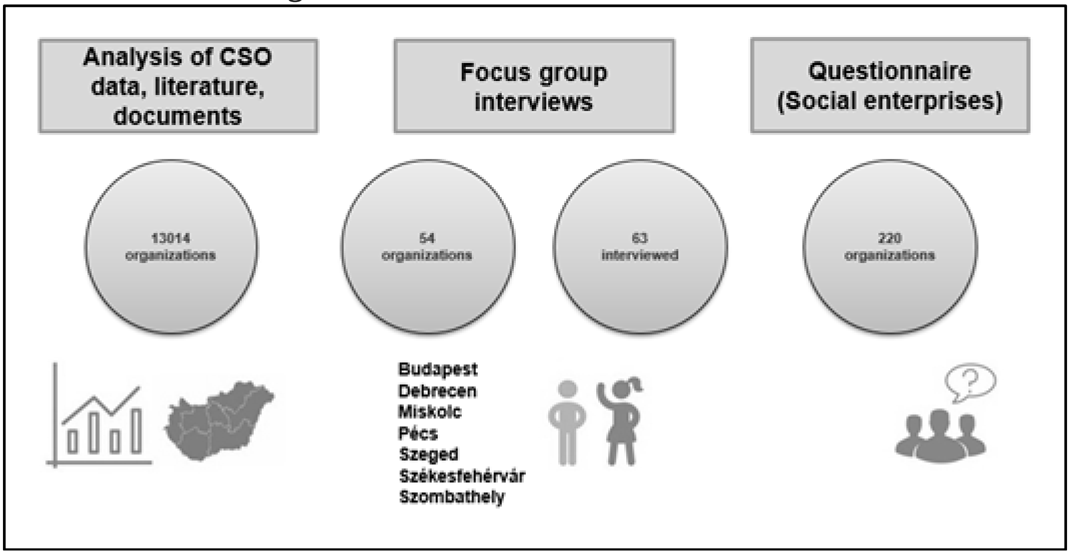
The economic significance of social enterprises depends on their economic and social embeddedness, as their exact status is not necessarily clarified. In many cases only very rough estimates describe their effects on the economy (value added, employment, etc.). The European Parliament’ publication on "Social Economy" the sector's contribution to GDP for Spain and France is about 10%, while for example in Italy or in the United Kingdom, data is only available on organizations and their employees.

Research background

In our country, according to the most recent figures of the Central Statistical Office, 62,152 non-profit organizations operated with an average revenue of 24,824 HUF. These two figures indicate that probably very few non-profit organizations can start real and sustainable entrepreneurship. Their significance, however, can't be neglected, as it can be considered as a value that, in the majority of the cases, they were founded without any pressure for a "good" purpose, without any kind of external aid.

Researchers of the Faculty of Economics at the University of Miskolc made a basic research on the operation of Hungarian social enterprises in 2017 (Figure 1) (G. Fekete et al. 2017).

Figure 1, Structure of the basic research



Source: G. Fekete et al. 2017

Compared to the preliminary assumptions, less than half (49%) of the revenues of social enterprises came from some central (EU, state, or municipal) sources, while 51% is considered to be some kind of own revenue. Most organizations are active in the field of leisure and hobbies, sport, culture, education, social care and urban development, which is somewhat different from rank (social services, employment and training, environment, education, community development and culture) experienced on EU level,

It seems that in our country, the social enterprises are usually in the areas under financed or managed by the state. Most non-profit organizations are associations, cooperatives, non-profit corporations or foundations. The profit is fully re-invested by 52%, another 6% report at least 50% and the rest 0 to 50%, despite the fact that most of the organizational forms (in theory) would not make it this possible. During the interviews, the questionnaire and the focus group interviews respondents demonstrated almost unexpected honesty.

Our preliminary ideas on the employment characteristics of social enterprises have been partially confirmed but in some cases refuted by the research results. As we have guessed, partly because of the lower available income and higher social sensitivity, ladies are more likely to be employed in the sector. Young people and middle-aged people are the most active, which isn't necessarily logical - and it does not follow the Western European practice. In Hungary, employment is also characterized by full-time employment. In most cases, this also means self-employment. Another advantage of the sector is that it employs a wide range of disadvantaged workers who can be located elsewhere with difficulties in the labor market.

Methods

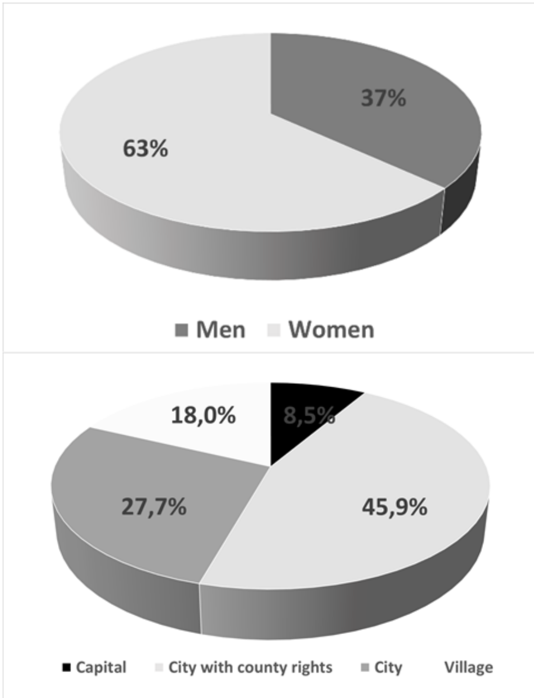
During the focus group interviews and the thanks to the results of the questionnaire survey, further research questions were formulates about which requested a new questionnaire. During the focus group interviews, several participants indicated that the social embeddedness of the organizations is not enough deep, they face significant problems with their popularity, their activity is not known enough by individuals. We also assumed that the demographic characteristics of the people could significantly influence the image of social enterprises, their visibility, acceptance, and support.

The on-line self-fulfilling questionnaire focused on the respondents' social entrepreneurship awareness, potential target groups, reasons for their establishment, questions about willingness/habits to buy their products/services, willingness to support them, and demographics. We used the database of the University of Miskolc ca. 15,000 individuals, and an ad on the University's Facebook page. 523 persons replied (2.7% response rate, which corresponds to the similar questionnaires known in the literature). 401 questionnaire 100% completed in all respects and could be evaluated correctly.

Results

The sex ratio of respondents is similar with the sex ratio of the employed. The ladies seem to be over-represented not only in the case of employment of the sector but also in the sector-related response (Figure 2).

Figure 2, Respondents by gender and place of residence

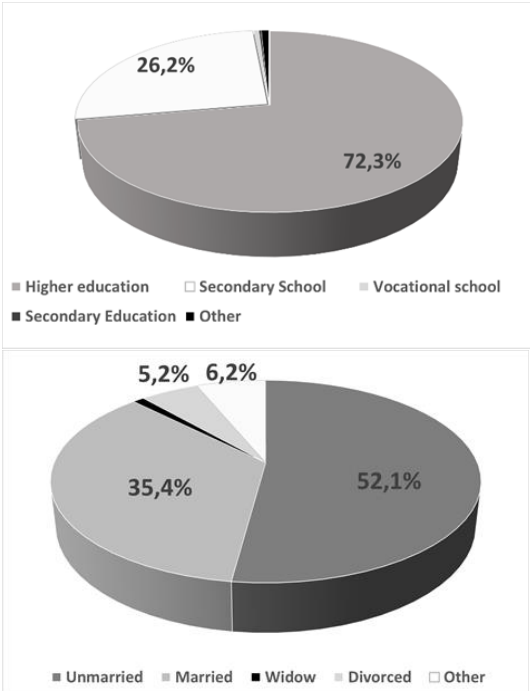


Source: own compilation

Respondents of the capital were somewhat underrepresented while the proportion of people living in cities and towns was similar to the national values in the sample.

Compared to the population, the proportion of university graduates is higher while a small number of respondents with vocational or primary education answered due to the special topic of questionnaire (Figure 3).

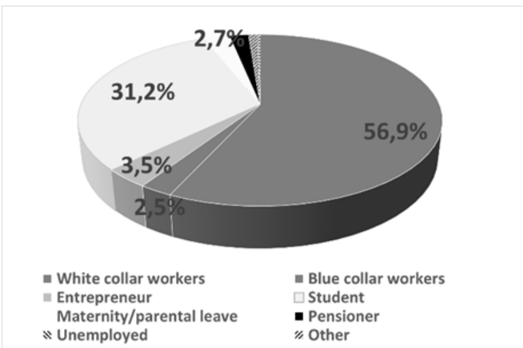
Figure 3, Respondents by qualification and marital status

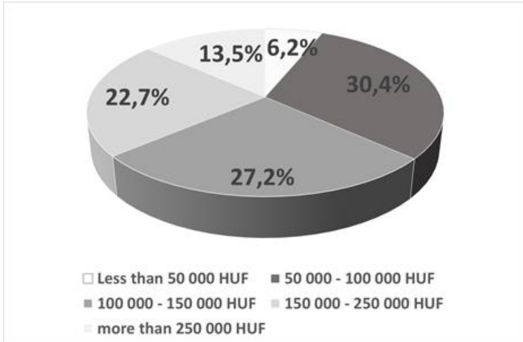


Source: own compilation

56.9% of respondents were intellectuals, 31.2% of them were students, a small number of physical workers, entrepreneurs were included in the sample. In terms of income, relatively low or high incomes are relatively few, most of them belong to middle income classes (Figure 4).

Figure 4, Respondents by occupation and income





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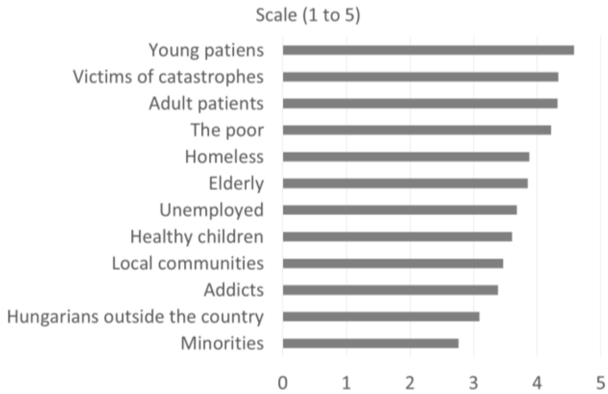
Individuals could classify on a scale of 5 the considered the target group of social enterprises. Victims of children, disaster victims and adult patients were given a high score, while values below average were received by national minorities, Hungarians beyond the borders or the victims of addictions. Based on the answers, respondents seem to find groups more sympathetic who are in bad situation other than their own fault (Figure 5).

Figure 5, Important target groups of Hungarian social enterprises according to the respondents

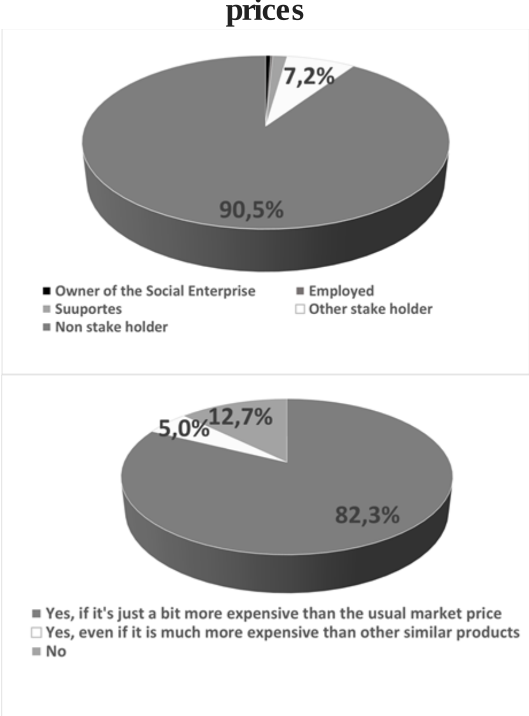


Source: own compilation

Most private individuals do not consider themselves involved in the functioning of social enterprises (even though most people are likely to buy products/services from social enterprises – maybe without knowing that). Only 7.2% think of themselves as being otherwise concerned.

It is encouraging that only a relatively few (12.7%) would only buy products/services at current market prices from social enterprises, while 82.3% would bear slightly higher prices, and 5% tolerate significantly higher prices if they knew that they were produced by organizations which also serve social purposes during their activities (Figure 6).

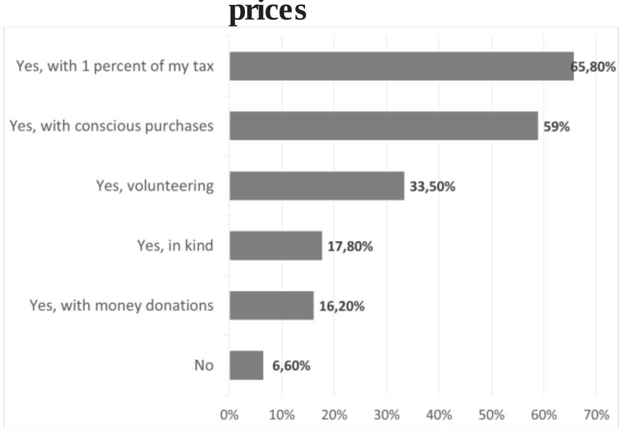
Figure 6, Respondents' personal concern and their willingness to buy products/services on different level of prices



Source: own compilation

The sector does not have the usual level of development in Western Europe. Typically, the citizens of our country are willing to support social enterprises without real money spending. Relatively many 65.8% would offer 1% of their income tax, 59% would buy products/services from social enterprises, only 33.5% would be volunteer, 17.8% would give some kind of donations, and only 16.2% would pay cash to the organizations. Fortunately only 6.5% of the respondents were totally refusing (Figure 7).

Figure 7, Respondents' personal concern and their willingness to buy products/services on different level of prices



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The tasks of the social enterprises based on the results of the questionnaire

Based on the results of the questionnaire survey, the tasks facing the social enterprises were structured based on the well-known 4P model of marketing literature.

The quality of the products/services of the organizations need to be the same as those of competing profit-oriented businesses, or have to close to them. Higher added value (eg, the employment of disadvantaged people) can be highlighted by emphasizing the eco, bio, unique, hand-craft nature of the product/service.

In the case of price, it is advisable to make research on buyers' price sensitivity. In relation to a particular product service, it is necessary to strive the market price from above. Beyond the value of its use, it is advisable to justify the higher price by emphasizing social benefits.

With regard to the place of sales, target group specific sales should be sought, using free or low-cost sales channels (local market, Internet-based free or cost-effective advertising, sales opportunities, etc.).

The members of the sector are typically lacking in resources, therefore it needs to increase awareness, value creation, quality of products/services (preferably electronic) on free or low-cost channels according to target groups (website, Facebook, Instagram, newsletter). We also consider the 'emotional' kind of popularization is gently permissible.

Conclusion

Based on the international and domestic literature, it can be stated that, despite the wide range of literature of the recent years, there is still no single definition of social enterprises. However, the different variations are closing. In Hungary the concept of NEST EUROPE Nonprofit Ltd. is currently considered to be the most accepted and used version. In the medium term, it may be expedient to define it at the legislative level (as in Italy).

In addition to the official insignificance statistics of the sector an extremely colorful world can be observed through the questioning of social enterprises, whose social benefits far outweigh income, traffic or employment data.

In our investigations, we concluded that the embeddedness of social enterprises is significantly lagging behind compared to other European countries. To find out more about their situation, a questionnaire exploring the opinions of individuals was indispensable. Through this analysis, we were able to formulate suggestions to the social enterprises.

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8th Parallel Session

Competitiveness of cee economies on the european single market

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Abstract

The european internal market has forced the EU countries to increase competitiveness. Macroeconomic determinants are now more similar among countries. EU and also other new countries will need to put a lot of attention on competitiveness, while they would like to benefit from european internal market. The notion of competitiveness is one that informs every economic policy document at every level of government and governance. Lisbon strategy is the main framework of European Competitiveness. Today it is interesting to benchmark the USA with EU on the competitiveness field. Among CEE countries Slovakia has the best industrial locational attractiveness for automotive industry. Czech has the highest competitiveness position among CEE economies.

Keywords: national competitiveness, benchmarking, development strategy, industrial policy

JEL classification: 011, 024, 038, 057

UDC: 339,9

1. Introduction

The economic prosperity of countries is associated with their ability to generate or attract economic activities which are able to increase income by performing well on the market. Financial crisis in the EU has changed the look on the competitiveness research. Economy in the main countries has to find way of recovery. Former giants of the financial world have found themselves suddenly facing bankruptcy. Inevitably, the crisis is also having an effect on households and businesses - economic growth has slowed sharply and in some EU countries unemployment has begun to increase for the first time in several years. From that perspective we have to find the right solution of european competitiveness. In the article I will test three hypothesis. **First hpothesis** is that Jaguar investment in Slovakia improved the Slovakian locational attractiveness. **The second hypothesis** is that the automotive industry is the key factor of industrial competiveness in CEE economies. **The thirth hypothesis** is that we can expect the economic convergance among old EU countries and CEE economies. Analytical measuring of national competitiveness by determinants is very important, because they are the keys for balancing governmental policies. In the UK DTI (2016) defines competitiveness as the ability to produce the right goods and services of the right quality, at the right price, at the right time. It means meeting consumer needs more efficiently and more effectively than other firms. Governments put a lot of attention on national competitiveness. This is not normal only for less developed countries that have openned their economies to global markets, but also for governments of industrialized countries, that put a lot of attention on losing of industrial leadership. Today is the concept of national competitiveness the legal basis for creation of governmental policies. The reach countries are not affraid about losing the economic leadership, not just compared to other reach countries, but also to new industrialized countries that have lower prices. On the other side the middle develop countries put a lot of attention on catching up with more developed countries by implementation of new technologies and knowledges. Competitiveness of the states depend on selecting the right strategies and policies on entrepreneurship and also on governmental level. Living standard and quality of life can increase just in the way that we create new and better knowledge, higher productivity and the economy of high salaries. Main governments put a lot of attention on ranks of countries by WEF competitiveness report or IMD competitiveness yearbook. Yearly competitiveness reports are the basis for creation of development strategies. Government and public administration have an important influence on business environment in the last period. The active role of government and public administration on locational attractiveness for foreign direct investments (tax policy, governmental subsidies, administrative barriers, investment incentives) is very important. The key role have the governmental steps on the field of education and science & technology. The nation is competitive if the enterprises interact in industries, that have a high value added, and maintain the value added on the long term. In strategy of economic development and in development report can be seen, that WEF and IMD analysis of competitiveness became more important in creation of national development strategies. The annual European Competitiveness Report (European Commission, 2017) uses empirical research to analyse the competitive performance of the EU economy as a whole, as well as specific industries. It also assesses the impact of structural reforms on EU competitiveness and considers the need for further reforms

2. Characteristics of European competitiveness

Economic strategy of EU has for the goal »Lisbon strategy« that the EU will became the most modern and most competitive economy in the world. EU will liberalize the markets and the process of privatization, encourage the enterprise policy and give more money for science and technology. The direction of harder integration process is the wish of supporting global competitiveness and development catching-up to USA While some progress has been scored in some EU countries by regulation, privatization and by competitiveness, it can be seen that reforms have not reached the important goals compared to USA. European enterprises still make a business in more difficult business environment. European competitiveness, compared to USA, still lags in creation of supporting environment for innovative oriented enterprises, especially small and medium sized enterprises, in efficiency of financial markets, and in mechanisms for supporting entrepreneurship, in implementing of new technologies, and in labour market flexibility. European enterprises are succesfully by high quality of products and services, the lead the innovation in chemical industry, in car industry, and also in engineering. Global pressure are in more developed countries strong in labour intensive industries, from the view of internationalization of low qualified labour force in the middle of 90s. So, we can see the decline of labour intensive industries in North America and in EU. European industry is competitive in middle capital intensive industries, while we can see the weaknesses in high-tech industries. European enterprises have compared to EU the limited access to tools that support innovativeness (research, patents, venture capital, and clustering possibilities). US Council on Competitiveness put a weight on four factors: investments, productivity, exchange and export. The key role of advanced country is increasing the quality of life. In the hardly integrated world economy we can achieve this by trade flows, especially by export. The export under fair rules is connected with the growth of productivity. Level of productivity is based on investments in education, R&D, in equipment, that support the long term development process. Concept of european competitiveness gives a strong weight on quality of life and on satisfaction of citizens. Standard of citizens is based on productive level of economy, that can be measured by value of produced goods and services on unit of national sources (capital, human, natural source). Ladesmann (2015) analyse a european competitiveness. He found some characteristrics. As expected, human skills (and hence appropriate training and educational levels) contribute importantly to export competitiveness. The linkages between business services and manufacturing and here particularly the foreign sourcing of business services – contribute positively to export competitiveness of both manufacturing and (domestic) business services. Manufacturing provides an important 'carrier function' for services' contributions to value added exports. Landesmann (2015) found dramatic shifts in global market shares and also in RCAs amongst the major global traders (countries and country groups): in general there is a shift in advanced economies towards services exports and a loss in manufacturing market shares to emerging economies. However, the EU-27 has not lost as much manufacturing shares as have the United States and Japan, while gaining even more in business services global shares than these economies. The relatively solid manufacturing position of the EU is, however, mostly due to the strong position of the CE Manufacturing Core (Germany and countries strongly linked to Germany's manufacturing production via cross-border production networks). - This strong tendency towards agglomeration of manufacturing activity and of exporting capacity in the CE-Core has been and can continue be a source of longer-term current account problems specifically of lower- and medium income (LMI) European economies which do not manage to link up to this potent CE manufacturing integrated production network. We see here an important challenge for national and EU-wide structural, industrial and regional policies. While advanced Western European economies might be able to compensate for a weakness in manufacturing by building up a strong comparative advantage position in advanced business services – as the UK has done – this option is much less available for LMI economies.

Compared to the US, the biggest gap in sectoral performance can be found in the manufacturing of office machinery and computers, wholesale and retail trade, air transport, and the financial services. The latter three services sectors all appear to be rather sensitive to economies of scale and are likely to benefit from the larger integrated markets in the US. Conversely, the EU shows pockets of higher growth in selected areas of high-tech

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manufacturing, particularly pharmaceuticals and the network industries,such as the sectors of electricity, gas and water supply, water transport, and telecommunications, which are apparently undergoing substantial restructuring processes. The key question from the view of economic development is how to build the circumstances for high and sustainable growth of productivity. While the countries does not have the same standard of living, social standard, familly vales and culture the tools for supporting competitiveness differ among them. In the more globalized world economy we have to protect the culture heritage. French produce around 200 sort of cheese. Each French region has an own sorts of cheese, while production is not totally open to foreign competition. According on american way of competitiveness, French have to open their cheese producers to foreign competition. But after that the number of french cheese will decreise on ten. From the side of investments, productivity and international trade can be fine to open the cheese market. But from the side of quality of life is better to protect the cultural heritage and european tradition. In European union is very common the notion »sustainable competitiveness«, that support competitiveness and also the quality of life. Some differencies compared to USA can be seen in film production. European film production is not so business oriented, compared to Hollywood. The combined impact of policies that effect enterprise competitiveness is crucial to Europe's ability to achieve long-run improvement in productivity, growth, jobs and living standards. Policy makers across Europe are taking an ever closer inter set in the crosscutting effects of these policies (e.g. industry, the single market, research and competition) on the economy as a whole. Coordination to exploit synergies among these policies at EU and national levels can pay off. The European Competitiveness Report 2014 suggests that if the EU is to achieve its long term competitiveness goal, it will have to improve both its employment performance and the efficiency with which labour is used in the production process.This will require structural reforms leading to more flexible labour and product markets, investments in innovation and education and wider use of new technologies (EC, 2015) The European Union's prosperity is based on its capacity to compete in the global market. For this reason, we need to measure and study our economy's position in terms of competitiveness. Competitiveness creates the necessary conditions for sustainable development, for the creation of new production activities and new jobs, and for a better quality of life. Further to the Council resolution, every year the European Commission issues an annual report on competitiveness. Another regular source of information on competitiveness comes from the annual report of the World Economic forum (WEF). The EC reports are part of the background knowledge base on which Community policies for sustainable development are conceived. These reports shed light on the role and effect of public incentives that can stimulate competitiveness. Such initiatives include: education, lifelong learning, research and technological development, standardization, innovation, technology transfer, facilitating the access to financing, taxation, public spending, infrastructures, and the regulatory framework (Stajano, 2006). According on Porter the EU has possibilities to became more competitive than USA. European students usually have higher scores than american, and the technological base of labour force is widening. EU shows a good results on filds as telecomunications and in energy sector. The USA remain the most productive and competitive area from many reasons. Porter sees the explanation in strong european government involvement in economy, in small supplements for employed persons and managers, in small competitive presssure inside the enterprises, in not accepting the anglosaxion capitalism and in barriers for migration.. While the european concept of competitiveness »sustainable competitiveness« is close to the concept of sustainable development I can still see the difference.

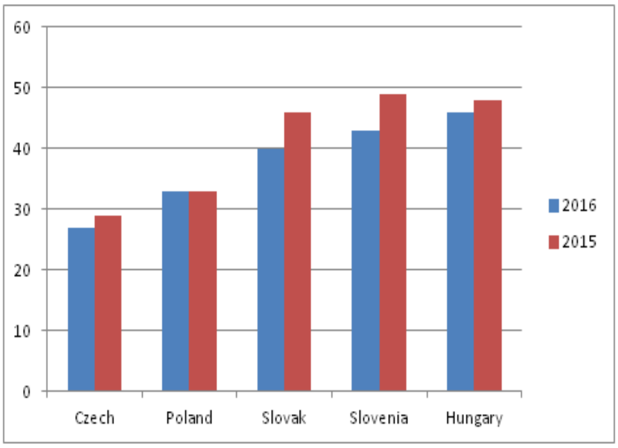
Sustainable development support the responsibility for future generations. Future generations are not composed just from the citizens of our nation but also from neighbour countries. The action on environmental field calls for global support, that can be seen as global solidarity (technological, educational, financial) among countries. Sustainable development can be achieved in supporting the quality of life by all nations. Global responsibility is important for our future, that can be seen in global solidarity by lowering the differencies. On the other side the concept of competitiveness support the logic of challege and willingness that our nation will be better technologically and economically compared to others. If country gives a technologial and educational aid to less develop countries, that will not increise the competitiveness. The higher protection of forests and rivers will not increise the competitiveness. The importance of sustainable development has bring us on position that we take into account the long term competitiveness picture. The long term competitiveness concept takes into account the social and environmental things, but it remain different compared to sustainable development. I can show the national competitiveness by main determinants as domestic economy, internationalization, government and public administration, financial markets, infrastructure, management, science&technology and human capital. The higher competition on domestic market will lead the enterprises to increase the productivity and competitiveness. So we will reach the higher value added. Higher openess usually increase the economic success of the country. Integration in globalized world market occour the more productive allocation sources and higher standard of citizens. Directly intervention of the government must be minimised. Governmental policies must concentrate on creation of business environment for enterprises and for macroeconomic and social stability, while the risk of external influences must be minimised. Government must be adaptive on accepting the economic policies according on changed international environment. Well developed infrastructure have to support the activities, while protecting environment and cultural heritage. Competitive products shows the management efficiency, the long term orientation, ability for accepting changies in competitive environment and the level of integration of entrepreneurship knowledge in different economic activities. Science capacities add to competitiveness. Also well educated labour force with the system of value have an influence on competitiveness. Structure of economy, internatioalization, financial markets, management, science & technology, environmental protection, infrastructure, human capital and government are the determinants of national competitiveness. If the countries can goes in the step with productivity of main competitors, some results can be seen in incomes level. The modern countries are oriented on the new development paradigm. Concept of sustainable development brings the long term view on competitiveness determinants. Measuring competitivenss by questionnaires is from the view of futere expects very understandable. The combination of statistical and questionnaire indicators give us the best evaluation of competitiveness. Competitiveness evaluation by IMD and WEF methodology is supported also with sustainable development concept.

3. Industrial development in CEE economies

Some CEE countries have increased the specialization of industrial sector, while the share of labour intensive industries have decreased. The inflow of foreign direct investment has increased the industrial specialization, because it is rare that inflow of FDI goes in all industries. For industrial sector as a whole, and from a strictly business point of view, complying with the EU legislation system require considerable additional investments, increases in direct and indirect charges for public services. For more sectors is the additional cost by accepting the Union's environmental regulations, both through the upgrading of production facilities and through increased charges for waste management. Other kinds of horizontal legislation that are likely to affect future investment requirements of individual firms are occupational healt and safety requirements, and employment legislation. In addition, industry will be affected by single market standards covering individual specifications. The view on industrial competitiveness is different compared with overall competitiveness. Slovakia had achieved the important locational atractiveness among new member countries, while it hosts three car producers. PSA Peugeot-Citroen, VW and Kia have increised the industrial competitiveness of Slovakia. Fro the Slovakian case can be seen that car industry can add a lot to competitiveness of the whole economy.. The reasons for such a success can be seen in next elements. Slovakia had a well developed a strategy of industrial development, while the locational atractiveness for car industry had an important weight. Slovakia has a relative cheap labour force and fovourable location. Bratislava is close to Vienna, so the strong investments in infrastrucure are not so important as in other CEE coutries. Car producers are located close to Austrian border. The higher global integration of international trade and investments increised the challenge for industrial location. The challenge among CEE countries is high, while the state mechanisms occur the regulation for industrial performance. Better entrepreneurship conditions, development of human capital and circumstances for achieving an industrial location are became better. The industrial competitiveness in new member countries is in interaction with car industry. From trade balance with EU-15 can be seen that Slovakia and Hungary have increised the position in last years. Local decision of enterprises are in interation with motives of business environment and economy of scale, that support the locational specialization. Why countries don't specialize just in some industries. By increising productivity in main industries we need a higher share of technological research and investments, that finance such a development. By taking part in technological challenge is for the state well that are not taking the same development steps as competitors.

Existed technology and knowledge on selected location support the posibilities for specialization process. States usually specialize in the industries that have competitive advantages to other states. Specialization process is really important from the view of european competitiveness. Integration process gives a chance to companies to achieve an optimal position and location. Economy of size and better movement of labour force are the mai motos of european competitivenss on the european single market. Stronger integration on the basis of production specialization of CEE countries is common. Interantional trade and higher investments support the national productivity. So the industry can specialize on that fields, where domestic companies are more productive compared to foreign companies. No state can achieve a high competitiveness in all industries, while the competitive advantages can be seen just in some industries. States with higher standard usually specialize in capital, technological and knowledge intensive industries. Rich countries have an advantage by such a specialization, while the domestic demand is more sophsticated (new products, high quality, willingness for diferenciation). On the other side is domestic economy more developed (inovation revenues, higher capacities for development). Over the last decade, Slovenia has achieved clear and positive macro-economic results that have placed the country among the most successful transitional countries. The basic indicators reveal it has been integrating and catching up with the European Union member countries at an ever increasing pace. That means the transformation from an economy with low-added value whose competitiveness is based on low-operative costs into an economy based on production and service activities whose competitive advantages are high-added value, quality, innovation, and entrepreneurship. The Ireland has a more than 40 percent high-tech in manufactured export. The world competition has become especially fierce in high-tech sectors like microelectronics, biotechnology, new materials, telecommunications, robotics, computers and aerospace. Hungary ranks highest in terms of high-tech. The reason for such a high ranking is the presence of a large amount of foreign capital and multinational companies. No advanced economy can maintain high wages and living standards, and hold its own in global markets, by producing standard products using standard methods. In addition to human resources, a strong national innovation infrastructure includes the ability of funding for innovation-related investments. There are some reasons why small countries as Slovenia do not display the same thrust towards high-tech industries as do larger countries. High-tech industries are closely associated with high risk. Losers as well as winners are to be expected, as the selection of superior products is essentially based on trial and error.

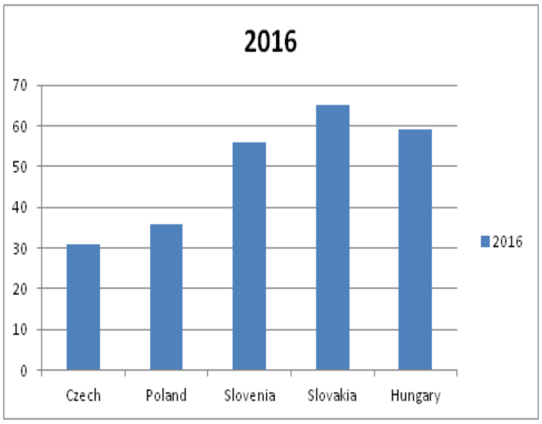
Graph 1: Ranking of the CEE economies by IMD competitiveness index



Source: IMD Lausanne 2016

IMD competitiveness methodology measure the quality of business environment in different countries. Cheap industrial enginers in Slovakia is compatitive advantage for foreign investors. A lot indicators of cost competitiveness are included in the research. Chech R. rank the highest among the CEE economies. Slovakian industrial locational atractiveness is not seen yet but will be evaluted in the next years. I can explain that Slovakia has the best industrial development strategy among CEE economies. But 300 indicators included in the research measure much more. WEF competitiveness index show that Chech R. can expect the highest economic growth in the next five years. Slovakia has a very cheap lebour forse that is not well acording on the WEF methodology. A lot of indicators are connected with quality of life. Poland is also ranked well because market size is important factor. Slovakian position can be explained, that WEF methodology don't measure the industrial competitiveness.

Graph 2: Ranking of the CEE economies on WEF competitiveness methodology



Source: WEF Geneve 2016

One of the most known competitiveness indices is the Global Competitiveness Index (GCI), published yearly by the World Economic Forum – WEF. It covers a large amount of countries, a total of 131 economies in 2007, and is based on over 100 indicators which describe 12 major pillars of competitiveness. The GCI is intended to measure competitiveness at the national level, taking into account both micro- and macroeconomic foundations of competitiveness. The following definition of competitiveness is the starting point of the WEF index: "Competitiveness (is) the set of institutions, policies and factors that determine the level of productivity of a country. The level of productivity, in turn, sets sustainable level of prosperity that can be earned by an economy". The notion of competitiveness implicit in the GCI is, therefore, a mixture of static and dynamic factors including the concept of a country's potential: high levels of current productivity lead to high levels of income and high levels of returns to investment which, in turn, are one of the major determinants of growth potential. This is why a more competitive economy is likely to grow faster over the medium-long run. To describe the complex notion of competitiveness, the World Economic Forum analyses twelve major pillars (dimensions in statistical terminology) briefly described here.

1. Institution Private individuals, firms and governments interact with each other in an environment created by both private and public institutions. The Institution pillar aims at describing the legal framework, level of bureaucracy, regulation, corruption, fairness in handling public contracts, transparency, political (in)dependence of the judiciary system. The private sector is also represented as private counterpart of the health of an economy.

2. Infrastructure High quality infrastructure is obviously critical for efficient functioning of the economy. The pillar describes roads, railroads, ports and air transport as well as the quality of power supply and telecommunications.

3. Macro-economy It describes the macroeconomic stability with variables such as government surplus/deficit and debt, saving rate, inflation and interest rate spread.

4. Health and primary education Health of workforce and basic education received by the population are clearly key aspects of a productive and efficient economy. This pillar aims to measure the incidence of major invalidating illnesses, infant mortality, life expectancy and the quality of primary education.

5. Higher education and training If basic education is the starting point of a ductile and efficient workforce, higher education and continuous training are crucial for economies not restricted to basic process and products. This pillar describes secondary and tertiary education together with the extent of staff training.

6. Goods market efficiency The ideal environment for the exchange of goods is the one which features the minimum of impediments to business activity through government intervention. The three main aspects described by the pillar are: distortions, competition and market efficiency.

7. Labour market efficiency This pillar measures efficiency and flexibility of the labour market, as well as the equity in the business environment between women and men.

8. Financial market sophistication A well-functioning financial sector provides the right framework for business growth and private sector investments. It mainly describes the sophistication of financial market, the easiness for accessing loans, the strength of investor protection and other similar variables.

9. Technological readiness A regulatory framework which is friendly to Information and Communication Technology (ICT) together with ICT penetration rates are of key importance for the overall competitiveness of a nation. Representative variables describing this dimension are for instance internet and mobile telephone subscribers, personal computers, availability of latest technologies and laws relating to ICT.

10. Market size The size of the market determines at which level firms may exploit economies of scale. Firms which operate in large markets have more possibility of exploiting scale economies. Both domestic and foreign markets are taken into account in order to avoid discrimination against geographic areas.

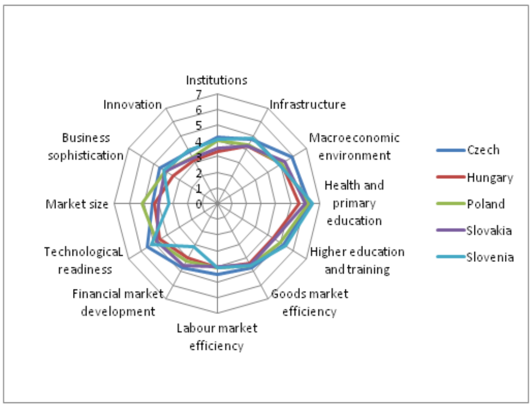
11. Business sophistication This pillar concerns the quality of the business networks of the country and the quality of individual firms' operations and strategies. These aspects are measured using variables on the quality and quantity of local suppliers, the marketing extent and the production of sophisticated unique products.

12. Innovation The pillar refers to technological innovation which, similar to the technological readiness pillar, is a dynamic factor of competitiveness. This pillar is particularly important for more advanced countries which have already reached a higher stage of development. Such countries cannot improve their productivity by 'simply' adopting existing technologies but must invent innovative products and processes to

maintain and improve their productivity level.

The 12 pillars taken into account are described by a variety of observable qualitative and/or quantitative variables (indicators). Data sources Indicators used for GCI come from two basic data sources called survey data and hard data. The survey data are drawn from a survey, specifically designed by the World Economic Forum, called Executive Opinion Survey. The survey is completed yearly by over 11,000 top management business executives and gathers qualitative data in order to capture information on a wide range of variables for which sources are scarce or inexistent. With this survey the WEF aims at collecting information not covered by quantitative data provided by official public sources.

Graph 3: Main determinants of competitiveness



Source: WEF Geneve 2016, own evaluation

Among CEE economies has Poland the bigest market size. Problem of the Slovenia is that market size is small. Very important determinant is business sophistication. A good strategy and operation of management has important weight. Business sophistication is the highest in Czech R. and in Slovenia. European internal market has produced well conditions for market efficiency. I can explain that all CEE companies has the same market conditions. Infrastructure in well developed in Slovenia and in Czech R. Poland, Slovakia and Hungary has bad infrastructure in the eastern part of the country. Technological readiness is the highest in Czech R. Slovenia also rank well. Hungary has the problems with technological readiness. All CEE countries give the financial market to foreign investors. Slovenia is late with openning of the financial market. Financial market is not competitive in Slovenia. Educational system is well develop in Slovenia and in Czech R. Hungary has problem from that point of view.

Macroeconomic environment is the best in Czech R. From the dimond can be seen that the Czech R. is the most competitive country. The small size of the Czech Republic's domestic market is offset by its high degree of openness with a very large share of foreign trade with the EU, and thus also its considerable sensitivity to the functioning of the internal market and the dynamics of both the EU economy and the economies of the final customers of re-exported goods. As has been the case in a number of European countries, the greatest improvement in efficiency has been seen in tradable goods exposed to foreign competition. According to the GCI indicators, operators in the Czech Republic are holding their own in terms of the quantity and quality of local suppliers and their willingness to delegate authority. A weaker rating is given for business from the perspective of the development of clusters, sources of competitive advantage, and the breadth of the value chain, where there is less application of original products and transferred innovations, although so far the Czech Republic still has maintained a certain edge over other new EU Member States, such as Slovenia, Poland or Slovakia. The weakest area is control of international distribution channels, where operators from the Czech Republic and Slovakia are at the very tail end of the global market rankings (117th place according to the GCI), which diminishes the gains achieved. In terms of business sophistication and scope of marketing, which also belong to this group, operators in the Czech Republic are still lagging behind the European leaders. As is shown by the German and Finnish example, imaginative products which respond optimally to existing or emerging (domestic and international) demand will result (albeit only temporarily) in higher profitability, and are more resistant to fluctuations in exchange rates. Given that the sale of standard "commodities" is highly sensitive to prices (and therefore also exchange rates), there is a risk that (as in Greece, Portugal or Spain) with the ongoing convergence of the Czech Republic and the other European states, the advantage of lower labour costs may cease to apply. Services are developing relatively slowly in the Czech Republic, and the market is dominated by traditional services with relatively low added value (tourism or ground transport services) which are based on the attractiveness and strategic position of the country. For services with high added value, imports dominate over exports (Czech Competitiveness Strategy 2012-2020). Czech R and Slovakia have the best strategies and competitiveness programmes on ministry level. For attracting foreign investors especially automotive producers has Slovakia prepared some industrial locations. Foreign investors, don't need to collect papers and documents to get new location in Slovakia. Slovenia is a country without competitiveness strategy and without prepared locations for foreign investors. For government is very important to analyse which competitiveness determinant has to be supported by further steps. Correlations are calculated with the Sperman correlation coeficients. It is clear that innovativess is one of the main determinants, while the correlations with both WEF and IMD competitiveness index is high.

Table 1: Correlations among determinants of competitiveness

	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.	11.
1. start up conditions		0,285	0,776	0,800	0,358	0,078	0,406	0,515	0,770	0,758	0,758
2. quality of government	0,285		0,636	0,600	0,285	0,600	0,685	-0,248	0,564	0,479	0,479
3. local suppliers	0,776	0,636		0,842	0,394	0,515	0,588	0,455	0,709	0,939	0,636
4. innovativeness	0,800	0,600	0,842		0,758	0,176	0,182	0,370	0,794	0,818	0,782
5. transfer of technology	0,358	0,285	0,394	0,758		-0,115	0,030	0,539	0,236	0,188	0,206
6. red tape	0,078	0,600	0,515	0,176	-0,115		0,539	-0,273	0,152	0,418	0,370
7. intensitiy of competition	0,406	0,685	0,588	0,182	0,030	0,539		-0,297	0,661	0,636	0,636
8. cluster development	0,515	-0,248	0,455	0,370	0,539	-0,273	-0,297		0,115	0,442	0,333
9. GDP	0,770	0,564	0,709	0,794	0,236	0,152	0,661	0,115		0,697	0,830
10. Index WEF	0,758	0,479	0,939	0,818	0,188	0,418	0,636	0,442	0,697		0,939
11. Index IMD	0,758	0,479	0,636	0,782	0,206	0,370	0,636	0,333	0,830	0,939	

Source: WEF Geneve 2016, own calculation

WEF (0,818) and IMD (0,782) is very strong. Correlation matrics is calculated with ten countries (Israel, Spain, New Zeland, Taivan, Portugal, Greece, Croatia, Korea, Argentina and Mexico). While the WEF's competitiveness methodology is connected with Porter's diamond of competitive advantages is normal that corelation among local suppliers and WEF index (0,939) is strong. I see the strong connection with transfer of technology (0,539) and with local suppliers (0,455).

Table 2: Correlation among the main WEF's indexes of competitiveness

	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.
1. Tehnological index		0,552	0,733	0,709	0,442	-0,067	0,879	0,733
2. Macroeconomic environment	0,552		0,236	0,200	0,139	0,430	0,636	0,594
3. Strategy and the action of enterprises	0,733	0,236		0,927	0,794	-0,091	0,842	0,855
4. Quality of business environment	0,709	0,200	0,927		0,915	-0,139	0,830	0,879
5. GDP	0,442	0,139	0,794	0,915		-0,018	0,697	0,830
6. Growth of GDP	-0,067	0,430	-0,091	-0,139	-0,018		0,018	0,079
7. Global competitiveness index WEF	0,879	0,636	0,842	0,830	0,697	0,018		0,939
8. Global competitiveness index IMD	0,733	0,594	0,855	0,879	0,830	0,939	0,939	

Source: WEF Geneve 2016, own calculation

The strong correlation is recognized among quality of business environment and strategy-operations of enterprises (0,927). Government can improve the quality of business environment, so it can influence on business success. While the wealth is created on micro level it is normal that a strong correlations among strategy-operations of enterprises and GDP (0,794) is normal. The technological level has an influence on competitiveness, what can be recognized from the correlation with WEF index (0,879) and IMD global index (0,733). Also the quality of business environment correlate with WEF (0,830) and IMD (0,879) competitiveness indexes.

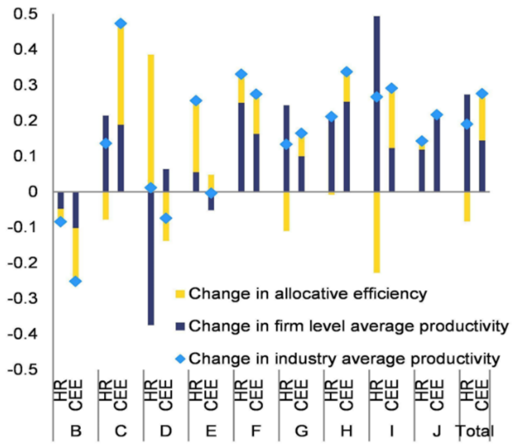
Graph 4: Productivity in Croatia and CEE peers by industry (2014, CEE total=100)

(1) Sectors: B — Mining and quarrying; C — Manufacturing; D — Electricity, gas, steam and air conditioning supply; E — Water supply; sewerage, waste management and remediation activities; F — Construction; G — Wholesale and retail trade; repair of motor vehicles and motorcycles; H — Transportation and storage; I — Accommodation and food service activities; J — Information and communication

Source: European Commission, based on Orbis database

Competitiveness in all industries are compared according on the average. We can see that manufacturing in CEE economies has higher productivity than average. The highest productivity in CEE industries has D-Electricity, gas, steam and air conditioning supply. The lowest productivity has B — Mining and quarrying. A cumbersome business environment prevents more productive firms from growing faster than competitors. In 2010-2014, average productivity of firms increased in most industries, with the significant exception of energy utilities and mining and quarrying. Productivity growth was sustained in the tourism-related industry of accommodation and food. Strong demand and the upgrading of infrastructure, in terms of both capacity and quality, have resulted in better productivity indicators. However, allocative efficiency, defined as the extent to which the most productive firms also have the highest market shares, has been weak or negative, partially offsetting the substantial improvement in firm-level productivity in driving aggregate productivity. With the significant exception of the energy sector, more productive firms appear to have grown more slowly than less productive firms. Productivity inceised a lot in CEE manufacturing.

Graph 5: Change in average productivity by industry (2010-2014)



(1) Sectors: B — Mining and quarrying; C — Manufacturing; D — Electricity, gas, steam and air conditioning supply; E — Water supply; sewerage, waste management and remediation activities; F — Construction; G — Wholesale and retail trade; repair of motor vehicles and motorcycles; H — Transportation and storage; I — Accommodation and food service activities; J — Information and communication

Source: European Commission, based on Orbis database

Change in allocative efficiency is the highest in manufacturing. Also change in manufacturing productivy is well. Industrial productivity in CEE economies is improving in observed period. Over the last two decades the share of the region's exports in world exports of goods more than doubled. This trade expansion is related to the inclusion of the CEE countries in the European and global value chains, due to two factors: their price/cost competitiveness (relatively low labour costs) and direct proximity of the largest European markets. The increase in the CEE countries' share in world exports over the last two decades took place despite appreciation of their real effective exchange rates. Price/cost factors therefore cannot be the only determinants of the region's improved export performance. Indeed, our empirical analysis shows that improvements in technological competitiveness, in particular in terms of innovative outputs (patent applications), had a significant positive impact on export performance. This was, moreover, in addition to their positive impact through the economic potential. Concerning institutional environment, improvements in the overall regulatory quality also significantly contributed to better export performance. Hence, our results are in line with both the theory and earlier empirical literature showing that price/cost competitiveness is not the only important determinant of success in international markets. The positive impact of technological competitiveness and institutional environment on export market shares implies that further improvements in these areas should help the CEE countries compete successfully in international markets. In the future most of the CEE countries should enter the euro area. Adopting the common currency implies the loss of independent exchange rate. Hence, maintaining price/cost competitiveness would be possible only through internal devaluations (price and labour cost cuts). Taking this fact into account, improving non-price competitiveness is all the more important for the region. (Bierut, B.K.,, Kuziemska-Pawlak, K.,2016). CEE countries have improved their competitiveness in the last years. The main factor of industrial competitiveness industry is the automotive industry.

4. Conclusions

Economic strategy of EU has for the goal »Lisbon strategy« that the EU will became the most modern and most competitive economy in the world. EU will liberalize the markets and the process of privatization, encourage the enterprise policy and give more money for science and technology. The direction of harder integration process is the wish of supporting global competitiveness and development catching-up to USA While some progress has been scored in some EU countries by regulation, privatization and by competitiveness, it can be seen that reforms have not reached the important goals compared to USA. European enterprises still make a business in more difficult business environment. European competitiveness, compared to USA, still lags in creation of supporting environment for innovative oriented enterprises, especially small and medium sized enterprises, in efficiency of financial markets, and in mechanisms for supporting entrepreneurship, in implementing of new technologies, and in labour market flexibility. European enterprises are succesfully by high quality of products and services, the lead the innovation in chemical industry, in car industry, and also in engineering. Main governments put a lot of attention on ranks of countries by WEF competitiveness report or IMD competitiveness yearbook. Yearly competitiveness reports are the basis for creation of development strategies. Government and public administration have an important influence on business environment in the last period. The active role of government and public administration on locational attractivenes for foreign direct investments (tax policy, governmental subsidies, administrative bariers, investment incentives) is very important. The key role have the governmental steps on the field of education and science & technology. The nation is competitive if the enterprises interact in industries, that have a high value added, and maintain the value added on the long term. In strategy of economic development and in development report can be seen, that WEF and IMD analis of competitiveness became more important in creation of national development strategies. The annual European Competitiveness Report uses empirical research to analyse the competitive performance of the EU economy as a whole, as well as specific industries. It also assesses the impact of structural reforms on EU competitiveness and considers the need for further reforms. All hypothesis in the article stands. Szech is the most competitive economy among CEE economies. The small size of the Czech Republic's domestic market is offset by its high degree of openness with a very large share of foreign trade with the EU, and thus also its considerable sensitivity to the functioning of the internal market and the dynamics of both the EU economy and the economies of the final customers of re-exported goods. As has been the case in a number of European countries, the greatest improvement in efficiency has been seen in tradable goods exposed to foreign competition. According to the GCI indicators, operators in the Czech Republic are holding their own in terms of the quantity and quality of local suppliers and their willingness to delegate authority. A weaker rating is given for business from the perspective of the development of clusters, sources of competitive advantage, and the breadth of the value chain, where there is less application of original products and transferred innovations, although so far the Czech Republic still has maintained a certain edge over other new EU Member States, such as Slovenia, Poland or Slovakia. Czech R and Slovakia have the best strategies and competitiveness programmes on ministry level. For atracting foreign investors especially automotive producers has Slovakia prepared some industrial locations. Foreign investors, don’t need to collect papers and documents to get new location in Slovakia. Slovenia is a country without competitiveness strategy and without prepared locations for foreign investors.

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Short biography

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Art Kovačič is a researcher on Faculty for Commerical and Business Studies CELJE-SLOVENIA. He works on european projects connected with competitiveness,

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The Effects of State-funded Subsidies on Corporate Performance
– Literature Review –

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Abstract

According to economic literature market failures (see e.g. Arrow, 1962; Stiglitz, 1988) are the key motives of public interventions to influence the behaviour of market participants. These state interventions include public funded subsidies to businesses to increase their economic performance and hence mainly focus on capacity-building projects, R&D investments and employment.

In Hungary the importance of public subsidies to increase the performance of companies is beyond doubt. Referring to Eurostat's data published in 2017 between 2000 and 2015 among the 28 member states of the European Union Hungary had the second largest public subsidies to GDP ratio (after Malta); the annual average was 1.21 percentages.

The role of public subsidies paid to enterprises is generally of great interest; therefore it is worth analysing the effects in more details. The relevant literature provides a number of theoretical and empirical findings and conclusions on subsidies (see, e.g., Bergström, 2000; Alonso-Borrego et al., 2012; Lerner, 1999; Tzelepis and Skuras 2004 and 2006; Cheol Cin-Jun Kim-Vonortas, 2017). However, it is also true that the results often contradict each other and are not straightforward.

The key variables (dependent variables) used by the analyses are mostly sales growth rate, changes in profitability-productivity, or employment growth. Some of the studies found that subsidies had positive effects on performance, while the others found neutral or even negative effects. The methodology applied is based on regression models that also take into account the typical biases caused by the nature of the issue (e.g. the eligibility or even the application of an enterprise for a given subsidy is not random).

The literature review of state funded subsidies is organised as follows: after introduction several forms of subsidies will be presented, then the statistical data supporting the significance of subsidies (in Hungary) will be described. Following the practical background, I will examine the researches in the domestic and international literature on the effects of state subsidies on businesses. The goal is to summarize the main conditions-assumptions of the studies (database used, methodology applied) and present conclusions and findings. The paper concludes with a summary and it also tries to outline further research directions. In the latter case, the possibility of future empirical research is examined.

Keywords: entrepreneurship, development, financing, state and EU funds, literature review

Introduction

De Long and Summers in their 1991 study conclude that the amount invested in equipment has not only a positive and also significant effect on productivity growth (GDP growth), but this effect is more significant than other forms of corporate investments. Nevertheless, it has also been found that the total social utility of corporate investments expenditures is higher than the financial profits realized by the companies directly.

Based on the work of Solow (1956) it is well-known that in the longer term, economic growth and the standard of living are determined by technological progress. Alonso-Borrego et al. (2012) referring to Arrow (1962) and Stiglitz (1988) emphasize that spending on R&D (R&D&I) is crucial to reach and maintain the above-mentioned long-term economic growth. However, due to market failures (and the absence of efficient state interventions) the number of R&D projects are realized at a lower level than desired (potential competitors can demonstrate free-rider behaviour, thus taking the significant part of the overall profit).

It is harder to find jobs in less developed regions, owing to the fact that larger businesses are avoiding these regions, hence not employing potential employees. Based on the publication of the Hungarian Academy of Sciences (2016) on Hungarian Labour Market (see pages 236 and 237), employment in less developed regions of Hungary is significantly lower.

The cases listed above are examples of market failures[26] which, according to the economic literature, can justify a great variety of state interventions and subsidies supporting businesses[27]. In an international context, one can see that many governments take advantage of state subsidies and interventions[28]; typically in the fields listed above: (capacity) development investments, promoting R & D initiatives, increasing employment.

In Hungary, there is no doubt about the importance of subsidies for businesses (the source and form may vary and might be either direct EU co-financing or domestic funding or tax relief). According to Eurostat (2017) data, between 2000 and 2015, compared to the other member states of the European Union, after Malta, Hungary had the highest ratio of subsidies to the private sector as a percentage of GDP, with an annual average of 1.21 percent[29] (for Malta, the same figure was 2.13 percent).

In the light of the foregoing, the role of state subsidies paid to enterprises is fairly important and it is also a topic of public interest; therefore it is worth examining the effects of subsidy systems on corporate performance in more details. In other words, it is by no means a side issue how taxpayers' money are used through this channel.

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[26] For more about market (and government) failures, see e.g. Stiglitz (2000), Kertész (2009).

[27] In this paper, "businesses" are typically the companies of the private sector, regardless of their size, i.e. the analysed enterprise can be a micro, small, medium or large enterprise.

[28] Perhaps at first, one might think that advocates of pure competition such as the United States or the United Kingdom do not attach particular importance to business subsidies, but this is far from true. Lerner (1999) has collected the United States' largest programs from 1958 to 1997 and found, among other things, that under the Small Business Innovation Research (SBIR) program, between 1983 and 1997, 7 billion USD was paid to companies (the SBIR was the largest funding initiative from all others). According to Crisculo et al. (2007), within the framework of the United Kingdom's Regional Selective Assistance (RSA) program 220 million US dollars were spent in 1998-1999.

[29] It is also worth looking at the magnitude of the EU funds allocated to the Central European region (Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland, Slovakia, Slovenia, Bulgaria, Romania, Croatia) between 2007 and 2015. The total amount was EUR 175.89 billion (KPMG, 2016).

The relevant international literature provides a number of theoretical and empirical findings and conclusions on the effectiveness of state subsidies, but the results are often contradictory and not straightforward. The key variables (dependent variables) are mostly net sales growth, changes in profitability-productivity (value added), or employment growth. Some of the studies, with regard to the variables listed above, have identified positive effects, while others have found neutral or even negative effects. Nevertheless, it is worth pointing out that empirical researches are applied to a given time period and country or region, that is, they are not suitable for general conclusions in all circumstances[30].

The literature usually focuses on a given industry or sector, but it is also becoming more and more common, thanks to statistical software packages, to execute analyses on company level. The most favoured methodology for quantifying effects is typically based on econometric regression models that take into account the various biases caused by the nature of the issue (e.g. subsidizing a company is typically not a random process; moreover, applying for a given subsidy is not random either).

The rest of the paper is organised as follows: after this introduction, the various forms of state subsidies will be clarified. This is followed by a brief introduction to the Hungarian subsidy system's specialties, and finally some statistics are presented to emphasize the importance of state subsidies in the EU. After conceptualization and statistics, international literature review of the efficiency of state funded corporate subsidies is performed. This subchapter is the core part of this paper. The most important goal is to summarize the main circumstances of the researches (databases used, applied methodology) and to present the results. The paper ends with a summary and outlines further (empirical) research directions.

Conceptualization

In this subchapter the definition of subsidies comes first, including the possible forms of incentives. Subsequently, the importance of subsidies is underpinned by statistical data, both at European level and in Hungarian context. The primary source of the data used is from the European Statistical Office's website, Eurostat.

Before defining the concept of state subsidies, it is worth noting that the European Union basically prohibits state subsidies. Since the beginning of the integration, one of the basic principles is to promote free competition on the common market, which would be violated by subsidies. However, Article 107[31] of the Lisbon Treaty[32] which is currently in force allows state subsidies under certain circumstances. Article 107 (1) and (3) (a) and (c) are relevant. These are as follows:

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[30] Collinson and Pettigrew (2009) draw attention to the methodological mistakes most commonly made in (international) research in The Oxford Handbook of International Business (Chapter 27: Comparative International Business Research Methods - Pitfalls and Practicalities). One of these mistakes is that researchers often take results from previous analyses without doubt and draw general conclusions from them.

[31] Specifically: Part three: Union Policies and Internal Actions – Title VII: Common Rules on Competition, Taxation and Approximation of Laws – Chapter 1: Rules on Competition – Section 2: Aids Granted by States – Article 107

[32] Full title: Treaty of Lisbon Amending the Treaty on European Union and the Treaty Establishing the European Community.

(1) *Save as otherwise provided in the Treaties, any aid granted by a Member State or through State resources in any form whatsoever which distorts or threatens to distort competition by favouring certain undertakings or the production of certain goods shall, in so far as it affects trade between Member States, be incompatible with the internal market.*

(3) *The following may be considered to be compatible with the internal market:*

c) *aid to promote the economic development of areas where the standard of living is abnormally low or where there is serious underemployment, and of the regions referred to in Article 349, in view of their structural, economic and social situation;*

d) *aid to facilitate the development of certain economic activities or of certain economic areas, where such aid does not adversely affect trading conditions to an extent contrary to the common interest;*

In the view of the above, it is important to ensure competitive neutrality and subsidies could be granted only in the case of achieving certain objectives.

The definition of subsidies of the European Commission (EC) (2016) based on statistical data collection is entirely satisfactory for the purpose of this paper. The data collection separates three groups: (1) state aid for the development and upgrading of rail transport, (2) agricultural activities and (3) the easing of the economic crisis that erupted in 2008 (this category actually existed in practice only until 2010). Subsidies beyond these three groups are non-crisis (and non-prohibited) grants to the business sector. On the following pages, the non-prohibited state funded corporate subsidies will be analysed, and at the same time these types of grants can be considered as the central subject of the paper.

It is also important to note that the current paper and the subsequent researches are not limited to subsidies paid by the EU (through the Hungarian budget); i.e. grants financed from other sources (including grants based on individual government decisions) are also the subject of analysis.

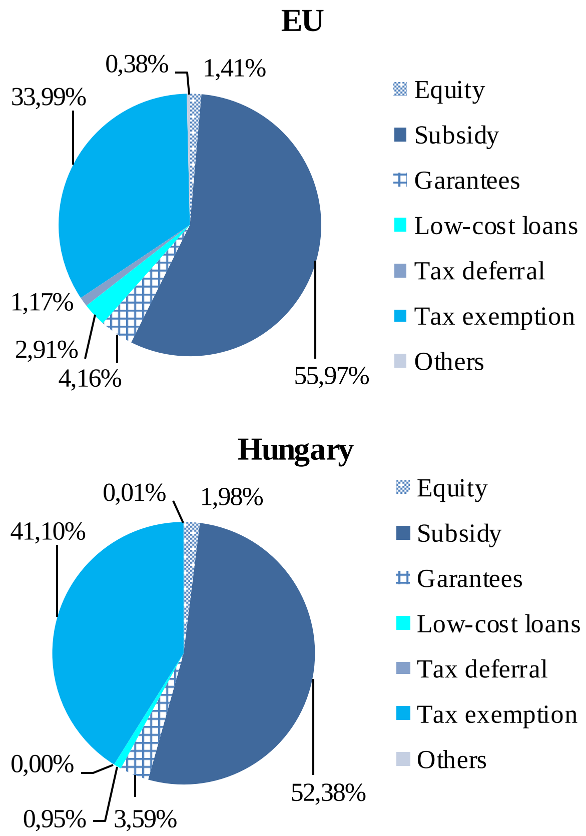
Using the terminology of Kállay (2014) and the EC (2016), the different types of subsidies most widely used in EU entrepreneurship practices are the following:

Non-refundable subsidies. The most common objectives include promotion of (capacity) development investments, encouraging R&D&I activities and increasing employment. Businesses are typically supported to implement new investments or to expand employment, or to combine the two. The general goal is to develop new products and services with higher value added. The governments typically expect financial return from extra amount of taxes generated during the compulsory maintenance period of the projects (basically five years). On average almost 56 percent and 52.5 percent of the subsidies paid in the period from 2000 to 2015 in the EU and Hungary were non-refundable. In Hungary, the total amount of direct non-refundable subsidies increased from 20 percent in 2000 to 82.5 percent by 2015.

Tax deferral and tax exemption. These sources can be used for the same purpose as non-refundable subsidies. The difference is "simply" that the beneficiary receives no direct sources from the budget, but does not have to pay any taxes or contributions. Nearly 41 percent of the total subsidies granted and reported in the European Union during the period from 2000 to 2015 were tax exemption or tax deferral. In Hungary, the total share of tax exemptions and deferrals fell from 77 percent in 2000 to 9 percent by 2015.

Reduced price (financial) services. Mostly financial services with lower costs than the usual market price; hence these are also considered as subsidies: advantageous or interest-free loans (refundable subsidies, soft loans), cheaper guarantee services, equity financing, such as private equity. This category also includes cheaper non-financial services than the market price; including training, consultancy, information services. The EU only keeps records of the former. Their share of total funding between 2000 and 2015 was slightly more than 9 percent for the EU and 7.5 percent for Hungary. The first figure below summarizes the aforementioned data.

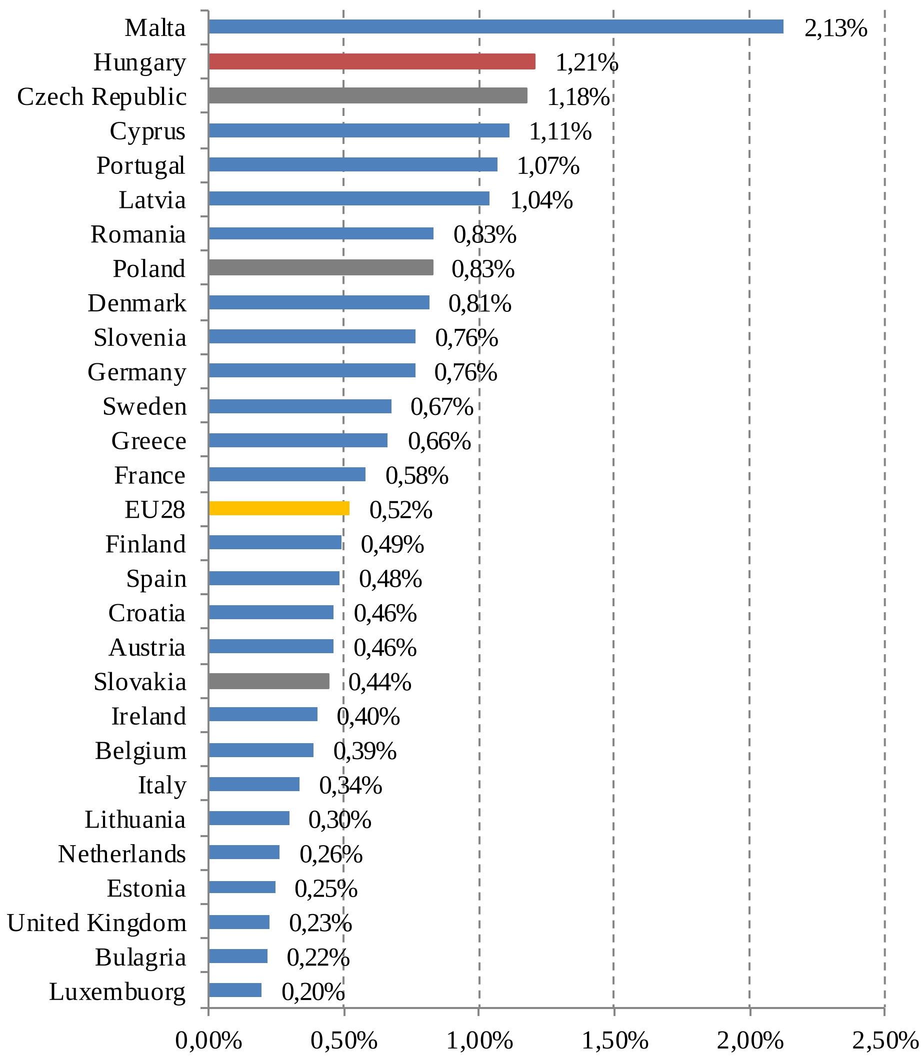
Figure 1: Distribution of subsidies by form of subsidy in EU28 countries and in Hungary between 2000 and 2015



Source: Own compilation based on Eurostat (2017)

The second figure shows the proportion of subsidies paid as a percentage of GDP in EU28 countries between 2000 and 2015. Data on Hungary were highlighted (red colour). Due to the common past, the similar problems in the present and the structure of the economy as well as the possible further research directions, the data of the other Visegrad Group countries (Czech Republic, Poland and Slovakia) are also highlighted.

Figure 2: State funded subsidies in EU28 countries, as a proportion of GDP, average values from 2000 to 2015

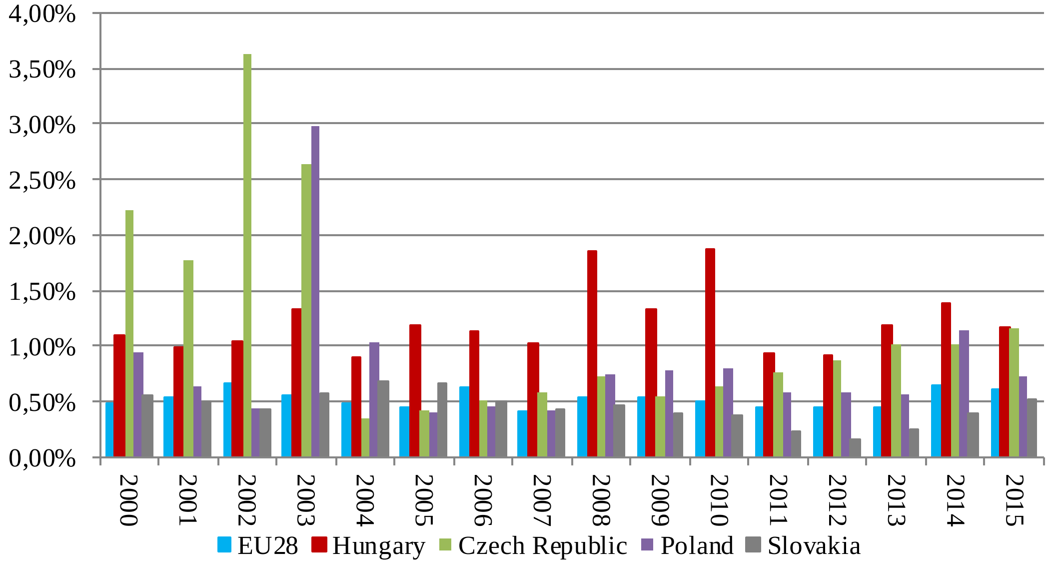


Source: Own compilation based on Eurostat (2017)

In Figure 2 it can be seen that the second highest rate of subsidies paid as a percentage of GDP (average 1.21% per year) was in Hungary, right after Malta. The Czech Republic closely follows Hungary in the third place, with a subsidy rate of 1.18 percent. In Poland, the same indicator is 0.83 percent and is ranked eighth. Slovakia is in the lower third, far below (0.44 percent) the EU average which is 0.52 percent.

If one looks at the evolution of the GDP-proportional rates of grants on a yearly basis (see Figure 3), it can be seen that after the millennium subsidization was an important instrument for the Hungarian governments to stimulate the economy: the subsidy to GDP ratio was always higher than 0.89 percent. According to Figure 3 prior to accessing the European Union, the Hungarian rate was on average 1.12 percent between 2000 and 2004, which was largely due to the already existing government initiatives (see, inter alia, the first Széchenyi plan announced by the first Orbán cabinet in 2000). After accession, the average value continued to increase (between 2004 and 2015) and reached a rate of 1.24 percent of GDP. The ratio in two years of the international financial crisis (2008 and 2010) was extraordinary high, 1.85 and 1.88 percent respectively.

Figure 3: State aid paid by EU 28 and V4 as a percentage of GDP between 2000 & 2015



Source: Own compilation based on Eurostat (2017)

In summary, it can be concluded that in Hungary (and basically in the Visegrad Group) state-funded subsidies has played an important role regardless of the funds of the European Union (as mentioned previously, the subsidy to GDP ratio was not low(er) before accession), so it may be worth considering micro-level data analysis on the impact of these programs on the productivity and profitability of enterprises.

Literature review

In the following chapter the methodological characteristics (the applied database and econometric methodology) and results (conclusions, findings) of some international empirical researches are analysed in more details. It was an important goal during the literature review to find publications that are from more countries (regions), so that more general conclusions could be drawn on the effects of subsidies (but also taking care to avoid excessive generalization).

Alonso-Borrego, Galán-Zazo, Forcadell and Zúniga-Vicente (2012) sought the answer to the question of whether R&D projects funded by state subsidies would crowd out corporate-funded R&D initiatives, or, on the contrary, complement it. Their research was rather theoretical and based on a comprehensive literature review of the last fifty years. It was found that the different studies led to contradictory results. In many cases, it appeared to be justified that state subsidies crowd out private financing, but there is plenty of evidence to the contrary as well. As always, the essence is in the details which are as follows.

The authors argue that the crowding-out effect emerges more significantly among those companies that have previously received such grants, i.e. these companies are already counting on subsidies. Without grants they tend to postpone their decisions on R&D investments.

Many companies encounter financial constraints in investment decisions, i.e. sufficient funding is not available. This is particularly the case with many R&D projects, as external (bank) financing is not really attractive for businesses because of the following reasons: 1.) risk of information leakage towards competitors; 2.) due to asymmetric information the risk of the bankers is high, which can lead higher expected yields (high credit interest rates) than the return that could be reached by the company with the R&D project, i.e. the project's NPV is negative; 3.) most of the cases the results of R&D projects are intangible, therefore it is difficult to accept them as loan collateral. For the cases listed above state subsidies have far more complementary than crowding-out effects (especially for start-ups).

When analysing the results, it is not negligible whether the given R&D project falls into the "R" or "D" category. The actual (social) utility of a typical research project is much higher than the attainable financial profit, hence the complementary role of the state (thus the subsidies) in research projects is dominant, while the crowding-out effect is much more significant for development projects.

The amount of subsidy is also an important factor in assessing impacts. State funded subsidies have a complementary effect up to a certain limit, but after that, however, crowding-out effect prevails (i.e. the relation is non-linear and has an inverse U-shape). This means that over a given project size, businesses allocate almost all of their (financial and human) resources to larger projects due to their capacity constraints, and their smaller projects are suspended and postponed, or substituted by large investments.

Arvanitis, Hollenstein and Lenz (2002) studied the effects of Switzerland's special business support program, which encouraged the introduction of advanced manufacturing technologies (AMT) between 1990 and 1996. The authors have found that Switzerland's economic policy is more likely to create and maintain an appropriate investor environment rather than to establish a widespread subsidy system. Nonetheless, as a "supplement" various forms of subsidies were used, for example, to promote the implementation of AMTs.

The authors compiled a database of Swiss companies: a total of 463 enterprises were included in the analysis, of which 96 received grants, but 367 were not subsidized. The research question focused on how the various independent variables[33] explain the numeracy and intensity of the applied advanced production technologies (the dependent variable is measured on an ordinal scale).

[33] Financial-technical-market-human resource variables and institutional variables were included in the analysis. These variables influence the decision-making agency whether the given enterprise is eligible for the grant or not (i.e. a policy equation on participation in the program).

The result of the regression analysis is that the net income potential (cost reduction, greater degree of production flexibility), the ability to absorb new technologies and capacity (human resources), as well as the size of the company positively, investment-related implementation and "acceptance" costs negatively influenced the number of implemented new and advanced production technologies.

Bergström's study published in 2000 tried to find out how state subsidies influenced the productivity of Swedish enterprises between 1987 and 1993. The author highlighted a number of reasons for justifying a more detailed examination of the effects of subsidies. Firstly, in Sweden's economic policy, especially following the accession to the EU, the role of the state funded subsidy system was significant[34]. Secondly, it was not previously general to verify whether subsidies had positive effects on corporate productivity. Finally, enterprise-level data analysis can provide interesting additional information on impacts compared to sector-level aggregated analyses.

The focus of Bergström's study is on regional investment projects in Sweden. The aim of regional investment programs is to improve the economic performance of less developed regions (typically northern regions of Sweden). The ultimate goal was to improve the company's investments in machinery and real estate (the maximum intensity rate was 40 percent and a certain length of maintenance period was required). In the 1980s and in the first half of the 1990s, the state ensured an average of 1.7 billion Swedish crown subsidies annually (at current exchange rates this would amount to approximately 55 billion Hungarian forints).

The author collected a sample of subsidized (76) and non-subsidized (884) businesses (dummy variables) and defined a classical macroeconomic production function[35]. The applied methodology was based on linear regression model and the changes in total factor productivity (TFP) (growth rate) was analysed. The statistical model for the theoretical production function was as follows: productivity (profit) as dependent variable was represented by the value-added measure (operating profit after depreciation (EBIT), plus gross wages), the explanatory variables included the growth rate of the capital stock (the book value of assets) changes in the number of employees, the age of the given enterprise, the geographical location of the business, and industry dummy variables.

Based on panel data regression, the author's conclusions are as follows: in the first year the productivity level of the analysed enterprises significantly increased. However, after the first year, no positive developments can be reported: the higher the subsidy amount, the worse the increase in TFP. The conclusion was that although the various types of market failures may justify the existence of subsidies, it is absolutely not sure that the resource allocation is executed properly.

Tzelepis and Skuras (2004 and 2006) argue right at the beginning of their research of Greek food companies, that previous studies which analysed the effects of state subsidies typically pay

[34] Between 2000 and 2015, the average of the Swedish ratio of government subsidies to GDP was much higher than the EU28 average, with a value of 0.67 percent.

[35] The output Y depends on capital (K), labour (L) and the level of technology of capital employed (A).

attention to financial performance indicators that usually have a short-term focus. Due to short-term thinking, the results suggest that subsidies do not increase corporate performance.

In their papers they offer a new approach: alternative dependent variables that capture strategic business performance are created. Three variables were "constructed" in dummy form and defined as follows: the growth of a company's revenue exceeds the industry's growth rate (if so, its value is 1); the second and third indicators are about the achievement of the critical value of economies of scale. For this, the Minimum Efficiency Scale index[36] was applied and then divided by the base year's (1982) revenues and assets. If the business reached this threshold, the value of the dummy variable was 1 (otherwise 0).

The explanatory variables used in the analysis were the subsidy dummy variable, enterprise size, capital intensity, proxy variable measuring business cycle, annual average exchange rate (drachma-dollar exchange rate), and the central bank's average discount rate. For the analysis, a special logit model was used to execute panel data analysis.

The database was about the food industry in Greece and covered the period from 1982 to 1996. A total number of 1,005 corporate data were analysed, of which 355 received subsidies. The authors' choice fell on the food industry because at that time it was the most dynamic developing industry in Greece.

The main finding of the study is that subsidies have a positive and significant impact on the strategic indicators propagated by the authors that is, increasing market share and achieving economies of scale. Subsidies help businesses overcome suboptimal operational models resulting from poor cost structures. The authors also recognize the limitations of their research. One of these is that the number of strategic indicators as dependent variables is low. In their view, the message of their research could be further strengthened by developing and analysing new indicators.

The studies presented so far are in a European context (Sweden, Spain, Switzerland, Greece), but it is also worth examining the practice of other continents. The following pages describe two South Korean and one US studies.

Cheol Cin, Jun Kim, and Vonortas, in their study (2017), similarly to the papers introduced previously, make an attempt to find out how state aid systems influence the performance of businesses. Their research is about the effects of R&D subsides paid to a sample of South Korean companies (the analysed companies are SMEs).

The sample size is rather large: a total number of 42,391 businesses were evaluated. 1,686 received grants (i.e. 40,705 were included in the control group). The period under review ranged from the millennium to the end of 2007. The applied econometric methodology was based on a two-step tobit/logit model. This method could manage the problematic issues already mentioned in the previous chapter: it addresses endogeneity, i.e. the correlation of the explanatory variables with the unobserved error term, and the selection

[36] The index covers the average amount of fixed assets of the largest companies in an industry. These companies are responsible for more than half of the total net sales of the sector.

bias. Table 1 summarizes the model's explained and explanatory variables:

Table 1: Definition of variables used

Variables	Definition/Description
VA	Value added = (operating surplus + labour costs + interest expenses + taxes & dues + depreciation & amortization)
Ln(Q/L)	Dependent variable: Value-added productivity = Ln(VA/L)
Ln(K/L)	Capital Intensity = Ln(Fixed asset of the firm per employee)
Ln(L)	Ln(Number of employees)
Ln(Edu/L)	Ln(Education and job training expenses per employee)
Sales	Firm total sales
R&D	R&D expenses = ordinary development expenses + ordinary research and development expenses + amortization of research and development expenses + changes of research and development expenses
Ln(R&D/L)	Ln(R&D/L)
Subsidy	Government financial subsidy for new technology development and technology transfer
D	D=1 if the firm received government R&D subsidy; Otherwise, D=0.
Ln(Age)	Firm age; Ln(2008-founding year)
Industry	A dummy variable; take the value 1 if the SME belongs to k industry and 0 otherwise,
Year	A dummy variable for a specific year

Source: Cheol Cin, Jun Kim, Vonortas, 2017, p. 354

After calculations, the authors concluded that public R&D subsidies have a positive and significant impact on value added of micro, small and medium-sized enterprises active in the South Korean manufacturing industry.

Lee's (1996) study also deals with the case of South Korea[37]. South Korea's subsidy system could be an interesting field of research because the country's economy has grown by nearly 8 percent annually from the beginning of the 1960s to the next three decades. During these years the Korean governments applied economic incentives to protect local companies: they directly protected local businesses with import tariffs as well as other restrictions on imports, and industrial policy tools were also applied to stimulate productivity, such as subsidized bank loan facilities and tax incentives. According to the public such an increase in the level of real GDP was due to state involvement, however, no one carried out deeper research on the actual effects of the state programs. Lee made an attempt in his paper.

The applied theoretical framework is Solow's neoclassical growth theory and as such it is based on constant returns to scale production function: output (value added) is determined by the physical and human capital stock as well as the "raw" physical labour and the technology used[38]. Lee complements the classical theoretical framework with industrial policy incentives that might simultaneously influence output and the accumulation of physical capital.

To examine the empirical effects of state interventions, the author has applied regression methodology to estimate the relationship between the different variables. Lee evaluated the effects with two models: 1.) he used Weighted Least Squares (WLS) method in order to

[37] The applied statistical methodology and database, as well as the time period examined differ from Cin et al.'s previously introduced study.

[38] In the Solow model, technological progress is an exogenous variable. Examples of endogenous models can be found in Romer (1986) and Lucas (1988).

eliminate the existing heteroscedasticity in the data; and 2.) three-stage least squares (3SLS) method to keep the endogeneity of policy variables to the lowest possible level. Variables reflecting subsidy policy were applied with a one-period lag.

A database was also required for the analysis. The author managed his research at industry level: South Korea's 38 manufacturing sectors were included in the model. Panel data was analysed, meaning that he evaluated the effects of government incentives over several time periods. The entire period under examination was from 1963 to 1983, divided into four shorter sub periods: 1963-1968, 1968-1973, 1973-1978 and 1978-1983. There were a total number of 146 observations (for 2 industries data were not available). Table 2 summarizes the dependent and explanatory variables used in the two regression analyses:

Table 2: Dependent and explanatory variables of Lee's (1996) regression model

Variables	Definition/Description
VA	The dependent variable[39] is the annual growth rate of real value added per workhour over each five-year period (1963-1968, 1968-1973. 1973-1978, 1978-1983) from 1963 to 1983.
Ln(initial VA)	Initial Value Added is real value added per workhour in the initial year of each period.
Ln(Initial capital)	Initial Capital is real value of net capital stock per workhour in the initial year of each period.
Nontariff barrier	Nontariff barrier is the ratio of tariff lines subject to discretionary import approval to the total number of lines in the midyear of each period.
Tariff	Tariff is the output-weighted average of legal tariff rate in the midyear of each period[40].
Tax incentive	Tax Incentive is the period average of ratio of difference between legal and effective marginal corporate tax rate.
Bank loans	Bank loans are the period average of ratio of subsidized bank loans to total assets.
Growth rate of capital stock	Growth rate of capital stock is the annual growth rate of capital stock per workhour over each period.

Source: Own compilation based on Lee, 1996, p. 400

The most important results of the study can be summarized as follows: tax benefits positively and significantly influenced the growth rate of capital stock, but did not have a significant effect on output (the value added of the given industry). Different tariffs and non-tariff protection measures have had a significant negative effect on the increase in value added. The effects of subsidized loans were not significant. In the summary, Lee argued (p. 403) that South Korea's *"...success occurred 'in spite of' rather than 'because of' interventions"*.

In the paper of *Lerner (1999)* the effects of the United States' subsidies on company performance is analysed. During his work he collected the United States' largest subsidy programs from 1958 to 1997 and found, among other things, that under the Small Business Innovation Research (SBIR) program, between 1983 and 1997, 7 billion USD was paid to SMEs (this program had the largest budget). The analysed program was also the SBIR.

[39] The author also examined the effects of the explanatory variables on the growth rate of capital stock (i.e. the last line of Table 2 was the dependent variable).

[40] The tariff rate is defined by the nominal ad valorem import charge.

In the final database 1,453 enterprises were selected (using appropriate matching techniques): 541 companies were subsidized and the control group contained 894 companies. The period covered ten years from 1985 to 1995. Based on the ordinary least squares (OLS) regression method, the effects of subsidies on dependent variables (increase in net sales and employment) were examined.

Lerner found that the beneficiaries of the subsidies were able to achieve significantly higher sales growth and employment growth than the companies in the control group. The magnitude of the effects of the subsidy dummy variable was different when other explanatory variables were entered in the model. Higher performance was more obvious in areas where a large number of new businesses emerged. There was also a stronger relationship between growth and subsidies for businesses that operated in high-tech sectors. It is an important finding that the amount of the subsidy did not influence the performance significantly (the higher amount of subsidy did not result in a higher increase in sales or employment).

Conclusions and further empirical research directions

The main purpose of this paper was to study the impacts of various state-funded corporate subsidy programs on corporate performance by reviewing the relevant international literature. The research topic is considered to be relevant in an empirical sense if these incentives are significant in their absolute and relative magnitude, that is, they can significantly influence the performance of economic actors. As a result, another purpose of the paper was to prove the importance of subsidies in an international context. The study is also for future research objectives, namely to empirically analyse the effects of state subsidies on the corporate sector's performance in Hungary and in the Visegrad Group.

In the economic literature the theoretical background of state-funded subsidies is based on market failures. Subsidies are usually applied to stimulate corporate (capacity enhancing) investments in economically underdeveloped regions, to promote R&D initiatives in the private sector and to foster job creation projects. The common feature of the listed corporate investments and developments is that their social utility is higher than the financial profit realized by the investing companies; hence the state may decide to reallocate at least a part of these benefits to the corporate sector.

In the first half of the paper, the concept of subsidies was first clarified within the framework of the European Union. The differences between "prohibited" and "allowed" subsidies (Article 107 of the Treaty of Lisbon) were presented and then the definition of the European Commission (EC), based on statistical data collection, was conceptualized as a satisfactory and relevant definition for the topic, i.e. the analysis was focused on non-crisis (and non-prohibited) corporate subsidies. The EC classifies grants into several groups, depending on the form in which they appear. The definition was further illustrated by the description of these groups: non-refundable subsidies, tax deferrals and exemptions, low-cost financial services (including state guarantees, soft loans).

After conceptualization the analysis of the importance of state subsidies in the economic policies of the EU member states was presented (using the database of Eurostat). The comparison was based on the ratio of government subsidies to nominal GDP (between 2000 and 2015). The statistics show that Hungary had the second highest GDP-proportional subsidy ratio (following Malta). Interestingly, in recent years, the Czech Republic and Poland have also attached an increasing importance to their state subsidy system. Another fact is that in Hungary (and basically in the Visegrad Group), subsidies played an important role before the accession of the European Union.

In the second half of the paper, the theoretical and empirical studies found in the international literature were introduced and essentially three major aspects were examined: 1.) the database used (the number of enterprises or industries involved in the analysis), 2.) the applied statistical methodology and 3.) the main results and conclusions. The key variables (dependent variables) of the analyses were mostly sales revenue growth, changes in profitability and productivity (value added), or employment growth. Some of the studies, with regard to the variables listed above, have identified positive, others neutral or even negative impacts of the subsidies. The unit of analysis is often an industry or sector, but it is also becoming more and more general, thanks to statistical software packages, to find enterprise level analyses. The methodology for quantifying effects was typically based on econometric regression models that took into account the various biases caused by the nature of the issue (e.g. subsidizing a company is typically not a random process; moreover, applying for a given subsidy is not random either).

Comprehensive comparative researches related to the effects of state funded subsidies on Central-European region's corporate performance are rare. In Hungarian literature there are not many (currently public) studies in this research topic (see e.g. Kállay, 2014; Csoma, 2017 or KPMG 2016); therefore it is likely to have some new findings.

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A comparative analysis of Korea's entrepreneurial performance based on Global Entrepreneurship Index

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Abstract

After Korean war ended, North Korea and South Korea divided into two nations in the 1950s. Both countries suffered huge loss after the war and were one of the poorest countries in the world. South Korea (will refer to Korea in this paper) is regarded as a country without growth prospects. Following the economic policy reform under Minister Park in 1960s, Korea created the miracle in economic development. The military government chose *Chaebol* (the large business group) to become the primary agency for economic development. The chaebol received the competitive advantage from economies of scale and scope under the centralized control and dominated the domestic product markets. Korea economy achieved huge success in combining rapid economic growth with poverty's reduction. Today, Korea turns into 15th largest economy in the world and become an important contributor to International Development Association to support the poorest countries in the world.

Global Entrepreneurship and Development Index (GEDI) developed by the Global Entrepreneurship and Development Institute to measure the health of entrepreneurship ecosystem of research countries and rank their performance in international context. GEDI highlights the contextual feature of entrepreneurship, tests the combined effect of individual and institutional variables, focuses on the quality aspect of entrepreneurial activity, forms entrepreneurial attitudes, activities and aspirations factors into sub-indexes and recommend specific policy alteration to each country based on their strengths and weaknesses. The research of Global Entrepreneurship and Development Institute measures only productive entrepreneurship which creates wealth and society better off.

The economic is dominated by chaebol in Korea; hence, the entrepreneurship scenario remained unclear. In this paper, I will analyze Korea GEDI score to give the insight of the entrepreneurship in Korea. The overall entrepreneurial position of Korea will be analyzed. Base on the GEDI results on three level: sub-index, the pillar and variable levels, I can identify the strength and weakness for entrepreneurship development in Korea. Three sub index can divided to 14 pillars includes: Process innovation, Product innovation, Technology absorption, Risk capital, Networking, Risk Acceptance, High growth, Cultural Support, Start-up skills, Human Capital, Internationalization, Networking, Competition and Opportunity perception. The policy priorities for Korea will be listed to identify the most efficient strategy for policy development. Finally, I will compare the entrepreneurship performance of Korea and Taiwan and Singapore. These countries are referred as Asian Tiger economies which created the impressive growing rate in the short period of time. By analyzing Korea's entrepreneurial position according to its overall ranking in the GEDI Index and in other three sub-indexes, the author will

indicate Korea's overall entrepreneurship performance.

Keywords: Entrepreneurship, business, management, GEDI, South Korea.

Introduction

After Korean war ended, North Korea and South Korea divided into two nations in the 1950s. Both countries suffered huge loss after the war and were one of the poorest countries in the world at that time. South Korea (will refer to Korea in this paper) is regarded as a country without any growth prospects. Korea recovered slowly during the period 1953 to 1961 because of the failure import substitution policy and a massive investment in education (Harvie &Lee, 2003). Following the economic policy reform under Minister Park Chung Hee in 1960s, Korea moved toward the market-oriented direction and created the miracle in economic development. The Park Chung Hee military government issued aggressive export promotion policies to promote export. At the early stage, textile and garment industry was emphasised because of its comparative advantage. A massive investment in education in the earlier period had provided a well-educated workforce which formed the backbone of the national industrialised process (Harvie &Lee, 2003). *Chaebol* (the large business group and owned by one or two interrelated family groups) became the primary agency for economic development. The chaebol received the competitive advantage from economies of scale under the centralised control, policy support, subsidised loan, tax breaks and key project from the government and dominated the domestic product markets (Chang & Wright, 1994**;** Kim, 1997; Kwon & O'Donnell, 2003). The chaebol's business strategy involves business activities from raw material to final product, to take full advantage of their large internal market (Kwon & O'Donnell, 2003). The chaebol such as Hyundai, Samsung, Lotte, and LG has created the economic miracle of Korea and successfully carried out the industrialisation strategy of Korea's economy. By 1980s, ten largest chaebols accounted for 48% of Korean GNP (Kim, 1997). Korea economy achieved tremendous success in combining rapid economic growth with poverty's reduction. According to World Bank, from an aid recipient with GDP per capita is 67$ US in the 1950s, Korea turns into the 15th largest economy in the world and become a major contributor to International Development Association to support the poorest countries in the world.

Entrepreneurship offers new and diversified consumer goods and service, job opportunities and enhances national competitiveness, thus promote socioeconomic development (Zahra, 1999). The fiercer in the competition based on agility, creativity and innovation has led the growth of entrepreneurship wave, and entrepreneurship study is growing in many countries (Lee et al., 2006). Entrepreneurship is not well-documented factor in the empirical growth literature since it is hard to defined and measured (Stel et al., 2005). Although the conceptualisation of entrepreneurship is the complex and multidimensional approach, the measurement of entrepreneurship is still limited to single measures such as labour force statistic, business statistic and Global Entrepreneurship Monitor's Total Entrepreneurial Activity (TEA) (Szerb et al., 2013). Acs et al. (2017) pointed out that quality matters more than quantity in entrepreneurship, a country is entrepreneurial when it has the best entrepreneurs, not the most. Those studies mentioned above only paid attention to entrepreneurship in term of quantity result while neglected the quality differences across entrepreneurial activity (Szerb et al., 2013). The Global Entrepreneurship Monitor adopted a multidimensional approach and highlighted more aspects such as attitude, activity and aspiration, but the formal definition of entrepreneurship still not included (Kelley et al., 2011).

Global Entrepreneurship Index (GEI) developed by the Global Entrepreneurship and Development Institute to measure the health of entrepreneurship ecosystem of research countries and rank their performance in international context. GEI highlights the contextual feature of entrepreneurship, tests the combined effect of individual and institutional variables, focuses on the quality aspect of entrepreneurial activity, forms entrepreneurial attitudes, activities and aspirations factors into sub-indexes and recommend specific policy alteration to each country based on their strengths and weaknesses (Szerb et al., 2013). On the other hand, the research of Global Entrepreneurship and Development Institute measure only productive entrepreneurship which creates wealth and society better off (Acs et al., 2017).

Chaebol in Korea dominates the economic; hence, the entrepreneurship scenario remained unclear. In this paper, I will analyse Korea GEI score to give the insight of the entrepreneurship in Korea. The overall entrepreneurial position of Korea will be analysed. Base on the GEI results on three level: sub-index, the pillar and variable levels, I can identify the strength and weakness of entrepreneurship development in Korea. The policy priorities for Korea will be listed to determine the most efficient strategy for policy development. Finally, I will compare the entrepreneurship performance of Korea and Taiwan and Singapore. These countries are referred as Asian Tiger economies which created the impressive growth rate in the short period. By analysing Korea's entrepreneurial position according to its overall ranking in the GEI Index and other three sub-indexes, the author will indicate Korea's overall entrepreneurship performance.

Entrepreneurship measurement and the Global Entrepreneurship Index (GEI) methodology

Acs and Szerb (2011, 2012) and Acs, Autio and Szerb (2014) developed the Global Entrepreneurship and Development Index, later named as Global Entrepreneurship Index to measure the health of entrepreneurship ecosystem of research countries and rank their performance in international context. The ideas and GEI methodology is presented in Acs and Szerb (2011, 2012), Acs, Autio and Szerb (2014) and Szerb et al. (2016) as bellows section.

GEI views:

• entrepreneurship requires a complicated measure because of its multifaceted phenomenon;

• highlight the quality aspects of entrepreneurship instead of quantity aspects;

• both the individual and the institutional aspects of entrepreneurship are essential;

• combines entrepreneurial attitudes, activities and aspirations to form sub-indexes

• provide specific policy recommendations according to the entrepreneurial profile of each country.

GEI defines country level entrepreneurship at the socio-economic level as "…*dynamic institutionally embedded interaction between entrepreneurial attitudes, abilities and aspirations, by individuals, which drives the allocation of resources through the creation and operation of new ventures.*" (Acs, Autio and Szerb 2014, p. 479). The general concept of entrepreneurship has many dimensions and be consistent with the micro and macro level aspect of entrepreneurship. GEI points out five levels of index building: entrepreneurship measuring at the country level, the three sub-indexes (Entrepreneurial Attitudes, Entrepreneurial Activity and Entrepreneurial Aspirations), 14 pillars, 28 variables and 49 indicators. Entrepreneurial attitudes reflect people's attitudes toward Entrepreneurship (how a nation thinks about entrepreneurship). Entrepreneurial abilities (do you have proper skills, the abilities to work on entrepreneurship) refers to essential characteristics of the entrepreneur that determine the growth potential of start-ups. Entrepreneurial aspiration (do you want to start-up and build a giant company) refers to the distinctive, qualitative, strategy-related nature of the entrepreneurial activity. All pillars contain an individual and an institutional variable component, reflect different aspects of the entrepreneurial process and environment.

For the interdependencies, the research group of Global Entrepreneurship and Development Institute developed a Penalty for Bottleneck (PFB) methodology. The principle of this methodology is the performance of the system depends on the weakest link. Pillars which are scored higher cannot display their full effect on the performance of the system due to the bottleneck. By using this method, the elements of the system are only partially substitutable with each other.

The equation describes the penalty for bottleneck methodology as follows:

$$x_{i,j} = \min y_i(j) + \ln(1 + y_{i,j} - \min y_i(j))$$

where $x_{i,j}$ is the modified, after penalty value of the entrepreneurship feature j of country i

$y_{i,j}$ is the normalised value of the original entrepreneurship feature j of country i

$i = 1, 2,\ldots\ldots m$ (the number of countries)

$j = 1, 2,\ldots\ldots n$ (the number of entrepreneurial features)

By using the data collected by Global Entrepreneurship and Development Institute, this paper seeks to analyse the entrepreneurship scenario of South Korea.

Data Analysis

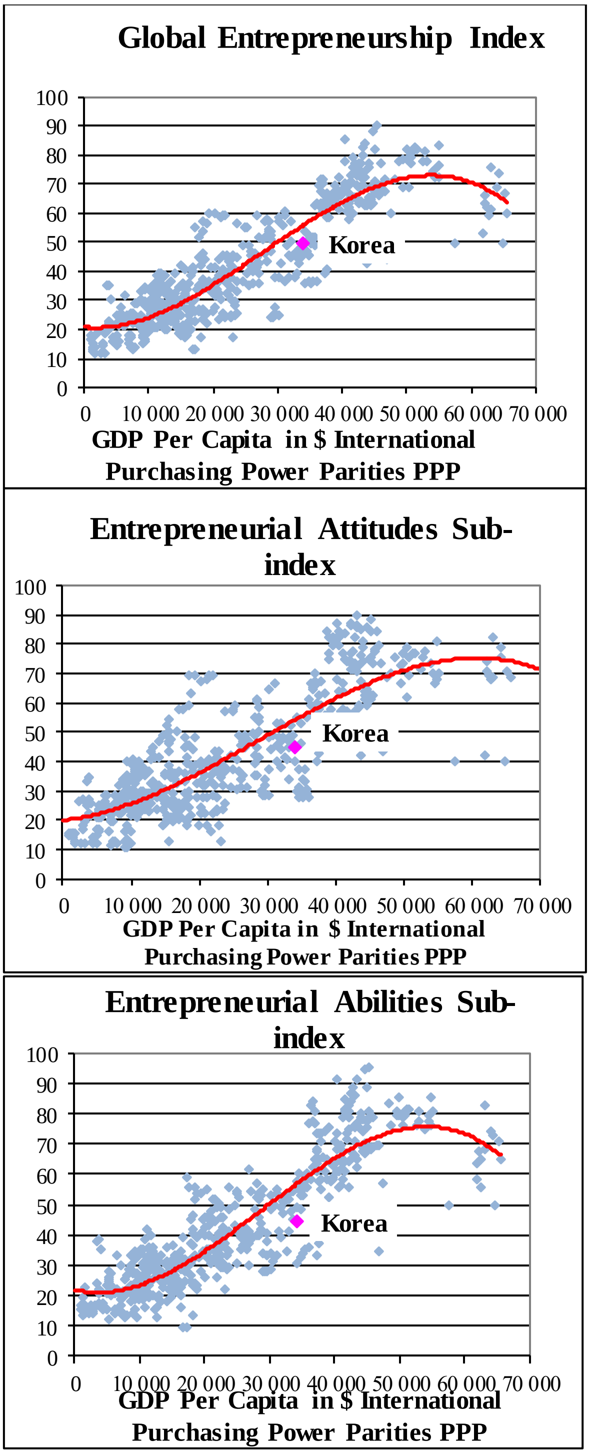
Korea's overall entrepreneurial position: GEI Index scores and rankings

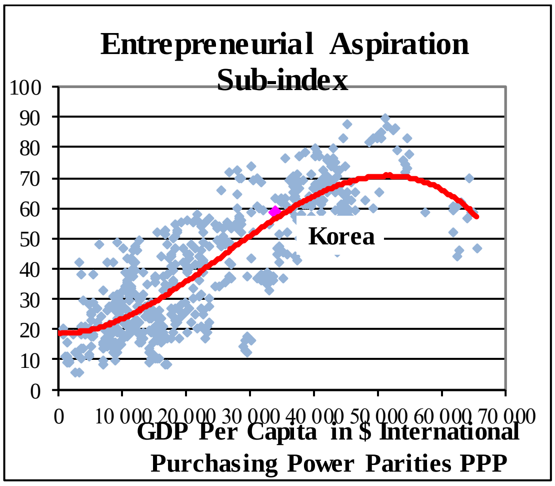
The relationship between GEI and national per capita GDP follows an S shape. The high-income country tends to have better entrepreneurship ecosystem and vice versa with a correlation of 0.8057. The S-shaped curve shows the productive entrepreneurship at a different stage of development. It measured the quality of entrepreneurial performance which is positively related to GDP per capita. It demonstrated the effectiveness in explaining long-term economic growth but failed to analyse short-term growth perspective.

On the other hand, the relationship TEA index and per capita GDP follow a U line, when the quantity of entrepreneurship go down when the GDP increase. Global Entrepreneurship Monitor emphasised the quantity of entrepreneurship and announced that a country is low-income when the number of self-employed is high, whereas, in wealthier countries, people will work in companies/ organisations. TEA index reflected the prevalence of adults (18-64 years old) that was set up a new business or the owner/ managers of a young firm and the model of Global Entrepreneurship Monitor represented the role of entrepreneurship in national economic growth and adaption (Reynolds et al., 2005). Stel et al. (2005) pointed out that TEA index has a negative effect impact of entrepreneurship on GDP growth for the developing countries while it has a positive effect on the relatively wealthy nations. TEA index does not include qualitative measure; its result fail to capture the intrinsic quality differences between entrepreneurship in countries at the very different level of development; therefore, the conclusion is illogical when two countries at the opposite ends of the development spectrum have the same TEA score (Szerb et al., 2013). TEA is useful in explaining short-term economic growth but can decrease the quality of an entrepreneur.

The relationship between GEI values and development, as measured by GDP per capita is shown in the figures below:

Figure 1: The relative position of Korea at the GEI Index and three sub-index level





Although Korea is a high-income country, Korea's overall GEI score at 49.4 and it slightly below the development implied trend-line shown in the Figure below. It shows that Korea's overall entrepreneurship is somewhat lower than would be expected given its level of GDP. It proved that developed economic does not enough to facilitate entrepreneurship. In case of Korea, the domination of Chaebol at all areas and the economic structure since the reform in the 1960s may be the barriers to entrepreneurship development.

Entrepreneurial aspiration sub-index scores at 58.7, slightly higher than the trend-line. On the other hand, other two sub-indexes as Entrepreneurial Abilities and Entrepreneurial Attitude) score below the trend-line, placed at 44.5 and 45.2, respectively. It shows that Korean have ideas of start-up, aims at setting up a billion-dollar company, but do not have enough skills and sufficient knowledge to handle the business. People still doubt about entrepreneurship and its effectiveness. The not so positive attitude toward entrepreneurship leads to not so high start-up rates. The low numbers of people recognise business opportunity affect the supportive environment for entrepreneurship growing.

Table 1: The Global Entrepreneurship Index overall rank of the countries

Rank	Country	GDP per capita	GEI	Rank	Country	GDP per capita	GEI	Rank	Country	GDP per capita	GEI
1	United States	50756	80.9	32	Turkey	17634	43.8	63	Trinidad & Tobago	29155	24.5
2	Sweden	43927	77.2	33	Czech Republic	28075	43.5	64	Philippines	6796	23.9
3	Canada	41846	76.5	34	Bolivia	5934	21.6	65	Argentina	17636	23.7
4	Switzerland	54387	76.3	35	Slovakia	25659	42.3	66	El Salvador	7515	23.5
5	Denmark	42428	76.2	36	Latvia	20080	41.2	67	Belize	8215	23.1
6	Australia	42103	74.5	37	Hungary	22624	40.6	68	Ghana	3668	23.0
7	United Kingdom	36806	70.5	38	Tunisia	10232	38.9	69	Egypt	9807	22.7
8	Netherlands	45733	69.7	39	Colombia	11621	38.7	70	Bulgaria	16022	22.7
9	Ireland	44234	68.6	40	Uruguay	18123	36.6	71	Algeria	12626	22.5
10	Finland	39318	67.6	41	Italy	34605	36.5	72	Vietnam	5043	22.2
11	France	37112	65.8	42	Malaysia	21930	36.5	73	Nigeria	5207	22.1
12	Belgium	40913	64.8	43	Greece	26097	35.7	74	Indonesia	9278	21.2
13	Germany	42868	63.9	44	China	10822	35.1	75	Brazil	14416	21.0
14	Austria	44308	63.5	45	Romania	17731	34.6	76	Iran	15812	20.9
15	Taiwan	38122	63.1	46	Botswana	14779	34.2	77	Jamaica	8499	20.6
16	Norway	62907	60.1	47	Barbados	15247	33.7	78	Zambia	3678	20.6
17	Chile	20687	59.1	48	South Africa	11967	33.5	79	Ecuador	10333	20.6
18	Israel	30617	59.0	49	Croatia	20033	32.2	80	Bosnia and Herzegc	9232	20.0
19	Luxembourg	79718	58.7	50	Costa Rica	13431	31.1	81	Senegal	2198	19.7
20	Qatar	127562	57.6	51	Kazakhstan	21089	30.1	82	Guatemala	6953	17.9
21	Estonia	24852	55.2	52	Namibia	8995	29.8	83	Suriname	15556	17.8
22	Singapore	74314	52.2	53	Lebanon	16777	29.6	84	Ethiopia	1,427	17.8
23	Slovenia	28180	51.8	54	Macedonia	11519	28.9	85	Libya	23032	17.2
24	United Arab Emir	57380	49.7	55	Peru	10719	28.5	86	Malawi	740	16.5
25	Korea	31890	49.4	56	Thailand	13495	28.1	87	Pakistan	4261	16.0
26	Japan	34872	49.2	57	Panama	16836	27.4	88	Cameroon	2810	14.7
27	Portugal	26171	46.0	58	Mexico	15958	27.0	89	Uganda	1345	13.8
28	Spain	32132	45.7	59	India	5220	25.9	90	Angola	7271	13.8
29	Poland	22390	45.1	60	Morocco	6958	25.7	91	Venezuela	16537	13.0
30	Lithuania	22713	44.2	61	Russia	22795	24.8	92	Burkina Faso	1530	11.9
31	Puerto Rico	31426	44.0	62	Georgia	6946	24.6	93	Bangladesh	2459	11.6

Table 1 shows the ranking of the Global Entrepreneurship Index in the period 2011-2015. No high-income country scores too low whereas no low-income country scores on the top. Korea ranked at 25th place, out of 93 countries. Compared to Asia Tiger Economies (Taiwan and Singapore), Korea's score is lowest while comparing to other 10 countries within G-20 nations, excluded EU and G8 (Australia, China, South Africa, Mexico, India, Turkey, Russia, Argentina, Indonesia and Brazil), Korea's score is 2nd highest, only behind Australia. Within Asia context, Korea's rating is among top group, just behind Taiwan, Singapore, and 3 Middle-East countries: Israel, Qatar, Singapore, and UAE. Even though Indonesia and Brazil are major economies and is a member of G-20, their GEI's scores are at the bottom of the ranking table. Korea's rating is even higher than other two members of G8 – Japan and Italy. On the other hand, no country mention above which has GEI score lower than Korea has higher GDP per capita than Korea. Indonesia, Brazil and Argentina are major economies in the world, but GDP per capita of these countries is middle-income level, while their GEI score is among the bottom of the league. It shows that entrepreneurship is one factor which fosters the economic development, the wealth of people in a nation. As in Korea case, "chaebol" not entrepreneurship make this country rise from the bottom, but entrepreneurship foster the economic and GDP per capita growth.

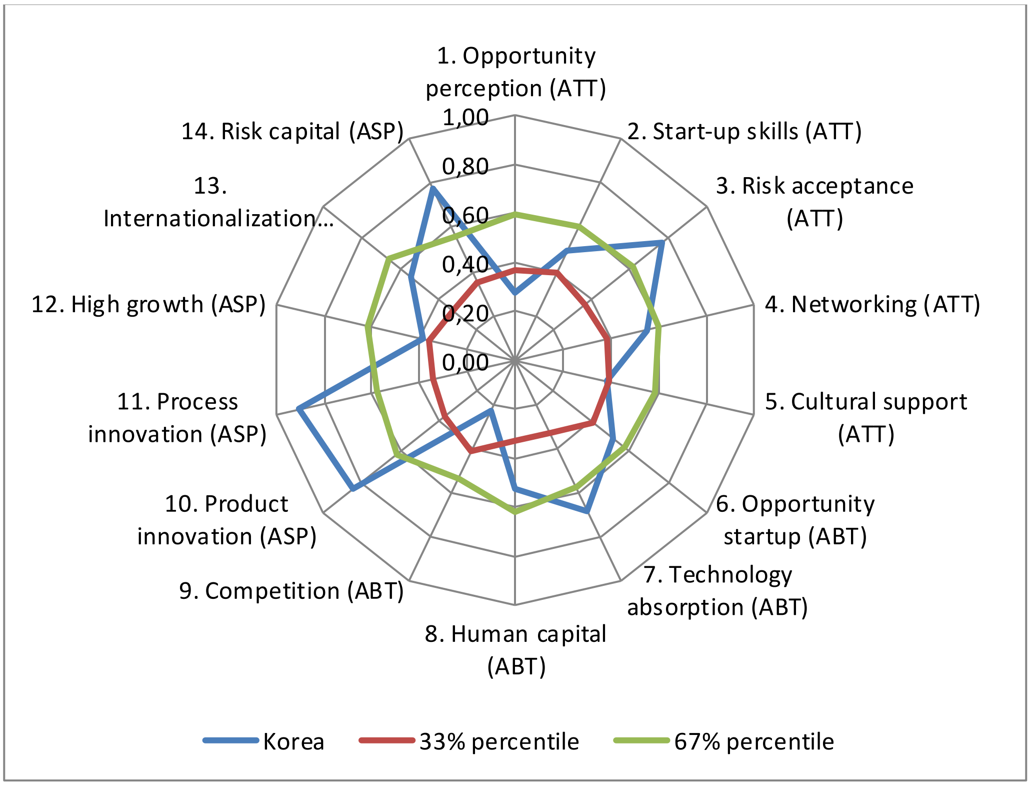
Korea's entrepreneurial performance at the pillar and variable levels

This part analyses more deeply of the entrepreneurial performance of Korea through the detailed analysis of GEI's 14 pillars. Each pillar is divided into institutional and individual variables to identify the strength and weakness of the entrepreneurship of Korea.

Table 2: Components of Entrepreneurial Sub-indexes of Korea

Components of Entrepreneurial Attitudes Sub-index (normalized scores)					
	Opportunity perception	Start-up skills	Risk acceptance	Networking	Cultural support
Korea	0.27	0.49	0.77	0.56	0.38
33% percentile	0.32	0.31	0.27	0.36	0.29
67% percentile	0.54	0.58	0.63	0.53	0.57
Components of Entrepreneurial Abilities Sub-index (normalized scores)					
	Opportunity startup	Technology absorption	Human capital	Competition	
Korea	0.51	0.68	0.52	0.23	
33% percentile	0.29	0.30	0.33	0.31	
67% percentile	0.59	0.60	0.54	0.56	
Components of Entrepreneurial Aspirations Sub-index (normalized scores)					
	Product innovation	Process innovation	High growth	Internationalization	Risk capital
Korea	0.85	0.91	0.39	0.54	0.78
33% percentile	0.31	0.29	0.27	0.34	0.28
67% percentile	0.56	0.60	0.61	0.57	0.60

Figure 2: The relative position of Korea at the pillar level



The spider chart represents the relative position of Korea at pillar level. Korea's score is the blue line. It is compared to the top third (67% percentile) – red line and bottom third (33% percentile) – green line out of 137 countries.

Korea scores in the top third for five pillars: Process innovation (0.91), Product innovation (0.85), Technology absorption (0.68), Risk acceptance (0.77) and Risk capital (0.78). During the first phase of economic transition, Korea government chose the imitation Japanese business strategy (Kim, 1997). Korean imitated Japanese products at lower price. Then, through innovation and R&D, Korean technology has surpassed Japanese technology in many areas, for instance, Samsung surpassed Sony in the mobile industry, Hyundai takes over Suzuki position in the automobile industry. Innovation, R&D became the critical point in the development process of Korea. Hence, it is no surprise when Process innovation, Product innovation and Technology absorption pillars of Korea in the top third of the world. Fear of failure is one of the most substantial barriers to start a new business. Because the capital risk score is high, it seems like an entrepreneur who decides to start a new business after considering all risks, do not believe that fear of failure will prevent them from start-up.

On the other hand, Korea scores in the lowest third for two pillars: Competition (0.23) and Opportunity perception (0.27). The competition measures the market uniqueness and market power of the existing business group and measures the effectiveness of anti-monopoly regulation. The domination of Chaebol at all business makes it difficult for new market entry. The law and the state of property right have burdened the entrepreneurial opportunity of Korea. In fact, since the 1960s, Korea government favour Chaebol and issues many policies to support its development, lead to the perception of Korean that all regulations favour significant company while neglecting young and small business. For two decades, Chaebol monopolised bank loans, harmed the development of SMEs, engaged in unfair trade practices, discriminated against corporations outside their group and opposed with the movement toward a more market-oriented economy (Harvie & Lee, 2003). Only until 1979, Korean government issued policies to support small and medium enterprises such as Monopoly Regulation and Fair Trade Act, however, despite various support schemes, the number of SMEs that went bankrupt increased steadily over the years (Harvie & Lee, 2003; Kim, 1997). Because of the fierce competition history from the past, the opportunity perception of Korean is low, when it hard for them to recognise the entrepreneurial opportunity.

For the remaining six pillars, Korea scores in the middle third out of all analysed countries. All pillars of the Entrepreneurial Aspirations Sub-index are quite strong which places at normal and top third levels.

<u>The specific variables contribute to Korea GEI score</u>

28 variables can be divided from the 14 pillar under GEI's three entrepreneurial sub-indexes since each pillar can divide to an institutional and an individual variable. It could give a more detailed analysis of Korea's entrepreneurial performance.

	PILLARS		INSTITUTIONAL VARIABLES		INDIVIDUAL VARIABLES	
Entrepreneurial Attitudes	Opportunity Perception	0.27	Freedom and Property	0.82	Opportunity Recognition	0.22
	Start-up skills	0.49	Education	0.93	Skill Perception	0.30
	Risk Acceptance	0.77	Business Risk	1.00	Risk Perception	0.53
	Networking	0.56	Connectivity	0.85	Know Entrepreneurs	0.47
	Cultural Support	0.38	Corruption	0.62	Career Status	0.42
	Entrepreneurial Attitudes	45.2				
Entrepreneurial Abilities	Opportunity Startup	0.51	Tax and government	0.73	Opportunity Motivation	0.44
	Technology Absorption	0.68	Tech Absorption	0.85	Technology Level	0.77
	Human Capital	0.52	Labor Market	0.48	Educational Level	0.87
	Competition	0.23	Competitiveness and Regulation	0.47	Competitors	0.33
	Entrepreneurial Abilities	44.5				
Entrepreneurial Aspirations	Product Innovation	0.85	Technology Transfer	0.83	New Product	0.74
	Process Innovation	0.91	Science	1.00	New Tech	0.46
	High Growth	0.39	Finance and strategy	0.49	Gazelle	0.62
	Internationalization	0.54	Economic complexity	0.95	Export	0.60
	Risk Capital	0.78	Depth of Capital Market	0.80	Informal Investment	0.83
	Entrepreneurial Aspirations	58.7				
	GEI	**49.4**	**Institutional**	**0.77**	**Individual**	**0.54**

Table 3: The relative position of Korea at the variable level

Table 3 represents 28 variable score value for Korea in 2015. The colour represents the position of Korea out of 137 countries. A navy colour cell indicates that Korea belongs to the top 25% of nations; a light blue colour cell shows that Korea belongs to the upper-middle of countries; a yellow cell indicates that Korea belongs to the lower-middle of countries while a red colour indicates that Korea belongs to the bottom 25% of countries.

A final row indicates the overall level of institutional variables (0.77) places Korea in the upper-middle of GEI countries. It points out that Korea has a quite developed institutional environment for productive entrepreneurial development. No variables among 14 institutional variables score at the bottom 25 and seven variables: Education (0.93), Business Risk (1.00), Connectivity (0.85), Tech Absorption (0.85), Technology transfer (0.83), Science (1.00) and Economic complexity (0.95) belongs to the top 25% of countries.

In contrast to institutional variables, the overall scores for Korea's variable are at the bottom 25% of countries. A vast difference appears when Informal Investment (0.83), New Product (0.74) and Educational Level (0.87) is the top level, Technology (0.77) is upper-middle, Gazelle (0.62), Export (0.6) and Risk Perception (0.53) is the lower-middle level and others seven variables is on the bottom level.

The balanced happens between institutional and individual variable for a particular pillar is rare. Only Product Innovation (Technology Transfer–New Product) and High growth (Finance and Strategy-Gazelle) have both institutional and individual variable at the same level. It is no surprise when Technology Transfer (0.83) and New Product (0.74) variable belong to navy cell since R&D is the top priority of country, the ability to generate a new product or imitate existing products have been proved through the development of Korea over the years. High growth pillar belongs to yellow colour when Finance and Strategy score at 0.49 and Gazelle score at 0.62. It shows the business strategy sophistication, the ability of a company to follow the distinctive strategy of Korean entrepreneurship is not high. Their expectation and plan to grow their business, expand its size more than 50% in five years are not secure.

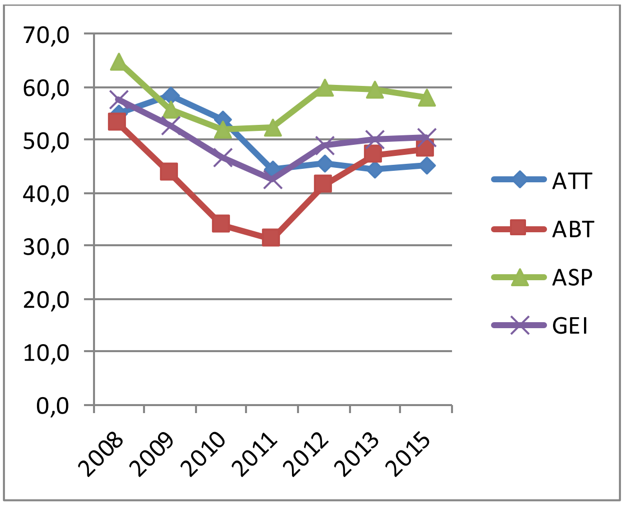
A big contrast happens between the institutional and individual variable of Startup Skill (Education-Skill perception), Networking (Connectivity-Know entrepreneur) and Process Innovation (Science-New tech) when institutional variables are navy while individual variables are red. Education in Korea is one of the most developed in Asia when 56 Korean universities are listed in QS ranking of the 350 top universities in Asia (QS University Rankings: Asia, 2016). It is well-known that the university entrance exam of Korea is one of the toughest in the world. Korea students regularly rank among the best performers in the OECD's PISA Test (OECD, 2015). Although Korean obtain developed education and formal training, Korean shows their inferiority when most of the people think that they do not have adequate start-up skills. Networking shows the abilities to connect and an entrepreneur's knowledge. The population of people know entrepreneur (who begins their business within two years ago) is in in the bottom of the score although their ability to connect is high. It seems like Korean focus on identifying new opportunity connection in the big organisation instead access new company and new opportunity. Process Innovation shows the ability to create new technology. Science variable reached the top at 1.00 proves that the research and development is the primary focus of Korea. Korean chaebol, as well as Korean universities, spend many resources to develop and implement new technology. The quality of science activities and the skills of scientist are proficient. Korea is the world's second most R&D-intensive country, only after Israel which invests 4.15% of GDP in R&D (OECD, 2015). However, most entrepreneurial business in Korea do not create new technology; they tend to follow the latest technology come from big companies, probably because of the lack of resource in creating new technology, lead to the low score in New Tech variable.

The worst pillar - Opportunity Perception (0.27) is fuelled by the lowest score of the individual variable: Opportunity Recognition (0.22) even though the institutional variable Freedom and Property is 0.82. Freedom and Property score much higher than expected proved that even though Korean does not recognise the chance for their own business and think that the regulations favour the big company, the policies influence the start-up positively and efficiency.

<u>Korea' GEI performance changed from 2008-2015</u>

Korea's GEI performance has a fluctuation score from 2006-2015. The red line represents the Entrepreneurial Abilities sub-index. Entrepreneurial aspiration is the green line, and Entrepreneurial Attitude is the blue line. The purple line is the overall GEI score.

Figure 3: Korea' GEI performance changed from 2008-2015

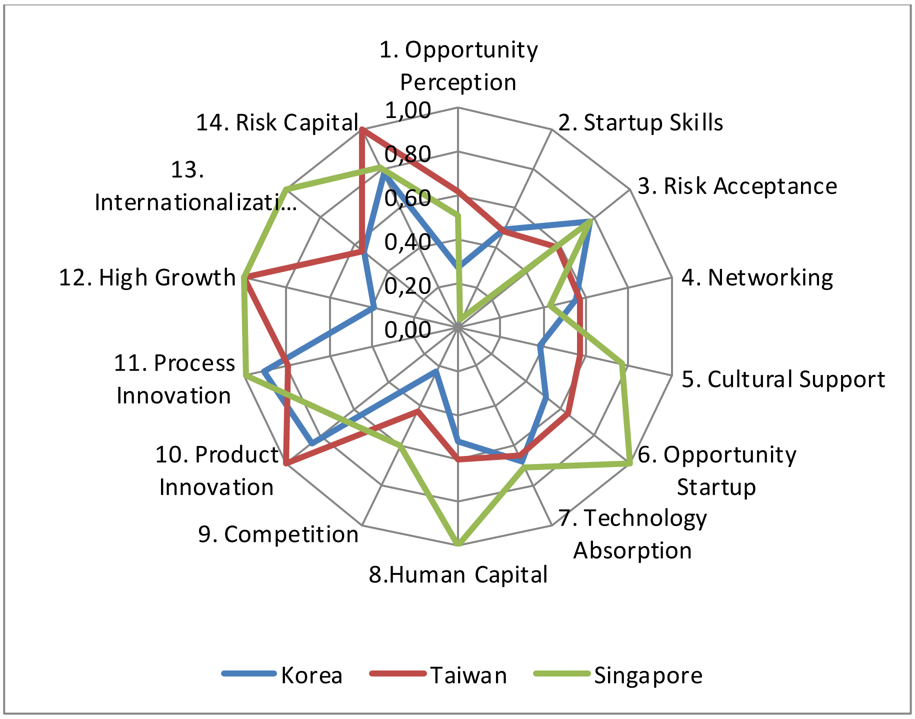


Korea received a shocked when were hit by the global financial crisis in 2008. The won-dollar exchange rate was depreciated 38.9% during three months from August 2008 to November 2008, KOSPI index in stock market recorded the lowest while the GDP growth rate recorded lowest for the first time since the IMF economic crisis in 1998 (Kim, 2004). It seems to affect to entrepreneurial activities of Korea deeply and for a long period. From GEI's score at 57.7 in 2008, it dropped to 42.7 in 2011 then go up slowly. At the sub-index level, all three sub-index suffered from declining. Entrepreneurial Abilities sub-index suffered a large decreasing, from 53.3 in 2008 to 31.3 in 2011 then rose dramatically to 48.2 in 2015. On the other hand, despite the crisis, Entrepreneurial Attitude score still rose slightly to 58.3 in 2009. However, it declined sharply since 2009 has not improved significantly again since then. It reflects the feeling of Korean toward entrepreneurs and entrepreneurship since Global Financial Crisis is not positive. Entrepreneurial aspiration score fluctuated since 2008. Except 2009-2010, Entrepreneurial aspiration is always higher than another index. In brief, Korean has new ideas and think out of the box but do not have enough skill and positive attitude to create own business. Especially after Global Financial Crisis, the entrepreneurship scenario went worse and just regained recently.

A comparison of Entrepreneurial activity's pillars for Korea and Taiwan and Singapore

In this part, I want to compare Korea entrepreneurial performance at the pillar level with Taiwan and Singapore. These countries are often called Asian Tigers since the 1980s. They created a miracle in their economy with the shallow economy base. From those poorest countries in the world, now they became the most developed countries in Asia and the GDP per capita are among the top of the world. Korea's score is a blue line; Taiwan's score is red line while Singapore's score is green line.

Figure 4: The relative position of Korea, Taiwan and Singapore at the pillar level



Singapore has the most pillars reach the top (1.00): Opportunity startup, Human capital, High growth, Internationalization. Process Innovation pillar of Singapore is 0.99, also highest compared to other countries. Ironically, the Start-up skill pillar of Singapore is extremely low, at 0.03. Korea and Taiwan achieve the similar score for Start-up skill pillar (0.49 for Korea and 0.48 for Taiwan). The opportunity can explain it for Start-up in Korea, and Taiwan is at an average level (0.51 for Korea and 0.64 for Taiwan). Hence the skill requirement for a start-up is more critical whereas start-up in Singapore is much more comfortable, anyone can start-up without adequate skills and market research. Taiwan has three pillars reach the top: Product innovation, Risk capital and high growth and does, not any pillar reach bottom level. Competition pillar is the lowest pillar of Taiwan (0.42).

Korea does not have any pillar at the top while Competitive Perception (0.27) and Competition (0.23) was quite low. The Competition pillar of Korea is far below others countries because of the dominance of few business groups (*chaebol*) which monopoly the economy (such as Lotte, Hyundai, LG, Samsung) (Kwon & O'Donnell, 2003). The chaebol's business strategy involves business activities from raw material to final product, to take full advantage of their large internal market (Kwon & O'Donnell, 2003). Hence, the chaebol dominates in almost every field that can even overshadow the numerous small business companies (Krueger & Yoo, 2002). Therefore, Opportunity for start-up and Opportunity perception in Korea scores lowest, compared to Taiwan and Singapore. It is also the reason for the low point of High growth pillar of Korea (0.39) when Taiwan and Singapore score the maximum point.

All three countries adopted export-led growth strategies since the 1960s. Process Innovation and Process innovation pillar score high in all three countries. It proved that innovation is the critical factor behind the fast growth of these economies. Human capital pillar reaches the top for Singapore but at an average level for Taiwan and Korea. It shows the most critical factor contribute to the economic growth of Singapore. Compared to Korea and Taiwan, Singapore does not have any natural resource, except human resource. Internationalization pillar of both Taiwan and Korea is at an average level (0.54 and 0.55, respectively) while Singapore scores a maximum point. Since Singapore is a global country with a diversity of languages, religions, and cultures, it is one of the most open economies in the world. It also explained the score Culture support pillar of Singapore (0.77) is higher than Korea (0.38) and Taiwan (0.57). Both Taiwan and Singapore have many migrants due to the war in the past; however, a migrant of Taiwan mostly came from China while Singapore is the land of people who originated from China, India, Malaysia, Indonesia and many others countries in the world. Korean mainly has root in Korea which explained the culture support of Korea is low. Furthermore, that chaebol with their family create the new Korean elite, which can affect not only on the economy side but also political party (Krueger & Yoo, 2002)

In general, Korea receives the lower score in most pillars, compared to Singapore and Taiwan. Due to the monopoly of the chaebol, entrepreneurship in Korea are more competitive. The small business in Korea needs to innovate continuously to distinct from the market field that chaebol dominates.

Entrepreneurship policy recommend for Korea

Since entrepreneurship increases employment opportunities, enhances technical innovation level and promotes economic growth, it plays a critical role in the process of national and regional economic development (Liñán & Fernandez-Serrano, 2014). OECD (2015) shows that Korea's complex policy and regulatory is among the most stringent in the OECD, which could burden the start-up and SMEs. Hence, the system should be developed and implement to enhance the entrepreneurship activities. This table indicates the policy priorities areas for

Korea by ranking pillar and how the new effort to divided into percentages to reach 0.1 increase in GEI.

Table 4: Policy priorities for Korea's fourteen GEI pillars and suggest of effort

	Required Increase in Pillar	Percentage of total new effort
Opportunity Perception	0.22	31%
Start-up Skills	0.00	0%
Risk Acceptance	0.00	0%
Networking	0.00	0%
Cultural Support	0.11	15%
Opportunity Startup	0.00	0%
Technology Absorption	0.00	0%
Human Capital	0.00	0%
Competition	0.27	38%
Product Innovation	0.00	0%
Process Innovation	0.00	0%
High Growth	0.11	15%
Internationalisation	0.00	0%
Risk Capital	0.00	0%

Korea has progressively built up its science, technology and innovation capabilities as well as invests in R&D and business innovation in recent decades. In 2014, Korea launched "Three-year plan for Economic Innovation" to unlock the full productive potential of Korea's science, technology, innovation and cultural ecosystems and to develop "creative economy". Strengthening SMEs and promoting entrepreneurship are core strategies to accomplish these goals. Korea government aimed to build SME's innovative capacity through increased the share of its investment in R&D going to SMEs (from 12.4% in 2011 to 18% in 2017), devote 15% budget of Government Research Institute to support SMEs by 2017 (increased from 7% in 2012) and strengthen technological assistance for SMEs (OECD, 2015). In 2015, KRW 300 billion Youth Development Fund (equivalent to USD 265 million) was set up to support innovative youth activities and subsidies to many entrepreneur projects (OECD, 2015). The policy has created a wholly healthy entrepreneur ecosystem. GEI index also indicates that a wide range of the policy for pillars such as Product Innovation, Process Innovation, Technology absorption, Human capital, Start-up skills and five other pillars do not require increasing.

In Korea case, Competition is considered the top priority because of its Chaebol's favourable policy. Entrepreneurship and entrepreneurship education does not have a long history in Korea. Korean government show supported venture creation by issued a particular law name the Special Law for Venture Companies (Lee et al., 2006). In recent year, the government show support for SME finance through traditional debt such as direct lending and credit guarantees which are often not suitable for young companies (Jones & Kim, 2014). Korea's sizeable R&D tax credit is not well tailored to the need of young and innovative companies. Small and young business is typically losing money in the early phase of their R&D project because of the lack of carry-over provisions, or cash refunds inhibits the uptake of this credit (OECS, 2015). GEI index shows the same ideas when it suggests that 38% and 15% of all new effort should be focused on improving Competition and High growth pillar value, respectively. It will lower the barrier to entrepreneurship.

On the other hand, the perception of the society regarding entrepreneurship should be changed. GEI suggest that 31% and 15% of all new effort should be focused on improving Opportunity Perception and Cultural support. The labour force participation rate of those aged 15-29 in Korea is at 44%, much lower than the average of OECD countries while the youth unemployment rate is 10.9% in 2015 (OECD, 2015). Many of unemployed hold the university degree, reflect the mismatched between formal education and working skills. Hence, the policy should be implemented to encourage the self-employed of youth and remove the negative perception of Korean regarding entrepreneur. The "Restart Support Fund" is expanded to USD 96 million in 2017 which is exclusively reserved for failed entrepreneurs who want to launch a new company (Jones & Kim, 2014). It shows the effort of government to encourage entrepreneur and removes the perception that people who failed once cannot have a second chance. It will promote entrepreneur to launch risky projects.

Conclusion

Entrepreneurship plays a different role at different stages of development; some business has a more significant impact on the market than others. Entrepreneurship is a multidimensional phenomenon which is difficult to define its complex nature. Even Global Entrepreneurship Monitor collect cannot describe it. Through analysing GEI index, Global Entrepreneurship and Development Institute outlined that "entrepreneurship is the dynamic, institutionally embedded interaction between entrepreneurial attitudes, entrepreneurial abilities, and entrepreneurial aspirations by individuals, which drives the allocation of resources through the creation and operation of new ventures" (Acs et al., 2017). Economic structure, GDP per capita and cultural qualities are essential factors of a healthy entrepreneurship ecosystem.

Korea has become a model of policy and economic reform that inspired the economic strategy of many countries. Korea is an innovation-driven nation with a high-quality education. However, the percentage of Korean recognise the excellent opportunity to start a business is so low. Korea's overall entrepreneurship is somewhat lower than would be expected given its level of GDP. The safe career choice of Korean is to work under significant organisation and involve in those company's projects. Even though the government spent many efforts to create a healthy entrepreneurship ecosystem, remove favourable policy toward chaebol, the perception of Korean has not changed much, especially after Global Financial Crisis. Therefore, GEI index suggests that the administration should be change and required any efforts to promote Competition and Opportunity Perception pillar.

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Brief biography

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Quynh Anh Le is a third-year Ph.D. student in Business Administration, interested in management, strategy, higher education management and international business. Her research focuses particularly on internationalisation of higher education. Before commencing her graduate studies at University of Pecs, Quynh Anh Le worked at Ministry of Education in Vietnam. She earned a master's degree in Project Management at University of Nantes (France) and and a bachelor's degree in Business Administration at Southern Cross University (Australia).

Lessons learned from projects in the public sector in Hungary

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Introduction

Projects in the public sector have several specialties with characteristics different from the ones in the business sector. After the transition in the CEE countries the structure of the public sector changed fundamentally. The improvement of local governments, the widening autonomy of public institutions changed the practice of planning, preparing, decision making and control of implementation of public projects: tasks and capability of preparation, decision making as well as control of implementation are decentralized. There are plenty of features originating from these factors, some of them are the timing problems of projects, which in several cases derive from the bureaucratic mechanisms, the insufficient control of project implementation; the problems of procurement and supplier selection, which often brings the suspicion of the corruption on; and the problem of keeping the budget of the project, which is connected to the tendering mechanism or the budget planning issues. Based on the evaluation of experiences and systematization of some Hungarian projects within public sector institutions, the aim of the paper is to draw the most important lessons learned around the specialties of the project management in the public sector. The analyzed cases are in connection with the PPP, some institutional as well as governmental infrastructural projects. The research evaluates the conflicts between theory and practice in Hungary by qualitative methods.

Keywords: timing, planning, control, burocreaucy, inefficiency

Literature review and conceptualization,

The role of public sector in the developed countries increased significantly in the 20th century compared to the previous centuries. The state ensured the moderation of social-economic differences by providing public goods (e.g. public education, health service system, infrastructure, etc.) to its citizens and by redistributing part of the national revenues. The role of public sector in providing public goods depends on many economic and social factors. [Kaul – Mendoza 2003]

In order to meet the social requirements for public goods, the governments are looking for those solutions which do not increase the degree of income centralization but still enable to rise the level of content regarding social needs.[Closing… 2006]

The state among its tasks should meet several requirements of the society. These types of tasks can be allocated to the level of central (government) and local bodies (municipalities, institutions of the public sphere). It is a general phenomenon both in the developed and developing countries that the infrastructural state of some areas managed by the public sector has been deteriorating due to the narrowing sources in this field. As regards the social network models operated in some countries, in general it can be concluded that the emerging new social needs cannot be fulfilled to the desirable extent. In order to solve the problems a number of alternatives have been developed during the last decades in different countries, out of them the most widespread was the involvement of capital from the private sector to provide public services. The main fields of implementation are as follows [on the basis of Karakas et al. 2004; Köteles 2005; Báger 2006]:

– road transport infrastructure development (roads, tunnels, bridges),
– railway investment (long-distance, city and suburban lines),
– public utility and environmental developments (sewage cleaning, drainage, waste management),
– government estate developments (ministry and other administrative buildings),
– health care institutions (hospitals, medical centers),
– educational, cultural and social projects (new school buildings, new dormitories, dormitory reconstruction, museums, conference centres, rental apartments),
– law enforcement institutions (prisons, correctional institutions),
– home defence projects (training and logistics centers, airports),
– sports facilities (stadiums, sport centers, gyms, training pools),
– research development and innovation.

The above list is complemented with an objective which obviously gets more and more attention:

– information technology developments in order to enhance the operation of organizations and to provide more up-to-date support for their activities.

Due to some obvious reasons, the public sector does not have the full range of required sources for realizing the projects, therefore these projects are implemented in the frames of labour and risk share between public and private sector. The management of projects, however, has quite a few special features which are partly different from the projects of the private sector, partly should not be considered at all.

Project management in its current sense began in the 1950s according to the references. The first institutional arrangement was the establishment of Project Management Institute (USA) in the 1960s then the expansion of this attitude in the developed industrial countries (North-America, Sweden, France, the Netherlands, Germany). The foundation of the International Project Association in 1979 was a new quality level in the development. (Abbasi, Al-Mharmah 2000) It should be noted, however, that project management can be dated back much further because the world history mentions a lot of large projects (some, still existing huge projects for example: the Suez canal, Panama canal, Hoover dam, out of them there were some very successful stories, see later the experiences of constructing the Hoover dam (Kwak et al. 2003) and the infamously bad memories of Panama canal project).

The development of project management entailed the need of considering the peculiarities of public sphere which resulted the introduction of new public management (NPM). Some experts say that the reform trend based on the model of the new business management is the impetus behind the adaptation of public sphere and it is an intensive method of conceptualizing and communicating organizational changes. (Marsh 1999 in: Crawford et al. 2003) The NPM environment can be described by unpredictability (suddenness), while the approach of stakeholders is diverse and complex. Thus the strategic management requires new approaches regarding the concept. The successful and efficient implementation of projects demands skilled professionals who have access to a number of guides both for practical implementation and planning. Such are for example: Guide to the Project Management Body of Knowledge (USA); Association for Project Management Body of Knowledge (UK); IPMA's Competence Baseline (ICB), National Competency Standards for Project Management. (Crawford et al. 2003)

The implementation of projects seems to be very simple: designating the project target – preparing project documents – planning – scheduling – controlling implementation – feedback of experiences – and thus fulfilling and finishing the project. As part of the process, the decision-making related to the different phases does not contain any new information for the participants. At the same time, however, a very colourful picture can be drawn if the use of project management tools is thoroughly examined. The experiences collected by Abbasi and Al-Mharmah (2000) in Jordan are in accordance with the Hungarian experiences detailed below. 50 random selected small-scale enterprises were interviewed about the reasons of applying project management. The respondents considered the following as the most important ones: weak general performance, lack of organization, compliance with the long deadline. They expected the project management to change these in a favourable direction. According to the respondents the main obstacles to the efficient use of project management include the difficulties of cost planning and the lack of expertise regarding the activities. The advantages of using project management methodology were the knowledge of work process, more efficient working arrangements, better organization of labour, better utilization of time and precise definition of targets. It was an important conclusion, however, that the users prefer simpler tools (with less need of input data, giving results more quickly, easier to understand or more transparent) out of the wide range of project management tools. Thus, according to the above mentioned research, the respondents use Gantt diagram the most due to its simplicity. Another interesting conclusion that the use of project management methods of own (internal) development were preferred. ((White, Fortune 2002)

As regards decision-making techniques, the cost-benefit analysis is applied widely, while among risk-management techniques the probability analysis and the life-cycle cost analysis can be highlighted. The use of other tools is insignificant. (White, Fortune 2002)

The use and expansion of project management tools is hampered because it is regarded inappropriate for more complex projects, the modeling of real world, as well as the excessive need for documentation and timeframe is considered difficult. (White, Fortune 2002)

White and Fortune (2002) cited above interviewed 995 project managers of 620 public and private sector organizations during a questionnaire survey performed in the United Kingdom. About one-third of the implemented projects belong to the IT sector. The maturity of almost half of the projects is maximum one year and it is not longer than two years in case of further one-third of projects. 85% of projects were considered successful or completely successful, while almost 10% of the projects were regarded as failures or less successful. They concluded that the main criteria of project success are: compliance with the requirements of the client (customer), implementation according to the scheduling and budget.

The main critical factors of project output (final outcome) are: clear targets, proper definition of coverage, efficient change management, reasonable scheduling, support from the senior managers, availability of appropriate material sources (financial coverage), commitment of end-user, clear communication channels, efficient leadership and conflict management, efficient monitoring and feedback, evaluation of past experiences, recognition of complexity, evaluation of external impacts, efficient team building and motivation, efficient risk management. (White, Fortune 2002)

The factors of success are also determined by the spatial (macro and micro environment) and temporal location of projects. By evaluating the lessons of the above mentioned Hoover dam megaproject (Kwak et al. 2013), it should also be considered that the project which was successfully implemented in the 1930s, would not be similarly successful in our days because –among other things – the relation between the government and the business sector, the technological possibilities, the legal environment including labour safety and environmental regulations have all changed. It cannot be disregarded either that those solutions and technologies that were used in the construction of the dam have been prohibited long ago.

The success of the project can also be due to the following factors: the target (mission) of the project, the scope and the challenges were clear for all the participants and it helped to cope with the problems occuring during the implementation; there was close relation among the participants of the project both at lower and managerial levels; efficient use of change management; clear chain of command was set up; appropriate financial sources were available and the legal conditions and regulation were ensured. (Kwak et al. 2013) It is clear that the internal and external relation management concerning the persons and stakeholders has an important role in the success of the projects. (Zou et al.2013)

Megaprojects similar to the construction of Hoover dam exist in our days, too, and among them the number of projects initiated and implemented by the public sector also increases. Such is for example the infrastructure development projects in the Amsterdam Metropolitan Region. (Van Buuren et al. 2010) which are implemented in an integrated way. The aim of integrated implementation is the integration of competent offices and state administration levels, increasing the cohesion among projects and acceleration of their implementation by joint decision-making. The success of integrated programs, however, requires a common vision and it should be considered that the differently prioritized project elements during the implementation can endanger the success of the whole program. The proper cooperation between program management and project management, the clear determination of competencies, the limitation of expanding beyond competencies, and avoiding redundancies are inevitable for the successful accomplishment of the project elements as well as the whole program.

The evaluation of the project success and achievement of targets (the degree of achievement) is closely related to the compliance with the deadline and budget plan as well as the allocation of sources and inputs. As regards the projects initiated by the Hungarian public sector, the modification of deadlines, exceeding the budget is a frequent problem, as well as risk sharing which is often inadvantageous for the public sector. It should also be noted, however, that these are not typical Hungarian specialities, although the reasons can be typified.

Dlakwa and Culpin (1990) examined the reasons of delaying the deadline and exceeding the budget frames in regards to construction projects of the public sector in Nigeria. Their conclusions made on the basis of replies to questionnaires given by 175 respondents can be generalized. The deadline problems of the projects were due mostly to: the delays of payments after partial fulfillment; the consequent financial problems of contractors; inappropriate budget of principal budget authorities; organizational deficiencies of contractor enterprises; planning and scheduling problems. Exceeding the planned budget could be explained by the changes of material, labour and production costs during the construction; delays of some construction works were often due to the inappropriate preliminary planning and deficiencies of preliminary cost estimations. One of the frequent key problems was the delayed payment to the contractor due mostly to the bureaucratic obstacles, lack of budget sources on behalf of principal public institution often caused by the delayed transfer of state (government) funds. (Dlakwa, Culpin 1990; Cäker, Siverbo 2011) Further consequence in many cases was that the project phases were not started in due time, while the deadline and coverage - often determined by legal regulations – remained unchanged. Thus the accelerated implementation within unrealistic frames increased the probability of risks and the potential for error because in many cases, the reduced timeframe could not be compensated by involving more human and other resources.

According to our experiences the public sector can be more and more characterized by the need of applying proper project management methodology due to the available short timeframe and, consequently, the shorter planning period. Therefore the implementation is performed in shorter phases – in contrary to the traditional waterfall model – the fulfillment of the current phase is going on parallel with the planning of the next phase. This approach is especially important in case of projects, the scope of which cannot be clearly and fully defined in advance, as well as in case of projects based on the changing needs of public sector. The changing needs are often due to political considerations affected by critics, press reaction and public opinion concerning the project.

Wrong scheduling is one of the planning deficiencies. There are a lot of operation research methods (including some widespread methods like network planning), as well as some simple and efficient harmonograms or Gantt diagrams which may help to estimate time needs. However, the determination of location (country, valid legal environment, bureaucracy) and time (different condition systems of implementation in different periods) should be highlighted here, too.

Bromilow has found a correlation between the expected duration of the project and the budget of the project (in Chan 2001) by using the following variables: project duration (*T*) (day), the constant (*K*) (day) of the duration of implementing a project of one cost unit (for example 1 M USD), project cost (*C*) (c.u.) and constant (*B*) (-) expressing the impact of project scope on project duration:

$$T = K \cdot C^{B}$$

According to his calculations, he got K=313 days for Australian projects carried out in 1972, while Ireland got K=219 days and B=0.47 in 1983 also in Australia. (in Chan 2001). It means that the duration of one cost unit was about one-third shorter, but the higher cost of project increased the duration. Chan (2001) in 1999 used the data of 51 Malaysian projects and got K=269 days, B=0.315 for the correlation (R^2=0.407, Sign: 0.001). The correlation can also be used to validate the estimation regarding duration.

It cannot be disregarded that bureaucracy occupies a prominent place among the reasons of delays in realizing different projects. Bureaucracy includes regulatory framework as well as the attitude and performance of those concerned in the implementation of the project. It was observed that the use of performance measuring systems increased the activity in the public sector (Speklé, Verbeeten 2013) which stimulated decision-making in due time, thus reduced the time spent on administrative phases of projects and contributed to the successful completion in due time.

It is an important question in regards to public sector projects, how the actors share risks in the different phases of project implementation, how they are made interested in the successful completion of projects. Public-private-partnership (PPP) models are very specific and should not be introduced because they are widely used all over the world. There are, however, a lot of risk-sharing problems during their practical implementation.

Besides the generally cited advantages of PPP projects, the negative factors include the often delayed talks, high participation costs, confusion of government objectives and critical evaluation, lack of expertise and skills on behalf of actors and high project costs. Among critical risk factors of PPP projects the following can be listed: inadequate state support, availability of financial sources, delays in implementation, inappropriate PPP expertise, instable government, lack of legal or regulatory frames, safety and security of location, exceeding implementation costs, organization and communication risks, strong political intervention, inflation, interest rates, corruption and bribe. (Hwang et al. 2013)

The risks to bear by public sector in risk sharing: lack of government stability, expropriation, lack of government support, changing taxation rules, inconsistent legal or regulatory framework, site security. The risks divided between public and private sector are: inflation, interest rate, vis major, corruption and bribery, risk of remaining assets, variability of scope (coverage), inappropriate (deficient) PPP expertise, inadequate sharing of competencies, inappropriate sharing of responsibilities, differences in working methods, lack of communication between two parties. Further risks of projects should be taken mostly by the private sector.

Extensive privatization wave, including the privatization of public services, ran through the Central-Eastern European countries in the years following the post-socialist transition. The former public tasks were shifted to market basis and the risks were shared between public and private sector. Conceptional planning remained the risk (and responsibility) of public sphere, transport – and the risks related to its volume - as well as the risks of protests and vis major have remained the joint (shared) risk of the two parties, while the following risks were shifted from the government to the private sector: design and construction risks, risk of hidden deficiencies, service provision, scheduling, risk of operation and maintenance (income and current costs), warranty, insurance and legal risks. These experiences are similar to the conclusions of privatization of public services carried out by the conservative government in the United Kingdom in the 1980s and early 1990s. (Haynes, Roden 1999)

The objective of the paper is to compare the references to the experiences of some Hungarian case studies by using the tools of qualitative analysis in order to explore the typical and atypical features of project management in case of projects implemented by the Hungarian public sector. Part of case studies include large-scale projects of the government (motorway network development, subway network development) while the other part consists of projects of higher education institutions (development of dormitory facilities and training capacities, etc.).

Material and methods

Secondary and primary research was carried out. Public sources (press release, data on government sites, documents) were used for the evaluation of government projects. The institutional projects were examined partly by further analysis of data from the reports of the State Audit Office, partly by processing (as primary research approach) the related investment documents of a Hungarian university and report documents about the control of the investment project. In connection with the M4 project the final report of European Anti-Fraud Office (OLAF) also was evaluated. The methods of analysis belong to the tools of qualitative research, such as document analysis and interviews with stakeholders in relation to the institutional projects. With the help of these we intended to make the conclusions in order to respond to the question in the title of the paper, namely what lessons can be learnt from the implementation of public sector projects. The authors of the paper deliberately avoid the use of high-level statistical methods, because the quantity and quality of available data and information would discredit the trials to apply these.

Results

In Hungary the public sector projects and their success are basically affected by the legal environment, and even more its deficiencies. During two decades following the post-socialist transition, there was a dual process going on in the legal system: on the one hand, legal regulations assisting market economy and legal background for free enterprising were created, on the other hand, the former regulations were unbuilt. As a result, deficiently regulated areas emerged and the new regulations often hampered the efficient implementation of projects initiated by the public sector. The local and nationwide civil organizations have also strengthened in the course of democratization of the society. These organizations often delayed or blocked the implementation of project initiatives.

The regulation problems and defects are often to blame for the failures of implementing the projects as scheduled. For example, the expropriation rules in case of transportation infrastructure developments have caused sometimes years of delay, or in case of PPP investments, the lack of legislation created an uncertain legal situation and increased the possibility and importance of manual control which encouraged lobbying to gain advantages. The strengthening of civil movements often resulted the failure of projects which already had obtained the necessary administrative authorization. It was even more frequent that projects were considerably delayed compared to the planned scheduling (made on the basis of time needs according to technical considerations) or the planned costs of projects increased. Part of delays and cost rise could, of course, be regarded justified (special feature of the system operation which all the actors should calculate with) therefore it could be attributed to the inadequate planning (which did not consider the conditions of the real economic-social environment). The other part could be due to the deficiencies of the legislation: including the delays enabled by the appeal procedures which were utilized in many cases, partial interests forced above the common (social) interest and – due to the unclear competencies - the unaccountability of the stakeholders in public sector which might ruin efficient project management.

Considering all the above the evaluation of public sector projects is started with a large-scale project. The construction of the fourth subway line in capital city Budapest serves as an example for the evaluation of assumptions connected with public sector projects, partly because of the volume of the project, partly due to the anomalies around project implementation.

It is obvious in connection with the issue that when the structure of large dynamic cities was created the transport networks – which give the backbone of these structures – were planned for much lower number of citizens and much less vehicles participating in road traffic. In order to ease the increasing traffic and the traffic jams which deteriorate the liveability of a city, it is a reasonable solution to direct part of public transport below ground surface in the large cities. We can see a lot of examples for this in the metropolises all over the world. Budapest was among the first ones in this idea, because the first underground train of the European continent (the second in Europe after London) was constructed here and it has been transporting passengers since 1896. The further development, however, has not been such dynamic and only two other lines were constructed, although plans have already been made for the implementation of the fourth and fifth line a few decades ago.

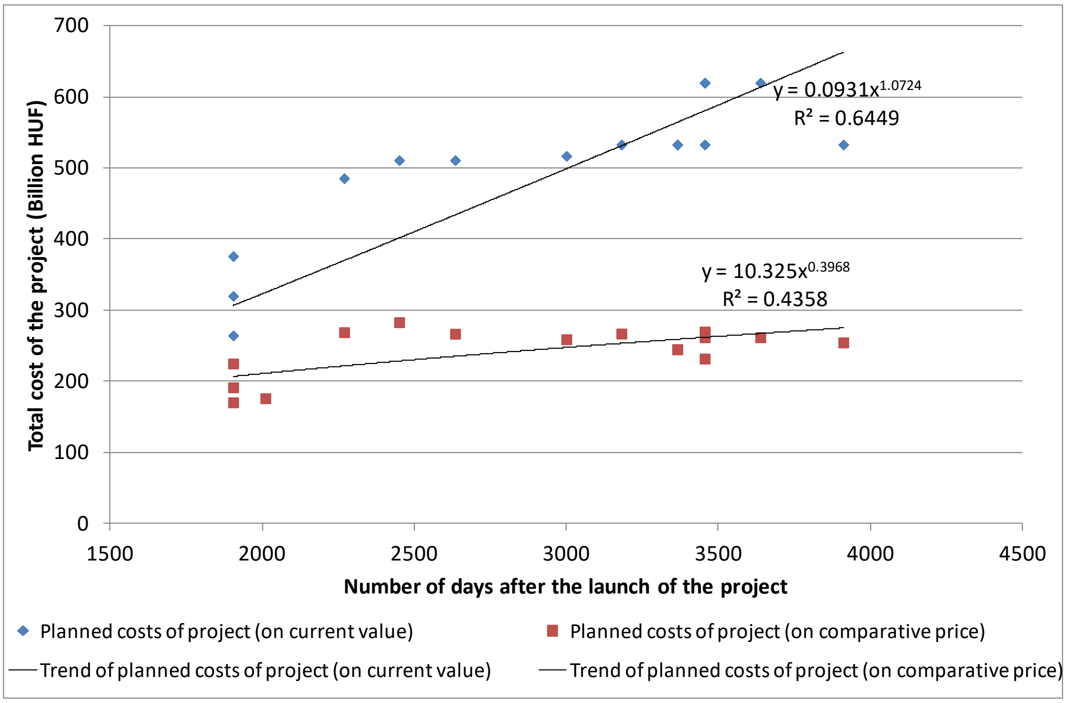
The track of the planned M4 subway – keeping the star structure which is typical in Budapest – would connect two densely populated suburbs (primarily the Northern and South-Western sides which formed in the 1970s and 1980s) into the downtown, ensure connection to two other subway lines, to two busy railway stations and a long-distance bus station, as well as to many surface public transport lines (bus, tram, trolley buses). It would reach two large universities and a large theatre, too.

In eight years after the post-socialist transition, in 1998, the municipality of Budapest regarded the economic-social environment appropriate for the implementation of the project. An agreement was concluded with the government, in which the government undertook the adequate guarantee to fulfill the project financially. The planned completion of the project was summer 2003 (the planned duration of construction was 2000 days from the date of signing the project with the government). It was already obvious at that time, that it will not be feasible because the opposition party – which was to win the elections according to the public polls – promised the review of the agreement made just days before the elections. It happened as expected and later a court decision annulled the contract and, consequently, nothing happened in the next four years. As the result of the political rotation system, a political force supporting the implementation of M4 subway line got the power in 2002 and the capital initiated again the construction. The foundation-stone was settled in 27 of March, 2006 on Etele Square. The preliminary works started and the municipality of Budapest approved again the authorization document of the investment in September 2004 and the construction works later, at the end of 2004. At that time, according to optimistic estimations, the completion of the project was expected by the end of 2009 (in 1800 days). (Table 1) The actual duration of the project is twice as intended, while the budget is about 3.5-fold in current prices, 1.5-fold in constant prices. (Figure 1) The first phase of the line was open for public use in 28 of March, 2014. The real time of the construction was 2923 days. For estimated parameters of the Bromilow's function for Metro Line 4 in Budapest have been got K=70 days and B=0.60 at nominal price, and K=6.8 days and B=1.10 at relative (comparing) price. (Figure 2) The prices were in Billion HUF. Because of comparision to international experiences if the prices are converted to Euro the value of K is 144 days on nominal prices.

Table 1 Planned completion of M4 subway line in Budapest and cost of construction

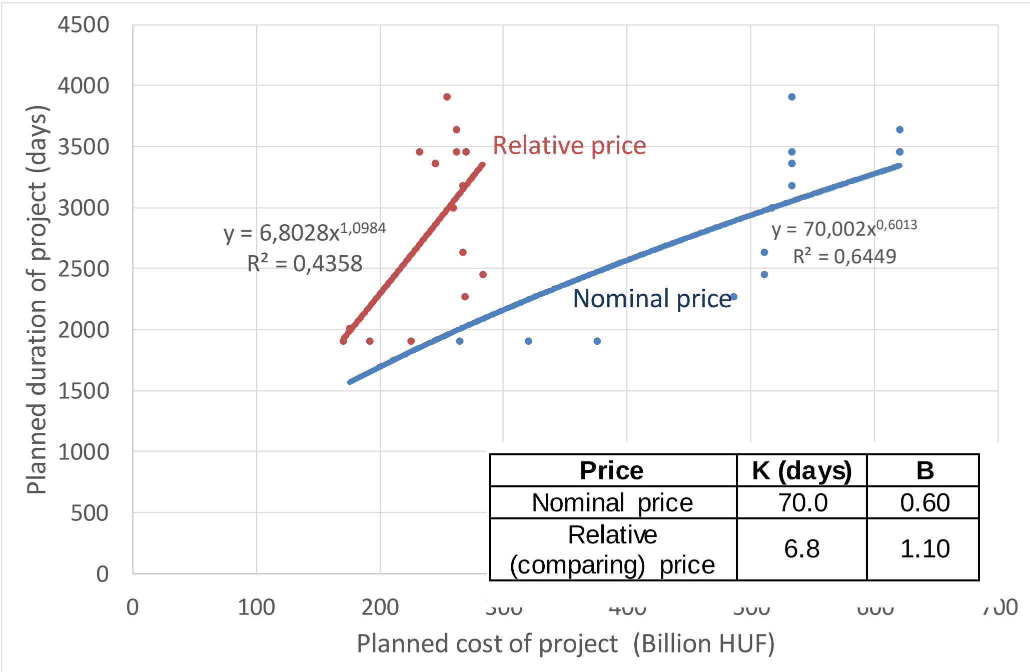
Year of planned/actual beginning	Year of announcing the expected completion	Announced year of expected completion	Number of days planned for fulfilling the project (day)	Planned costs of project in current prices (full/first phase) (Billion HUF)	Planned cost of project at comparing prices (Billion HUF)
1998	1998	2003	2000	176/130	176
2004	2004	2009	1900	264/195	170
2004	2006	2009	1900	320/236	191
2004	2006	2009	1900	376/295	225
2004	2007	2010	2270	486/n.a.	269
2004	2007	2011	2450	511/n.a.	283
2004	2008	2011	2630	511/n.a.	267
2004	2009	2012	3000	517/354	259
2004	2009	2013	3200	533/366	267
2004	2010	2015	3900	533/366	255
2004	2011	2013	3370	533/366	245
2004	2012	2014	3460	533/366	232
2004	2012	2014	3460	620/453	270

Source: own edition (on the basis of M4 subway line, 2013 and State Audit Office, 2010)



Source: own construction (on the basis of M4 subway line, 2013 and State Audit Office, 2010)

Figure 1 Changes of implementing M4 subway line and costs of construction



Price	K (days)	B
Nominal price	70.0	0.60
Relative (comparing) price	6.8	1.10

Source: own construction (on the basis of M4 subway line, 2013 and State Audit Office, 2010)

Figure 2 Changes of implementing M4 subway line and costs of construction

The metropolitan municipality created a project company for the control of construction. This company concluded contracts with 5 consortia for the actual implementation works. In 2010, following the change in government, a number of authorities conducted investigations in order to reveal the deficiencies connected with implementation. As a result, quite a few criminal proceedings started on corruption and misappropriation charges against the politician supervising the project, the deputy mayor and the head of municipal transport company responsible for the future operation of the subway line. The proceedings have been going on for 3 years and have not been closed yet. On the basis of all the above, it can be concluded that the implementation of the Budapest capital city megaproject has gone beyond the technical-economic frames and become the scene of political games.

The main reasons for exceeding the planned cost and time frames (on the basis of State Audit Office, 2010):

- due to the condition system set up for the implementation of the investment, the expected total costs and the date of completion could not be determined precisely because the condition system could be described as follows:
    - undertaking inadvantageous contractual commitments,
    - using wrong implementation construction (FIDIC „*plan and construct*" type of contract was used for line tunnel and station construction without having approved building permits),
    - planning deadlines which were not fully based by technical preparations and even including them into,
    - not employing independent supervising engineer, and
    - public procurement irregularities.
- There was no agenda approved by the constructors and the investor, which could be sanctioned on the basis of contracts thus the clarification of liabilities is possible only to a limited extent.
- The costs increased because the investment costs also covered the EU-supported municipal developments and reconstruction works which were not included in the permit documentation; moreover the technical content and the exchange rate had also changed.
- The long licensing procedures during the preparation of the project led to delays and higher costs. The licensing procedures were delayed, suspended, stopped or new procedures were started due to the appeals, approval by special authorities, the property contributions of the concerned districts and the completion of documents. It took almost five years to obtain the legally binding environmental and railway permits.
- Those regulations which aimed the acceleration and simplification of investments prioritized from national economy aspects did not concern this specific project because most of the licensing procedures started

before the regulations entered into force.

- Due to the lack of clear responsibilities, the competent authorities could not decide which had to conduct the building permission procedure of stations.
- The procedure of acquiring the areas required for the implementation of the project was unprepared, there was no agenda for property acquisition. The acquisition problems remained unsolved even after starting the implementation. The deals were often delayed for 3-4 years and instead of initiating expropriation procedures, the re-make of construction plans was chosen. The metropolitan municipality and the investor have not examined the impact of extra time and extra cost needs occuring due to the unsolved ownership problems and unprepared property acquisition.
- According to the contract strategy applied for the investment, it was to be fulfilled by concluding 20 separate contracts, using the „*plan and build”* FIDIC contract condition system, without general designer and contractor. The applied contract solution was inadequate because it did not correspond to the specialties of the project (complexity and novelty of the project, high number of contributors and relations) and the special features of the investor (the investor had not enough and skilled labour source, the number of employees was low at the project company and had not enough expertise in subway construction). These deficiencies could not be made up by project management consultation.
- The contractual strategy was used by the municipality of the capital without having the full range of building permits and the consequences were not examined by different analyses. According to the contract specifications, the harmonization of planning and implementation procedures (handling interface relations) was the task of engineers and constructors who were not contracted with each other but only with the investor. Basically legal (litigation) means were available to solve the problems occuring from the lack of harmonization and to devolve the extra finance needs. The contractual terms enabled the constructor to indicate only the requirements in advance, its pricing was not necessary, it could not be sanctioned if it fell short. Therefore the cost consequences of claims and changes were not clear, the final cost of investment could not be reliably planned in spite of the lump sum contract. According to the contract, if the amount of approved claims and change orders exceeds the approved final sum of the contract, the investor shall pay the difference from other sources.
- The decision about the disputes regarding the reasons of delays in implementation is made more difficult because no independent supervising engineers are employed.
- There was no agenda and detailed budget, neither an integrated agenda (network plan) managing the delivery of working areas

approved mutually by the investor and the contractors.

- The technical and financial preparation of stations was inadequate because the implementation contracts were concluded without legally binding building permits. These permits for each station were available in 3-8 months after concluding the contracts.
- The investor set deadlines loaded with penalty in the implementation contracts. These deadlines, however, could not considerably help to meet the time targets because the building permits were not ready on time and the tunnel construction was delayed.
- The organizational structure and decision-making mechanism of the customer did not ensure the efficient and cost-saving implementation of the project. The impact of activities performed by the Project Supervising Committee on the progress of the investment and the efficient and cost-saving fulfillment could not be evaluated without determining the competencies. The municipality of the capital did not set up too many expectations and objectives for the job of subway investment coordinator (subway commissioner) therefore the success of his activity, his contribution to the cost-effective implementation could not be judged. The project management organization was not prepared in time for the specific tasks related with a large-scale investment. It did not make any time, value and cost analyses in the frames of technological preparation phase, the available professional risk analyses were not full-range and were not utilized.
- As a collateral effect, the prolonged subway construction works and on-the-surface construction (and the related traffic diversion and road blocks) has caused long-term traffic organization problems in the traffic of the capital city. In addition to the damage compensations due to the excess time needs occuring in the implementation, the delays in subway construction increased the negative social costs, which are not reported by the capital city and the investor.

The above listed project management problems have also emerged in case of other projects. The evaluation introduced above in details is actually true for the next two case studies, too, although their volume, spatial extent and impact is different.

The experiences connected with the motorway network development are similar. It is especially important to highlight the unpreparedness of the projects (problems around ownership of properties, delays or failures of expropriation procedures, delays in obtaining permits from authorities, implementation in sections even in case of continuous tracks, deficient coordination among contractors, lack of mutually approved agenda, deficiencies of control, changing technological content, unclear competencies).

The volume and complexity of state institutional projects is substantially below the above discussed two cases. According to the authors, however, these projects cope with similar problems. The only difference is that the government, or the ministry supervising the institution chose a company which acted as a manager of the project. It did not ease the situation of institutions, because the managing company had the right to select contractors. One of the key factors during selection procedure was the observation of deadline and the size of penalty paid in case of delays. The offer of the company which won the tender on the basis of the above was not the most favourable in other aspects. The subject of the project was to expand training capacities by reconstructing a mansard (about a dozen classrooms, a small lecture hall, library and meeting room, as well as the reconstruction of the roof). The deadline was substantially delayed during implementation (the duration increased to about 9 months compared to the originally planned 6 months). The costs almost doubled compared to the amount stipulated in the contract. The contractor, however, did not have to pay penalty because the contract (including deadline) was changed due to the changes in the technical content. On behalf of the institution, there were no requirements set for the competent leaders, the decision-making competencies were unclear, calling to account was cancelled.

Here is the summary of some experiences of the project model which concerned all the Hungarian higher education institutions in some form (Takács-György et al 2008):

- PPP construction has a lot of advantages which justify its utilization in the implementation of investment targets in the public sector, although the deficiencies of the legislation endanger the generally expected utility.
- In Hungary, the PPP projects, the planning and implementing state ideas is a very expensive procedure due to the process protocol. It is reimbursed only in case of large-scale investments therefore it is important that the elaborated and approved plans help to contribute to a greater social benefit.
- According to our experiences, the public and private sector has not always adequately form the risk shares, thus the Eurostat re-qualified the program to state investment category and it lost the main advantage of PPP projects.
- About 5-7 years have gone since the introduction of PPP construction, but there are not enough experiences because the duration of projects is still far away in time. There have been no PPP contracts concluded since 2010, the interests of the state were not properly represented in the former contracts.
- The implementation of PPP projects enhanced economic recovery. The state could spend the free sources on other objectives and could reduce the budget deficit.
- The long duration of projects is a risk factor because the changes occuring in 20-25 years (political and regulation risks) cannot be predicted.
- The changes in the private sector (changes of ownership, bankruptcy, etc.) are the risks of the public sector therefore it is important for the parties to stipulate the possibilities of terminating the contract.
- Following the global financial crisis it has become clear that the public sector often concluded inadvantegous contracts because the private sector undertook the exchange rate risks of projects

financed by currency-based loans (which were very cheap at that time) and thus, at present, it increases the rental fees substantially.

Comparing the previous Hungarian experiences to the international experiences and state audit recommendations, it should be stressed in regards to the more efficient use of PPP construction in the future, that the state side – state authorities participating in decision-making and control - should prepare better, clear legislation is needed and finalized procedure protocol – for the sake of accountability and transparency – as well as the expansion, if possible, on the municipalities.

Conclusions

Project management in the Hungarian public sector offers a lot of lessons. Delayed completion and exceeding the costs are general experiences in regards to the projects implemented in the public sector disregarding their size or complexity. Among the main reasons the following should be highlighted: deficiency of legislation, unpreparedness of projects, lack of appropriate planning, delays in licensing procedures (which are not calculated in time planning), changes of technological content during the implementation which create a legal basis to modify deadlines set in the contract thus losing the possibility of sanctioning.

Moreover, the lack of clearly defined managerial competencies, and the consequent failure of impeachment contributes to the situation. The damages should be borne by the taxpayers through the state budget, sometimes the contracting companies. Considering all these it would be necessary to prepare a project planning and management guidebook for the public sector which follows the best-practice philosophy and considers its special features.

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9th Parallel Session

(Hungarian)

A pénzügyi termékekkel kapcsolatos alaptudás szintje a felsőoktatásba belépő hallgatóknál

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AZ EMBERI ERŐFORRÁSOK MINISZTÉRIUMA ÚJ NEMZETI KIVÁLÓSÁG PROGRAMJÁNAK TÁMOGATÁSÁVAL KÉSZÜLT

Bevezetés

A pénzügyi kultúra fontosságával számos szakcikk, tanulmány foglalkozik napjainkban. Ezen írások mindegyike arra hívja fel a figyelmet, hogy mennyire fontos a pénzügyi alapműveltség és a pénzügyi ismeretek oktatása. A pénzügyi műveltséget csak az oktatás képes fejleszteni. A válság felhívta a figyelmet ezen ismeretek fontosságára, így a válság után közel tíz év elteltével már intézményes formában nálunk is megjelenik a pénzügytan oktatása a felsőoktatást megelőző szinteken. Erre kiemelt szükség van, mivel a középfokú oktatásból kilépő hallgatók már hitelképesek. A hitelfelvétel mellett fontos a pénzügyi termékek ismerete is, hiszen a középfokú oktatásból kilépve sokan a munkaerőpiac aktív szereplőjévé is válik, így jövedelemmel rendelkezve dönthet annak befektetéséről, elhelyezéséről. A tanulmány célja, hogy felmérje a felsőoktatási alapszakokra, illetve a felsőoktatási szakképzésbe belépő hallgatók pénzügyi termékekkel kapcsolatos alaptudását egy kérdőíves kutatás eredményei alapján, felhívva a figyelmet a leginkább problémás területekre, ahol hibásak, avagy hiányosak a hallgatók ismeretei. A kutatás során olyan pénzügyi alapfogalmakkal kapcsolatos pénzügyi tudás került felmérésre, mint a kamat, a hitel, a hitelképesség, az alapvető megtakarítási formák ismerete. A tanulmány bemutatja a leginkább fejlesztendő területeket, melyek megoldására az oktatási rendszer képes csak.

Kulcsszavak: pénzügyi kultúra, pénzügyi műveltség, válság, banki termékek, primer kutatás

Irodalmi áttekintés

A pénzügyi kultúra fogalma, annak fontossága napjaink egyik közkedvelt témája. A pénzügyi kultúra része annak az általános érétk- és normarendszernek, melyet a fogyasztói magatartás távoli környezetének, kulturális befolyásoló tényezőknek nevezünk (Fodor et.al, 2012). A pénz helye és szerepe, fontossága sokat változott az elmúlt évek során (Csiszárik-Kocsir, 2016), és változott az értékszemléletű hozzáállás is a pénzzel kapcsolatban (Csiszárik-Kocsir et.al, 2016). A pénzügyi válság rámutatott, hogy mekkora károkat tud okozni a pénzügyi műveltség hiánya, milyen pusztítást tudnak véghez vinni a felelőtlen pénzügyi döntések révén kialakuló események. A pénzügyi kultúra fejlesztésével azonban nem lett volna szabad közel tíz évet várni, azt azonnal meg kellett volna kezdeni világszerte a válság után. A tudás alacsony szintje Európában és az Amerikai Egyesült Államokban nem volt ismeretlen fogalom, mivel számos cikk és tanulmány felhívta már erre a figyelmet jóval a válság előtt is (Van Els et.al, 2007). A pénzügyi ismeretek hiánya vagy hiányossága károkat okoz a gazdaságban, felelőtlen döntésekhez vezet, melyeket sok esetben a kormányzatoknak kell megoldania, mint hazánkban is a devizahitelek kimentése kapcsán.

A pénzügyi kultúra definíciójának megfogalmazásával már sok kutató próbálkozott, jelen tanulány mégis a Magyar Nemzeti Bank által használt definícióra épít. Ha szűkebb értelemben nézzük azt, akkor a pénzügyi kultúra valójában pénzügyi írás- és olvasáskészséget és képességet jelent, amihez speciális, szakmai ismeretekre van szükség. Az általánosságban elfogadott definíció szerint „a pénzügyi ismeretek és készségek olyan szintje, amelynek segítségével az egyének képesek a tudatos és körültekintő döntéseikhez szükséges alapvető pénzügyi információkat azonosítani, majd azok megszerzése után azokat értelmezni, és ez alapján döntést hozni, felmérve döntésük lehetséges jövőbeni pénzügyi, illetve egyéb következményeit" (MNB – PSZÁF, 2008). Atkinson és Messy (2012) definíciója alapján a pénzügyi kultúra olyan ismeretek, készségek, képességek, attitűdök és viselkedésminták együttese, melyek elengedhetetlen a helyes pénzügyi döntésekhez mind egyéni, mind társadalmi szinten. Pénzügyi műveltség birtokában emelhető és javítható a jólét, mely nemcsak mikro, hanem makro szinten is érezhető. Luksander és szerzőtársai (2014) véleménye alapján a pénzügyi kultúra nem más, mint a pénzügyi információk feldolgozásának, valamint a helyes pénzügyi döntések meghozatalának képessége. Suganya, Sakthivelrani és Durai (2013) úgy fogalmazza meg a pénzügyi kultúra lényegét, hogy az olyan ismeretanyag együttese, mely által az egyén képes az élethosszig tartó pénzügyi jólétének maximalizálására. Végső soron elmondható, hogy a pénzügyi kultúra minden esetben valamilyen képesség és készség kombinációt jelent, mellyel az egyéni és a társadalmi jólét növelése érhető el. Ez elképzelhetetlen a konkrét szakmai ismeretanyag hiányában, így leszögezhető, hogy a pénzügyi oktatás szerepe kihagyhatatlan és megkerülhetetlen a témában.

A modern pénzügyi folyamatokat ismerő és megértő, a változásokhoz alkalmazkodni képes tudás a mai, globalizált világban nélkülözhetetlen. Ezért is fogalmazza meg Grifoni és Messy (2012) a fogalom lényegét mint napjainkban nélkülözhetetlen készséget.

A pénzügyi kultúra fejlesztését különböző tudományágak különbözőképpen próbálják megragadni. A közgazdaságtan abból a feltevésből indul ki, hogy a pénzügyi kultúra tapasztalati úton tanítható, azaz szerepet tulajdonít az oktatásnak és a pozitív egyéni példáknak, gyakorlatoknak (Lusardi – Mitchell, 2014). A pszichológia tudománya inkább az egyének pszichológiai előzményeire, viselkedésbeli aspektusaira épít, így figyelembe veszi az önbecsülés, a magabiztosság, az önértékelés szempontjait is, bár ez utóbbiakra vonatkozóan átfogó kutatások még nem készültek (Antonides et.al, 2011). Bárczi és Zéman (2015) felhívja a figyelmet az eltérő tudományterületi megközelítések különböző aspektusainak rendszerszemléletű közelítésére.

Ahhoz, hogy az egyének sikeresek legyenek a pénzügyi döntéseik terén, elsősorban az alaptudásnak kell, hogy birtokában legyenek. Ismerniük kell az olyan alapfogalmakat, melyek a pénzügyi termékeket alapjaiban jellemzik (futamidő, kamatozás, kamat, értékpapírok, befektetések). Azt már Bandura (1982) is kimondta, hogy objektív pénzügyi tudás nélkül az egyén nem lesz képes felelősségteljes pénzügyi döntést hozni. Persze az, hogy ebből az alaptudásból valaki mennyit hasznosít fel a döntései során, az már egyéni jellemző, azonban mégis meg kell adni azokat az alapokat, melyek mindenképen szükségesek a felelősségteljes döntésekhez.

Több kutatás is kimutatta már azt, hogy a mérhető, oktatási intézmények által közvetített pénzügyi alaptudás pozitívan hat a felelősségteljes pénzügyi döntésekre meghozatalára (Chen – Volpe, 1998; Lusardi – Mitchell, 2007), de az is bizonyítást nyert, hogy a jó pénzügyi alaptudás még nem eredményez önmagában önmagában helyes pénzügyi döntéseket, mivel ehhez az egyén hozzáállása is szükséges (Borden et.al, 2008; Johnson – Serraden, 2007).

A pénzügyi kultúra és műveltség margójára azonban muszáj megjegyezni azokat az etikai és erkölcsi kérdéseket, vagy inkább az etikai és erkölcsi elvek teljes mértékű megtagadását, melyek miatt lehetővé vált az egyébként szegényes pénzügyi kultúrával bíró aktorok kihasználása (Csiszárik-Kocsir, 2016).A válság, és az azt követő események felhívták a figyelmet azokra a hiányosságokra, amelyek a pénzügyi ismeretekhez kapcsolódnak (Klapper – Lusardi – Panos, 2012). A válságot megelőző általános jólét, a korlátlan likviditás miatt úgy szocializálódtak bizonyos korosztályok, hogy nem tanultak meg bánni a pénzzel, nem tanulták meg beosztani azt, hiszen mindenhonnan az az üzenet érkezett, hogy a hiányzó likviditás hitelekkel, akár többel is pótolható. A válság előtt Johnson és Sherraden (2007) már felhívta a figyelmet arra, hogy célszerű lenne a fiatalabb nemzedéket is bevonni a pénzügyi folyamatok előkészületébe az oktatott tárgyak pénzügyi irányba való bővítésével, vagy akár a családi pénzügyi döntések meghozatalába való bevonással. Hasonló véleményen volt már korábban Osana, Tucker és Bennett is (2003), mivel így nagyobb pénzügyi felelősségtudat alakulhat ki. A felelőtlenül felvett hitelek, az előrehozott, meggondolatlan fogyasztás akár közvetve, akár közvetlenül, de kapcsolatba hozható a pénzügyi műveltség, a pénzügyi kultúra hiányával. A pénzügyi kultúra vizsgálata napjainkban egyre divatosabb fogalom, kutatási terület lett. Számos szakcikk, kutatás, szakdolgozat és diplomamunka foglalkozik azzal, azonban konkrét, kézzel fogható lépések nem igazán történtek a fejlesztés irányába. Minden nagyobb bank a CSR tevékenysége részeként említi a pénzügyi kultúra fejlesztését, de érezhető eredmények még nem igazán vannak.

A pénzügyi kultúrát részekre lehet bontani, mivel vannak annak fejleszthető, és kevésbé fejleszthető szintjei. A fejleszthető szintek közé tartoznak a pénzügyi kultúra azon elemei, amelyeket oktatással, képzéssel könnyen és viszonylag rövid idő alatt lehet módosítani. Ilyenek a pénzügyi ismeretek, a pénzügyi készségek és képességek. A pénzügyi kultúra nehezen fejleszthető részei a hagyományokban, szokásokban, különböző látott és tanult normákban, nézetekben és értékekben ragadhatók meg (Balázsné, 2013). Ez utóbbi, a szülőktől, családtól, barátoktól tanult vonal a legnehezebben alakítható, hiszen a szocializációnak köszönhetően ez a részünkké válik, a jellemünkbe épül be, így végig is kíséri az életünket (Koh – Lee, 2010). E folyamatot nevezzük a gazdasági szocializációnak, ahol a fiatal felnövő nemzedék a nevelőitől megtanulja a pénz használatának elveit, elsajátítja azokat az attitűdöket, melyek a későbbiekben meg fogják határozni nagy vonalakban a pénzügyi világban való sikeres avagy sikertelen szereplését. E folyamatban kiemelt szerepe van a családnak, akik megtanítják a pénzkezelési és használati elveket, melyek számukra meghatározóak (Zsótér, 2012). Mindez kapcsolódik a korábban már ismertetett véleményekhez, miszerint a pénzügyi tudatosságot már az iskoláskorban kell elkezdeni alakítani, hogy valamelyest korrigálhatók legyenek az esetleges negatív szokások.

Módszertan

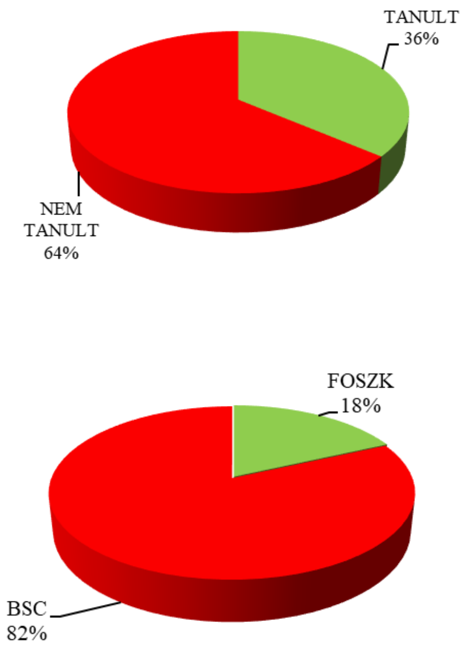
A tanulmány alapjául egy 2017 őszén lebonyolított kérdőíves kutatást szolgált[41]. A kutatás egy előtesztelt, sztenderdizált kérdőív segítségével történt. A kérdőív nem tartalmazott nyitott kérdéseket, a statisztikai értékelés céljából. A kérdőív véglegesítését négy korábbi forduló is megelőzte: egy 2015-ben kivitelezett primer kvantitatív kutatás, valamint egy 2015-ben, és 2016-ban végzett kvalitatív felmérés, valamint egy 2016 tavaszán kivitelezett kérdőíves kutatás, melynek eredményeként több tanulmány formájában egy 3736 fős mintából tudtam következtetéseket levonni. A korábbi kutatások eredményei alapján alakult ki a kérdőív jelenlegi formája, mely számos témát vizsgált, a pénz értékétől kezdve a pénzügyi és befektetési ismeretek helyes használatán keresztül az etikai kérdésekig kifejezettten a felsőoktatásba belépő hallgatókra szabva abból a célból, hogy felmérhető legyen a pénzügyi tudásuk. A kérdőívet több felsőoktatási intézmény hallgatói töltték ki, akik 2017 őszén kezdték meg tanulmányaikat alapszakon, avagy a felsőoktatási szakképzés keretében. A kérdőívet összesen 942 válaszadó töltötte ki, de abból sajnos csak 768 darab volt értékelhető.

A kérdőív összesen 16 kérdésből épült fel, melyből 9 kérdés a válaszadók szegmentálását szolgálta. A kérdőív kérdései a pénz értéktől kezdve, a pénzügyi tudatosságon át az alaptudás felméréséig számos területet fedtek le. A kérdőív lekérdezése online történt, biztosítva a válaszadók anonimitását. A válaszadók szegmentálásához többek között a kort, a nemet, a lakhellyel kapcsolatos információkat, a jövedelmet, valamint az szülők iskolai végzettségét kérdeztem meg azon túl, hogy a válaszadó tanult-e már pénzügyet. A kérdések között többszörös választásos kérdések és értékelő skálák is szerepeltek. A kérdőívet az Eszterházy Károly Egyetem, a Pannon Egyetem, a Szent István Egyetem, valamint az Óbudai Egyetem hallgatói töltötték ki, szaktól függetlenül. A kitöltés egyetlen feltétele az volt, hogy a kitöltő hallgató a kitöltéskor kezdje meg a felsőfokú tanulmányait, így a mesterképzésre járó hallgatók nem kerültek a mintába. A minta nem minősül reprezentatívnak, de lehetőséget ad egy későbbi, reprezentatív kutatás megalapozására. A kérdőív jelen tanulmányban bemutatott eredményei SPSS 19.0, valamint MS Excel 2010 programok segítségével születtek. A kapott eredényeket a jelen tanulmány a aszerint mutatja be, hogy a hallgató korábban tanult-e már pénzügyeket, illetve hogy milyen képzési formában kezdte meg a tanulmányait a felsőoktatásban. A témát más tanulmányok keretében szándékozom még kiértékelni a szülők végzettsége, a jövedelem, a munkavállalás, valamint a korábbi pénzügyi előtanulmányok

[41] Ezúton szeretném a köszönetemet kifejezni azon hallgatóknak, akiknek segítséget nyújtottak a kérdőív kitöltésében.

alapján is. A válaszadók összetételét az alábbi ábra tartalmazza:

Ábra 1.: A minta összetétele a korábbi pénzügyi alapoktatás, valamint a képzési forma alapján



Forrás: saját kutatás, 2017, N = 768

Eredmények

A mintában szereplő 768, a felsőoktatásba belépő, vagy tanulmányait most kezdő hallgatótól 26 állításon keresztül arra voltam kíváncsi, hogy mennyire vannak tisztában a különböző pénzügyi alapfogalmakkal. A tanulmányban az állításokat csoportosítva kívánom bemutatni azokat a területeket, amelyek leginkább fejlesztésre szorulnak a hallgatók tudása, válaszai alapján.

Elsőként csoportokba soroltam az állításokat. A befektetésekkel kapcsolatos állítások csoportja 8 db állítást foglalt magába, kamattal kapcsolatos állítások közül 4 darabot tettem fel a hallgatóknak, a bank- és hitelkártyákkal kapcsolatban 9 db állításon keresztül mértem fel a tudásukat, és végül a hitellel kapcsolatos állítások tekintetében pedig 5 db állításan keresztül vizsgáltam a hallgatók alaptudását.

Elsőként a befektetésekkel kapcsolatos állításokat kívánom jellemezni, melyet az alábbi táblázat is szemléltet. A befektetésekkel kapcsolatban elmondható hogy a hallgatók tudása összességében 53,9 %-os csak, ami sajnos a legalacsonyabb értéket jelenti a másik három állításcsoporthoz képest. Ez alapján a helytelen válaszok aránya is a legmagasabb, 29,8%. A legkevésbé értett állítás a kincstárjegyekre vonatkozik, mivel itt a helyes állítások aránya mindösszesen 29,7%. A befektetésekkel kapcsolatban sem voltak tisztában azzal a válaszadó hallgatók, hogy az éven túli lekötést jelent, amire 40,9 %-os helyes válasz arány érkezett. De hasonlóan problémás a befektetési alapokkal kapcsolatban feltett állítás is, miszerint nem tudják a hallgatók azt, hogy jár-e utánuk állami garancia, vagy sem. Ezt mutatja 43,2 %-os helyes válasz arány. Ezen állítások esetén nagyon beszédes a nem tudom válaszok arány is!

A hallgatók tisztában vannak azzal, hogy a megtakarításaikat több területen, a pénz- és tőkepiacokon keresztül is tudják kamatoztatni, ezt mutatja 74,5 %-os válasz arány. A befektetési alapokkal kapcsolatosan tudják azt, hogy a tőkéjük veszíthet az értékéből, amit a 68,2 %-os arány is mutat, és azt is viszonylag jól tudják, hogy a befektetési alapok közül a részvényalap az, amelyik a legkevésbé biztonságos.

A fentiek alapján elmondható, hogy a hallgatók tudása éppen azon a területen hiányos, amely a leghétköznapibb. Az iskolapadból kilépve a jövedelmükből megtakaríthatnak, azt pedig kamatoztatni kell valahol. A lehetőségek részleteivel azonban még jelenleg nincsenek tisztában, így a pénzügyi alapoktatásnak erre mindenképpen fókuszálnia kell majd a jövőben akár több tantrágy keretén belül is! Az eredményeket részletesen az alábbi táblázat mutatja.

Táblázat 1.: A helyesen avagy helytelenül válaszolók aránya a befektetésekkel kapcsolatban a teljes minta alapján (%)

	nem tudja	helyes	helytelen
A megtakarításomat csak a bankban tudom kamatoztatni.	4,4	74,5	21,1
A befektetési alapokba elhelyezett tőkém nem veszíthet az értékéből.	11,5	68,2	20,3
A befektetési alapok közül a részvény alap a legbiztonságosabb.	18,0	58,9	23,2
Az állampapír alapok magas hozamot biztosítanak.	13,5	58,9	27,6
Az EBKM egy EU-s intézmény rövidített neve.	27,6	56,8	15,6
A befektetési alapokba elhelyezett tőkémre állami garancia jár.	18,0	43,2	38,8
A befektetés mindig éven túli, vagy legalább egy éves lekötést jelent.	9,6	40,9	49,5
Ha kincstárjegyet veszek, akkor csökken a likviditásom.	28,4	29,7	41,9

Forrás: saját kutatás, 2017, N = 768

A kamat fogalmával kapcsolatos állítások tekintetében a hallgatók már sokkal jobban teljesítettek. 63,2 %-os helyes válasz arány mellett csak 26,2 %-os helytelen válasz arányt produkáltak. Az ebbe a csoportba tartozó 4 db állítás tekintetében a válaszadók a legbiztosabbak abban, hogy a kamat nem mindig fix összeg, ezt mutatja 80,2 %-os helyes válasz arány. Ehhez hasonló értéket mutat a következő állítás is, miszerint tökéletesen jól tudják a hallgatók azt, hogy a kamat és a kamatláb két különböző fogalom (79,2 %). Ennél problémásabb már a mélyebb pénzügyi tudást igénylő állítás, amely a nominális kamatláb fogalmára vonatkozik. Itt a legmagasabb a nem tudom válaszok aránya is, és a legalacsonyabb a helyes válaszok aránya. Azt is jól tudják a hallgatók, hogy a kamat a kölcsönadott pénz ára, ez esetben 57 %-os helyes válasz arány érkezett vissza, ahogy azt a lenti táblázat is szemlélteti.

Táblázat 2.: A helyesen avagy helytelenül válaszolók aránya a kamat fogalmával kapcsolatban a teljes minta alapján (%)

	nem tudja	helyes	helytelen
A kamat mindig fix összeg.	5,5	80,2	14,3
A kamat és a kamatláb azonos, szinonim fogalmak.	9,4	79,2	11,5
A kamat a kölcsönadott pénz ára.	6,3	57,0	36,7
A nominális kamatláb az a kamatláb, amit a bankok meghirdetnek.	21,4	36,5	42,2

Forrás: saját kutatás, 2017, N = 768

A pénzhelyettesítők, a bank és hitelkártyák napjaink egyre inkább elterjedt fizetőeszközei. A készpénzhasználat visszaszorítása már évek, évtizedek óta cél, hiszen Magyarországon nagyon magas ez az érték. A hagyományos, készpénzes fizetések visszaszorulóban vannak, átadják helyüket az olyan modern eszközöknek mint a különféle biztonsági funkcióval, és egyéb szolgáltatásokkal felruházott bankkártyák, és hitelkártyák. Napjainkban egyre több helyen van kártya leolvasó terminál a nagyobb üzletek már elképzelhetetlenek nélkülük. A hitelkártyák tudatos használatával még meg is takaríthat a tulajdonos, de ehhez pénzügyi tudatosságra, fegyelemre van szükség.

A bank- és hitelkártyákkal kapcsolatos tudást kilenc állításon keresztül mértem fel. Összességében a hallgatók 57,3%-os tudást produkáltak, és a helytelen válaszok aránya itt is nagyon magas volt, 29,8%, akárcsak a befektetésekkel kapcsolatos állítások esetén.

A válaszok nagyon változatosak voltak. Azt jól tudták a hallgatók, hogy bankszámla nélkül nem lehet bankkártyát birtokolni, amit a 83,3 %-os helyes válasz arány is szemléltet. Azt is döntően helyesen válaszolták meg a hallgatók, hogy bizonyos bankkártyákhoz extra szolgáltatások és kapcsolódnak (76,3%). A hitelkártyákkal kapcsolatban azonban már problémásabb a helyzet. Mindösszesen 58,1%-ban tudták azt a hallgatók, hogy hitelkártyáról is lehet pénzt felvenni, és ugyanilyen arányban tudták azt is, hogy a bankkártyás fizetés a legtöbb bank esetében ingyenes.

55,5%-os helyes válasz aránnyal jelölték meg azt, hogy a bankkártyás fizetés csökkenti a forgalomban lévő készpénz mennyiségét. Ez az arány azért meglepő, mert egyértelmű hogy a bankkártyával való fizetés elektronikus pénzzel való fizetést jelent, azaz nem történik készpénzmozgás. Ebből az következik, hogy a válaszadó a hallgatóknak még nincsen saját bankkártyája, ami a közeljövőben változni fog. Tehát a bank- és hitelkártyákkal kapcsolatos ismereteket gyorsan bővíteni, pontosítani szükséges előadásokon, gyakorlatokon keresztül. A legkevesebb helyes választ ismét a hitelkártya után felmerült tartozás után felszámított kamattal kapcsolatban adták a hallgatók, mindösszesen 39,3%-os aránnyal. Ez azt jelenti, hogy a hallgatók úgy gondolják hogy a hitelkártya az minden esetben rossz, a hitelkártya utáni pénzköltés kapcsán mindenesetben kamatot kell fizetni. Az eredményeket részleteiben a lenti táblázat mutatja.

Táblázat 3.: A helyesen avagy helytelenül válaszolók aránya a bank- és hitelkártyákkal kapcsolatban a teljes minta alapján (%)

	nem tudja	helyes	helytelen
Bankszámla nélkül is lehet bankkártyám.	7,8	83,3	8,9
Bizonyos bankkártyákhoz extra szolgáltatások (pontgyűjtés, biztosítás, stb.) is kapcsolódhatnak.	8,1	76,3	15,6
Hitelkártyáról nem lehet pénzt felvenni.	18,5	58,1	23,4
A bankkártyás fizetés a legtöbb bank esetében ingyenes.	7,6	58,1	34,4
Ha bankkártyával fizetek, akkor csökken a forgalomban lévő pénz mennyisége.	10,4	55,5	34,1

Hitelkártyával való vásárlásnál a bank pénzét költjük.	10,2	51,8	38,0
Nincs különbség a bankkártya és a hitelkártya között a fizetés szempontjából.	10,7	51,6	37,8
A hitelkártyára történő vásárlások után bónusz pontokat kapok.	24,2	41,7	34,1
Ha időben visszafizetem a hitelkártya tartozásomat, akkor nem kell kamatot fizetnem a felhasznált összeg után.	18,8	39,3	41,9

Forrás: saját kutatás, 2017, N = 768

Végül az utolsó csoportba tartoznak a hitelekkel kapcsolatos állítások. A hitelek tekintetében általánosságban egy negatív, rossz vélekedés van érvényben, a válságot követően bedőlt hitelek miatt. A tanulmányaikat most kezdő hallgatók nagy valószínűséggel sokat hallgatták otthon családjaik, ismerőseik körében, hogy milyen problémák merültek fel a felvett hitelek visszafizetése kapcsán, különös tekintettel a devizahitelekre. Ezért nagyon fontos, hogy a most első éves hallgatók esetében a hitelekkel kapcsolatos alapfogalmak, a helyes, tudatos hitelfelvétel tényezői mindenképpen kiemelésre, oktatásra kerüljenek.

A legtöbb helyes választ a csoporton belül az az állítás kapta, miszerint a hallgatók tudják azt hogy hitelt bizony nem kaphat bárki. Itt 89,3%-os helyes válasz arány látható. Azt is jól tudják, hogy a hitelképesség nem azt jelenti hogy a bank képes hitelt nyújtani, hanem azt hogy a hitelfelvevő képes lesz azt visszafizetni. Ez esetben 71,9%-os a helyes válaszok aránya. Azt is tudják a hallgatók, hogy a hitelek révén előre lehet hozni a gazdasági szereplők fogyasztását, hiszen az megelőlegezi, előfinanszírozza azt (60,7%). Viszont a THM és a denomináció tekintetében már ismét megnő a helytelen válaszok aránya. A THM fogalmával kapcsolatban mindösszesen 35,9%-ban érkezett helyes állítás, a denomináció pedig az a fogalom volt, amivel a hallgatóknak nagyon kis része volt tisztában.

Összességében elmondható az hogy a hitelekkel kapcsolatos állítások tekintetében ismét nagyon alacsony a helyes válaszok aránya. Ez 56,1 %, és nagyon magas a helytelen válaszok aránya is, alig 0,1 százalékponttal marad le a másik két problémás állítás csoporthoz képest. A lenti táblázat tartalmazza itt is részleteiben az eredményeket.

Táblázat 4.: A helyesen avagy helytelenül válaszolók aránya a hitelekkel kapcsolatban a teljes minta alapján (%)

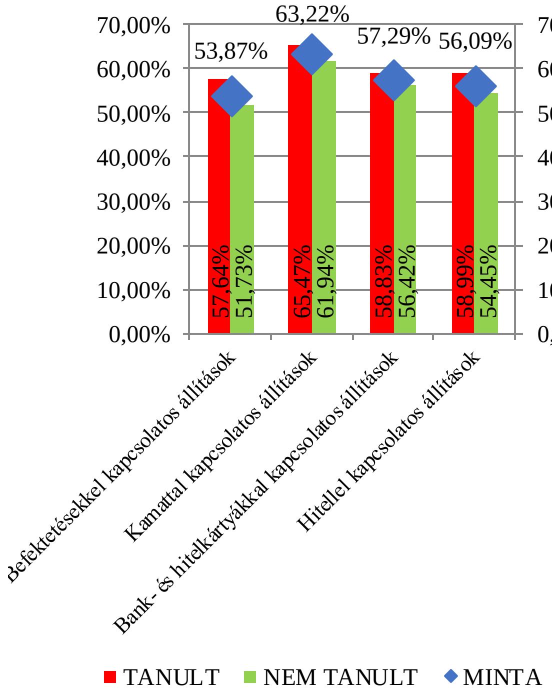
	nem tudja	helyes	helytelen
Hitelt bárki kaphat.	3,4	89,3	7,3
A hitelképesség azt jelenti, hogy a bank képes hitelt nyújtani.	4,9	71,9	23,2
A hitelek révén előre lehet hozni a gazdasági szereplők fogyasztását.	14,1	60,7	25,3
A THM csak a hitelek esetén fontos.	14,1	35,9	50,0
A denomináció a hitel valutában való jegyzését jelenti.	34,4	22,7	43,0

Forrás: saját kutatás, 2017, N = 768

A továbbiakban az állításcsoportokra adott helyes válaszok összesített átlagértékét aszerint mutatom be, hogy a hallgató mely képzési formához tartozik, illetve korábban tanult, avagy nem tanult pénzügyeket.

Az, hogy a hallgató tanult vagy nem tanult pénzügyet megint csak egyértelműen mutatja azt a tényt hogy azok a hallgatók akik rendelkeznek pénzügyi alapképzettséggel, stabilabban, biztosabban válaszolnak az állításokra, mint azok a hallgatók, akik semmilyen formában nem vettek részt pénzügyi alapképzésben. Azok a hallgatók, akik tanultak már korábban pénzügyet a mintaátlaghoz képest 2-4 százalékponttal magasabb helyes válasz aránnyal büszkélkedhetnek. Jobban tisztában vannak a befektetésekkel kapcsolatos állításokkal, ahol 3,77 százalékponttal adtak több helyes választ. A kamattal kapcsolatos állítások tekintetében is magasabb ez az érték ami 2,25 százalékpont. A bank- és hitelkártyákkal kapcsolatban vannak a legkevésbé ők is tisztában, mivel csak 1,54 százalékpontos többlettel dicsekedhetnek. A hitellel kapcsolatos állítások tekintetében is 2,9 százalékpontos többlet tudtak felmutatni. Ugyanez az arány azoknál a hallgatóknál, akik nem tanultak korábban pénzügyi ismereteket, a befektetésekkel kapcsolatos állítások tekintetében 2,11 százalékponttal kisebb értéket jelent, hitellel kapcsolatos állításoknál is problémásak voltak a válaszok itt 1,64 százalékponttal maradtak alul a mintaátlaghoz képest. A kamattal kapcsolatos állításoknál, és a bank- és hitelkártyákkal kapcsolatos állítások tekintetében kicsit jobb a helyzet, az előző esetben csak 1,28 százalékponttal maradtak csak alul, a második esetben pedig csak 0,88 százalékpontos az eltérés, ahogy az ábra is mutatja.

Ábra 2.: A pénzügyi alaptudás szintje a előképzettség szerint

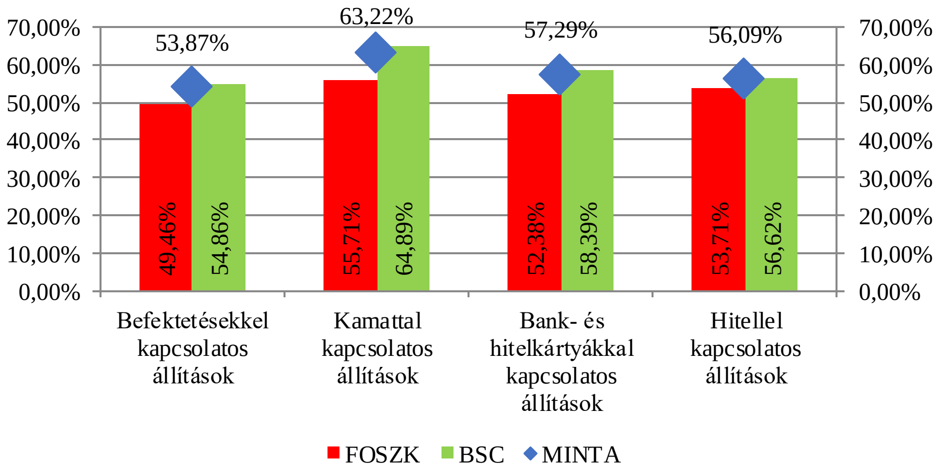


Forrás: saját kutatás, 2017, N = 768

Az ábra alapján egyértelműen látható, hogy minden állítás tekintetében azok a hallgatók vannak előnyben akik az alapképzésben kezdik meg a tanulmányaikat. Közöttük vannak olyan hallgatók is, akik korábban valamely felsőoktatási intézmény felsőoktatási szakképzésében tanultak, ami helyzeti előnyt jelent nekik. Az is tény, hogy az alapképzésbe lépő hallgatóknak van nagyobb aránya a mintában, ami némiképpen torzítja is az eredményeket.

A képzési szint tekintetében látható, hogy az alapképzésben tanuló hallgatók esetében 1-2 százalékpont közötti eltérését tudtak produkálni a hallgatók. Befektetésekkel kapcsolatos állítások 0,99 százalékponttal, kamattal kapcsolatos állítások esetén 1,67 százalékponttal, a bank- és hitelkártyákkal kapcsolatos állítások esetén 1,1 százalékponttal és végül a hitelekkel kapcsolatos állítások esetén pedig 0,53 százalékponttal adtak több helyes választ a hallgatók a mintaátlaghoz képest. A felsőoktatási szakképzésbe lépő hallgatók esetén viszont a lemaradás már jóval beszédesebb. Addig amíg a befektetésekkel kapcsolatban 4,41 százalékponttal kevesebb helyes választ adtak, addig a kamattal kapcsolatos állítások tekintetében (ahol a legnagyobb volt a helyes válaszok aránya) 7,51 százalékponttal maradtak alul. Hasonlóan magas az arány a bank- és hitelkártyákkal kapcsolatos állítások tekintetében is, ahol ez az érték 4,91 százalékpontos alulmaradást jelent. A hitelekkel kapcsolatos állítások tekintetében a legkisebb a lemaradás ahol 2,38 %, ahogy a lenti ábráról is leolvasható.

Ábra 3.: A pénzügyi alaptudás szintje a képzési szint szerint



Forrás: saját kutatás, 2017, N = 768

Konklúzió

A tanulmány alapján összességében elmondható, hogy a hallgatók pénzügyi minimum tudása megfelelő, a hétköznapi fogalmakkal, amelyeket sokszor és sokat hallanak tisztában vannak. A problémák ott kezdődnek, amikor már mélyebb pénzügyi tudásra építő állításokra kell helyesen válaszolniuk. Ebből látható, hogy a pénzügyi alapképzés fontossága elengedhetetlen, és vitathatatlan. A jövő generációját nem lehet pénzügyi nem lehet stabil pénzügyi tudás nélkül kiengedni a gazdaság világába. A leginkább fejlesztendő területek között a befektetésekkel kapcsolatos kérdések szerepelnek, ami azért nagyon fontos, mert magánemberként számtalanszor fognak ezzel a területtel találkozni. A hitelekkel kapcsolatban ismét vannak fejlesztésre szoruló, tisztázandó kérdések. Mindezekre képes a pénzügyi alapismeretek oktatása tantervek részeként, de akár egy személyes pénzügyek, vagy családi pénzügyek kurzus sem lenne felesleges a jövő generációja szempontjából. A mintában szereplő hallgatók már a Z genráció részei, akik a digitális fronton intézik az ügyeiket, élik az életüket. Ők fognak leginkább találkozni a pénzügyi innovációkkal, a fintech újításokkal. Nem lehet a most tanulmányaikat kezdő a hallgatókat úgy kiengedni a nagybetűs életbe, hogy nem rendelkeznek szilárd pénzügyi tudással. A robotizálandó bankszektor nem fogja tudni elmagyarázni azokat az ismereteket, amelyek szükségesek lesznek ahhoz, hogy felelős pénzügyi döntést hozzanak. Tehát a felsőoktatásra továbbra is nagy szerep hárul, akár plusz tárgyak, akár a meglévő tárgyak átalakításával. Nagyobb hangsúlyt kell kapni a pénzügyi képzésnek azért, hogy sikeres gazdasági szereplőket, munkavállalókat bocsásson ki a jövőben. Egyetértve Zéman (2016) gondolataival, nagyobb hangsúlyt kell kapnia a pénzügyi képzésnek azért, hogy sikeres gazdasági szereplőket, munkavállalókat bocsásson ki a jövőben a gazdasági szektor számára.

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Rövid életrajz

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Hitelfelvételi indokok és célok a magyar kkv-k körében a vállalkozás mérete alapján

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AZ EMBERI ERŐFORRÁSOK MINISZTÉRIUMA ÚJ NEMZETI KIVÁLÓSÁG PROGRAMJÁNAK TÁMOGATÁSÁVAL KÉSZÜLT

Bevezetés

A vállalkozások finanszírozásának számos módja létezik. A működéshez és a beruházásból lehet pénzt felszabadítani vállalaton belülről a tartalékok felélésével, a felesleges eszközállomány leépítésével, avagy az eredmény visszatartásával és visszaforgatásával. Azonban ha ezen források nem elegendőek, akkor csak a külső forrásszerzés jöhet számításba akár új tulajdonosok bevonásával, akár pénz- és tőkepiaci forrásszerzéssel. A hazai kis és középvállalkozások számára a legrelevánsabb forrásszerzési lehetőség a hitelfelvétel. A hitelfelvétel mellett szóba jöhetnek más külső források is, de ezek fontossága a bizalom és a pénzügyi tudás hiánya, valamint a pénz- és tőkepiaci kapcsolatrendszer fejletlensége miatt alacsony. A válság utáni években hazánk volt az egyik olyan ország, ahol a hitelezés a lehető leglassabban indult be. A hitelfelvétel lassú élénkülése mögött a hitelképesség alacsony szintje, valamint a bankok hitelezési aktivitásnak visszafogása állt. Ezen a helyzeten javított a Magyar Nemzeti Bank hitelprogramja, melynek révén a vállalkozások előrébb tudták hozni a beruházásaikat, és megvalósítottak olyan elmaradt fejlesztéseket, melyekre már évekkel korábban szükségük lett volna. A program kifutásával azonban továbbra is kérdéses maradt a hitelfelvétel sorsa. A kkv finanszírozáshoz továbbra is szükséges a hitelfinanszírozás, de vajon félnek-e a vállalkozások a piaci alapú hitelfelvételtől főként a válság következményeinek ismeretében? Ha hitelt vennének fel, akkor azt milyen célból tennék? Többek között ezekre a kérdésekre keresi választ a tanulmány egy kérdőíves kutatás eredményeinek tükrében, rámutatva a legfontosabb hitelfelvételi célokra és irányokra, melyek fontos információt jelentenek a finanszírozást keresők és a finanszírozók számára is.

Kulcsszavak: kkv, belső finanszírozás, külső finanszírozás, hitelfinanszírozás, primer kutatás

Irodalmi áttekintés

A vállalkozások finanszírozását a tankönyvek és a szakirodalmak két aspektusból tárgyalják. Egyik oldalról megkülönböztetünk belső, azaz a vállalat működéséből, létéből származó forrásokat, valamint külső, azaz a vállalaton kívülről, a pénz- és tőkepiacról érkező forrásokat. Másik oldalról rövid távú, azaz éven belüli, és hosszú távú (éven túli) forrásokról is beszélünk. Ezen források vállalati működésbe való illesztése, ezek arányának megtalálása régóta érdekli a témával foglalkozó szakembereket. Egy dolog azonban bizton kijelenthető, nem létezik olyan deklarálható arány egyik forráspárra sem, ami egyértelműen ráhúzható lenne az adott szektorban és méretkategóriában működő összes vállalkozásra. Más forrásigénnyel és összetétellel élnek a méretük alapján kisebb vállalkozások, akik nem akarnak vagy a finanszírozási anomáliák miatt nem is akarnak növekedni, és más forrásösszetétellel működnek az életkoruk szerint idősebb vállalkozások, akik szakmai tapasztalataik, vállalkozói kapcsolatrendszerük miatt más fajta forrásokhoz képesek a vállalkozásukat juttatni (Cabra-Mata, 2003).

Az optimális tőkeszerkezet megalkotása évek óta sarkalatos pontja a pénzügyi szakirodalomnak. A mai pénzügyi gondolkodásban alapvetően az alábbi nevek és elméletek kapnak érdemi említést:

1. Modiglinai és Miller klasszikus tőkepiaci elmélete (Brealy – Meyers, 1999):

   mely kimondja, hogy a vállalati finanszírozás alapvetően nincs hatással a vállalati értékre, amit jelentős feltételezések mellett (nincsenek adók, nincsenek tranzakciós költségek) tesz meg.

2. Willamson megbízó –ügynök elmélete (Williamson, 1998):

   az elmélet alapján a Megbízó (tulajdonos) ledelegál bizonyos döntéseket az Ügynökre (menedzser), aki jobb információellátottsággal, rálátással rendelkezik bizonyos kérdésekben, ez megkönnyíti az operatív döntéseket42, de visszaélésekre is okot adhat.

3. Meyers – Majluf hierarchia elmélete (Myers – Majluf, 1984):

   az előbbi elméletre alapozva fejti ki a vállalati finanszírozás hátterét, miszerint elsőként a vállalkozások a visszaforgatott nyereséget használják, majd a külső idegen tőke finanszírozás, végül a külső tulajdonosi tőke bevonás következik, amennyiben a saját tőke nem elegendő a finanszírozáshoz.

4. Coase – Reis tranzakciós költség elmélete (Coase, 1934; Reis, 1998):

   az elmélet szerint az idegen tőkével (hitellel) való finanszírozás kisebb tranzakciós költséggel bír az információk rendelkezésre állása miatt, mint a saját tőkefinanszírozás, ahol a potenciális befektetők jelentős információ igényt támasztanak a befektetés tárgyát képező részesedés vagy értékpapír iránt.

5. Brealy – Meyers féle választásos elmélet (Brealy – Meyers, 1999):

   a vállaltok tőkeszerkezete alapján kimondja, hogy a vállalat finanszírozását az vállalkozás eszközállománya alakítja,

6. Grochla – Pfohl klasszikus leíró finanszírozási elmélete (Grochla, 1976; Pfohl, 1997):

   a vállalati finanszírozást négy pont mentén vizsgálja

[42] A finanszírozási döntések is ide tartoznak. Az Ügynök nem biztos, hogy minden esetben a vállalkozás számára a legoptimálisabb finanszírozási alternatívát fogja választani a középtávú érdekeltsége miatt.

(finanszírozási formák, rendkívüli események, elemzés és tervezés), és ezek alapján mutatja meg az egyes formák előnyeit és hátrányait.

A vállalkozások, különös tekintettel a kis- és középvállalkozások finanszírozása napjaink egyik leginkább emlegetett témája[43]. A 2008-as válság még inkább felhívta a figyelmet a kkv-k finanszírozási anomáliáira. A túlárazott eszközökbe fektetett vagyonok, a bedőlt jelzálogkötvények által elindított hitelválság hatása nagyon lassan múlt el (Cowling et.al, 2012), még ma is érezhető valamilyen szinten, holott már közel 10 év telt el az első sokkhatások óta. A túlzott hitelezés miatti meggondolatlan kockáaztvállalás számos bank bukását okozza és okozta a válság előtt és után is (Campbell, 2007). A hitelezés és a hitelezési kockázatok mérése azóta is a banküzem fontos kérdése (Wang et.al, 2012), amit nagyban befolyásol a bank és a vállalkozás közötti viszony is. Ha a bank és a vállalkozás között stabil és erős a kapcsolat, akkro a senior hitelezés alapján a bank hajlandóságot mutat a hitelezésre, sőt nagyobb kockázatot is képes vállalni (Petersen – Rajan, 1994). A vállalkozás jellemzői (kis vagy nagyvállalkozás, bankfüggő vagy nem bankfüggő vállalkozás) nagy mértékben befolyásolják a hiteleket, melyeket elérhet. A vállalkozás jellemzői nagy mértékben befolyásolják az információs asszimetriából adódó nehézségeket és a tranzakciós költségeket egyaránt, ez alapján pedig befolyásolják az elérhető összegeket is (Leary, 2009).

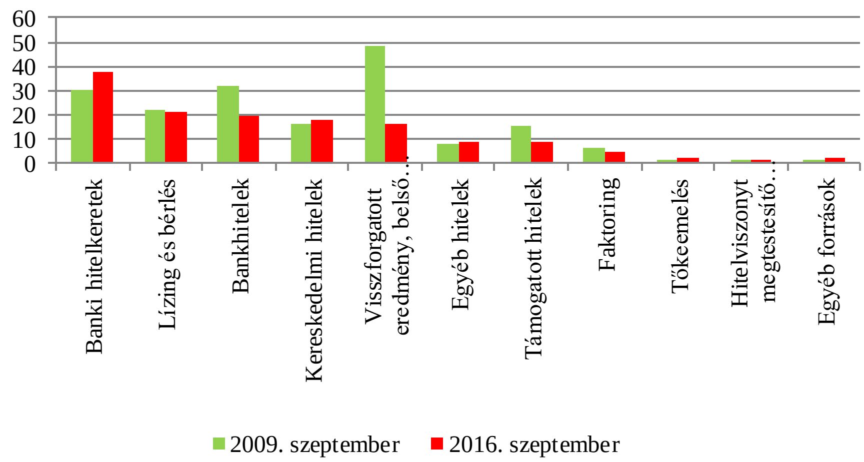
A hitelek nem megfelelő allokálása, helytelen elosztása, a kis- és középvállalkozások háttérbe szorulása hátrányosan érinti a gazdasági összteljesítményét (Restuccia – Rogerson, 2008). A bankok hitelezési kedvének visszaesése a válság után több évre visszavetette a nemzetgazdaságokat világszerte azáltal, hogy nem juttatták a kellő mennyiségű forrást a gazdaság jelentős részét kitevő kkv szektornak (Filippetti – Archibugi, 2011). Kutatások bizonyították, hogy a válság után azon cégek, melyek nagy mértékben rendelkeztek hosszú távú hitelforrásokkal, kénytelenek voltak a beruházásaik visszafogására, leállítására (Almeida et.al, 2011). Ehhez hozzáadódik még a vállalkozások hitelforrásoktól való félelme is, hiszen nagyon sok vállalkozás jelentős pénzügyi nehézséggel kellett, hogy megbírkózzon a válság és az azt követő években. A fentiek alapján elmondható, hogy a külső gazdasági sokkok, válságok jelnetős hatással vannak a tőkekínálatra (így a bankok magatartására is), azon túl, hogy átalakítják a vállalati magatartást a finanszírozási és beruházási döntések terén (Lemmon – Roberts, 2010).

A vállalati hitelezés a banki gyakorlat alapján az a szegmens, mely a leggyorsabban képes reagálni a válságok okozta gazdasági helyzetre. A válságok elkerülhetetlen velejárói a modern gazdaságoknak, így kénytelenek vagyunk alkalmazkodni azokhoz, felkészülni rájuk. A 2008-as válság okaival számos szakcikk és tanulmány foglalkozott már. Vannak, akik a keresleti oldalon keresik a felelősöket (háztartások, vállalatok, államok), vannak, akik a kínálati oldalt okolják (bankok, pénzügyi intézmények), és léteznek olyan vélemények is, melyek a szabályozókat (felügyeletek,

[43] Egyes szektorokban mint például a speciális agártermékek előállítása a tőkeszegény kis és középvállalkozások nem képesek tartósan fennmaradni és piaci pozícióikat megőrizni. Tipikusan a tőkeerős közép és nagy vállalkozások azok, amelyek uralják a piacot és sikeresek hosszab távon is (Gyarmati, 2007).

jegybankok) okolják a problémák eszkalálódásáért (Lentner et.al, 2011). A pénzügyi közvetítőrendszer problémái a források elapadásában, a kockázatvállalási hajlandóság csökkenésében jelennek meg elsőként (Zéman et.al, 2014). A válság miatt visszaeső vállalati bevételek, a piacok zsugorodása miatt csökken a rendelkezésre álló cash-flow értéke is, ami miatt nehézséget okoz az adósságszolgálat, ami a további hitelfelvétel akadálya lesz rövid időn belül. Fontos azonban megjegyezni, hogy az európai országok KKV szektora számára ez a leginkább elérhető és használható külső forrás a belső források használata után. Így a hitelezés visszaesése egyben konzerválja a finanszírozási nehézségeket a KKV szektor számára, amit az ECB felmérése is alátámaszt.

Ábra 1.: Az eurózóna KKV-inak finanszírozási struktúrája az alkalmazott finanszírozási források használati gyakorisága alapján



Forrás: ECB 2009; 2016 alapján saját szerkesztés

A hitelfinanszírozás, a hitelek szerepének megértése, vizsgálata már évek óta a témája a kutaásoknak. A hitelek fogyasztást és beruházást előrehozó, megelőző szerepe miatt nem lehet azt háttérbe szorítani, hanem meg kell tanulni használni és működtetni azt. A továbbiakban a hitelekkel kapcsoaltos általános vélekedést kívánjuk bemutatni.

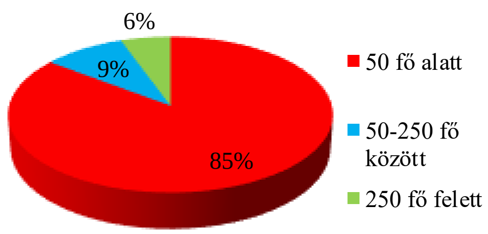
Módszertan

A jelen tanulmányban bemutatott kutatási eredmények egy 2017-ben kivitelezett primer, kérdőíves kutatás részét jelentik. A kutatás egy előtesztelt, sztenderdizált kérdőív segítségével került elvégzésre[44] Magyarországon. Jelen kutatást megelőzte már egy korábbi, vállalkozások körében kivitelezett megkérdezés, melyet egy mélyinterjús vizsgálat előzött meg. E két forduló eredményeként került kialakításra a jelenlegi kérdőív, mely egy összetett, a vállalkozások finanszírozási és beruházási aktivitására kiterjedő kérdőív volt. A felmérés különös figyelmet fordított a vállalkozások projekt menedzselési és projekt finanszírozási gyakorlatára is. A kutatás során 521 darab

[44] Ezúton szeretném megköszönni az Óbudai Egyetem azon hallgatóinak segítségét, akik közreműködtek a kérdőívek terjesztésében és kitöltetésében.

kérdőív érkezett, azonban, csak 416 darab értékelhető kérdőív került a mintába. Jelen tanulmányban a kutatás eredményeit a válaszadó vállalkozások létszámadatai alapján mutatjuk be. A minta összetételét az alábbi ábra mutatja be.

Ábra 2.: A minta összetétele a vállalkozások alkalmazotti létszáma alapján



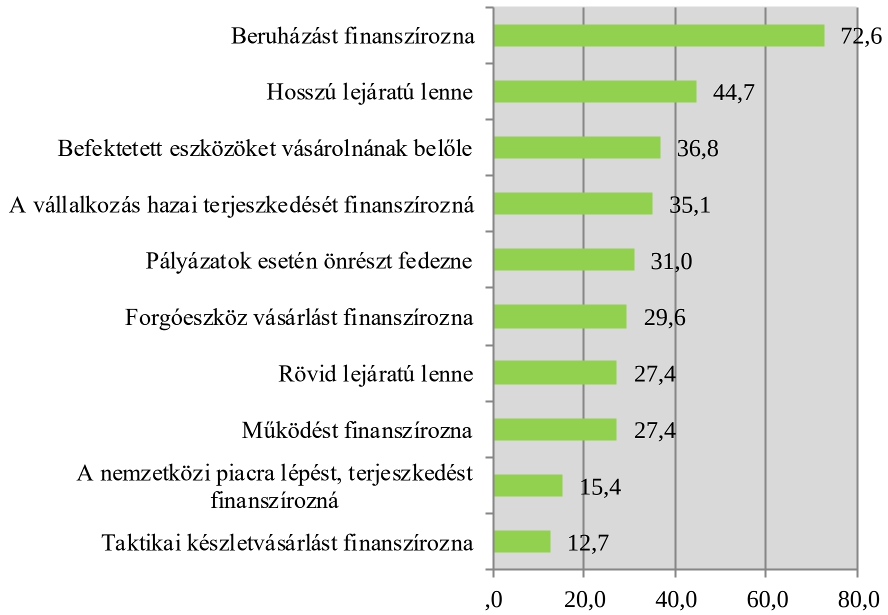
Forrás: saját kutatás, 2017, N = 416

Az ábrából látható, hogy a minta nagy hányadát, 85%-át a kisebb, 50 fő alatti alkalmazotti létszámmal bíró vállalkozások tették ki, ez 355 darab vállalkozást jelentett. A közepes vállalkozások aránya 9% (38 vállalkozás), a legnagyobbaké pedig 6% volt (23 vállalkozás), így kimondható, hogy a tanulmányban közölt eredmények főként a kis- és középvállalkozások szemszögéből mutatják be a hitelfelvételi célokat.

Eredmények

Ahogy az előző ábra is mutatja, a tanulmány a hitelfelvételi célokat és indokokat a kis- és középvállalkozások szemszögéből mutatja be. A mintában szereplő vállalkozások véleménye alapján egyértelmű, hogy ha hitelt vennének fel, az inkább beruházást finanszírozza, ezt mutatja az első helyen szereplő 72,6%-os érték. Ezenkívül fontos tényező számunkra az is, hogy hosszú lejáratú legyen a hitel, valamint szorosan ezt követi az a tény, hogy befektetett eszközöket vásárolnának belőle. Az első három helyen szereplő hitelfelvételi jellemző egyértelműen a beruházás orientáltságot mutatja. Ezenkívül fontosnak tartják azt is hogy a vállalkozás hazai terjeszkedését is finanszírozza a felveendő idegen tőke. Ami érdekesség, hogy a nemzetközi piacra lépést illetve terjeszkedést, valamit a taktikai készletvásárlást egyáltalán nem kívánják hitelből finanszírozni a megkérdezett vállalkozások. További érdekesség az is, hogy forgóeszközöket illetve rövidlejáratú hitelekrz nem szívesen vennének fel sem most, sem a közeljövőben.

Ábra 3.: Hitelfelvételi célok és jellemzők a mintában szereplő vállalkozások véleménye alapján (%)



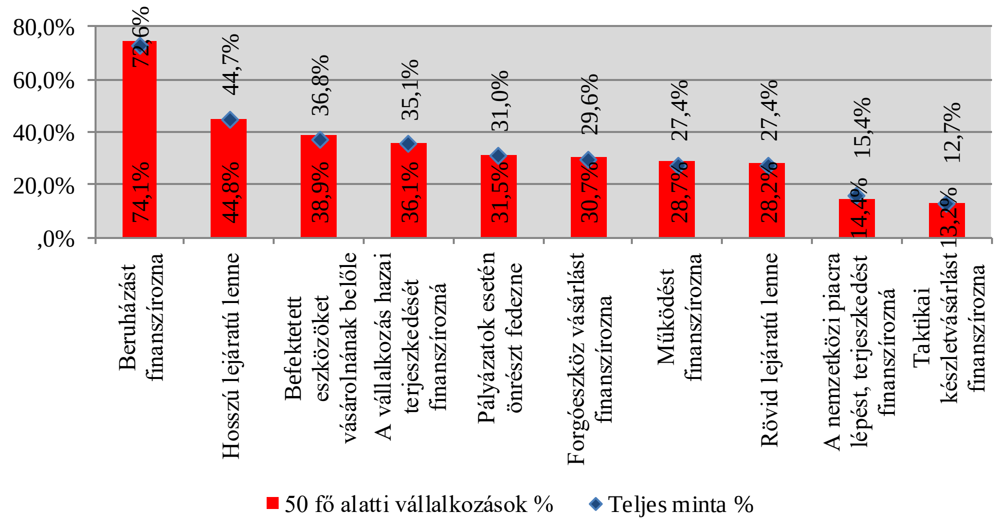
Forrás: saját kutatás, 2017, N = 416

A továbbiakban a válaszokat a vállalkozás mérete szerinti bontásban elemezzük, az alkalmazotti méret szerint csoportosítva a válaszadó vállalkozásokat.

Először nézzük a legkisebb alkalmazotti létszámmal, az 50 fő alatti munkavállalói számmal rendelkező vállalkozások véleményét. Ezek a v állalkozások teszik ki a minta a döntő többségét, így az ő véleményük közelíteni fog a mintaátlaghoz. Látható, hogy a kisvállalkozások leginkább a beruházások finanszírozására vennének fel hitelt, ez a cél a mintaátlaghoz képest 1,5 százalékponttal magasabb értéket is kapott, ami azt mutatja, hogy a másik két szegmens nem egyértelműen beruházás finanszírozóként tekint a hitelre, vagy legakábbis nem akkora arányban veszi azt figyelembe. A kisvállalkozások esetében látható az a pénzügytanból jól megtanult dogma, hogy a hitelek akkor nem okoznak gondot, ha azt beruházás finanszírozásra fordítják, mivel az képes lesz majd kitermelni a hitel fedezetét, a visszafizetés forrását. A hosszú lejárat tekintetében nagyjából azonos eredmény látható a mintaátlaghoz képest, és befektetett eszközöket is nagyobb arányban finanszíroznának hitelből mint amint a mintában szereplő vállalkozások, amit a 2,1 százalékponttal magasabb érték is mutat. A kisvállalkozások a nemzetközi piacra lépést kisebb arányban finanszíroznánk hitelből mint a mintában szereplő vállalkozások, náluk ez a tétel nem szerepel releváns tételnél, mivel a kisvállalkozások többsége erőforrások és más tényezők híján nem képes a nemzetközi versenyben való megmérettetésre.

Érdekesség, hogy a kisvállalkozások esetén rajzolódik ki leginkább a hosszú távú, beruházásokra összpontosító szemlélet. A fentiek alapján kijelenthető, hogy a legkisebb vállalkozások ha hitelt vennének fel, akkor azt jóval óvatosabban hajtanák végre, mint a nagyobb társaik, hosszú távon gondolkodnának, és beruházást finanszíroznának belőle. Más célok és jellemzők tekintetében visszafogottak, amit a 30% körüli, vagy inkább alatti arányok mutatnak a legjobban.

Ábra 4.: Hitelfelvételi célok és jellemzők az 50 fő alatti vállalkozások véleménye alapján

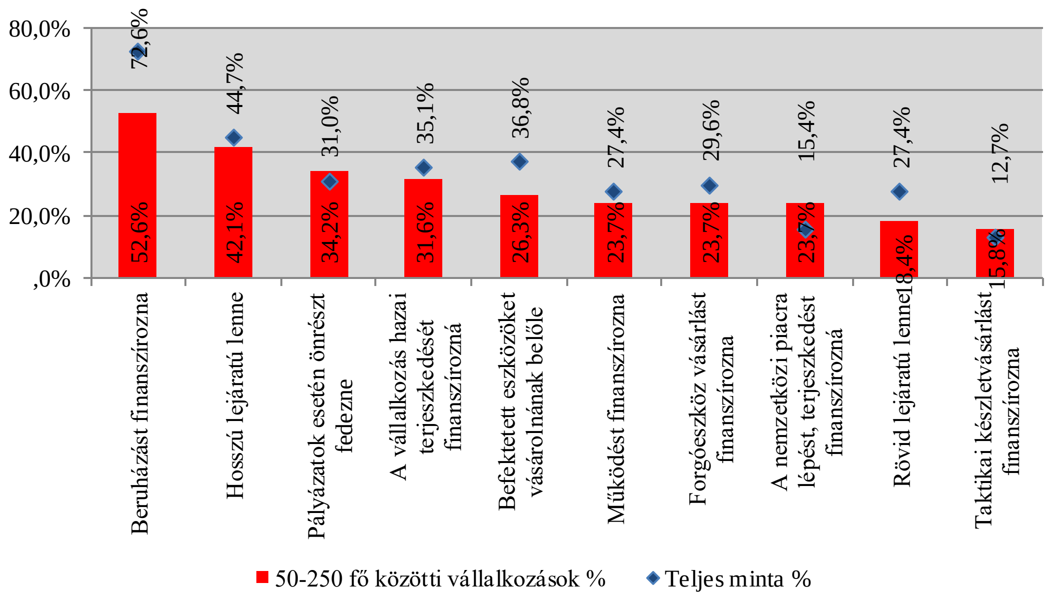


Forrás: saját kutatás, 2017, N = 416

A közepes, 50 és 250 fő közötti vállalkozások esetében egyértelműen látható a lenti ábrából, hogy ők is beruházásokat finanszíroznánk hitelből és mindenképpen hosszú lejáratú hitelben gondolkodnak. Feltűnő azonban az, hogy beruházást finanszírozó vállalkozások a mintaátlaghoz képest 20 százalékponttal kisebb arányban voksoltak erre a jellemzőre. Ehhez kapcsolódik az is, hogy a hosszú lejáratú hitelek esetén is 2,6 százalékponttal alacsonyabb az arány. Harmadik helyen szerepel véleményük szerint a pályázati önrész biztosítása, szemben a befektetett eszközök vásárlására céljával, ez önmagában 3,2 százalékponttal magasabb a mintaátlaghoz képest. Ebből látható, hogy a közepes vállalkozások már bátrabbak, jobban mernek pályázni, amivel képesek a megújulásra, a fejlődésre, a versenyben maradásra. A vállalkozások a hitelfelvételben tehát lehetőséget látnak, további pénzszerzést próbálnak megvalósítani a hitelfelvétel révén. Mindez sajnos a vállalkozások tőkehiányát is bizonyítja, és egyben a bankfüggőséget is alátámasztja, de értelmezhető a helyzet úgy is, hogy a hitelből finanszírozott pályázati önrésszel is a tulajdonosi kockázat csökkentésére koncentrálnak.

A hazai terjeszkedés esetén is kisebb arány látható, ez 3,5 százalékponttal kisebb, mint az átlag, és a befektetett eszközök finanszírozása (ami a teljes minta véleménye alapján a harmadik helyen szerepelt), amely sorban a következő azt 10,5 százalékponttal kisebb a teljes mintához képest. Utolsó helyre sorolódik a taktikai készlet vásárlás, ezt előzi meg a rövidlejáratú hitelcél, ami ismét kilenc százalékponttal alacsonyabb mint a nagy minta véleménye. A fent leírtakat a közepes vállalkozások tekintetében az alábbi ábra mutatja.

Ábra 5.: Hitelfelvételi célok és jellemzők az 50 és 250 fő közötti vállalkozások véleménye alapján



Forrás: saját kutatás, 2017, N = 416

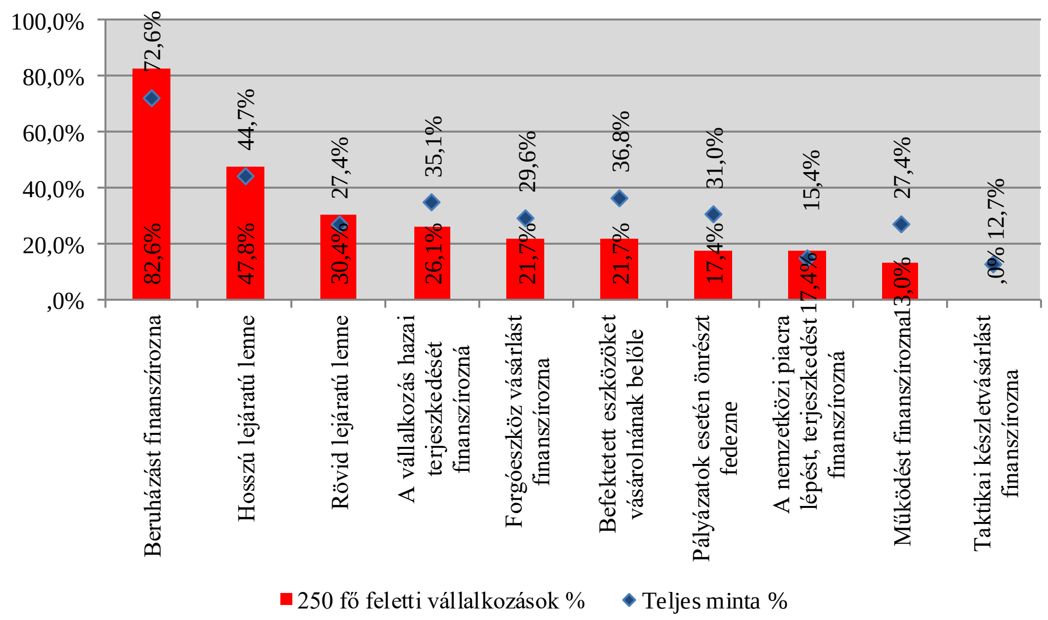
A legnagyobb, 250 fő feletti alkalmazotti létszámmal bíró vállalkozások esetén a beruházás finanszírozó cél ismét erőteljesen (legerőteljesebben) jelentkezik, amit a mintaátlaghoz képest mért 10 százalékpontos eltérés is bizonyít. A hosszú lejárat is erőteljesebben jelentkezik (3,1 százalékpont), és újdonságként megjelenik a rövid lejárat is a célok között, ami a másik két szegmens esetén a háttérbe szorult.

A nagyobb vállalkozásoknál a hazai terjeszkedésének hitelből való finanszírozása és hangsúlyosan jelentkezik, mint a kisebb társaiknál. A nagyvállalkozásoknál a negyedik helyen jelentkezik, mint fő hitelcél a vállalkozás hazai terjeszkedésének a finanszírozása, azonban ez 9 százalékponttal még így is alacsonyabb, mint a mintaátlagban szereplő érték. Ennek oka az, hogy a mintát döntő többségben kisvállalkozások alkotják, így háttérbe szorul a nagyvállalkozások véleménye. Az összes többi hitelcél illetve jellemző esetén ugyanez figyelhető meg, minden esetben kisebbek az értékek, mint a teljes minta tekintetében.

Az utolsó három helyen a nemzetközi piacra lépés terjeszkedésének a finanszírozása szerepel 17,4%-os aránnyal, ami magasabb, mint a mintaátlag, így ebből is látható, hogy a nagyvállalkozások bátrabbak, szívesebben lépnek ki a nemzetközi piacra, mivel a lehetőségeik, az erőforrásaik erre biztosítottak. Az utolsó előtti helyre szorul a működés finanszírozásának ténye, ami nagyon alacsony a mintaátlaghoz képest (13%, szemben a 27,4%-os értékkel). A nagyvállalkozásoknak ezek alapján nem kell hitel a működéshez, hiszen a szükséges forrást akár kereskedelmi hitelek formájában is meg tudják szerezni.

Felfigyelhetünk arra is, hogy a nagyvállalkozások a pályázati önrészt nem szeretnék hitelből finanszírozni, amit a 13,6 % pontos alulmaradás szemléltet a minta véleményéhez képest (31% helyett 17,4%-os érték). Ez azt jelenti, hogy a nagyvállalkozások, akit tőkeerősek, akik jobban tudnak kapcsolódni a tőkepiacokhoz, onnan forrást tudnak szerezni, nem kívánják a pályázataikhoz szükséges önrészt hitelből finanszírozni. Mindezt az alábbi ábra is szemlélteti.

Ábra 6.: Hitelfelvételi célok és jellemzők a 250 fő feletti vállalkozások véleménye alapján



Forrás: saját kutatás, 2017, N = 416

Végül megvizsgáltuk azt is, hogy van-e valamilyen összefüggés a hitelfelvételi jellemzők és a vállalkozás mérete között. A vizsgálathoz a Pearson-féle Chi négyzet értékeket használtuk fel, ami alapján akkor van összefüggés a tényező és a szegmentációs jellemző között, ha az érték 0,05 alatti. Az értékeket az alábbi táblázat tartalmazza:

Táblázat 1.: A vállalkozás mérete és a hitel jellemzője közötti összefüggés

	Chi-négyzet érték
Beruházást finanszírozna	0,010
Befektetett eszközöket vásárolnának belőle	0,096
Taktikai készletvásárlást finanszírozna	0,153
Működést finanszírozna	0,227
A nemzetközi piacra lépést, terjeszkedést finanszírozná	0,307
Pályázatok esetén önrészt fedezne	0,329
Rövid lejáratú lenne	0,416
Forgóeszköz vásárlást finanszírozna	0,466
A vállalkozás hazai terjeszkedését finanszírozná	0,557
Hosszú lejáratú lenne	0,907

Forrás: saját kutatás, 2017, N = 416

Mint az táblázat alapján látható, a hitelfelvételi jellemzőket statisztikailag csak egyetlen esetben befolyásolja a vállalkozás mérete, ez pedig a beruházási célra vonatkozik. Minden más tényező független a vállalati mérettől, így kimondható, hogy a hitelfelvételi jellemzők minden esetben eseti döntések, általános sajátosságokat azonban mégiscsak megfigyelhetünk a minta alapján.

Konklúzió

A tanulmányban bemutatott eredmények alapján megállapítható, hogy a magyar vállalkozások nem utasítják el a hitelfinanszírozást, de a szemléletükben már egyértelműen megmutatkozik már a tudatosság, a hosszú távú szemlélet. Látható, hogy a magyar vállalkozások, akárcsak a nemzetközi társaik tanultak a válságból, nem vesznek, vagy vennének fel mindenféle céllal hitelt, sokkal tudatosabban, megfontoltabban állnak ahhoz.

Egyértelműen látható az is, hogy befektetéseket, beruházásokat szeretnének belőle finanszírozni, amihez hosszú lejáratú hitelre van szükség, és a hitelforrás megszerzését követően befektetett eszközöket, azaz a beruházások tárgyait finanszíroznánk belőle. Működésre, rövid távra nem szívesen vennének fel hitelt, mivel megtanulták a válságot követő időszakból, hogy ez kockázatos, pénzügyi nehézségeket, akár bedőlését és okozhat.

Összességében elmondható, hogy a jövőre nézve a vállalkozások tudatosabban, nem a banki hitel kínálattól vezérelve kívánnak adóság jellegő finanszírozást felvenni, ha nem célzottan, a vállalkozás versenyképességének, megújulásának a céljából, ami a pénzügyi tudatosság nagyobb fokát mutatja a vállalkozások pénzügyi döntéshozói szempontjából.

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Rövid életrajz

Dr. habil. Csiszárik-Kocsir Ágnes

Dr. habil. Csiszárik-Kocsir Ágnes az Óbudai Egyetem Keleti Károly Gazdasági Karának egyetemi docense, a Gazdaság- és Társadalomtudományi Intézet igazgató helyettese. gazdasági agrármérnöki és mérnök-tanári egyetemi diplomáját a Szent István Egyetemen szerezte 2003-ban. Doktori tanulmányait a Szent István Egyetem Gazdálkodás és Szervezéstudományi Doktori Iskolájában folytatta 2003 és 2006 között. Disszertációját 2010-ben védte meg. 2013-tól az Óbudai Egyetem Keleti Károly Gazdasági Karának egyetemi docense. 2017-ben a Kaposvári Egyetem 2004-től az MTMT-ben a mai napig rögzített publikációinak száma 200 darabon felüli, Kutatásainak célpontját olyan témák képezik, melyeket az oktatott tárgyai során is fel tud használni, mint a projektfinanszírozás és menedzsment, a vállalatfinanszírozás és működés, a válsághatások, valamint a pénzügyi kultúra. Hirsh-indexe: 11. Több szakmai szervezet tagja, hazai és nemzetközi folyóiratok szerkesztőbizottságának tagja, valamint hazai és nemzetközi tudományos konferenciák szervezőbizottsgában is tevékenykedik.

Dr. Varga János

Dr. Varga János közgazdász, a gazdálkodás- és szervezéstudományok doktora. Egyetemi oklevelét a gödöllői Szent István Egyetemen szerezte, ahol pénzügyi és vezetési területeken folytatott tanulmányokat. 2014-ben szerzett Ph.D tudományos fokozatot. Kutatási témája a nemzeti és a vállalati versenyképesség. A kutatómunka mellett aktív szereplője a hazai felsőoktatásnak. 2013-tól az Óbudai Egyetem Keleti Károly Gazdasági Karának egyetemi adjunktusa. Emellett több hazai és külföldi intézményben is megfordult már felkért előadóként, illetve vendégtanárként. Kutatásai a versenyképességet befolyásoló tényezők vizsgálatára fókuszálnak. Munkáit hazai és nemzetközi szervezetek különböző díjakkal ismerték el. Tagja olyan szervezeteknek, mint például a Magyar Projektmenedzsment Szövetség, vagy a Magyar Közgazdasági Társaság. A Magyar Tudományos Akadémia köztestületi tagja.

A projektsikert támogató szervezeti kultúra jellemzői és összetevői

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AZ EMBERI ERŐFORRÁSOK MINISZTÉRIUMA ÚJ NEMZETI KIVÁLÓSÁG PROGRAMJÁNAK TÁMOGATÁSÁVAL KÉSZÜLT

Bevezetés

A XXI. század folyamatosan új és egyre összetettebb kihívások elé állítja a modern szervezeteket. Ezekre a kihívásokra egyes vállalkozások projektekkel kívánnak reagálni, azonban a projektjeik sikereit nagy mértékben befolyásolja, hogy milyen környezetben kell megoldani azt a feladatot, amelyet a hagyományos megoldásokkal már nem lehet elég jól menedzselni. A projektkultúra a szervezet különböző szintjein jelenhet meg, hiszen van, ahol csak a legfontosabb feladatokra hoznak létre projekteket, míg más szervezetek esetében az is megfigyelhető, hogy a feladatok szélesebb körére igyekeznek projektjellegű megoldásokat szolgáltatni. A projektek végrehajtása feladatkultúrát követel meg, amely jelentősen igényli a feladat- és teljesítményorientációt, miközben ez nagyon sokszor nem esik egybe a szervezet más területén felfedezhető érdekekkel és szervezeti kultúrával. A projekt célja és érdekei igen sokszor szembe kerülnek a vállalat funkcionális területeinek érdekeivel, amely jelentős konfliktusokat, érdeksérelmet és a munka hatékonyságának visszaesését idézi elő. A projekteket csak olyan szervezeti kultúrában lehet igazán jól megvalósítani, ahol sikerül magát a projektet is újszerűen integrálni a szervezeti struktúrába anélkül, hogy az bárkinek is érdeksérelmet vagy konfliktust eredményezne. A projekt sikeres megvalósításáról akkor beszélhetünk, ha azt sikerül az eredetileg tervezett költség, idő és minőség követelmények egyidejű teljesítése mellett megvalósítani. Ugyanakkor a projektsiker feltételei között a leginkább számon tartott tényező a vállalat projektet támogató szervezeti kultúrájának létrehozása, amely alapjaiban határozza meg a projektmunka lépéseit és folyamatát, valamint a stakeholderek együttműködését és közös munkavégzését. A sikeres projektek megfelelő és támogató szervezeti kultúrát is megkövetelnek, amelyet nem fedezhetünk fel minden vállalkozás esetében. A tanulmány azzal foglalkozik, hogy értelmezze a projektsikert támogató szervezeti kultúra mibenlétét és főbb jellemzőit. Az általános jellemzők bemutatása mellett kitér egy olyan kutatás bemutatására, amely a hazai vállalkozások versenyképességét elősegítő tényezőkkel foglalkozik, így hangsúlyosan azzal a kérdéssel, hogy milyen mértékben sikerült támogató szervezeti kultúrát létrehozni a projektek sikeres megvalósításához Magyarországon.

Irodalmi áttekintés

Az üzleti környezetben bekövetkezett változások nem tették egyszerűbbé a vállalkozások működését. Miközben egyre összetettebbé és változékonyabbá vált az életünk szinte minden területe, addig a vállalkozások számára is újabb és újabb kihívásokat kell megoldani a hosszú távú sikerek fenntartásához. Ebben a folyamatos kényszerhelyzetben és küzdelemben válik nagy segítséggé a projektmenedzsment, amely lehetőséget teremt a cégek számára, hogy az újszerűnek tekinthető feladatokat egyedi menedzsment megoldásokkal oldják meg. A projektmenedzsment alkalmazása nem kötelező a vállalkozások számára, hiszen a projektmenedzsment alkalmazása nélkül is lehet sikeres egy üzleti szervezet. Ugyanakkor mégis azt tapasztalhatjuk, hogy a projektmenedzsment megfelelő alkalmazása mellett megsokszoródik a hatékonyság, az eredményesség, és a szervezeti versenyképesség is erősödik.

A projekt és a projektmenedzsment meghatározására a mai napig nem alakult ki egységesen elfogadott definíció. Ugyanakkor elmondhatjuk, hogy bár vannak alapvető fogalmi különbségek az egyes meghatározások között, a legtöbben mégis egyetértenek a projekt általános jellemzőit illetően. Mindez olyan megismételhetelen tevékenységnek tekinthető, amely meghatározott céllal és elvárt eredménnyel rendelkezik, definiált költségvetéssel és határidőkkel jellemezhető, illetve a projektcél megvalósításához jól meghatározott anyagi és emberi erőforrásszükségletet támaszt. A projekt úgy segíti a szervezet hosszú távú sikerességét, hogy annak céljai alapvetően illeszkednek a szervezeti célokhoz, bármi is volt eredetileg a projekt alapvető célja

Egyes megközelítések szerint a projektmenedzsment segít a környezeti változásokhoz való alkalmazkodásban. A több változás több innovációt igényel, és ezeket a leghatékonyabban projektek keretében tudjuk megvalósítani (Verzuh, 2006). Hasonlóképpen fogalmaz Gareis is, aki szerint a projektmenedzsment arra teremt lehetőséget, hogy elő tudjuk segíteni a szervezet rugalmasságát, és mindez egyenes utat jelent a minőség fokozásához (Gareis, 2007). A projektmenedzsment nagy hatásfokkal segíti elő a szervezet tudásmenedzsmentjének fejlődését is, hiszen a projekmunka során tanulhatunk a hibákból és fejleszthetővé válnak azok a módszerek, amelyeket később sikerrel vethetünk be az újabb projektek menedzseléséhez.

A Projektmenedzsment Útmutató (PMBOK Guide) is felhívja a figyelmet a projektmenedzsment gyakorlati alkalmazhatóságára. A projektmenedzsment alkalmazásával a szervezetek képessé válnak ismeretek, készségek, folyamatok, eszközök és módszerek alkalmazására, ezzel növelve a siker esélyét a projektek széles spektrumában. A projektmenedzsment termékek, szolgáltatások megvalósítására, átadására koncetrál (PMI, 2013, p. 34). Tekintve azt, hogy a vállalkozások döntő többsége termékeit és szolgáltatásait értékesíti a piacokon, és ezekből származik a profitja, így korántsem mellékes kérdés, hogy mivel tehetjük még hatékonyabbá a vállalkozásokat ebben a tevékenységben. Egyik lehetséges megoldásnak természetesen a projektmenedzsmentet tekinthetjük. Több projekt ugyanis több profitot is eredményezhet.

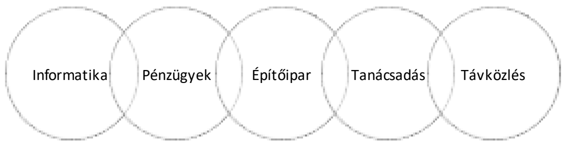
A projektmenedzsment azért is válhat egyre jelentősebbé a vállalkozások számára, mert jelentősen megrövidültek a termékek életciklusai. Egyre több szervezet számára lesz lényeges kérdés, hogy minél rövidebb idő alatt vezessen be a piacra új termékeket és szolgáltatásokat a versenypozíciója fenntartása érdekében. A globális verseny erősödése a minőség szerepét is középpontba állította, és így az elvárásoknak való megfelelést sem lehet már akármilyen eszközzel biztosítani. A projektmenedzsment alkalmazásával átütő sikereket érhetünk el a minőség javításában, amely egyértelműen a vevői-, megrendelői elégedettség fokozását fogja eredményezni. A tudás és az ismereteink fejlődése megnöveli a projektek összetettségét, mert a legújabb fejlesztések, amelyek egyébként nagy tudástőkét igényelnek, éppen a projektek keretében valósulnak meg. A tudástőke bővülése magával hozta a komplexitást, amely csak akkor válik jól menedzselhetővé, ha célzott megoldásokkal és megközelítéssel igyekszünk az összetett folyamatokat áttekinthetőbbé és könnyebben kezelhetővé tenni. Mindehhez a projektmenedzsment nyújt számunkra segítséget. Ebből a szempontból azt is mondhatjuk, hogy a projektmenedzsment ma már a legjelentősebb fejlesztések menedzsmentjének is tekinthető (Jebrin, 2013). A projektmenedzsment mindazonáltal segít hatékonyabbá válni olyan területeken, mint például a tervezés, az erőforrásgazdálkodás, a finanszírozás, az időgazdálkodás, az információgazdálkodás, a kockázat- és konfliktuskezelés, vagy a változásoknak való hatékonyabb megfelelés stb. A tanulmány azzal a céllal készült, hogy megvizsgáljuk a hazai vállalkozások projektorientációját. Projektorientáció (management by projects, vagyis a szervezetek projektalapú menedzselése) alatt azt kell értenünk, hogy egy-egy vállalkozás mennyire elkötelezett a projektmenedzsment irányába és milyen mértékben jellemző a szervezetekre, hogy a feladatokat (problémákat), kihívásokat leginkább projektek keretében valósítják meg. A projektorientáció egyben a projektintenzitás mértékét is kifejezi.

Projektorientáció = a projektmenedzsment iránti fogékonyság, elkötelezettség

Projektintenzitás = a megvalósított projekt száma

Minél magasabb egy szervezet projektorientációja, annál inkább jellemző lehet rá, hogy több projektet valósít meg. A projektorientáció kifejeződik abban, hogy a menedzsment felismeri a projektmenedzsmentben rejlő lehetőségeket és igyekszik azt a szervezet legtöbb feladatára ráilleszteni. A projektorientáció egyben a projektet támogató szervezeti kultúrát is jelenti, amely mindenképpen fontos lesz a projektek sikeres megvalósításához. A projektorientáció a menedzsment olyan irányú meggyőződése, hogy a projektekkel sokkal nagyobb eredményeket lehet elérni a költségcsökkentés, vagy a megrendelő elvárásainak teljesítésében. A projektorientáció a szervezet és a menedzsment olyan mértékű elkötelezettsége is lehet a projektek irányába, hogy még a szervezeti strukturát is képesek egy-egy projekthez igazítani. Mindez egyértelműen kifejezi, hogy mennyire fontos a projekt a szervezet számára, hiszen elsődleges munkamegosztási elvnek a projekt fog bizonyulni. A projektorientáció változása szinte együtt jár a projektintenzitás változásával. Minél fontosabb szerepet tölt majd be a projektmenedzsment egy-egy szervezet életében, annál valószínűbb, hogy több projektet fog megvalósítani. A projektintenzitás vizsgálható iparágak, vagy vállalatok szintjén is. Az iparági vizsgálat során arra a kérdésre kaphatunk választ, hogy melyek azok az ágazatok, amelyekben a legtöbb projektet valósítják meg. A projektek magas száma arra enged következtetni, hogy ezekben találhatjuk azokat a vállalkozásokat is, amelyeknél a leginkább felfedezhetjük a projektmenedzsment szemléletet, így a projektorientáció magasabb fokát.

Ábra 1.: Projektintenzív ágazatok Magyarországon



Forrás: saját adatgyűjtés

A projektintenzitás ugyanakkor azt is jelenti, hogy a szervezetnél hogyan változott a projektek száma a vizsgált időszakban. Ha magasabb a projektintenzitás, azt az is jelenti, hogy a szervezetnél több projektet is kezdeményeztek egy-egy egyedi probléma, vagy feladat megoldására. A szervezet projektalapú menedzselése (*management by projects*) törvényszerűen hozza magával a projektintenzitás változását is. Egyesen arányosság fedezhető fel a szervezetre jellemző projektorientáltság és a projektintenzitás között. Ha növekszik a projektmenedzsment iránti elkötelezettség a szervezet, vagy a vezetés részéről, úgy egyre több projekt megvalósításában fogják magukat érdekeltnek érezni. Belátva a projektalapú menedzselés előnyeit és hasznosságát, szívesebben létesítenek projekteket, vagy hoznak létre projektteam-eket az egyes megoldandó feladatokra. A projektmenedzsment előnyeit és lehetőségeit megtapasztalva szívesebben fognak a későbbiekben projektekben gondolkodni, és mindez elősegíti a projektek számának növekedését is.

Azonban ez nem jelenti azt, hogy mindent projektekben kellene megvalósítani. A projekteket is csak akkor kell létrehozni, ha azoknak valóban van létjogosultsága[45]. Nem kell mindig és mindent projektbe foglalni, de a szervezetek legtöbbször azokat a feladatokat sem oldják meg projektekben, amelyeknél egyébként célszerű lenne a projektalapú megoldás. A szervezetek versenyképességének alapjai c. kutatás azzal a céllal vette kezdetét, hogy megvizsgálja a gazdálkodó szervezetek versenyképességére ható tényezőit. A kutatás a projektmenedzsmenttel kapcsolatban is próbált információkat gyűjteni. A ProSci Institute PCT modellje szerint a projektsiker ismérvei és feltételei között egyaránt 3-3 tényezőt lehet megemlíteni. A projektsiker akkor realizálódik, ha sikerül a projekt céljának és az elvárt minőségnek összehangba kerülnie, vagyis a projektcél teljesíti a megrendelő elvárásait megfelelő minőségben. Emellett a projektsiker azt is jelenti, hogy a projektet sikerül befejezni határidőn és költségterven (költségvetésen) belül. Végül a projektsiker kifejezhető a ROI (return on investment) mutató elvárásoknak megfelelő alakulásában is. E három tényező együttes teljesülésében értelmezhetjük a projektsikert és lényegében ez maga a projektmenedzsment legfőbb célja is. Ahhoz azonban, hogy sikeres

[45] ne kezdjünk projektbe, például, ha túl egyszerű a feladat, vagy nincsenek meg a megfelelő feltételek, képességek

projektekről beszélhessünk, három területre kiemelt figyelmet kell fordítani minden sikerorientált szervezetnél.

Anyag és módszer

A szervezetek versenyképességének alapjai c. kutatás e három terület vizsgálatával foglalkozik. A kutatás legfőbb pillére a kérdőíves megkeresés volt. A kérdőívet két nagyobb részre lehet bontani. Az első részében a vállalkozások karakterisztikájára vonatkozó kérdéseket találhatjuk. Ezek a kérdések segítséget nyújtanak abban, hogy meg tudjuk állapítani, konkrétan milyen méretű és jellegű vállalkozás vett részt a kutatásban. A második részben a szervezetek működése és menedzsmentjének vizsgálata kerül a középpontba. A kitöltött és kiértékelhető kérdőívek száma a tanulmány megírásáig N=949 volt. A kérdőív 20 darab kérdést tartalmazott, amelyek között egyaránt szerepeltek eldöntendő kérdések, értékelőskálák és nyitott kérdések is. Utóbbiak eseti jelleggel fordultak elő a felmérésben. A válaszadók többségében értékelőskálákon jellemezhették, hogy milyen mértékben jellemző rájuk egy-egy előre megfogalmazott állítás. A kutatás megkezdése előtt több hipotézist is megfogalmaztunk, amelyek közül most a projektmenedzsmenttel kapcsolatos hipotézisek kerülnek bemutatásra:

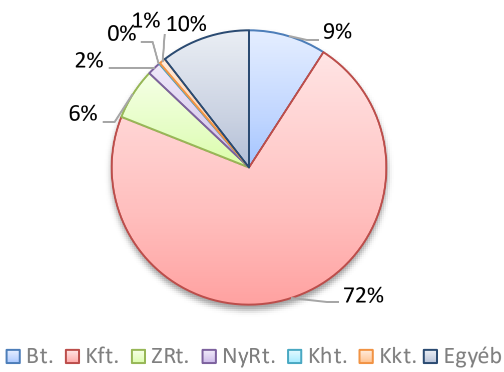
H_1: Azzal a feltételezéssel élünk, hogy a hazai vállalkozásokra kevésbé jellemző a projektorientáció. Ugyan a hazai cégek is számos kihívással és új (egyedi) feladattal találkoznak, az innováció, és az ennek megvalósítását elősegítő projektszemlélet csak korlátozottan fedezhető fel. A hazai vállalkozások többségénél az innovációs teljesítmény és a projektorientáció sem jellemezhető magas szinten. A hazai cégek többsége kevésbé szereti az új kihívásokat és feladatokat.

H_2: Feltételezhető továbbá, hogy a hazai vállalkozások többsége nemcsak a projekt- vagy az innovációs szemlélet hiánya miatt tekinthető kevésbé versenyképesnek, hanem olyan tényezők miatt is, mint például a megfelelő stratégiai munka hiánya. Ezzel összefüggésben a cégek nem ismerik elég kimerítően a vevői/megrendelői igényeket, nem elemzik módszeresen és rendszeresen a hibáikat, amelyekből tanulhatnának, illetve fejlődhetnék, és a legtöbb vállalkozásnak a kockázatok kezelése is problémákat jelent, mivel nem rendelkeznek megfelelő mennyiségű és kellően megalapozott információkkal a döntéshozatalhoz.

Elsőként azok a kérdések kerülnek bemutatásra, amelyek a minta jellemzőiről árulnak el több információt. A felmérésben résztvevő vállalkozások karakterisztikáját tekintve elsőképpen a társasági forma szerint jellemzem a válaszadókat. A következő ábrából egyértelműen kiderül, hogy a felmérésben résztvevő cégek közel háromnegyede Kft. formában működött, egyben bemutatva a hazai viszonyok között legnépszerűbbnek tekinthető vállalkozói jogi formát is[46]. A betéti társaságok és a részvénytársaságok csak jóval kisebb arányban vettek részt a kutatásban.

[46] Magyarországon az összes bejegyzett és működő vállalkozás többsége Kft. formában működik

Ábra 2.: A vizsgált vállalatok megoszlása társasági forma alapján

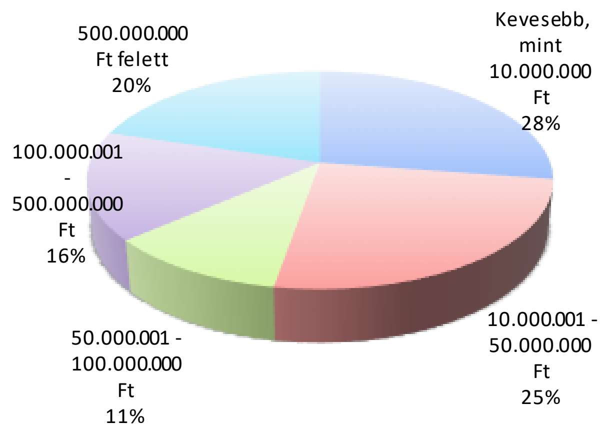


Forrás: saját adatgyűjtés (N=949)

A második vizsgálati pontot a foglalkoztatottak száma jelenti. A felmérésben résztvevő cégek több mint fele 10-nél kevesebb munkavállalóval rendelkezik. Ugyanakkor szép számmal találunk olyan vállalkozásokat is a mintában, amelyek 50 főnél magasabb foglalkoztatotti létszámmal rendelkeznek. Mindez 182 vállalkozásról mondható el. Nemcsak a foglalkoztatás, hanem az árbevétel alapján is látható lesz, hogy a kutatás nem kizárólag a mikrovállalkozásra fókuszált.

A felmérésben résztvevő vállalkozások többségének nincsenek külföldi piacai (65,9%). Azok a cégek, amelyek viszont rendelkeznek külföldi piacokkal (34,1%)[47], leginkább európai piacokon érdekeltek. Mindössze 80 vállalkozásnak vannak ázsiai, 62-nek észak-amerikai, 48-nak dél-amerikai, 39-nek afrikai és 17-nek ausztrál piaci érdekeltsége. A foglalkoztatás mellett az árbevétel is sokat elárul a kutatásban közreműködő cégek méretéről. Az 5. ábrából látható, hogy a minta 20%-ának 500 millió forint felett alakul az éves árbevétele. Ha abból indulunk ki, hogy az EU-s előírások szerint a mikrovállalkozás éves árbevétele maximum 2 millió euró (azaz kb. 600 millió forint), akkor a minta több mint háromnegyede mikrovállalkozásnak minősülne, ha csupán az árbevétel alapján határoznánk meg a kutatásban résztvevő szervezetek méretét. A cégméretet azonban nemcsak az árbevétel határozza meg.

Ábra 3.: A kutatásban résztvevő cégek megoszlása az árbevétel alapján



Forrás: saját adatgyűjtés (N=949)

A foglalkoztatottak száma és az árbevétel alapján azt mondhatjuk, hogy többségében vannak a KKV-k a mintában, de nincs éles elmozdulás a mikrovállalkozások irányába. Ezt leginkább a foglalkoztatottak száma támasztja alá. A 2 millió eurós árbevétel (600 millió forint) megítélésem szerint meglehetősen magas elvárás egy mikrovállalkozástól, hiszen ez még egy kis-, vagy egy közepes vállalkozás számára is jelentős árbevételt jelent, nemhogy egy családi cég számára. Bár úgy tűnik az árbevétel szerint valóban a mikrocégek vannak többségben, azonban a magas korlát miatt a hazai viszonyokat és lehetőségeket ismerve, valamint a foglalkoztattak száma alapján

[47] 321 válaszadót jelent

megállapíthatjuk, hogy ez a többség mégsem annyira egyértelmű. Számos kis- és közepes vállalkozás nem éri el a 2 millió eurós határt Magyarországon, a mikrovállalkozások számára ez az éves árbevétel pedig szinte elérhetetlen. A tevékenységi kör szerint vizsgálva a vállalkozásokat már jóval egyértelműbb megoszlást láthatunk. A válaszadó cégek fele (számszerint 346 cég) a kereskedelemben tevékenykedik. Mellettük az építőipari és szállítási/raktározási tevékenységgel foglalkozó cégek szerepelnek még a második legnagyobb gyakorisággal. A harmadik helyen (kb. 100-100 válaszadással) az informatika, az ipar és az üzleti tanácsadás szerepel. A többi ágazatból csak kisebb százalékban szerepelnek vállalkozások a mintában. A legkisebb válaszadási arány a szociális ellátással foglalkozó vállalkozások közül kerül ki. A kutatásban résztvevő cégeket tevékenységük helye szerint is lehet csoportosítani. A legtöbb vállalkozás Budapesten végez üzletszerű gazdálkodó tevékenységet (634 válaszadó). Mellettük második helyen Közép-Magyarország található (400 válaszadással), míg az ország többi régiójában nagyjából egyenletes eloszlásban folytatják működésüket a mintában résztvevő vállalkozások (a többi régióban kb. 150-200 válaszadás). A kutatás igyekezett az ország valamennyi régiójából információkat gyűjteni, és ezt a célkitűzést sikerült is teljesíteni.

Eredmények

A projektintenzitás vizsgálatához az adja a legkézenfekvőbb formát, ha megkérdezzük a vállalkozásokat, milyen mértékben növekszik a cégek innovációs potenciálja és a projektjeik száma. Eric Verzuh Projektmenedzsment című könyvében arról ír, hogy a vállalkozásoknak a fennmaradás vagy az üzleti sikerek érdekében folyamatosan meg kell újítaniuk termékeiket és szolgáltatásaikat. Mindezek szüntelen innovációkon keresztül valósíthatók meg, amelyek projektek keretében sokkal eredményesebben és hatékonyabban menedzselhetők (Verzuh, 2006). A környezeti változásokra a cégeknek innovációkkal kell reagálnia, amelyek még több projekt kezdeményezését irányoznák elő. Ha abból indulunk ki, hogy minden cég életében vannak kisebb-nagyobb változások, akkor azt feltételezhetnénk, hogy a projektek száma is arányosan növekszik a társaságoknál. Valójában erről korántsem lehet beszélni. A kérdőív egyik kérdése azt kérte a kitöltőktől, hogy értékeljék egytől négyig terjedő skálán, hogy mennyire jellemző a cégnél az innovációs teljesítmény erősödése. Az egyes érték azt jelentette, hogy *egyáltalán nem jellemző* az innovációs teljesítmény javulása, míg a négyes érték a *teljes mértékben jellemző* értéket jelentette. Az értékelőskálát minden esetben kiegészítette egy ötödik válaszlehetőség is, amely a *nem tudom pontosan megítélni* válaszlehetőséget jelentette. A válaszokból kiderül, hogy a cégek mindössze 15%-a ítéli meg úgy, hogy jelentősen javul az innovációs teljesítménye, miközben a válaszadók fele szerint ez inkább nem, vagy egyáltalán nem jellemző. Mindez jól érzékelteti a felmérésben résztvevő cégek innovációs törekvéseit, hiszen csak kevesen jelölték meg azt a választ, mely szerint egyértelmű az innovációs erőfeszítések fokozódása. Minden jól megmutatkozik a megkeresett cégek projektintenzitásában is. A több innováció több projektet igényelne, de ez is csak a vállalkozások 20,8%-ára jellemző teljes mértékben.

Bár az innovációs teljesítmény vagy a projektintenzitás növekedéséről nem számoltak be döntően pozitívan a megkeresett vállalkozások, a megrendelői- vagy ügyfélorientáltságot tekintve már nagyobb egyetértést tapasztalhattam. A cégek többségében azt állították, hogy teljes mértékben jellemző rájuk a vevő/megrendelő orientáltság növekedése (57,7%). Mindez rendkívül jól kamatoztatható lenne az innovációkhoz vagy a projektekhez, hiszen mindkettő szól valakinek, mindkettőnek megvannak a "címzettjei", így a vevővel vagy megrendelővel mindig és mindenkor kiemelten kell foglalkozni. A kutatás szerint a cégek ebbe az irányba megteszik a szükséges erőfeszítéseket, így igyekeznek közelebb kerülni a vevőikhez, a megrendelőikhez és jobban megismerni igényeiket, elvárásaikat. A megkeresett cégek 33,7%-a szerint ez inkább jellemző a működésre, míg alig találunk olyan válaszadókat, akik szerint az alig, vagy egyáltalán nem jellemző. A kapott eredmények talán nem meglepőek, hiszen elvégre is mindenkinek a vevőkből származik a bevétele, így a saját profitja ellen dolgozik az a szervezet, amely nem helyezi előtérbe a vevői vagy megrendelői orientáltságot. Szükséges volt megkérdezni a vállalkozókat arról is, hogy mennyire jellemző a projektteam-ek létrehozása egy-egy probléma megoldására. A *teljes mértékben jellemző* választ csak a kitöltők kevesebb, mint egyötöde jelölte meg. Ugyanakkor a mintában szereplők több mint fele olyan jellegű válaszokat adott, amelyek arról árulkodnak, hogy a problémákra inkább nem, vagy egyáltalán nem hoznak létre projektteam-et. Megítélésem szerint ez összefüggésbe hozható azzal is, hogy a 949 vállalkozás közül 501 cég tíznél kevesebb munkavállalóval rendelkezik, így ezeknél nagyon nem is lenne lehetőség külön projektteam-eket létrehozni.

A projektek, vagy innovációk megvalósításához rendkívül fontos lenne, hogy a vállalkozás rendelkezzen mindazon feltételekkel, amelyek a célok megvalósításához szükségesek lehetnek. Ebből a szempontból a megkeresett cégek jól vizsgáztak, hiszen a mintában szereplő cégek közel 80%-a véli úgy, hogy a szükséges munkafeltételeket teljes mértékben, vagy jellemzően biztosítani tudja az érintettek számára. Ez szintén jó alapot szolgáltathatna arra, hogy a cégek több innovációt, vagy több projektet tudjanak megvalósítani. A megkeresett cégek csupán egyötödére jellemző, hogy egyértelműen hatékonyabbá vált a kockázatok kezelését illetően. Az inkább jellemző válasz a megkérdezettek 50%-ára volt jellemző. A felmérésben résztvevő vállalkozások többségénél valamelyest javult a kockázat-menedzsment, de az egyértelmű javulást a cégek csupán egyötöde tudta megerősíteni. A kockázat a vállalkozói tevékenység, és így a projektek egyik nehezítő tényezője, amelyre a céljaink teljesülése érdekében mindenképpen több figyelmet kell fordítani. A kockázatok nemcsak a projektek menedzselése, hanem a rendszeresen végzett vállalkozói tevékenységek esetében is okozhatnak problémákat. Nem csupán a projektek sikere érdekében lenne szükség a hatékonyabb kockázatmenedzsmentre, hanem ezen a területen általánosságban véve kellene folyamatos és látványos előrelépést felmutatnia a gazdálkodó szervezeteknek. Mindezt csak a mintában szereplő cégek kicsivel több, mint 20%-a tudta felmutatni. A projekteket akkor szokták leginkább kezdeményezni, amikor a vállalkozásnál új feladatokkal, kihívásokkal, problémákkal találkoznak az érintettek, és ezeket a korábban alkalmazott megoldásokkal már nem lehet elég sikeresen menedzselni. A projektorientáció mértékéről rendkívül sokat elárul az a tény, hogy mennyire szereti egy vállalkozás az új feladatokat, kihívásokat. A következő ábra egyértelművé teszi, hogy a felmérésben résztvevő vállalkozások kevesebb mint egyötödére jellemző egyértelműen, hogy egyre jobban szeretik az új feladatokat. Ha egy cégnél nem annyira szeretik az új dolgokat, akkor nem meglepő módon a projektkezdeményezések számát sem szabad magas szinten elvárni. A projektorientáció ugyanis feltételezi, hogy a vállalkozások olyan kultúrával is rendelkezzenek, amelyben nem idegenkednek az új kihívásoktól.

A projektek menedzselése során az egyik legnagyobb előny abból származik, hogy a folyamatos visszacsatolások és kontroll eredményeképpen a vállakozás saját maga is tökéletesíteni tudja a projektmenedzselési gyakorlatát. Ehhez azonban speciális öntanuló és önfejlesztő folyamatot kell bejárni. Csak akkor tudjuk módszereinket fejleszteni, ha a projekt megvalósítása során folyamatosan feltárjuk és dokumentáljuk hibáinkat, majd azokból a projekt végén értékelést végzünk, illetőleg fejlesztési javaslatokat fogalmazunk meg. Ehhez azonban első lépésként be kell látni, hogy hibáztunk és meg kell találni azok tényleges felmerülési helyét. Saját hibáinkból tanulhatunk a legtöbbet, hiszen ez teszi lehetővé, hogy kikísérletezzük a legjobb gyakorlatot, ami egyre közelebb visz minket a projektcél teljesítéséhez. A kérdőíves felmérésben résztvevő cégek 30%-ára jellemző egyértelműen, hogy rendszeresen elemzi hibáit. Ebből a szempontból lényegesen nagyobb javulásra lenne szüksége a vállalkozásoknak, hiszen a hibák elemzése nemcsak a projektek megvalósítása és az új projektek kezdeményezése esetében lehet fontos, hanem az úgynevezett rendszeresen végzett vállalkozói tevékenységnél is (így például a termelésnél, vagy a logisztikánál).

Következtetések, zárszó

A kérdőívben olyan jellegű kérdések kerültek megfogalmazásra, amelyekből következtetni lehet a felmérésben résztvevő cégek projektoreintációjának változására. A kapott válaszok alapján azt mondhatjuk, hogy vállalkozásoknak inkább a stratégiai szemlélete javult, sem mint a projektmenedzsment iránti elkötelezettsége. A H_1-es hipotézis – mely szerint a hazai cégek projektorientációja nem tekinthető magas szintűnek – beigazolódott. A cégek mindössze 20%-a jelölte meg, hogy egyértelműen növekszik a projektorientáció, tehát egyre több feladatot oldanak meg projektek keretében. Ennél sokkal kevesebb cég igazolta az innovációs teljesítmény egyértelmű javulását. A cégek kevesebb, mint egyötöde szereti igazán az új lehetőségeket, kihívásokat. A megkeresett cégek kicsivel több mint 15%-a hoz csak létre projektteam-et egy-egy feladat vagy probléma megoldására. Mindez azt mutatja, hogy a projektmenedzsment szemlélet a vállalkozások csak egy szűk körére jellemző, és a többségre inkább nem jellemző a PBA (project based organisation) szemlélet. A vállalkozások méretét tekintve talán ez nem is meglepő eredmény, ugyanakkor a projektmenedzsment a kisebb cégek számára is pozitív hozadékkal járhatna, amennyiben azt megfelelő módon alkalmazzák.

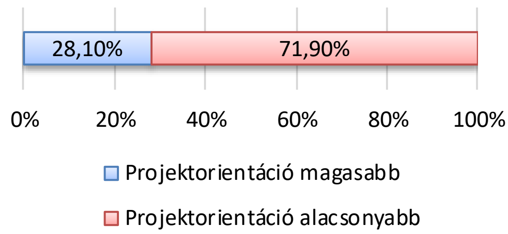
Táblázat 1.: A vizsgált vállalkozások projektorientáltságának összefoglalása

Az innovációs teljesítmény növekszik	Teljes mértékben	15,2%
A projekintenzitás növekszik	Teljes mértékben	20,8%
A vevő/megrendelő orientáltság növekszik	Teljes mértékben	57,7%
Egyre több problémára hoznak létre projektteam-et	Teljes mértékben	16,6%
Minden feltétel adott a munkavégzéshez	Teljes mértékben	43,8%
A kockázatmenedzsment egyre hatékonyabb	Teljes mértékben	21,9%
A cégnél szeretik az új feladatokat, kihívásokat	Teljes mértékben	18,9%
A cég folyamatosan elemzi hibáit	Teljes mértékben	30,0%
ÁTLAGÉRTÉK	**Teljes mértékben**	**28,1%**

Forrás: saját adatgyűjtés

A H_2-es hipotézis szerint a cégek nem rendelkeznek megfelelő stratégiai szemlélettel, így rosszul értelmezik a vevőik elvárásait (alacsony a vevőorientáció), nem elemzik rendszeresen a hibáikat, és nem tekinthető elég jónak a kockázatmenedzsmentjük sem. Ez a hipotézis nem nyert igazolást. A cégek többsége ugyanis egyre jobbnak tekinthető a vevőközpontúság fokozásában, a hibák rendszeres elemzésében és valamelyest a kockázatok menedzselése is hatékonyabbá vált. Ezeknél a kérdeseknél a cégek többnyire előrelépésről számoltak be. Ugyanakkor az eredmény akkor lett volna igazán látványos, ha a megkeresett cégek többsége a teljes mértékben jellemző értéket jelöli meg, de erre azonban nem került sor.

Ábra 4.: A projektkultúra megléte a vállalkozásoknál



Forrás: saját adatgyűjtés

Összességében megállapítható, hogy a vállalkozások többségének nem javult a projektorientációja, bár stratégiai szemléletben tapasztalhatunk némi előrelépést. Ha valóban több lenne a projektorientált szervezet Magyarországon, akkor lényegesen többen adtak volna *teljes mértékben jellemző* válaszokat a fenti állításokra. Egyszerű statisztikai átlagot vonva kijelenhető, hogy a megadott kérdések alapján csupán a cégek kb. egynegyede ért el látványosabb fejlődést ezen a területen, és ez mindenképpen kedvezőtlen eredmények tekinthető. Mindez még akkor is igaz, ha a minta többségét kisebb szervezetek alkotják, mert a projektmenedzsment számukra is alkalmazható és járható út lenne. A projektszemlélet terjedését elő kellene segíteni a KKV-k számára, hiszen az cégmérettől függetlenül is javíthatja a hatékonyságot, a termelékenységet és a cégek versenyképességét.

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Rövid életrajz

Dr. habil. Csiszárik-Kocsir Ágnes

Dr. habil. Csiszárik-Kocsir Ágnes az Óbudai Egyetem Keleti Károly Gazdasági Karának egyetemi docense, a Gazdaság- és Társadalomtudományi Intézet igazgató helyettese. gazdasági agrármérnöki és mérnök-tanári egyetemi diplomáját a Szent István Egyetemen szerezte 2003-ban. Doktori tanulmányait a Szent István Egyetem Gazdálkodás és Szervezéstudományi Doktori Iskolájában folytatta 2003 és 2006 között. Disszertációját 2010-ben védte meg. 2013-tól az Óbudai Egyetem Keleti Károly Gazdasági Karának egyetemi docense. 2017-ben a Kaposvári Egyetem 2004-től az MTMT-ben a mai napig rögzített publikációinak száma 200 darabon felüli, Kutatásainak célpontját olyan témák képezik, melyeket az oktatott tárgyai során is fel tud használni, mint a projektfinanszírozás és menedzsment, a vállalatfinanszírozás és működés, a válsághatások, valamint a pénzügyi kultúra. Hirsh-indexe: 11. Több szakmai szervezet tagja, hazai és nemzetközi folyóiratok szerkesztőbizottságának tagja, valamint hazai és nemzetközi tudományos konferenciák szervezőbizottsgában is tevékenykedik.

Dr. Varga János

Dr. Varga János közgazdász, a gazdálkodás- és szervezéstudományok doktora. Egyetemi oklevelét a gödöllői Szent István Egyetemen szerezte, ahol pénzügyi és vezetési területeken folytatott tanulmányokat. 2014-ben szerzett Ph.D tudományos fokozatot. Kutatási témája a nemzeti és a vállalati versenyképesség. A kutatómunka mellett aktív szereplője a hazai felsőoktatásnak. 2013-tól az Óbudai Egyetem Keleti Károly Gazdasági Karának egyetemi adjunktusa. Emellett több hazai és külföldi intézményben is megfordult már felkért előadóként, illetve vendégtanárként. Kutatásai a versenyképességet befolyásoló tényezők vizsgálatára fókuszálnak. Munkáit hazai és nemzetközi szervezetek különböző díjakkal ismerték el. Tagja olyan szervezeteknek, mint például a Magyar Projektmenedzsment Szövetség, vagy a Magyar Közgazdasági Társaság. A Magyar Tudományos Akadémia köztestületi tagja.

A körforgásos gazdaságban rejlő lehetőségek a KKV-k számára

Tóthné Szita Klára, S. Gubik Andrea,
Bartha Zoltán

Absztrakt

A körforgásos gazdaság modellje az elmúlt 5-6 évben került az üzleti élet és a politika érdeklődésének középpontjába, bár egy koránt sem új elmélet felkarolásáról van szó. A körkörös gazdaság több elméleti koncepciót és gyakorlati megoldást ötvöz. A Boulding által felvázolt űrhajós gazdaságban a korlátozott raktárkészletek reprodukálásának és a hulladékok újrahasznosításának kérdése már 1966-ban megjelent. Az ipari ökológiai megoldások lényege is abban rejlik, hogy a természeti anyagcsere folyamatok mintájára szervezett gazdasági modellekben a hulladékok ugyanabban, vagy más termelési folyamatokban felhasználásra kerülnek, és ezzel a lineáris termelési láncok záródnak (Ayres, 2004). A kék gazdaság filozófiája a hulladékok megelőzése mellett azok újrafelhasználásával megvalósítható üzleti sikerekre hívja fel a figyelmet (Pauli, 2010). Igazi áttörés jelentett, hogy az Európai Bizottság is támogatta a körforgásos modellek bevezetését. A kis- és középvállalatok tudásszintje a körforgásos gazdaság elveiről, a szóba jöhető finanszírozási forrásokról és a megoldásban rejlő üzleti lehetőségekről rendkívül alacsony, ezért ezek összefoglalása orientációként szolgálhat, és szükséges is a sikeres gyakorlati megvalósításhoz.

Bevezetés

A körforgásos gazdaság modellje az elmúlt 5-6 évben került az üzleti élet és a politikusok érdeklődésének középpontjába, mint a fenntartható fejlődés új paradigmája, bár egy korántsem új elmélet felkarolásáról van szó. A körkörös gazdaság több elméleti koncepciót és gyakorlati megoldást ötvöz. A Boulding által tervezett űrhajós gazdaságban a korlátozott raktárkészletek reprodukálása, és a hulladékok újrahasznosítása már 1966-ban megjelent. Az ipari ökológiai megoldások lényege is abban rejlik, hogy a természeti anyagcsere folyamatok mintájára szervezett gazdasági modellekben a hulladékok ugyanabban, vagy más termelési folyamatokban felhasználásra kerülnek, és ezzel a lineáris termelési láncok záródnak (Ayres, 2004). A hulladék minimalizálási programok lényege is a hulladékok újrahasználatában rejlett. A kék gazdaság filozófiája a hulladékok megelőzése mellett azok újrafelhasználásával megvalósuló üzleti sikerekre hívja fel a figyelmet (Pauli, 2010). Az igazi áttörés akkor jelentkezett, amikor az Ellen MacArthur Alapítvány (2015) mellett az Európai Bizottság (EB) is beállt támogatóként a körforgásos modellek bevezetése mögé. Úgy tűnik, soha nem volt ilyen nagy igény arra, hogy a gazdasági fellendülés érdekében a hulladékokra épülő modelleket beépítsék a gazdasági rendszerbe.

A körkörös gazdaság 3 alapelvre épül. Az első a *természeti tőke megóvása* és fejlesztése, a második az *erőforrás kihozatal optimalizálása,* a harmadik a *negatív externáliák minimalizálása* (EMF, 2015).

Az EB 2015. december 2-án fogadta el a körfogásos gazdasággal összefüggő jogalkotási csomagot, melynek célja, hogy serkentse Európa áttérését a nemzetközi versenyképességet fokozó, a fenntartható gazdasági növekedést ösztönző, és új munkahelyeket teremtő körforgásos gazdasági rendszerre EB, 2015a). Ez a körkörös gazdasági csomag példátlanul magas összeget fordítana a modellváltásra, amely több uniós kezdeményezés, a Horizont 2020, illetve a strukturális és a kohéziós alapok között oszlana meg. Így a kis- és közepes méretű vállalatok (kkv-k) felé is jelentős hajtóerőt képviselhet az innovatív zöld üzleti modellek finanszírozása.

A tanulmány áttekinti a körforgásos gazdaság alapelveit, elméleti hátterét, a kkv-k innovációban betöltött szerepét, és azokat az anomáliákat, amelyek az innovatív zöld gazdaságmodellek kialakítását jellemzik.

A kutatás célja és alkalmazott módszerek

Célunk, hogy szakirodalmi kutatásra építve összefoglaljuk a körforgásos gazdaság lényegi elemeit, és feltárjuk a kkv-k számára nyújtott lehetőségeket a zöld növekedést követő legjobb gyakorlatok alapján. A nemzetközi és hazai szabályozás áttekintése után, egy, a gyakorlatban megvalósított projekt eredményeinek tanulmányozására térünk rá, és a projekt életciklusszemléletű fenntarthatósági elemzésének esettanulmány-szerű közreadásával, és kritikai értékelésével zárjuk a tanulmányt.

A körforgásos gazdaság elméleti háttere

A körkörös modellben a gazdaság anyagcsere folyamatai zárt rendszerben áramlanak, a hulladékok és melléktermékek szinte 100%-ban újrahasznosulnak. Egyes szerzők úgy vélik, hogy a CE ötvözi a 3 R (reduce, reuse, recycling), sőt 6R (reduce, reuse, recycle, redesign, remanufacture, recover), a zéró emisszió, az LCA (életciklus elemzés) és az erőforrás hatékonyság koncepcióját egyaránt (Winans et al., 2017). Pearce és Turner (2011) a gazdaság és környezet holisztikus kapcsolatára építve a termodinamika I. és II. főtétele alapján vezeti le a körforgásos gazdaság lényegét. Ghisellini et al. (2016) a körforgásos gazdaság gyökereit és eredetét vizsgálva a különböző szerzők cikkeit a szerint csoportosította, hogy azok mikro-, mezo- vagy makroszintű bevezetéssel foglalkoztak-e. Így mikroszinten a gyökerek visszavezethetők a tisztább termeléshez, a zöld fogyasztáshoz és zöld közbeszerzéshez, valamint a recycling, az újrahasználat és szétszerelés eseteihez. Mezoszinten az öko-ipari parkokhoz, ipari szimbiózisokhoz, hulladék kereskedelemhez köthető az eredete, míg makroszinten fellelhetők a regionális öko-ipari hálózatok, öko-városok és termelések, városi szimbiózisok, közösségi fogyasztás és zéró hulladékok, valamint az innovatív kommunális hulladékgazdálkodás, amely a körforgásos gazdasági modellek gyökereiként értelmezhetők Ghisellini et al. (2016).

A körkörös gazdaság 3 alapelvre épül (EMF, 2015):

- *természeti tőke megóvása* és fejlesztése, a kimerülő készletek szabályozott használatán és a megújuló erőforrások áramának egyensúlyán keresztül;
- az *erőforrás kihozatal optimalizálása* a termékek, alkatrészek, anyagok körforgása révén, maximalizálva a technikai és biológiai ciklusban való részvételüket;
- a *negatív externáliák minimalizálása*, a toxikus

anyagok eliminálása, helyettesítése vagy mérséklése.

A nyílt folyamatok esetében a környezetbe való beavatkozás az erőforrás kitermeléssel kezdődik, és a hulladékok környezetbe való kijutásával végződik az 1. ábrán látható módon.

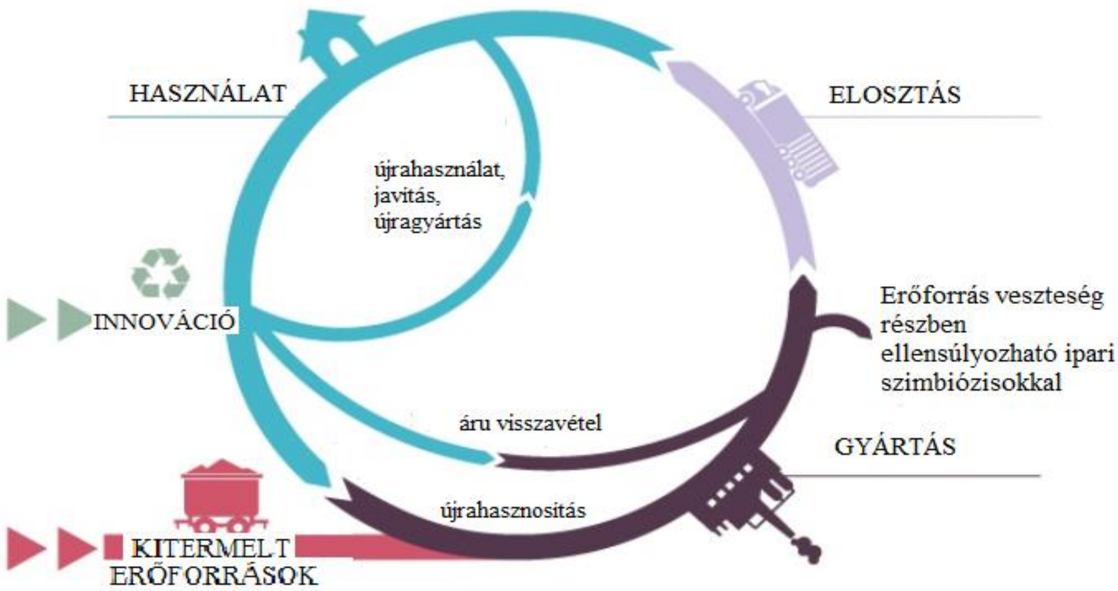
25. ábra A lineáris folyamatok modellje

Forrás: saját szerkesztés

A tapasztalatok alapján a körforgásos gazdaság előnyei (Lieder és Rashin, 2015):

- anyag- és energiamegtakarítás,
- nyersanyagok árának csökkentése és ellátási kiszámíthatóságának javítása,
- a negatív környezeti externáliák csökkenése, megszűnése,
- új munkahelyek teremtése,
- az innováció serkentése,
- a gazdaság nemzetközi versenyképességének növelése,
- tartós előnyök egy ellenálló és fenntartható gazdaság érdekében.

26. ábra: A körforgásos gazdaság modellje



Forrás: EMF, 2015

A körforgásos gazdaságban

- a hulladék tápanyag,
- a változatosság erény,
- az energiát megújuló forrásból kell kinyerni,
- az áraknak a valóságot kell tükrözniük és fontos, hogy rendszerekben kell gondolkodnunk.

A körforgásos gazdasági modell alkalmazása segíti a kkv-k zöldülését: zöldebb értéklánc lehetőségeinek kihasználását, piacra jutást, erőforrás hatékonyság javítását, elmozdulást a fenntartható termelés felé. Ennek elemei az eco-design, újragyártás, recycling, piacteremtés. De a kkv-k módszeres felkészítése, segítése fontos!

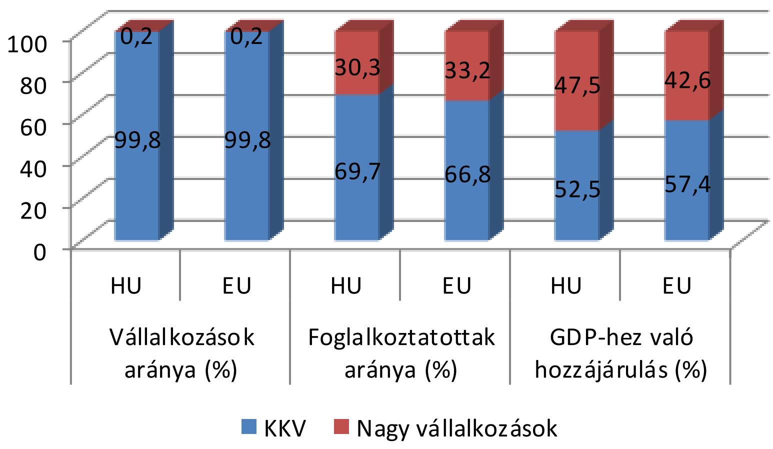
A kkv-k szerepe, és az EU erre építő körforgásos gazdaság politikája

Kis- *és középvállalkozás*oknak azok a *vállalkozás*ok minősülnek, amelyek kevesebb, mint 250 főt foglalkoztatnak (kisvállalkozás esetén ez 50 főnél, mikro vállalkozás esetén 10 főnél kevesebb), és az éves nettó árbevételük legfeljebb 50 millió (kisvállalkozásnál legfeljebb 10 millió, mikro vállalkozásnál pedig legfeljebb 2 millió) euró. A Magyarországon és az Európai Unióban működő vállalkozások döntő része a kis- és középvállalkozások csoportjába tartozik, és a foglalkoztatottak közel 70 %-át adják, de a GDP-hez való hozzájárulásuk is több mint 50 % (ld. 3. ábra).

A kkv-k gazdasági szerepe felértékelődött, melynek hátterében főként az áll, hogy a nagyvállalatok költségcsökkentési céllal tevékenységeik jelentős részét kihelyezték. A beszállítók számottevő része a kisebb méretű, rugalmasabban működő vállalkozások közül kerül ki. Míg eleinte a kkv-k csupán a helyi gazdaságban, azon belül is a lakossági szolgáltatásokban működtek, addig újabban az innovatív üzleti szolgáltatások területén is megjelentek. Ezek főképp a hálózatra alapozott globális piacra kilépő vállalkozások (KSH, 2014).

A kkv szektor gazdasági szempontból jelentős szerepet tölt be az ország jövedelemtermelésében, a külföldi tőke működtetésében, a beruházásokban, valamint társadalmi aspektusból a munkahelyteremtésben és a foglalkoztatásban.

27. ábra: A hazai és Európai vállalkozások néhány jellemző adata (2016)



Forrás: Lakatosné, 2017

A hazai kis- és középvállalatok gazdasági potenciálja jelentős, a foglalkoztatásban betöltött szerepük az EU átlagnak megfelelő, hozzáadott értékük azonban alig több mint 40 százaléka a teljes vállalati kör hozzáadott értékének (KSH, 2016). A versenyképesség növelésével ez a lemaradás csökkenthető, melynek eszköze lehet:

- a növekedési potenciál javítása, amiben nagy szerepe van az innovációs tevékenységet folytató

kkv-knak, a termék és folyamat, valamint marketing és szervezeti innováció területén egyaránt;
- a külső finanszírozási forrásokhoz való jutás megkönnyítése, a hitelkérelmek pozitív elbírálása, vagy az állami pénzügyi támogatáshoz való hozzáférés elősegítése;
- a vállalkozói környezet javítása, a kormányzati szabályozás és az adminisztratív terhek csökkentése;
- a kkv stratégia kiterjesztése annak érdekében, hogy megjelenjenek benne az erősítő know-how-k, a zöld fejlesztések és a mobilitás növekedjen.

A kkv szektor gazdasági potenciáljának jelentősége miatt nem véletlen, hogy az Európai Unió körforgásos gazdaság programjában kiemelt szerep juttat a szektornak (EB, 2015a). Az EB felkérte az Európai Unió kkv-támogatási szervezeteit, a zöld megoldások szolgáltatóit és regionális hatóságait, hogy amennyiben érdeklődnek egy olyan kísérleti projektben való részvétel iránt, amely képzési, támogatási és szakpolitikai tanácsadást nyújt az erőforrás-hatékonyság, az ökoinnováció és a körkörös gazdaság terén, kapcsolódjanak be a programba.

A kkv-knak ugyanis nagyobb erőfeszítésekre van szükségük az erőforrás-hatékonyság, az ökoinnováció és/vagy a körkörös gazdasági stratégiák és gyakorlatok elfogadásához, mivel:
- korlátozottabbak a szervezeti, technológiai és pénzügyi kapacitásaik,
- és a körkörös megoldások (pl. előfinanszírozás) kevésbé hozzáférhetők.

Az Európai Parlament 2015. május 19-i állásfoglalása a kkv-k zöld növekedési lehetőségeiről (2014/2209(INI)) (2016/C 353/03) az alábbiakat tartalmazza:
- Az uniós vállalkozások több mint 98 %-a kkv, és e kkv-k adják az Unió teljes foglalkoztatási szintjének 67 %-át és a bruttó hozzáadott érték 58 %-át; a kkv-k alkotják az Európai Unió gazdaságának gerincét, a 28 tagállam hosszú távú gazdasági növekedésének és a fenntartható munkahely-teremtési lehetőségeknek kulcsfontosságú mozgatóerői, egyben fontos szerepet játszanak az ipari ökoszisztémában is.
- Mivel a környezeti áruk és szolgáltatások globális piaca kb. évi 1 000 milliárd euró, ami várhatóan két-háromszorosára nőhet az elkövetkező években, óriási lehetőséget teremt a kkv-k és a gazdasági növekedés számára, hiszen az EU a környezeti áruk kereskedelme területén világelső,
- Az EU előmozdítja és támogatja a fenntarthatóság, a versenyképesség és az innováció elvének érvényesülését, annak érdekében, hogy a célok elérhetők legyenek. A kkv-knak be kell tölteniük szerepüket, a forráshatékonyság növelés, a környezettudatos tervezés, a hulladék megelőzés, az újrahasznosítás és az újrahasználat terén. Ez becslések szerint akár 600 milliárd euró összegű, vagyis az éves forgalom 8%-át kitevő nettó megtakarítást jelenthet az uniós vállalkozások számára, miközben 2–4%-kal csökkenthetik az összes üvegházhatású gáz kibocsátását.
- A kisvállalkozói intézkedéscsomag egyik alapelve a kkv-k abban való támogatása,

hogy a környezeti kihívásokat – fenntartható működés mellett – gazdasági lehetőségekké alakítsák át. Mivel még nem történt jelentős szakpolitikai előrelépés, a kkv-k gyakran következetlen szakpolitikákkal szembesülnek a vállalkozás elindításakor és a környezeti előírások végrehajtásakor.

- Mivel mind a piac, mind a jogalkotás a növekvő számú környezeti előírások betartására ösztönzi a kkv-kat, miközben az EU kötelezettségvállalásai miatt a tagállamoknak minimálisra kell csökkenteniük az adminisztratív terheket az új és meglévő szabályozásban, a finanszírozáshoz jutás javítása érdekében tett közelmúltbéli erőfeszítések ellenére a kkv-k számára az uniós finanszírozás igénylésének eljárásai még mindig túlságosan bürokratikusak és ennél fogva korlátozó hatásúak sok kkv számára.

Az EB ambiciózus körforgásos gazdaság csomagja (CEP) az európai vállalkozások és fogyasztók számára kíván segítséget nyújtani az erősebb és körkörösebb gazdasággá való átalakuláshoz, ahol a forrásokat fenntarthatóbb módon használják fel. A terv hozzásegíti az európai gazdaságot, hogy tisztább és versenyképesebb legyen, az erőforrás felhasználás és a hulladékok csökkenjenek, és megvalósuljon a fenntartható termelés és fogyasztás. Mindehhez innováció, beruházás és egyéb horizontális intézkedések szükségesek az értéklánc minden területén. A CEP prioritási területei a következők:

- műanyag hulladékok újrahasznosítása, a biológiai lebonthatóság növelése, csomagolásokra vonatkozó felülvizsgált jogszabály betartása;
- élelmiszer hulladékok: a 2030-ra elfogadott cél szerint kiskereskedelmi és fogyasztói szinten a felére kell csökkenteni az egy főre jutó élelmiszer-hulladék mennyiségét, valamint csökkenteni kell az élelmiszerveszteséget a termelési és ellátási láncokban;
- kritikus fontosságú nyersanyagok hasznosítása: uniós jogszabályok ösztönzik az elektronikai hulladék újrafeldolgozását, többek között kötelező célértékek révén; ugyanakkor csak a magas minőségű újrafeldolgozás biztosíthatja a kritikus fontosságú nyersanyagok hasznosítását; a kihívások egyike az ilyen anyagokat tartalmazó termékek gyűjtése, szétszerelése és újrafeldolgozása; fontos az elektronikus berendezések újra feldolgozhatóságának javítása a terméktervezés révén, ezáltal fokozva az újrafeldolgozási folyamat gazdasági életképességét;
- építkezési és bontási hulladékok hatékony kezelése: vannak uniós szintű kötelező célértékek, de kutatás szükséges annak érdekében, hogy az építési és bontási hulladék újrafeldolgozásával kapcsolatos akadályokat és mozgatóerőket azonosítsák, és feltárják a bevált jó gyakorlatokat e területen;
- biomassza és bioalapú termékek hatékonysága: az EB több intézkedéssel fogja előmozdítani az erőforrások hatékony felhasználását, az innováció támogatását. (EB, 2015a).

A körforgásos gazdaságban a termékláncok különböző pontjairól a

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kezdetekhez visszainduló hurkokban a kkv-k jelentős szerepet játszhatnak a karbantartás, az újrahasználat, a felújítás, újragyártás vagy újrafeldolgozás területén. Fontos szerepe lesz a társadalmi vállalkozásoknak. Bár a körforgásos gazdaság alapelve, hogy a ma termékei lehetnének a holnap erőforrásai is, itt többről van szó, mint a hulladékok újrahasznosításáról, hiszen az anyagáramlás racionalizálása, a megújuló energiaforrások igénybevétele mellett a munkahelyteremtés is fontos szempontot jelent. A csomag melléklete azokat az intézkedési terveket foglalja össze, amelyek a körforgásos gazdaság kiteljesedését támogatják (EB, 2015b).

A körforgásos működés megvalósítása főként kisebb vállalatok esetén nem lehetséges külső finanszírozási források nélkül. A LIFE a körforgásos gazdaság megvalósítására irányuló projektek egyik fő forrása (EC, 2017). Elsősorban környezet- és természetvédelmi programok támogatására ad lehetőséget. Számos további forrás is biztosított, ilyen a teljesség igénye nélkül a Horizon 2020, amely a kutatás és fejlesztés, valamint az innováció terén segíti a vállalkozások versenyképességét és a kis- és középvállalkozásokat (COSME). A H2020 program összesen mintegy 650 millió euróval kívánja támogatni a körforgásos gazdaságra való átállást. A kohéziós alapok egyre növekvő számú olyan program felé irányulnak, amelyek a körforgásos gazdaságot támogatják, beleértve az újrahasználat és a javítás, a fejlesztett termelési folyamatok, a terméktervezés és a kkv-k támogatását.

Az Interreg a határokon átnyúló programokban, fejlesztésekben nyújt finanszírozást elsősorban az innováció, széndioxid kibocsátás csökkentése, természeti és kulturális erőforrások és a fenntartható közlekedés területén. A Széchenyi 2020 program célkitűzései közül több érinti a körforgásos gazdaság megoldásait, ennek megfelelően az operatív programok (például a GINOP) szintén az ilyen irányú fejlesztésekhez nyújthat segítséget.

A forráshiány mellett a kisebb cégeknek jelentős információ és tudásdeficitje is lehet, ami az érdeklődés, érintettség kialakulásának jelentős gátja. Ebben segíthetnek az oktatási és képzési programok, amelyek például az Erasmus+ keretében valósulhatnak meg.

Egy kkv sikertörténete – esettanulmány

Az S-Metalltech 98 Kft.-t 1998-ban alapította hét magánszemély. Az alapításának célja az volt, hogy a tagok képzettségére alapozva összekötő láncszemet képezzen az egyetemek, a kutató intézmények és az ipar között. A négy villamosmérnökkel és két technikussal dolgozó társaság egyrészt az egyetemek és iparvállalatok K+F műhelyeként működik. A cég fő tevékenységei közé tartozik a Met Víztisztítási technológiák fejlesztése és gyártása (www.arzenmentesites.hu). A Jászfényszaru Ipari Parkban található arzénmentesítő polimert előállító üzem a Norvég Alap támogatásával, Zöld ipari innováció program keretében valósította meg a „DMSO tartalmú ipari szennyvíz újrahasznosítása bepárlással" című, HU09-0090-A1-2013 azonosító számú projektjét, amely a magyarországi ivóvízminőség-javító kezdeményezésekhez köthető. A projekt az adszorbens anyag gyártása során keletkező veszélyes hulladék csökkentésére irányult. A vállalat ivóvizek és technológiai vizek arzén-, foszfor-, jód- és fluormentesítésére alkalmas szűrőanyag gyártásával foglalkozik. Ezen termékek előállítása során napi 1 köbméter 20 m/m %-os dimetil-szulfoxid (DMSO) tartalmú technológiai szennyvíz keletkezik, amely

a hatályos szabályozás szerint veszélyes hulladéknak minősül. A szennyvíz nem tiszta DMSO/víz keverék, ugyanis nyomokban tartalmaz még többek között oldott polimer hordozót, azaz etilén-vinil alkohol kopolimert (EVOH), valamint sókat és ásványi anyagokat, mint például cérium-hidroxidot. A technológiai szennyvizet a telephely területén gyűjtötték, ideiglenesen tárolták, majd hulladékégetőben ártalmatlanították.
Az alkalmazott lineáris technológia során mind a szennyvíz égetése, mind a DMSO, mint oldószer pótlása igen költséges volt, és a környezetre gyakorolt káros hatása is nagy volt, ezért a projektgazda korszerűsíteni kívánta a gyártási technológiát. A projekt célja, hogy a termelés során keletkező szennyvíz mennyiségét csökkentsék, illetve környezetbarát technológiát kialakítva a DMSO-t, mint értékes oldószert, továbbá a vizet visszanyerjék, és újból felhasználják ezeket a komponenseket a gyártási folyamatban.
A technológia zárásával - www.arzenmentesites.hu/dmsoprojekt/ - az alábbiak érhetők el (Zajáros et. al., 2016):

- a veszélyes hulladék mennyisége 265 t/év-ről 5,5 t/év értékre, azaz *98%-kal* csökkenthető*;*
- a gyártási folyamatnál felhasznált víz mennyisége hozzávetőlegesen *30%-kal csökkenthető;*
- *az üvegházhatású gáz mennyisége 1 köbméter szűrőanyag előállítása során 10 tonna megtakarítást jelent;*
- a kinyert DMSO technológiába visszavezetve költségmegtakarítást jelent, mennyisége és tisztasága a desztilláció hatásfokától függ;
- a desztilláció ugyan pótlólagos energia befektetést igényel, de a környezeti, gazdasági és társadalmi haszon nagyobb, mint a lineáris technológiánál, így a technológia fenntartható; ez életciklus fenntarthatósági (LCSA) vizsgálattal igazolható volt.

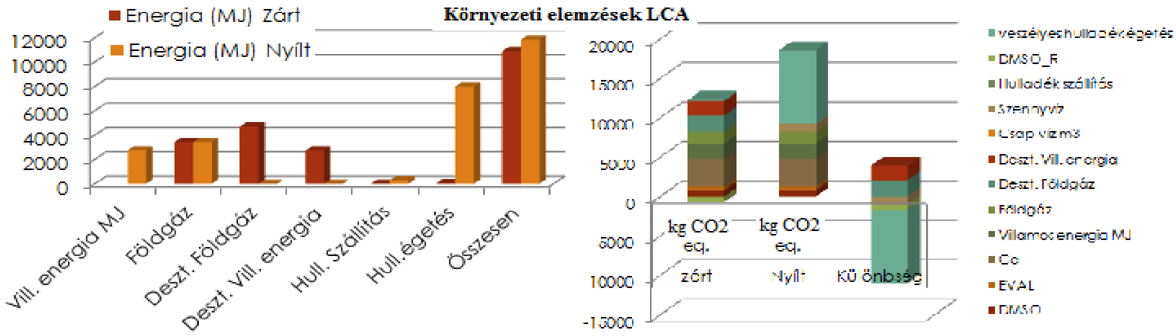
A technológiák összehasonlítása életciklus fenntarthatósági vizsgálaton alapult. Ez a hagyományos környezeti életciklus elemzés mellett életciklus költségelemzést és társadalmi életcikluselemzést is magába foglalt. A megfogalmazott fenntarthatósági kritérium szerint az új technológia életciklus fenntarthatósági mutatószámának lényegesen kisebbnek kell lenni, mint a régi technológiára kapott életciklus fenntarthatósági értéknek.
Azaz:

$$\mathbf{LCSA_{lineáris} >> LCSA_{zárt}}$$

ahol az életciklus fenntarthatóság a környezet életciklus (LCA), életciklus költség (LCC) és társadalmi életciklus (SLCA) mutatókból tevődik össze, és a lineáris technológiára kapott értékeket 100 %-nak tekintjük.

$$\mathbf{LCSA=LCA+LCC+SLCA}$$

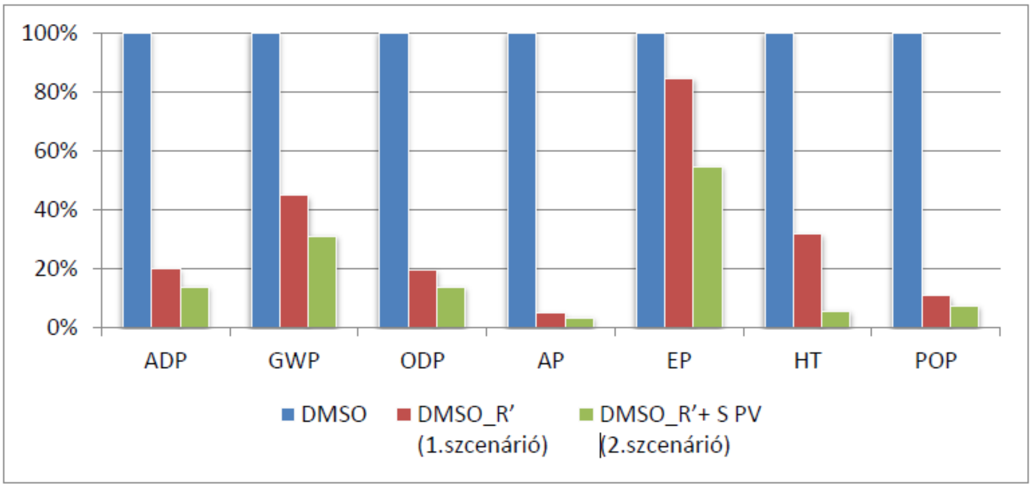
28. ábra A környezeti elemzések – a technológiák energia igényének és széndioxid emissziójának összehasonlítása



Forrás: Tóthné Szita et al., 2017

A DMSO szennyvízből történő kinyerésének környezeti hatásait néhány hatáskategóriában összehasonlítottuk az adatbázisban szereplő irodalmi adatokkal, feltételezve, hogy a desztillációhoz a villamos energiát a hálózatból, vagy megújuló forrásból nyerjük, és az 5. ábrán látható összefüggést találtuk. Az ábrán az adatbázis (referencia) értékei 100 %-ot képviselnek, 1 kg DMSO-ra vonatkoztatva.

29. ábra A DMSO kinyerésének környezeti hatása hatáskategóriaként



(ADP=abiotikus erőforrás kimerülési potenciál; GWP=üvegházhatás, ODP7 ózon károsítás, AP= savasodási potenciál, EP=eutrofizáció, HT=humán toxicitás, POP= fotokémiai oxidáció)

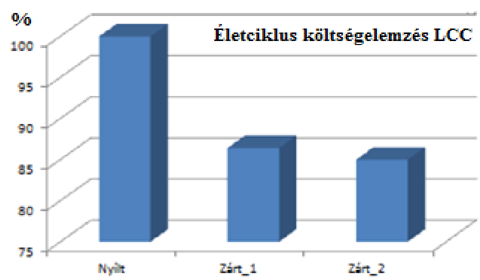
Forrás: Zajáros et al., 2016

A környezeti hatások értékelésénél a SimaPro 7.2 demo és a GaBi 4 szoftvert, valamint az Ecoinvent adatbázist és a CML 2001 módszert alkalmaztak a kutatók (Zajáros et al., 2017). A zárt technológia környezeti hatásvizsgálatánál a desztillációval kinyert DMSO környezeti paraméterei kerültek felhasználásra.

A teljes technológiára végzett életciklus vizsgálatnál a különbségek már nem annyira szignifikánsak, mint az oldószer esetében, aminek oka, hogy a technológiában szereplő egyéb

komponensek – mint például a cérium – kedvezőtlenebb környezeti hatásai miatt kevésbé érvényesül az oldószer-visszanyerés pozitív környezeti teljesítményjavító hatása. A legnagyobb különbségek az abiotikus erőforrások kimerülése (ADP), a globális felmelegedési potenciál (GWP) és az öko-toxicitás (ETP/HT) hatáskategóriákban adódtak.
Az életciklus költségelemzés során a lineáris és zárt technológiák költségei a beruházás nélkül kerültek összehasonlításra.

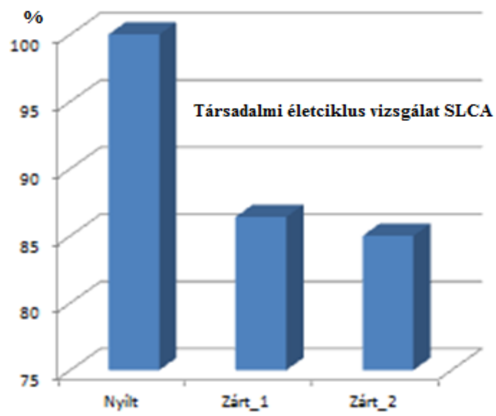
30. ábra Életciklus költségelemzés



Forrás: Tóthné Szita et al., 2017

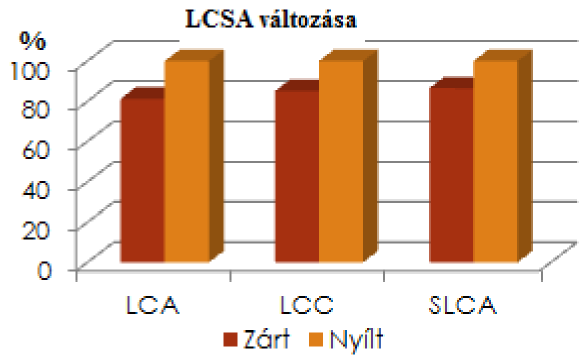
Gazdasági szempontból hozzávetőlegesen 10%-os a javulás. Ez a költségcsökkenés a DMSO visszaforgatásából adódott, ugyanis csökkent az input oldalon a szükséges beszerzendő oldószer mennyisége.
A társadalmi életciklus vizsgálat azt feltételezte, hogy az alkalmazottak száma változatlan, és így a kifizetett személyi költségek is változatlanok. Az összehasonlítás a személyi költségek teljes termelési költséghez való aránya alapján történt, így csak a termelési költségben való változás került elemzésre. Mivel a személyi költségek összege jelentősen kisebb a teljes termelési költségnél, így a zárt technológiák társadalmi hatása szinte változatlan a nyíltéhoz képest. A társadalmi hatások esetében számos szubjektív tényezőt – mint például a hatékonyságjavulás, ismeretbővülés, biztonságos és jobb munkakörülmények – is szükséges lenne figyelembe venni. Ezeknek a paramétereknek egységes monetarizálása után lehetőség adódik a nyílt és zárt technológiák társadalmi hatásainak mélyebb vizsgálatára.

31. ábra: Társadalmi életciklusok összehasonlítása



Forrás: Tóthné Szita et al., 2017

32. ábra: A zárt és nyílt (lineáris) technológia fenntarthatósági összehasonlítása



Forrás: Zajáros et al., 2016

A projektben kifejlesztett technológia és annak környezeti, illetve fenntarthatósági vizsgálata igazolta, hogy van létjogosultsága a körforgásos technológiának. Összességében, a környezeti, gazdasági és társadalmi hatások vizsgálata alapján mintegy 15%-os megtakarítást tudott elérni a vállalkozás, amely a költségmegtakarítás mellett környezeti teljesítményjavulást is eredményezett számukra.

Következtetések

A körforgásos gazdaság intézményi támogatottsága nemzetközi szinten széleskörű, az OECD, az UNEP, a WEF jelentései és programjai 2011-től nyomon követhetők és az EU jogszabályi szinten is támogatja. A gyakorlati megvalósítás Ázsiában először Japánban és Kínában jelent meg, Európában pedig Dánia, Hollandia, az Egyesült Királyság és Németország jár élen. Annak ellenére, hogy a politikai támogatás valamennyi EU tagországban megvan, a gyakorlatba való átültetése csak erőteljes kormányzati támogatással realizálható. Annak ellenére, hogy a körforgásos gazdaságra való áttéréssel élénken foglalkoznak különböző konferenciák, tudományos fórumok, és publikációk sokasága, a modell mindenáron való bevezetése csak előzetes hatásvizsgálat és elemzés után célszerű. A kkv-kat fel kell készíteni a körkörös modellek alkalmazásainak lehetőségeire, előnyeire és a vele járó kockázatokra.

A körkörös gazdaság elsősorban gazdasági előnyök (hulladékkezelés és alapanyagok költségeinek csökkentése) mellett éri el - jól megválasztott technológiával - a környezeti hatás csökkenését. Előnyös, amikor a hulladékból visszanyerik a technológiához szükséges anyagok egy részét - kevesebb anyagot kell beszerezni, és csökken a hulladék mennyisége, de nem szabad elfelejteni, hogy az ilyen technológiai megoldások általában újabb erőforrás felhasználást igényelnek, és esetleg újabb hulladékok képződésével is járhatnak. Ezért, mielőtt megvalósulna a folyamatok zárása, azok újratervezéséhez elengedhetetlen az életciklus vizsgálatok alkalmazása. A körforgásos technológiának akkor van létjogosultsága, ha az így előállított termék teljes életciklusára vetített környezeti, társadalmi és gazdasági hatásai együttesen nem haladják meg az eredeti technológiáét.

Összességében a körforgásos gazdaság intézkedéscsomag (CEP), és a bevezetést támogató pályázati források az innovatív kkv-k versenyképességének növelését eredményezik. De a körforgásos modellek az életciklus különböző szakaszaiban történő visszaforgatásnál lehetőséget teremtenek a társadalmi vállalkozások számára gazdasági eredményeik növelésére, anyag és energia megtakarításra vagy munkahelyteremtésre.

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Kihívások a Balaton régióban a szálloda- és vendéglátó-ipar területén működő családi vállalkozások számára

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Absztrakt

A családi vállalkozások a hazai gazdasági élet meghatározó szereplői éppúgy, mint az Európai Unió más országokban. A családi vállalkozások sikeressége az ország sikerét is jelentősen befolyásolja – gondoljunk csak az ország GDP-jéhez való hozzájárulásra vagy a munkahelyteremtő képességre. Tevékenységük és az őket érő kihívások vizsgálata éppen ezért rendkívül fontos a Balaton régióban is, mivel a vállalkozások jelentős része itt is kis családi vállalkozás. Ráadásul a vállalkozások száma a régió területén folyamatosan csökken. Hasonló a helyzet, ha csak az idegenforgalom és a vendéglátás területén működő vállalkozásokat vizsgáljuk, a 2000-ben még 4769 működő vállalkozásból 2010-re 2064 maradt. Szerencsére a vendégéjszakák száma az utóbbi években újra növekedésnek indult, ami örvendetes, viszont a vállalkozások új kihívásokkal kerültek szembe, ilyenek például a növekvő munkaerőhiány, a növekvő bérköltségek, a növekvő rezsiköltségek. A publikáció arra keresi a választ, hogy a megváltozott feltételek mellett a kis családi vállalkozások hogyan tudnak fennmaradni, fejleszteni, fejlődni, milyen jogszabályi változtatások lennének szükségesek ennek elősegítéséhez.

Kulcsszavak: Balaton régió, családi vállalkozások, szálloda- és vendéglátó-ipar, megváltozott gazdasági környezet

1. Bevezetés

A családi vállalkozások igen fontos szerepet töltenek be a piacgazdaságokban, például a lakosság foglalkoztatásában, vagy a GDP-hez való hozzájárulás tekintetében. Az EU–ban a családi vállalkozások aránya 70-80% közöttire tehető, amelyek részesedése a GDP-ből 20-70%-kos, a foglalkoztatásból pedig 40-50%-kos (Filep, 2012, p. 1.). Magyarországon a HVG (2016) szerint a vállalatok 70 százaléka családi tulajdonban van, a GDP több mint felét ők állítják elő, valamint a foglalkoztatottak felének biztosítanak munkahelyet.

A családi vállalkozások csoportja igencsak heterogén (méret, jogi forma, tulajdon stb. tekintetében). A Forbes magazin szerint Csányi Sándor és agrárbirodalma vezeti a 25 legnagyobb magyar családi vállalkozás listáját, a Csányi család tulajdonában lévő Bonafarm csoport, KITE Zrt. és MCS Vágóhíd Zrt. Forbes által becsült cégértéke 113,4 milliárd forint. A lap összesítése szerint a lista második helyén végzett a Felcsuti Zsolt tulajdonában lévő MPF Holding, amelynek értéke 112,4 milliárd forint. A 2016 évi első helyezett, Bige László és családjához tartozó Nitrogénművek és NZRT-Trade a harmadik helyen áll a Forbes listáján 73,4 milliárd forint cégértékkel (MTI, 2017.09.06).

A KSH ugyanakkor nem regisztrálja külön kategóriaként a családi vállalkozásokat, számuk becslésére azonban a kis-és középvállalkozások

(KKV-k) száma igen jó kiindulópont, mivel e vállalkozási forma többsége családi vállalkozásnak tekinthető. Magyarországon a vállalkozások túlnyomó többsége, 96,1 % KKV, a vállalkozások kétharmada nem rendelkezik alkalmazottal. A KKV-k a versenyszférában foglalkoztatottak 74%-ának biztosítanak munkahelyet, és 54,4 %-kal járulnak hozzá a bruttó nemzeti termékhez (Béza et al. 2007).

De mik is a családi vállalkozások? Családi vállalkozásnak minősülnek, méretüktől függetlenül, azon gazdasági társaságok, amelyek irányításában a tulajdonos mellett legalább még egy családtag részt vesz, valamint a család tulajdoni hányada meghatározó szerepet (nyílt részvénytársaság estén minimum 25+%; zárt részvénytársaság esetén minimum 50+%) biztosít a családnak a tulajdonosi döntésekben (European Commission, 2009, p. 10.).

Tehát:

1. bármely tetszőleges nagyságú vállalat családi vállalatnak tekinthető, ha a döntési hatalom többsége azon természetes személy/ek kezében van, aki/k a vállalatot alapították, vagy azon természetes személyek kezében van, akik a vállalat eredeti tőkéjét megvásárolták, vagy az ő házastársaik, szüleik, gyermekeik, illetve azok közvetlen örököseinek kezében van;
2. a döntési hatalom többségét indirekt vagy direkt módon gyakorolják;
3. a család vagy a rokonság minimum egy tagja formálisan részt vesz a vállalat vezetésében;
4. a tőzsdén szereplő vállalatok akkor számítanak családi vállalatnak, ha a vállalatot alapító vagy megvásárló személy, vagy annak családja illetve utódai a határozathozatali jogok legalább 25%-a felett rendelkeznek az eredeti tőke feletti rendelkezésük alapján.

A családi vállalkozások fő jellemzője, hogy két szociális rendszer, a „család“ és a „vállalat“ intenzíven vagy kevésbé erősen összefonódik egymással, s ez okozza e vállalatforma speciális erősségeit és gyengéit (1.táblázat). A családi vállalkozások működésének kockázatához hozzájárul, hogy a családtagok gyakran gazdasági és érzelmi kérdéseket kevernek össze.

Táblázat 1: Családi vállalkozások: Előnyök – Működési kockázatok, kihívások

Előnyök	Működési kockázatok, kihívások
Gyors kommunikáció, kevés hiányzás	Alacsony produktivitás - társulás
Függetlenség	Finanszírozási korlátok
Gyors alkalmazkodóképesség, reagálás a piaci változásokra	A vállalkozással járó megfeszített munka és a családi élet összehangolásának nehézségei
Tapasztalatok átadása, kisebb fluktuáció	Innovativitás, beruházások hiánya
Erős motiváció, hosszú távú elkötelezettség	Generációs ellentétek a működtetésben
Pénzügyi stabilitás, alacsony eladósodottság	Hiányos marketing tevékenység
Alacsony adminisztrációs költségek	Professzionális menedzsment hiánya
Magas minőségű termékek, szolgáltatások	Utódlás, generációváltás a vállalkozásban
Stabil foglalkoztatók	

Forrás: Saját szerkesztés

A családi vállalkozások előnyt kovácsolhatnak a közös történetükből, identitásukból, esetükben gyorsabb a verbális és a nonverbális kommunikáció. A munka iránti elkötelezettséget a család iránti elkötelezettség is segítheti. A működésben tapasztalható „intimitás" azonban a szakmaiság rovására is mehet: nehezebb hatalmat gyakorolni, összekeveredhetnek a családban és a vállalkozásban betöltött pozíciók és az üzleti nyomás konfliktusokat okozhat az üzleten kívüli területeken (Gersick et al. 1997).

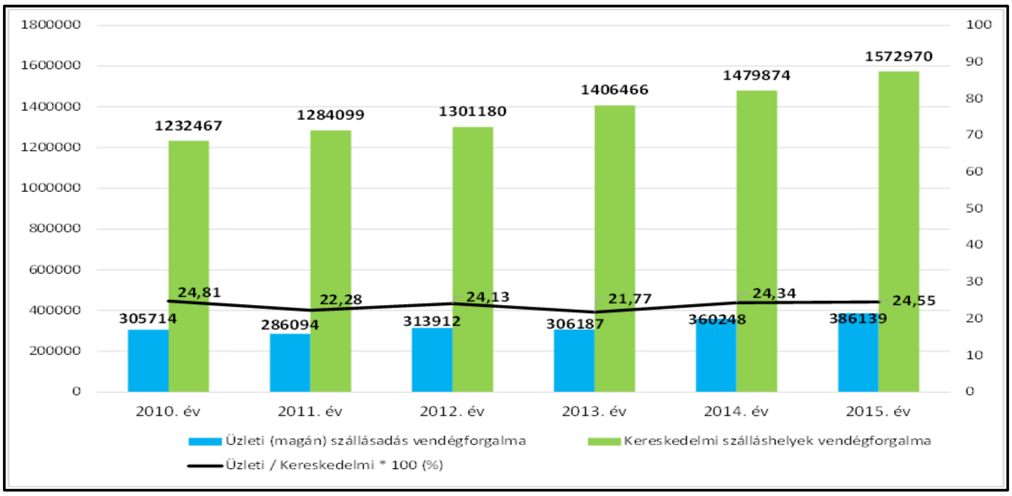
2. A Balaton Kiemelt Üdülőkörzet vendégforgalmának jellemzői

A Balaton Kiemelt Térség (régió) területi lehatárolását a Balaton Kiemelt Üdülőkörzet (BKÜ) adja. A BKÜ-t 180 település alkotja, melyek közül 18 városi ranggal rendelkezik. A régió területén 3 megye (Somogy, Veszprém, Zala) osztozik (2000. évi CXII. tv. - Balaton törvény). A Balaton idegenforgalmi régió hazánk második legnépszerűbb idegenforgalmi célterülete, évente több millió magyar és külföldi turista keresi fel, veszi igénybe a szálláshelyeket, vagy csak egyszerűen megtekinti az idegenforgalmi régió egy-egy látványosságát.

A Balaton régióban található a magyarországi kereskedelmi szálláshelyi férőhelyek 26,1%-ka. A vendégek 15,0%-ka a vendégéjszakák 19,5%-át tölti a magyar tengernél. A belföldi vendégek 22,0%-át, a belföldi vendégéjszakák 26,1%-át, illetve a külföldi vendégek 7,3%-át, a külföldi vendégéjszakák 12,9%-át a Balaton régióban regisztrálják. 2016-ban a balatoni kereskedelmi szálláshelyek átlagosan 47,1%-os, ezen belül a szállodák 52,8%-os szobakapacitás-kihasználtsággal működtek (Magyar Turisztikai Ügynökség, 2017).

A kereskedelmi szálláshelyek vendégforgalma évről évre nagyobb, miközben az üzleti szálláshelyek vendégköre is bővült, ezt mutatja az 1. ábra.

Ábra 1: Kereskedelmi és üzleti szálláshelyek vendégforgalmának alakulása a Balaton térségében (fő)

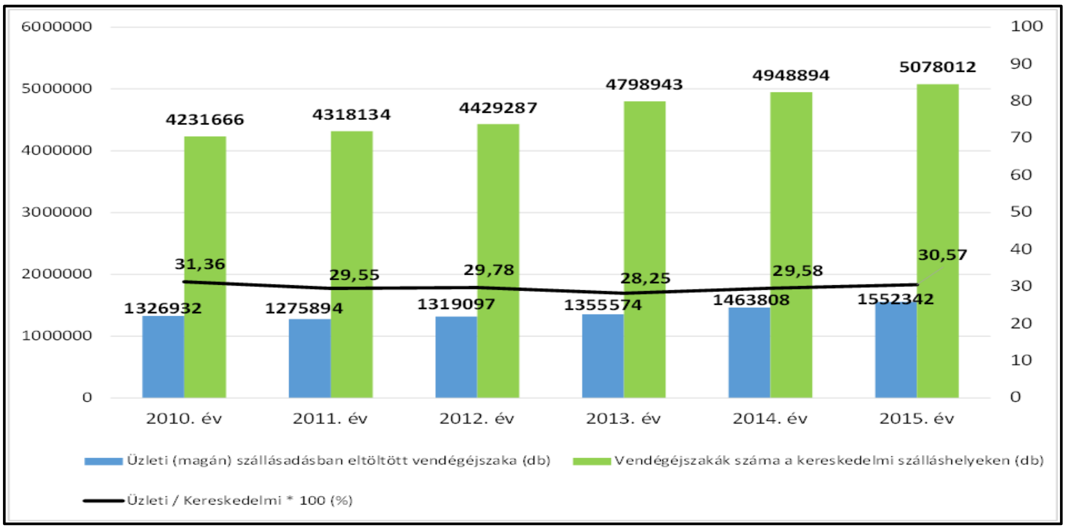


Forrás: *http://www.balatonregion.hu/turizmus*

2016-ban a Balaton régióba érkező vendégek száma 1669000 fő volt, ami 6,1%-kos növekedést jelent 2015-höz képest, az itt eltöltött vendégéjszakák száma pedig 5392000 éjszaka, ami 6,2%-kos javulás az előző évihez képest (Magyar Turisztikai Ügynökség, 2016).

A régióban az üzleti szálláshelyeken eltöltött vendégéjszakák száma kevesebb, mint harmada, átlagosan mintegy 30%-ka a kereskedelmi szálláshelyek vendégéjszaka számának, és a két trendet összehasonlítva a kereskedelmi szálláshelyek vendégéjszakáinak száma lényegesen dinamikusabb ívben növekszik.

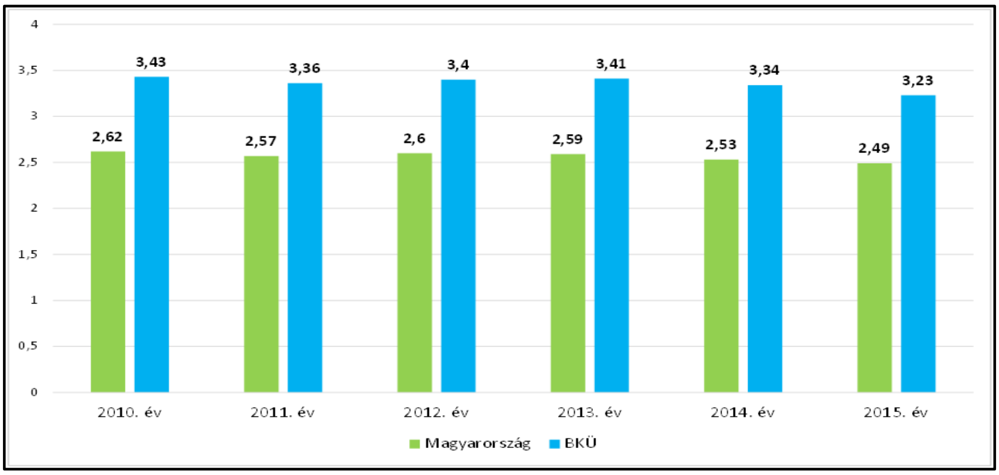
Ábra 2: Kereskedelmi és üzleti szálláshelyeken eltöltött vendégéjszakák alakulása



Forrás: http://www.balatonregion.hu/turizmus

Ha a Balaton körüli kereskedelmi szálláshelyeken eltöltött átlagos tartózkodási időt hasonlítjuk össze az országos átlaggal, a korábbi évekhez hasonlóan ez továbbra is a Balaton Kiemelt Üdülőkörzet (BKÜ) számára kedvezőbb, közel 1 nappal tovább tartózkodnak itt a vendégek, mint átlagosan az ország más turisztikai régióiban.

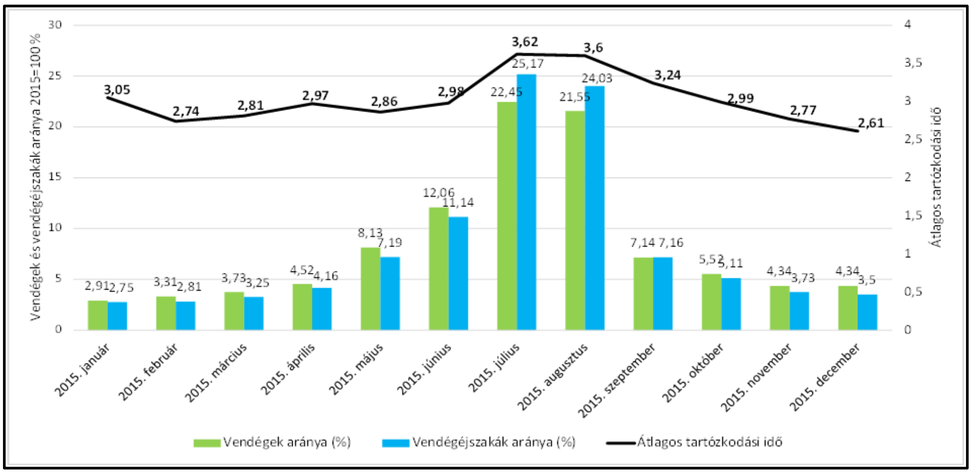
Ábra 3: Kereskedelmi szálláshelyeken eltöltött átlagos tartózkodási idő Magyarországon és a Balaton térségében



Forrás: http://www.balatonregion.hu/turizmus

Ahogy a magyarországi turizmust általában, úgy a Balaton üdülőtérségének vendégforgalmi jellemzőit is erős szezonalitás jellemzi. 2015 során az országosan az összes kereskedelmi vendégéjszaka 15,2%-át júliusban, 16,1%-át augusztusban realizálták. A Balaton térségében ez a paraméter az országosnál is markánsabb, a kereskedelmi vendégéjszakák 25,2%-ka júliusban, 24%-ka augusztusban, vagyis összességében a vendégéjszakák mintegy fele július és augusztus hónapokban regisztrálódott.

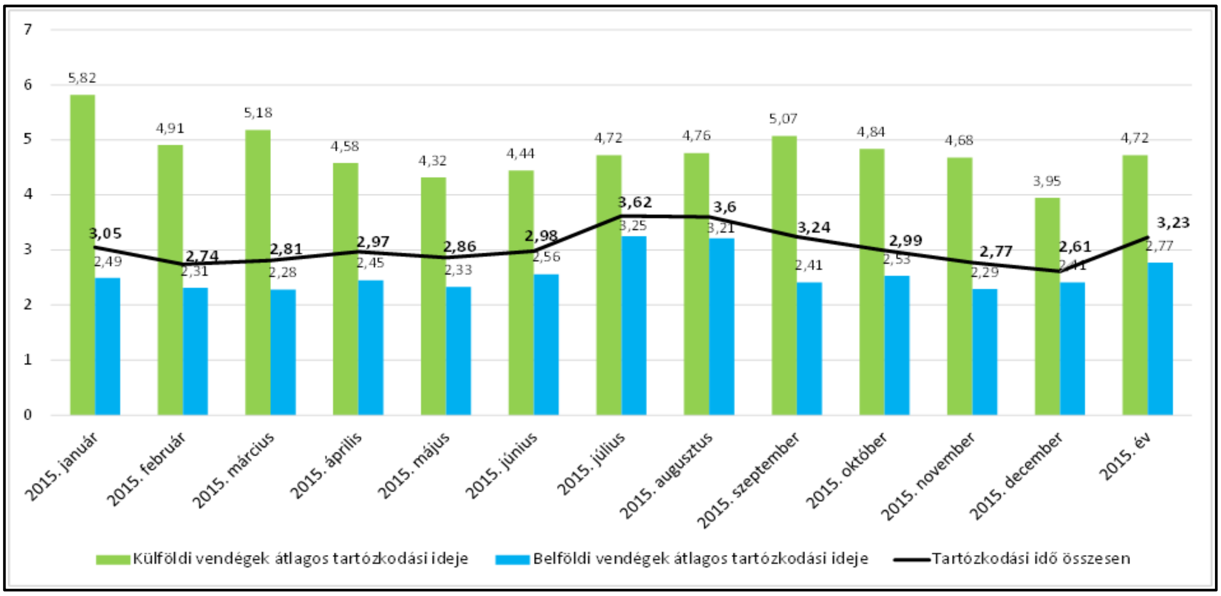
Ábra 4: Vendégforgalmi jellemzők 2015 évi szezonális megoszlása kereskedelmi szálláshelyeken (vendégéjszaka szám)



Forrás: http://www.balatonregion.hu/turizmus

Továbbra is jelentős különbségek mutatkoznak a külföldi és a belföldi vendégkör átlagos tartózkodási idejében. A Balaton körül megforduló külföldi vendégek kivétel nélkül minden hónapban hosszabb időt töltenek el a kereskedelmi szálláshelyeken, mint a belföldiek.

Ábra 5: Külföldi és belföldi vendégek szezonálisan megállapított átlagos tartózkodási ideje a Balaton üdülőterületén



Forrás: http://www.balatonregion.hu/turizmus

Egyre több szolgáltató megpróbál viszont egész évben nyitva tartani. Ebben segít a Balatoni Gasztrotérkép, amelyen található szolgáltatók legfőbb értékei a magas minőség, az egész éves nyitva tartás és az összefogás. 2017-ben több mint 60 szolgáltató összefogásával jelent meg. A készítők egész évben kiemelt balatoni kampányokat szerveznek, és markánsan képviselik a régiós összefogáson alapuló pozitív szemléletet. A szolgáltatók palettája igen színes: éttermek, borászatok, szálláshelyek, cukrászdák, sörfőzde, pálinkakészítő, vannak köztük családi vállalkozások és nagyobb vállalatok is, régi balatoni "zászlóshajók" és lelkes új szereplők, mindegyikükben közös vonás, hogy saját kategóriájukban kiemelkedőek, és hisznek a Balatoni Gasztrotérkép alapértékeiben (Porthole, 2017).

3. A családi vállalkozások jelentősége a szálloda- és vendéglátó-ipar területén a Balaton régióban

A rendszerváltás az 1990-es évek első felében együtt járt a korábbi szervezeti rendszer gyökeres átalakulásával. A szerkezetátalakítás és a termelékenység javítása következtében a munkahelyek számottevően csökkentek, az egyéni vállalkozásként folytatható tevékenységek köre bővült. A vállalkozások száma viszont a 2000-es években mért adatokhoz képest a régióban 2010-re jelentősen lecsökkent, amiben a gazdasági világválság nemzetgazdaságra gyakorolt hatása jelentős szerepet játszott.

Táblázat 2: A Balaton régió területén működő vállalkozások száma, és aránya 2000-ben és 2010-ben

Nemzetgazdasági ágak	2000		2010	
	db	M.o.%	db	M.o.%
Ipar	1854	2,18	1384	2,5
Építőipar	2707	3,75	2483	3,7
Kereskedelem, javítás	5837	2,77	3931	2,8
Mezőgazdaság	1269	3,24	801	3,4
Szálláshely-szolgáltatás és vendéglátás	**4429**	**10,59**	**2064**	**6,4**
Szállítás, posta, távközlés	1278	2,78	802	2,6
Ingatlanügyletek, egyéb gazd. szolgáltatások	4437	1,88	8151	2,3

Forrás: KSH-T_STAR alapján saját szerkesztés

2014 során a Balaton idegenforgalmi régióban 2796 turisztikai vállalkozás működött, amely az ugyanilyen tevékenységi körű magyarországi vállalkozások 5,2%-át tette ki. A balatoni turisztikai vállalkozások több mint a fele, 1483 vállalkozás vendéglátással – ebből csaknem 1200 éttermi vendéglátással – foglalkozott. Minden hetedik vállalkozás szálláshely-szolgáltatást nyújtott, körükben a legnagyobb arányt a szállodai szolgáltatók képviselték. A fürdők és a gyógy-, valamint a rekreációs szolgáltatásokat végző szervezetek az összes vállalkozás 13%-át adták. Személygépjármű és szabadidős eszközkölcsönzést mindössze 64 cég, a balatoni turisztikai vállalkozások 2,3%-a végzett (KSH, 2016)

2014-ben a balatoni régió turisztikai vállalkozásai közül mindössze 13 szervezet létszáma érte el, vagy haladta meg az 50 főt. A szervezetek 99,5%-át tehát a kisvállalkozások, még tovább finomítva a felbontást, 95%-át a mikrovállalkozások alkották. A mikrovállalkozásokon belül a legkisebb, 1–4 fős szervezetek domináltak: összesen 2421 vállalkozás tartozott ebbe a csoportba. A 2014 során működő balatoni turisztikai vállalkozások 54%-át egyéni, 46%-át társas szervezeti formában alapították. A dolgozói létszám több mint 80%-át a kisvállalkozások foglalkoztatták: a 10 fő alatti mikrovállalkozások közel hattizedüknek, a 10–19 fős szervezetek egytizedüknek, a 20–49 fős vállalkozások pedig 13%-uknak adtak munkát. Érdemes azonban visszautalni arra, hogy a kisvállalkozás kategóriát a 2796 működő balatoni turisztikai szervezet közül (létszáma alapján) mindössze 13 lépte át. Ez az arányaiban csekély szervezeti kör a turisztikai foglalkoztatottak közel ötödének, 1737 főnek biztosított munkalehetőséget. A balatoni régióban működő turisztikai szervezetek tevékenységi létszámát erőteljes területi koncentráltság jellemezte: a tevékenységi létszám fele 5, vendégforgalmát tekintve kiemelkedő jelentőségű település – Siófok, Balatonfüred, Hévíz, Keszthely és Zalakaros – vállalkozásainál jelent meg (KSH, 2016).

Táblázat 3: A balatoni régióban működő turisztikai vállalkozások száma

Tevékenységcsoport	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014
	A vállalkozások száma						
Vendéglátás	**1695**	**1657**	**1647**	**1626**	**1586**	**1480**	**1483**
Szálláshely szolg.	**440**	**433**	**454**	**432**	**409**	**386**	**415**
Fürdők, gyógy- és rekreációs szolg.	293	291	317	332	331	319	357
Szórakoztatás, szabadidő	173	144	162	218	214	210	222
Vízi. légi és taxis személyszállítás	173	176	173	169	171	156	151
Utazásszervezés, közvetítés	102	116	117	121	117	110	100
Gépjármű és szabadidős eszköz kölcsönzése	31	51	54	60	58	62	64
Összesen	2907	2868	2924	2958	2886	2723	2796

Forrás: KSH, 2016

A balatoni régió 2014. évi turisztikai árbevételének csaknem négytizede, 25,2 milliárd forint a 10 főnél kisebb létszámú mikrovállalkozásoknál képződött. Annál a mindössze 13 vállalkozásnál, amelyek létszáma elérte, vagy meghaladta az 50 főt, a bevételek egyharmada, 20,7 milliárd forint realizálódott. A 10 és 50 fő közötti létszámot foglalkoztató turisztikai vállalkozásokhoz az összes árbevétel 28%-ka, 18,1 milliárd forint kapcsolódott (KSH,2016).

2014-ben a Balaton idegenforgalmi régió turisztikai vállalkozásai összesen 21,8 milliárd forint bruttó hozzáadott értéket állítottak elő, amelynek 45%-ka a szálláshely-szolgáltatásban, 30%-ka pedig a vendéglátásban képződött. A legkisebb mértékben (3,5%) a személygépjárművek és a szabadidős eszközök kölcsönzését végző szervezetek járultak hozzá a régióban keletkező turisztikai értéktöbblethez (KSH, 2016).

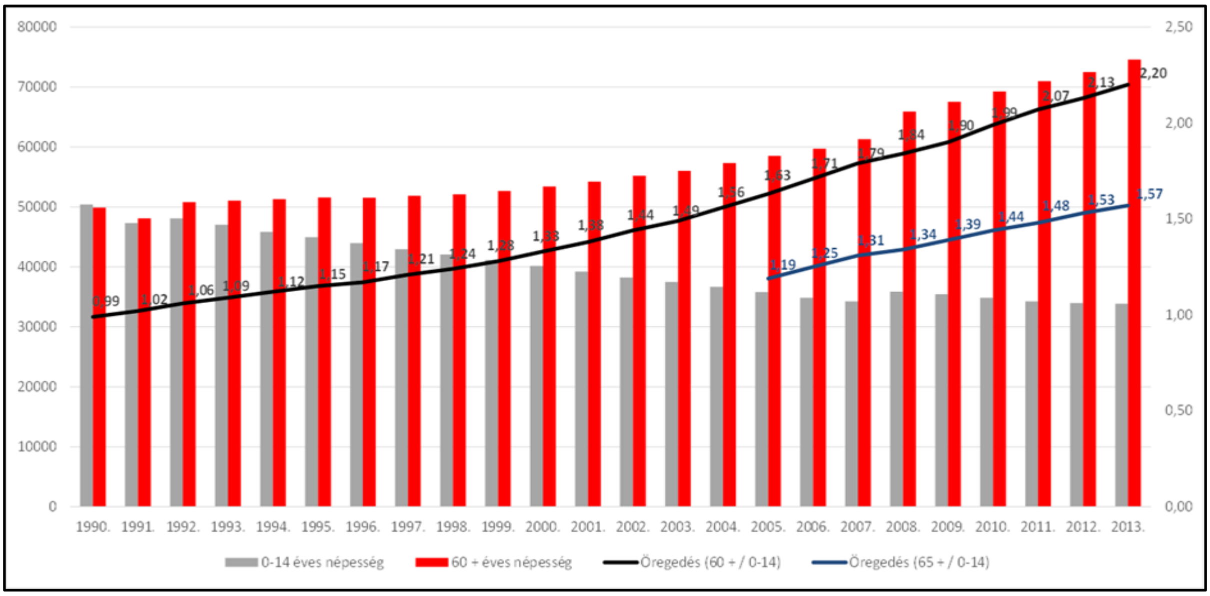
2014-ben a balatoni régióban működő turisztikai vállalkozásoknak csaknem a negyede, 656 szervezet valósított meg nemzetgazdasági beruházást, 6,3 milliárd forint összértékben, ami a magyarországi turisztikai szervezetek beruházási ráfordításainak 3,6%-át jelentette. A beruházások négytizede, 2,5 milliárd forint a balatoni szálláshely-szolgáltatókhoz (elsősorban a szállodai szolgáltatást nyújtó vállalkozásokhoz) kapcsolódott. A nemzetgazdasági beruházásoknak több mint a harmadát – 2,3 milliárd forintértékben – a régióban működő mikrovállalkozások valósították meg. Hasonló nagyságrendű összeget fordítottak fejlesztésre a 20–49 fős turisztikai vállalkozások; 2,2 milliárd forintnyi beruházásaiknak a kétharmada a vendéglátásba és a szálláshely-szolgáltatásba áramlott. Az 50 fős, vagy ennél nagyobb létszámú balatoni turisztikai szervezetek fejlesztéseinek összege 1,5 milliárd forint volt, ami a beruházások egynegyedét jelentette (KSH, 2016).

4. Nehézségek, kihívások, fejlesztendő területek a szálloda- és vendéglátó-ipar területén a Balaton régióban működő családi vállalkozások számára

A Balaton régióban a gazdaságfejlesztés és a versenyképesség növelése elsősorban a turizmus fejlesztésével lehetséges. A vendégéjszakák száma a régióban folyamatosan növekszik, ami többletfogyasztást generál, ezáltal lehetőséget nyújt a parttól távolabb található családi vállalkozások számára is termelői, feldolgozói és értékesítési együttműködések kialakítására a part menti szolgáltatókkal, elsősorban mezőgazdasági termékekre vonatkozóan. Ezt ösztönzi az egyik a térség fejlesztésére megfogalmazott stratégiai cél is: „Balatoni terméket a piacra”. Ezzel kapcsolatosan véleményem szerint az egyik legfontosabb elvárás, hogy balatoni halat árulhassanak az éttermek. A legjelentősebb előrelépés talán a balatoni borászatok és a vendéglátó-ipari egységek közötti együttműködés terén figyelhető meg, egyre többféle balatoni bor kapható a helyi éttermekben. A többi nyersanyagot viszont jellemzően nagykereskedőktől rendelik a szállodák és az éttermek, nem a helyi őstermelőktől és gazdáktól.

Manapság azonban a balatoni vállalkozások számára talán a legnagyobb probléma a munkaerő biztosítása. Összetett kérdésről van szó. A munkaerőhiány egyik oka a régió lakosságának ez elöregedése. Ezzel párhuzamosan egyre több fiatal számára vonzó külföldön munkát vállalni, egyrészt mert a bérek jóval magasabbak, másrészt mert nem ilyen rövid a turisztikai szezon. Itthon tehát az marad, aki nyelveket nem beszél, vagy aki nem szeretne a családjától hónapokig távol élni. Legrosszabb helyzetben talán a szezonálisan működő vállalkozások vannak, bár az éven át nyitva tartó szállodák is egyre gyakrabban keresnek személyzetet, mivel a szezon közeledtével elszivárog a munkaerő a jobban fizető szezonális munkahelyekre. Tehát a vállalkozások között egyre nagyobb a verseny a jól képzett munkaerő megszerzéséért, a szakemberek pedig válogathatnak a legjobb feltételeket kínáló munkahelyek között.

Ábra 6: Elöregedési hatások a Balaton régióban



Forrás: Oláh Miklós (2015)

A visszajelzések szerint a munkavállalók egy része visszaél a helyzettel, ami azt jelenti, hogy egyeseknek kifogásolható a munkához való hozzáállása. A vállalkozók a probléma megoldását állami, önkormányzati szerepvállalástól remélik. Előrelépést jelenthet, hogy a balatoni önkormányzatok (önkormányzati társulások) közül többen pályáznak munkásszállások kialakítására, bővítésére, ami segítséget jelenthet a jövőben a szezonálisan foglalkoztatottak olcsó elhelyezésében. (Kertész, 2017).

A munkavállalók számára viszont a tömegközlekedés szervezésének a hiányosságai jelentenek problémát, mivel a háttértelepülésekre például Siófokról fél 11-kor még főszezonban is elmennek az utolsó buszok, viszont az éttermek jelentős része 11 óráig nyitva tart, így ezeket nem éri el a személyzet. Ezért a háttértelepülésen élők a vendéglátásban nehezen kapnak munkát. Ennek is köszönhető az, hogy egyre több vállalkozás a munkaerő számára szállás biztosítására kényszerül. Ez viszont növeli a vállalkozások költségeit, egy kétszobás lakás bérleti díja rezsivel, Siófokon a nyári szezonra akár 5-600.000 forintot is elérhet.

A vállalkozások számára nagyon lényeges a munkavállalók után fizetendő járulékok összege. Ez a szakképzetlen munkavállalók esetében 2017-ben csökkent, a szakképzett munkavállalók esetében viszont nem, holott a szakképzett munkavállalók foglalkoztatását kellene ezekkel az intézkedésekkel támogatni. Ezt mutatja a 4. és az 5. táblázat.

Táblázat 4: A vállalkozások járulékfizetési kötelezettsége a szakképzetlen munkaerő után

járulékok	Szakképzetlen munkavállalók							
	2016	**2017**	**2016**	**2017**	**2016**	**2017**	**2016**	**2017**
	10 óra		**20 óra**		**30 óra**		**40 óra**	
	27750	**31875**	**55500**	**63750**	**83250**	**95625**	**111000**	**127500**
10% nyugdíjjárulék	2775	3188	5550	6375	8325	9563	11100	12750
8,5% eb. járulék	2359	2709	4718	5419	7076	8128	9435	10838
15% szja	4163	4781	8325	9563	12488	14344	16650	19125
munkavállalói rész	9297	10678	18593	21357	27889	32035	37185	42713
nettó bér	18455	21195	36910	42395	55360	63590	73815	84785
22% -szoc.h.adó	7493	7013	14985	14025	22478	21038	29970	28050
1,5% szakképzési hozzájárulás	416	478	833	956	1249	1434	1665	1913
munkáltatói rész	7909	7491	15818	14981	23727	22472	31635	29963
összes teher a bér után	17206	18169	34411	36338	51616	54507	68820	72676
járuléknövekedés		963		1927		2891		3856
nettó bérnövekedés		2740		5485		8230		10970
összes többlet		3703		7412		11121		14826

Forrás: Saját szerkesztés

Táblázat 5: A vállalkozások járulékfizetési kötelezettsége a szakképzett munkaerő után

járulékok	Szakképzett munkavállalók							
	2016	2017	2016	2017	2016	2017	2016	2017
	10 óra		20 óra		30 óra		40 óra	
	32250	40250	64500	80500	96750	120750	129000	161000
10% nyugdíjjárulék	3225	4025	6450	8050	9675	12075	12900	16100
8,5% eb. járulék	2741	3421	5483	6843	8224	10264	10965	13685
15% szja	4838	6038	9675	12075	14513	18113	19350	24150
munkavállalói rész	10804	13484	21608	26968	32412	40452	43215	53935
nettó bér	21445	26765	42890	53530	64340	80300	85785	107065
22%-szoc.h.adó	8708	8855	17415	17710	26123	26565	34830	35420
1,5% szakképzési hozzájárulás	484	604	968	1208	1451	1811	1935	2415
munkáltatói rész	9192	9459	18383	18918	27574	28376	36765	37835
összes teher a bér után	19996	22943	39991	45886	59986	68828	79980	91770
járuléknövekedés		2947		5895		8842		11790
nettó bérnövekedés		5320		10640		15960		21280
összes többlet		8267		16535		24802		33070

Forrás: Saját szerkesztés

2018-tól fontos változás a szociális hozzájárulási adó csökkenése, a munkaadónak a korábbi 22 százalék helyett csak 19,5%-ot kell a bruttó bér után fizetnie. A munkaadók terhei viszont az adócsökkentés ellenére tovább növekednek. Egy bérminimumra bejelentett szakmunkás után a munkaadónak 19.278 forinttal több terhet kell kifizetnie 2018-ban. A különbözetet a bérnövekedés adja, a fizetendő adó nagyjából ugyanannyi marad (2017-ben a 161.000 forintos bér után a szocho 35.420 forint volt, 2018-ban a csökkentett adókulccsal ez 35.197 forint).

A vállalkozók remélik, hogy a szakmunkás garantált bérminimum több évre rögzített mértéke, ami 2018-tól 180.500 Ft, nem emelkedik az érdekképviseltek által szorgalmazott 60 ezer forinttal. Álláspontjuk szerint a piaci verseny kezelni tudja a bérproblémát és mellőzni kellene a kötelező jellegű intézkedéseket (mint pl. a szervízdíj, a garantált bérminimumnál ágazati megállapodás, stb.) (Kertész, 2017)

2017-ben 27 %-ról 18 %-ra csökkent az étkezőhelyi vendéglátásban az étel – és a helyben készített nem alkohol tartalmú ital forgalomra vonatkozó ÁFA kulcs. A kedvezményes adómérték alkalmazhatóságának feltétele, hogy az adóalany által végzett ügylet az SZJ 55.30.1. éttermi szolgáltatás kategóriába tartozzon. Az olyan vendéglátóhely, amely nem rendelkezik „étkezőhellyel”, ezért nem biztosítja az általa elkészített étel elfogyasztását a helyszínen, hanem kizárólag kiszállításra termel (házhoz szállítja az ételt), az SZJ 55.52.1 „Közétkeztetés” tételébe tartozó tevékenységet végez. Kedvezményes adómérték erre nem alkalmazható. 2018-tól tovább csökken az éttermi szolgáltatások áfája 5%-ra, a feltételek változatlanok. Az éttermi vendéglátással foglalkozó vállalkozások számára viszont egy új adó jelent meg, ez a turizmusfejlesztési hozzájárulás. Az alapja a helyben készített étel és nem alkoholtartalmú italok forgalma, amelyekre érvényes az 5%-kos áfa. Az új adó mértéke 4%.

Véleményem szerint a helyi önkormányzatok az induló kisvállalkozásoknak adhatnának kedvezményt a helyi iparűzési adóból (amely jelenleg az adóalap 2%-ka) és az építményadóból. Az önkormányzatok dönthetnek arról, hogy az adó alapjaként az építmény négyzetméterben számított hasznos alapterületét (ebben az esetben az adó maximális mértéke 2016-ban 1 852,1 Ft/m2), vagy az építmény korrigált forgalmi értékét (ez esetben az adó mértéke legfeljebb a korrigált forgalmi érték 3,6 százaléka) állapítják-e meg.

A vendéglátás és a szálláshely-szolgáltatás területén működő kisvállalkozások számára jelenleg több pályázati lehetőség is rendelkezésre áll. Az egyik ilyen például a „Mikro-, kis- és középvállalkozások termelési kapacitásainak bővítése". A felhívás kódszáma: GINOP 1.2.1-16 (Nemzetgazdasági Minisztérium, 2017). A felhívás keretében az alábbi tevékenységek támogathatóak önállóan: új eszközök, gépek beszerzése, új technológiai rendszerek és kapacitások kialakítása. Önállóan nem támogatható tevékenységek a megújuló energiaforrást hasznosító technológiák alkalmazása, az infrastrukturális és ingatlan beruházások, az információs technológia-fejlesztés és az új eszközök, gépek beszerzéséhez, új technológiai rendszerek és kapacitások kialakításához kapcsolódó gyártási licenc, gyártási know-how beszerzések.

Érdemes említést tenni még a Magyar Turisztikai Ügynökség, mint az NFM Kezelő szerve által meghirdetett Kisfaludy Turisztikai Fejlesztési Programról, amely panziók és szállodák fejlesztésére irányul. A konstrukció célja a turisztikai vonzerőkhöz kapcsolódó szálláshelyek és a turisztikai vonzerők közelében található kereskedelmi szálláshelyek általános minőségének és szolgáltatási színvonalának emelése, indokolt esetben kapacitásának bővítése, kapacitáskihasználtságának javítása, a szálláshely működéséből származó árbevételek által a profitabilitás és a fenntarthatóság növelése. A panziók esetében a maximális támogatás a beruházás 70%-ka, valamint a szobák fajlagos költsége nem haladhatja meg az 5.000.000 forintot (MTÜ, 2017).

5. Összefoglalás, következtetések

Az utóbbi években a Balaton régió vesztett hazai gazdasági pozícióiból, csökken az átlagos tartózkodási idő, valamint a külföldi vendégek száma. A Balaton vízminősége tartósan jó, az országos átlagot meghaladó az életminőség (HDI). Lassan növekszik az itt eltöltött vendégéjszakák száma a belföldi turizmus erősödésének köszönhetően, kismértékben csökkent a szezonalitás is a régió bizonyos településein. Javul a foglalkoztatási, munkanélküliségi helyzet, új jelenség viszont a szezonális munkaerőhiány a vendéglátás kulcs-szakmáiban. Ehhez még hozzájárul az is, hogy a vállalkozások terhei tovább növekednek.

A térség mikro, kis- és közepes vállalkozásainak támogatását javaslom központi és helyi szinten megvalósítani (pl. adókedvezményekkel, lakhatási támogatásokkal). Állami rendeletekkel már (ideiglenes munkavállalói kiskönyv, alkalmi munkavállalás lehetősége stb.) próbálták támogatni a munkaadókat, de ez csak ideiglenes megoldás és semmiképpen nem jelent biztos megélhetést a munkavállalóknak. A multinacionális cégeknek nyújtott kedvezmények miatt a nagyvállalkozások - mivel nincsenek akkora terheik - olcsóbban tudják adni termékeiket és szolgáltatásaikat, amivel a KKV-k nem tudják felvenni a versenyt a vendéglátás területén sem.

A térség megtartó ereje növekedne a kisvállalkozások támogatásával, ha ezek a cégek nem csak megélhetésükre és alkalmazottaik bérezésére fordíthatnák üzleti forgalmukat, hanem támogatások és adókedvezmények révén tovább fejlődhetnének. Az intézkedések valószínűleg jobb színvonalú szolgáltatásokat, esztétikusabb környezetet és munkahelyeket teremtenének. A közterhek csökkenése a vállalkozások helyzetének javítását eredményezné, amely közvetetten növelheti a térség megtartó erejét és az üdülőkörzet vonzerejét. Kiemelt prioritást kell, hogy kapjanak a kis- és közepes vállalkozások, amelyek a hálózatokba való tömörüléssel versenyképesebbé válhatnának a multinacionális cégekkel szemben, és mérsékelni tudnák a negatív szezonális hatásokat.

A vidék és az üdülőkörzet megtartó erejét nem csupán az idegenforgalomra kell alapozni, hanem nyitni kell más húzó ágazatok felé, amelyek a térségben tartják a fiatalokat is. Kiutat jelenthet a szezonális foglalkoztatásból az élelmiszeripar, a borászatok, az építőipar, és az oktatás fejlesztése is.

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Rövid életrajza

Horváth Zoltán

2015-től dolgozom a jelenlegi munkahelyemen, a Pannon Egyetem Gazdaságtudományi Karán, a Turizmus Intézeti Tanszéken adjunktusként. 2012-2015 között a Pécsi Tudományegyetem Illyés Gyula Karán, előtte pedig a Kodolányi János Főiskolán oktattam. Fő kutatási területem a Balaton régió turizmusa. Publikációimban foglalkoztam többek közt a régió borturizmusával, rendezvényeivel, gasztronómiájával, hivatásturizmusával, foglalkozatás politikájával, gazdaságával, társadalmi folyamataival. A doktori értekezésem „A konferenciaturizmus fejlesztése a Balaton régióban” címmel készült. A védésem 2011-ben volt a Pécsi Tudományegyetem, Regionális Politika és Gazdaságtan Doktori Iskolájába

F.A.I.L., First Attempt In Learning: Mit és hogyan tanulhatunk a sikertelen vállalkozásfejlesztési mentorálási folyamatokból?

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Absztakt

A kis- és középvállalkozások fontos szerepet játszanak Európa gazdaságában: az EU28 GDP-jének 57 százalékát termelik, míg a munkaerő 67%-a ebben szektorokban van foglalkoztatva, az új munkahelyek 85%-a szintén ezen szektorhoz köthető. Amíg a nagyvállalatoknál különleges hangsúlyt fektetnek az alkalmazottak és vezetők fejlesztésére, addig a KKV-knél ez a rendszer kevésbé bevett gyakorlat, pedig kereslet mutatkozik iránta. Korábbi kutatások alátámasztották, hogy a coaching és a tanácsadás viszonylag költségesek, illetve egy-az-egyben nehezen átültethetők a KKV-k világába, illetve fordíthatók le azok igényeire. Ezzel szemben a vállalkozásfejlesztési mentorálás megfizethető, hosszú távú megoldást jelenthet a KKV-k szempontjából is.

Jelen tanulmány célja a vállalkozásfejlesztési mentorálási folyamatok tipikus kudarcainak bemutatása és strukturálása annak érdekében, hogy ezek a jövőben elkerülhetők legyenek. A benchmarking használható egy modell felállítására; azonban nemcsak a jó, hanem a rossz mintákból is lehet tanulni.

A tanulmány az irodalom áttekintése mellett magában foglal kilenc, félig strukturált mélyinterjút, melyek részei egy kevert módszertani megközelítéssel végzett kutatásnak. Utóbbi témája a vállalkozásfejlesztési mentorálás és annak sikerességét, eredményességét befolyásoló tényezők vizsgálata, amelynek részeként vizsgálatra kerülnek a sikertelen mentorálási kapcsolatokat is. Az adatokat elemzésére NVivo tartalomelemző szoftverrel került sor, annak alapján, hogy mely öt intervenciós vagy fejlődési terület (külső, mentor, mentorált-központú tényezők, orvosi műhiba által okozott vagy keretetekhez kötődő tényezők) ismerhető fel, mint legfőbb befolyásoló tényezője egy sikeres mentorkapcsolatnak.

Kulcsszavak: vállalkozásfejlesztési mentorálás, vállalkozásfejlesztés, leadership development.

Bevezetés

A kis-, és közepes méretű vállalkozásokra gyakorta, mint az európai gazdaság gerincére utalnak. Az Európai Bizottság 2016-os, évenként kiadott, az európai KKV-kat vizsgáló beszámolója szerint mind a magyar, mind az Európai Unió 28 tagállamának értékeit figyelembe véve ezen szektor szereplői fontos szerepet töltenek be a nemzetgazdaságban: 2015-ben ez a szektor adta a foglalkoztatás kétharmadát, míg a nem pénzügyi szektor által hozzáadott érték hatvan százaléka is ide köthető, mindezt úgy, hogy a KKV-k legtöbbje (99,8%) a 10 fő foglalkoztatott alatti mikrovállalkozás kategóriájába sorolható.

A Small Business Act kilenc mutatója közül Magyarország hat esetben az EU átlag alatti mutatókkal rendelkezik; a leggyengébben teljesítő mutatók között található – a környezet és a második esély mellett – a készségek és innovációs potenciál tényezője. Az SBA közleményben foglaltak szerint a 2014-2020 közötti Kis- és középvállalkozások stratégiájának alapdokumentuma három olyan területet jelöl meg, amely szükséges a KKV-szektor fejlesztéséhez. Egyrészt beavatkozás szükséges a növekedési potenciál javítása végett (1), másrészt a vállalati környezet fejlesztése terén (2), harmadrészt a külső finanszírozási forrásokhoz való hozzáférés megkönnyítésében (3). A vállalkozásfejlesztési mentorálási tevékenység alkalmas lehet holisztikus szemléleténél fogva a növekedés serkentésére, valamint az innovációs potenciál emelésére, továbbá a vállalkozás belső környezetének, munkavállalóinak, vezetőinek fejlesztésére is.

Jelen tanulmány egy nagyobb kutatás – doktori disszertáció – részeredményeit mutatja be. A kutatás egészének célja egy olyan modell összeállítása volt, amely beazonosítja azon tényezőkombinációkat, amelyek hozzájárulnak egy sikeres és hatékony vállalkozásfejlesztési mentorálási folyamat vezetéséhez. A modell összeállítása induktív, feltáró és kevert módszertanú kutatás segítségével történt, ahol a téma feldolgozására az összetartó párhuzamos kutatás logikájának mentén került sor. A kutatás első fázisában a kialakított modell elméleti előkészítése és empirikus tesztelése történt, majd a módosítások elvégzését követően a második fázisban az adatgyűjtésre került sor, amely egylépcsős, kvantitatív lekérdezés volt. Az ezt követő kvalitatív kutatás az esetlegesen felmerült kérdések tisztázását, a kvantitatív eredmények értelmezését és árnyalását, valamint újabb nézőpontok beemelését szolgálta. Jelen tanulmány utóbbi, kvalitatív kutatás egyik részletét, a nem működő vállalkozásfejlesztési folyamatok sajátosságait, annak okait, a sikertelenséghez vezető tényezőket, valamint az azokból levonhatók következtetéseket mutatja be.

A vállalkozásfejlesztési mentorálási folyamat létjogosultsága és szakirodalmi megközelítése

Az ezredfordulót követően gyakorta kerül definiálásra a versenyképesség újszerű forrásaként az emberi tényező és annak szervezetben betöltött helye és szerepe. Figyelembe véve ezen megközelítést, vállalkozások esetében is érdemes és szükséges a hangsúlyt a munkaerőre, így sok esetben az alapító tulajdonosra, ötletgazdára helyezni. Az ő képzése, fejlesztése számos módon megvalósulhat: részt vehet valamilyen hagyományos értelemben vett (tovább) képzésen, amely lehet iskolarendszerű-, felnőtt-, illetve e-learning alapú képzés, továbbá vezetői vagy csoporttréningen való részvétel, terápiás célzatú folyamat, tanácsadás, mediáció, coaching illetve mentorálás.

Számos forrás mutat rá arra, hogy a vállalkozók fejlesztése nem más, mint vezetőfejlesztés. (pl. Bolden–Terry 2000, Bolden 2007, Leith 2009, Stewart 2009). Petrányi szerint a vezetőfejlesztés megközelítése két véglet között mozog: van, ahol ad hoc szükségek szerint támogatják fejlesztő akciókkal a vezetőket, azaz úgynevezett 'szükséges tudás orientált' megközelítéssel; amellyel szemben áll a másik oldal, ahol minden vezető azt kapja, ami rendelkezésre áll, azaz a 'meglévő tudásorientált'-ság figyelhető meg (Petrányi 2013). Mint azt azonban a szerző is megállapítja, a lényeg az lenne, hogy mindenki azt kapja amire szüksége van, ami neki a legmegfelelőbb és legcélravezetőbb. Erre a mentorálás megfelelő tevékenység lehet, mint a vezetőfejlesztés és a karriermenedzsment eszköze (McCauley–Van Velsor 2004, Chuck–Yanbo 2014).

Ugyanakkor, mint azt *Turker és Seluck* hangsúlyozza, a vállalkozói hajlandóság nemcsak technológiai innovációkhoz vezet, hanem munkalehetőséget is biztosít és ezáltal növeli a versenyképességet is (Turker–Seluck 2009 p143). A vállalkozáshoz és annak vezetéséhez szükséges tudás jobb felhasználása pedig elősegíthető coachinggal, mentoring folyamatokkal, reportinggal illetve feedback adással és kapással (Gaál et al 2012). *Robinson és Haynes* is hasonlóan vélekednek, szerintük az akadémiai szintű tudást és a való világot össze kellene kötni, azaz a pedagógia elméleteket ötvözni kellene az üzleti metódusokkal és modellekkel. Meglátásuk szerint ennek kitűnő eszköze lehet a vállalkozásfejlesztési mentorálási tevékenység (Robinson–Haynes 1991 p61).

<u>A vállalkozásfejlesztési mentorálási tevékenység definíciója és sajátosságai</u>

A vállalkozásfejlesztési mentorálási folyamatra vonatkozó konkrét definíciót adni meglehetősen nehéz (St-Jean–Audet 2009). A definíciókban közös, hogy valamennyi esetben a vállalkozásfejlesztési mentorálási folyamat magába foglal egy támogató kapcsolatot a tapasztalattal rendelkező vállalkozó (mentor) és a kezdő (fiatal) vállalkozó (mentee) között, abból a célból, hogy utóbbi személy személyes fejlődését elősegítsék (St-Jean–Audet 2009). A tágabb értelemben vett – pl. belső, nagyvállalati mentoring vagy buddy rendszer, tanári-tanítói, egészségügyi-, fiatalokra irányuló – mentorálás ezt a kapcsolatot feltételezi, azonban a tevékenység irányultsága, azaz a szolgáltatás igénybe vevőjének személye csak a vállalkozásfejlesztési mentorálási folyamat során kerül meghatározásra. Ezt támasztja alá az is, hogy Krueger-Wilson szerint a vállalkozóknak mindenkinél inkább szükségük van mentorokra, az előttük álló feladatok komplexitása és kiterjedtsége miatt (Krueger-Wilson 1998). A vállalkozásfejlesztési mentorálási tevékenység szemlélete, figyelembe véve annak alapvető célját, azaz hogy támogatást és segítséget biztosítson, valamint megkönnyíti az ötletek és információk megosztását, ezzel elősegítve a fiatal vállalkozók túlélését és növekedését az üzleti világban (Kantor 2001 p43), ugyancsak a tevékenység szükségességét hangsúlyozza.

A vállalkozásfejlesztési mentorálási folyamat egyik kulcstényezője az, hogy a vállalkozói lét komplexitásához, sokszínű tevékenységének ellátásához, illetve az ezekhez kapcsolódó feladatokkal való 'megküzdéshez' hogyan tud hozzájárulni a mentor, mennyiben tudja segíteni a mentoráltat. A mentorálás minden kétség nélkül alkalmas formája a vállalkozók támogatásának, mivel lehetővé teszi saját menedzsment képességeik fejlesztését, a tanulást akciókon keresztül, mindezt egy kiterjedt üzleti tapasztalatokkal rendelkező, támogató segítő közbenjárásával (St-Jean–Audet 2009). A vállalkozásfejlesztési mentorálási folyamat nem csak és kizárólag támogatás, valamint business-orientált fejlesztési tevékenység, hanem lehetőséget biztosít érzelmi és kognitív fejlődésre is. Gyakran adódhat olyan helyzet, kontextus vagy szituáció, amelyben – már csak az induló vállalkozásokra jellemző szűk időkeretek, valamint a szintén meglehetősen gyakran előforduló anyagi erőforrásokhoz való korlátozott hozzáférés végett is – a hagyományos értelemben vett (frontális) oktatás, képzés, vagy kedvezőbb és személyre szabottabb helyzetben tréning – egyáltalán nem, vagy csak részben szolgál kielégítő megoldásként.

A vállalkozásfejlesztési mentorálási folyamatra tehát tekinthetünk úgy, mint egy mentális modell kialakításának első lépésére. Ez a mentális modell teszi lehetővé a mentorált – fiatal vállalkozó – számára, hogy saját ötletéből kiindulva, arra alapozva vállalkozói tevékenységet végezzen, és ezen tevékenység végzése során felmerülő kihívásokat a lehető leghatékonyabban kezelje. A mentorálási folyamat ennek alapján nem lesz más, mint egy kevésbé tapasztalt és egy tapasztalt résztvevő közötti interakció beindítása, a közös gondolkodás kezdete, amelynek célja a mentee vállalkozói kompetenciáinak fejlesztése. Ugyanakkor a mentorálási folyamat egy biztonságot nyújtó környezetben a protezsálttal való elkötelezett, folyamatában vele foglalkozó, minden segítséget, támogatást és feedbacket megadó, bizonyos, előre meghatározott keretek között végbemenő tevékenységsorozat, amelynek célja a mentee A-ból B-be, azaz a kiindulási ponttól a kitűzött állapotig történő eljuttatása az úton való végig kísérés által (Zsigmond 2017).

<u>A sikeres versus sikertelen vállalkozásfejlesztési mentorálási folyamatok szakirodalmi háttere</u>

A sikeres mentorálási és vállalkozásfejlesztési mentorálási folyamatokat leíró szakirodalom szerteágazó, egységes nézőpont vagy modell nem meghatározható. A folyamat sikerét a legtöbb szerző a mentor felkészültségétől, tulajdonságaitól, attitűdjétől teszi függővé. A mentor tulajdonságainak azonosítása azonban bonyolult feladat, mert a mentorálási kapcsolatok egyszerre szituációfüggők és időben változók. Ebben a kontextusban a szituációfüggőség azt jelenti, hogy a mentornak mindig igazodnia kell a mentee igényeihez, így elsődlegesen ez fogalmazható meg elvárásként is egy mentorral szemben (Clutterbuck–Lane 2005). A folyamat sikerességét nem feltétlen az fogja meghatározni, hogy ki a mentor és honnan jött, hanem sokkal inkább az, hogy mit és hogyan csinál (St-Jean–Audet 2009/b), azaz a folyamatvezetés, amely azonban szintén mentori kompetencia.

A szakirodalmi megközelítések összevetése alapján öt csoportba rendezhető, 27 olyan mentori elvárás azonosítható be, amely hozzájárul a sikeres folyamatvezetéshez. Ezek az elvárások az attitűd; az elméleti, szakmai ismeret; a mentor személyes tulajdonságai; a kompetencia és képességek; valamint az egyéb jellemzők kategóriába sorolhatók be.

A sikeres folyamatvezetéshez elengedhetetlen a mentor mentoráláshoz való hozzáállása, azaz hogy bizalommal és hittel legyen a közös munka irányába (Starchevich 2009), céltudatos (Clutterbuck 2005) és nyitott (Clutterbuck 2005, Starchevich 2009, Nagypál 2010, Menges 2015) legyen, ugyanakkor teljes tevékenységét hassa át a pozitív attitűd és segíteni akarás (Clutterbuck 2005, Starchevich 2009, Bencsik 2012, Memon 2013).

Fontos ugyanakkor, hogy a mentor rendelkezzen általános elméleti és szakmai ismeretekkel is. A szakirodalom ugyanakkor abban nem ért egyet, hogy ez milyen irányú és összetételű legyen. Míg Levison (1978), Belcourt (2000) és Rhodes (2002) az iparágban szerzett szakmai tapasztalatbeli különbségek meglétéről beszél, addig Fekete (2008) és a St-Jean-Audet szerzőpáros (2009) a szakmai tudás meglétét és fontosságát hangsúlyozzák, míg Clutterbuck-Lane (2005), Wikholm (2005), Deepali-Jain (2016) a kettő kombinációját. Ezen ismeretek kiegészíthetők általános közgazdasági tudással (Bencsik 2012, Filius 2012), szervezetekre és szervezetfejlesztésre vonatkozó ismeretekkel (Smith 2005, Szádvári 2011, Heathfield 2016), valamint más, fejlesztő tevékenységekhez kapcsolódó ismerettel és szaktudással (Kram 1985, Clutterbuck 2005, Smith 2005, Szádvári 2011).

A mentornak a sikeres folyamatvezetéshez ugyanakkor egyszerre kell elkötelezettnek (Clutterbuck 2005, Szádvári 2011, Smith 2013, Roll 2015, Heathfield 2016), empatikusnak (Clutterbuck 2005, Smith 2005, Conor 2007, Starchevich 2009, Roll 2015, Palmer 2016), önzetlennek (Clutterbuck 2005, Starchevich 2009) és őszintének (Conor 2007, Starchevich 2009, Bencsik 2012, Rácz 2014) lennie, de a kellő extraverzió (Menges 2015), valamint a konzisztencia (Bencsik 2012) és a humor (Clutterbuck 2005) szintén a folyamat sikerét segítik elő. Ezen tulajdonságok képezik az elvárások harmadik csoportját.

Számos képesség és kompetencia is összetevője az eredményes folyamatvezetésnek. Itt szükséges említeni az érzelmi intelligenciát (Berman-West 2008, Heathfield 2016), az integritási képességet (Heathfield 2016), a folyamat-, és projektorientált szemléletet (Katherndahl 2011, Filius 2012), a keretek kialakítására vonatkozó kompetenciákat (Clutterbuck 2005), az önismeret, önkritika és önfejlesztés képességét (Gibbs 2000, Clutterbuck 2005, Smith-Jenetsch 2008, Szádvári 2011, Rácz 2014), a rendszerben történő gondolkodás sajátosságát (Clutterbuck 2005, Starchevich 2009, Rácz 2014), a tudástranszfer képességet és hajlandóságot (Roche 1979, Kiss 2003, Zsigmond 2012,), a türelmet (Starchevich 2009), valamint a kommunikációs képességeket, mint a visszajelzések adásának és kapásának kompetenciáját, vagy a hallgatás képességét (Clutterbuck 2005, Smith 2005, Jones-Spooner 2006, Conor 2007, DeLong 2008, Starchevich 2009, Nagypál 2010, Zsigmond 2011, Bencsik 2012, Dávid 2014, Rácz 2014, Roll 2015).

További jellemzőkkel is szükséges ugyanakkor a mentornak rendelkeznie. Ilyen, a teljes folyamatot átható hitelesség (Holliszter-Sutter 2001, Kunos 2011, Nagypál 2016, Palmer 2016), a kapcsolati hálóhoz való hozzáférés és az azzal történő együttműködési hajlandóság (Clutterbuck 2005, Bencsik 2012, Rácz 2014, Heathfield 2016), valamint a folyamat során betölteni szükséges szerepmodell nézőpont (Clutterbuck 2005, Noor 2010, Kerry-Mayers 2013, Dávid 2014, Mitchell 2015).

Mint látható, a sikerességhez és eredményességhez hozzájáruló tényezők széleskörű vizsgálatok tárgyát képezik (pl. Deakins et al 1998, Ragins 1997, McPherson 2001, Engström 2004, St-Jean–Audet 2009), akik a folyamat sikerességére, a jó gyakorlatok bemutatására koncentrál; ugyanakkor felismerhető az is, hogy az eredmény nélkül, vagy a folyamat befejezése előtt lezárult vállalkozásfejlesztési mentorálási folyamatok sajátosságainak vizsgálata háttérbe szorul. Éppen ezért, kérdésként merülhet fel, hogy milyen indokok és jellemzők nevezhetők meg a sikertelenség legfőbb okának.

Módszertan

Jelen tanulmány – mint korábban említésre került – egy vegyes módszertanú, összetartó, párhuzamos kutatási logika mentén megvalósult kutatás kvalitatív fázisának egy részét mutatja be. Míg a kvantitatív hagyományban a résztvevők kiválasztásának legfontosabb alapelvei a reprezentativitás és a véletlenszerűség, addig a kvalitatív megközelítés a kutató számára lehetővé teszi az úgynevezett célzott mintavételt; mikor a résztvevők kiválasztásánál nem a matematikai-statisztikai reprezentativitás, hanem sokkal inkább a potenciális adatok gazdagsága az alapvető szempont. Ezen esetekben nemcsak „megengedett”, hanem egyenesen kívánatos a különleges esetek felkutatása, a lehető legnagyobb változatosság elérése, a kutatási kérdés szempontjából kritikus esetek megtalálása (Bokor–Radácsi 2006 p244). Ennek ismeretében a kvalitatív kutatás során a résztvevők kiválasztásánál nem matematikai-statisztikai reprezentativitás került figyelembevételre, hanem a nem valószínűségi mintavételi technikák közül az önkényes és hólabda technika segítségével történt az interjúalanyok kiválasztása.

A kutatás kvalitatív fázisában kilenc interjú került lebonyolításra. Az interjúalanyok között szerepelt mentor (5 fő), mentorált (3 fő), illetve koordinátor (2 fő), engedélyezve bizonyos esetekben a szerepátfedést. A megkérdezettek között három nő, illetve hat férfi szerepelt, amely összetétel megfelel a mentorálási folyamatokban megfigyelhető nemek szerint megosztásnak. Életkor, valamint foglalkozás és végzettség szerinti megoszlás szerint a minta meglehetősen nagy szórású. Az interjúalanyok jellemzőit a következő, Táblázat 1. foglalja össze.

Táblázat 4. - Interjúalanyok jellemzői, összefoglaló-áttekintő táblázat

Név	Életkor	Szerep	Foglalkozás	Aktív?
Ágnes	40-50	mentor	tanácsadó, coach mentor (bölcsész)	igen
Ákos	30-35	mentor	kommunikációs szakember és mentor (politológus)	igen
Csaba	45-50	mentor	vállalkozó, mentor	igen
Dániel	<30	mentorált	vállalkozó, projektkoordinátor	nem
Gábor	40-45	mentor	cégépítési szakember, üzleti mentor	igen
János	>60	mentor /koordinátor	oktató, mentor, tanácsadó	igen
Márk	<30	mentorált	projektasszisztens (környezetmérnök)	igen
Tímea	<30	mentorált	vállalkozó (bölcsész-közgazdász)	nem
Zsófia	<30	koordinátor	Inkubációs programkoordinátor	nem

Forrás: Saját szerkesztés.

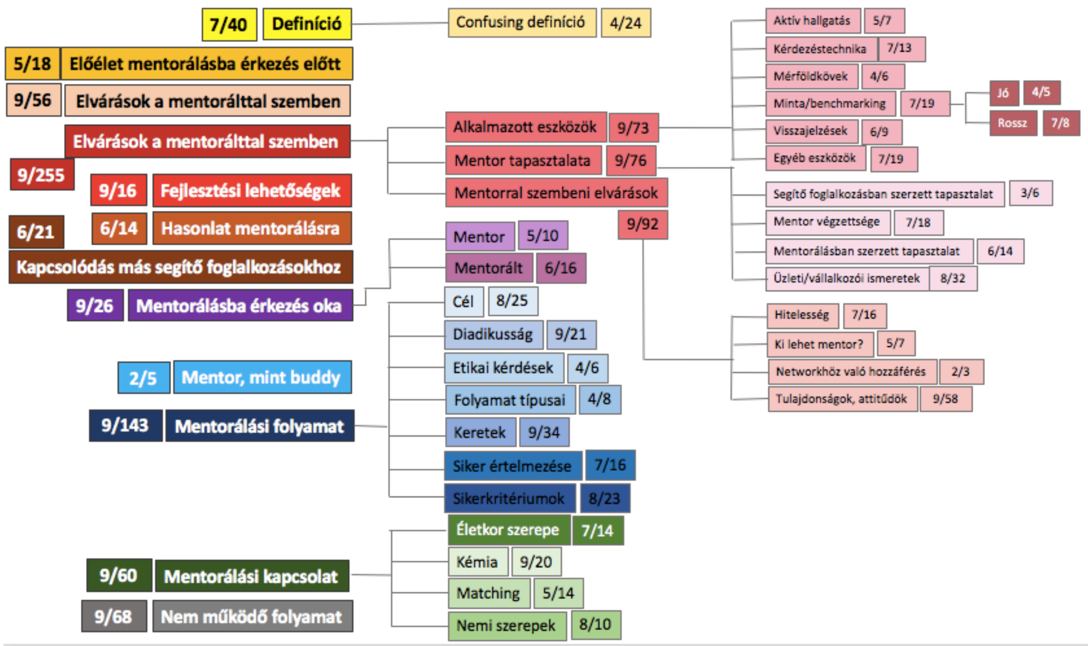
A vizsgálati módszer bemutatása

A megkérdezés félig strukturált interjúk keretében került lebonyolításra. Az interjúkérdések három nagy szerkezeti egységbe sorolhatók: az első szekcióban kapott helyet a kutatói bemutatkozás, a kutatási téma rövid ismertetése, az időkeretek egyeztetése, az interjú anyagának kezelése, valamint az interjúalany rövid bemutatkozása. Ezt követően a mentorálási folyamattal kapcsolatos kérdések kerültek felvételre, mint definíció adása, mentor és mentorált szerepének tisztázása, a folyamat elindításához szükséges tényezőkre vonatkozó kérdések, a kapcsolat kialakítására vonatkozó információk, az alkalmazott eszközökre, módszerekre és szerepekre vonatkozó kérdések, valamint a keretekhez köthető kérdések és ezek működési korlátai. A harmadik szekcióban az interjúalanyok saját tapasztalataikat oszthatták meg struktúra nélkül. Ezen szekcióban, kiegészítendő kérdések formájában került sor a nem működő folyamatok sajátosságaira történő rákérdezésre is.

Az interjúk feldolgozásának módszere

Az interjúkat követően – hat esetben hangfelvétel alapján szó szerinti, három esetben a hangfelvétel megtagadása következtében írott jegyzetek alapján – átiratok készültek. Az így kapott szövegek értelmezését elősegítendő, jelentés-kategorizálás történt, amely a kategóriarendszer felépítését és szisztematikus kódolását jelenti (Kvale 1996, Gelei 2012, Csillag 2014). Ezt követően a szakirodalomban megismertekre, tapasztalatokra és előfeltevésekre hagyatkozva egy nagyvonalú kódstruktúra kialakítására került sor, amelyek a későbbiekben további, úgynevezett alkódokra lettek bontva. A mélyinterjúk elemzése során az NVivo 10.2.2. szoftver került alkalmazásra, ami alapvetően szöveg-, és tartalomelemzésre alkalmas programként segít a kvalitatív adatok kategóriákba rendezésében, ezen kategóriák egymáshoz való viszonyának vizsgálatában, és a vegyes módszertanú kutatások támogatásában. Mint az az Ábra 1.-ről is leolvasható, a feldolgozás során 12 kód került kialakításra, amely összesen további 17 alkódra bontható, melyek közül három esetben további többszörös kódbontás történt, egy esetben még ezen felüli megkülönböztetés is szükségessé vált. Így összességében véve a tartalomelemzés 45 kódra vonatkozóan történt. Ezek közül az úgynevezett, 'Nem működő folyamat' kóddal ellátott említések kerülnek bemutatásra.

Ábra 1. - A tartalomelemzés során alkalmazott kódstruktúra bemutatása[48]



Forrás: Saját szerkesztés.

[48] A kódok előtt/után szereplő zárójelben található első szám az interjúk számát jelentik, amelyben említésre került az adott kód, míg a második a kód említésének teljes gyakoriságát.

Mind a kilenc interjúalany tett említést a nem működő folyamatok kategóriában, összesen 68 esetben, így a kód megkövetelte, hogy az elemzés során alkódok kerüljenek bevezetésre. A nem működő folyamatok ezen alkódok mentén kerülnek bemutatásra.

<u>A kutatás korlátai</u>

A kutatás során több kutatási korlát került beazonosításra, amelyek egy része a kvalitatív kutatás esetén is fennáll. Egyrészt megfigyelhető a longitudinalitás hiánya; a személyes szűrők, tapasztalatok és élethelyzetek figyelembevételének, vagy a pszichés állapot, a munkahelyi légkör válaszokra gyakorolt befolyásoló hatásának figyelmen kívül hagyása; továbbá a megtapasztalt folyamat eredményességi szempontú megítélésének elmulasztása.

A kutatás eredményei

Mint az bemutatásra került, a szakirodalom áttekintése során feltűnő volt, hogy a legtöbb szerző – pl. Deakins et al 1997, Ragins 1997, McPherson 2001, Engström 2004, St-Jean–Audet 2009 – a folyamat sikerességére, a jó gyakorlatok bemutatására koncentrál; ugyanakkor az eredmény nélkül, vagy a folyamat befejezése előtt lezárult vállalkozásfejlesztési mentorálási folyamatok sajátosságainak vizsgálata háttérbe szorul. Éppen ezért kérdésként merült fel az elemzés során, hogy milyen indokok és jellemzők nevezhetők meg a sikertelenség legfőbb okának. A kezdeti kódolást követően – ahol valamennyi, a sikertelenségre utaló tényező ’nem működő folyamat’ kódú jelölést kapott – a feldolgozás során ez további hét alkódra bontva került vizsgálatra. (A továbbiakban a feldolgozás során dőlttel kerülnek bemutatásra az interjúalanyok szó szerinti említései, amelyek kombinálásra kerülnek a szerző értelmezésével és értékelésével.)

Az interjúk összeállításánál kérdésként merült fel magának a kódnak a létjogosultsága is: szükséges-e egy negatív kimenetet sugalló kérdés beemelése. Mivel azonban az időrendben lefolytatott első három interjú alanya magától említette a kudarcként megélt, negatív kimenetelű folyamatokat, így a kérdés valamennyi interjúalanynál sztenderdként került a beszélgetésbe. A megkérdezettek sok esetben megerősítették a kérdés fontosságát: ’hiba a folyamatba sok helyen belecsúszhat’ (Tímea), ’jó kérdés, nagyon sok oka lehet a folyamat elcsúszásának’ (Gábor), illetve ’az eredményességnél sokkal fontosabb lenne azt vizsgálni, mitől megy félre egy folyamat, *mik a hibák benne. Érdekes lehet, hogy a hiba a mentorban vagy a mentoráltban van. Sokszor eltűnnek a mentoráltak, de nem értjük igazán, miért. Erre kellene rájönni. Ha tudnánk, mi az oka a folyamattal való felhagyásnak, másképpen ítélnénk meg, állnánk hozzá a folyamathoz.*’ (Csaba)

A sikertelen folyamatokban szerepet játszó tényezők öt csoportba sorolhatók, amelyek a külső, nem befolyásolható negatív hatások (1), folyamatvezetéshez kapcsolódó tényezők (2), a mentorálttal összefüggő tényezők (3), a mentorral kapcsolatba hozható tényezők (4), valamint az egyéb, jatrogén hatások (5).

ICUBERD

Külső, externális negatív hatások a mentorálási folyamatra nézve

Az általános okok között találhatunk olyat, amely a természetes lemorzsolódáshoz és az induló vállalkozások nagyszámú életképességéhez köthető, mint ahogyan Márk is mondta *'1000 start-up-ból egy, mely életképes marad'* az első három évet követően is. Éppen ezért előfordul, hogy nem olyan ütemben és úton haladnak a fiatal vállalkozók, azaz a mentoráltak, mint ahogyan azt tervezték és az ismeretlenségtől, a kudarctól való félelem miatt inkább a folyamat befejezése mellett döntenek: *'Jönnek a nehézségek és nem tudnak a fiatal vállalkozók mit kezdeni vele. Amikor hátat fordítanak a folyamatnak tényleg meg kellene tudnunk mi annak az oka.'* (Csaba) Lehel szerint a kereslet-kínálat összefüggését szükséges először vizsgálni, hiszen *'leggyakrabban más volt az igény az ügyfél részéről, de ezt nem tudta, vagy nem akarta kimondani'.* A mentorált az, aki végső soron a sikertelen folyamathoz vezetett. Ugyanakkor a mentorálási folyamat befejeződhet a tervezettnél hamarabb, amennyiben a célelérés korábban megtörtént, vagy annak alapvető összetevői változtak meg. *'A mentorálás folyamata is addig tart, amíg megvan ez az igény, ez a szükség... amint ez megszűnik, mert úgymond megtanultam a leckét, vagy, mert túlnőttem ezen a feladaton vagy ezen a problémán, elképzelhető ez egy idő után szépen megszűnik'.* (Ágnes)

A folyamatvezetés és a sikertelen mentorálás kapcsolata

Az általános okokon túl számos olyan tényező nevezhető meg, amely a folyamat sikertelenségének okaként azonosítható: egyik és legalapvetőbb indok a keretek nem megfelelő tisztázása. A folyamat akkor tart valahová és akkor nevezhető ténylegesen mentorálási folyamatnak, ha valamilyen cél elérésére jött létre: *'ha nincsenek céljaid, lehet, hogy azon kapod magad, hogy más céljait valósítod meg'* (Gábor). Így tehát elvárás a keretek tisztázásakor a célok meghatározása és kimondása. Ugyanakkor nem elég ezeket célnak titulálni, a kapcsolat működésének alapvető feltétele az is, hogy a célok megfelelőek, a mentorált saját céljai legyenek. *'A mentorprogramban nagyon sok olyan emberrel találkoztam, akik megmászták a karrierjüket, és a létra tetején jöttek rá, hogy nem is ahhoz a fához szerették volna támasztani. Először a tetejét tisztázzuk, biztos, hogy arra akarunk menni? Meglehet, hogy az más embernek a célja, és csak megjelenik neked'* (Gábor). Fontos a sikeres együttműködés és bizalmi légkör kialakításához, hogy egyenesen, őszintén és fenntartások nélkül kommunikáljon a mentor és a mentorált a folyamat során, amely alapelveket már a folyamat kereteinek kialakítása során rögzítenek. Amennyiben ezek nem valósulnak meg, vagy hiányoznak, a folyamat egészét befolyásolhatják: *'Ha nem őszinték egymáshoz és játszmák vannak, szintén vezethet bukáshoz. Illetve szerintem, ha megszegik a titoktartási szabályokat, az szintén negatívan befolyásolja az eredményt.'*(Tímea) A sikertelenség ezek alapján tehát már a kapcsolat felvételének idején, a folyamat indulásakor bizonyos esetekben beazonosítható.

A sikertelen mentorálási folyamatok és a mentorált attitűdjének, tulajdonságainak összefüggése

Szintén gyakori és az interjúalanyok meglátása szerint erős befolyásoló hatással bírnak a folyamat sikerességére nézve a mentorált tulajdonságai, valamint hozzáállása. Vállalkozásfejlesztési mentorálási tevékenységről lévén szó, a folyamatban résztvevőktől elvárt, hogy rendelkezzenek vállalkozói ambíciókkal, nyitottsággal, kockázat- és bizonytalanságvállalási hajlandósággal. Amennyiben ezen alaptulajdonságok nem jelennek meg a mentorált oldalán, a folyamat maga sem lehet sikeres. *'Magyarországon az emberek nagy többsége biztonság-orientált és félelem-centrikus. Az USA-ban eredmény- és célorientáltak az emberek, tehát ha Magyarországon megnézzük, hogy ez az eredményes célorientáció milyen környezetben lelhető fel, akkor két nagyon jelentős szegmenst tudunk felsorolni: az egyik az MLM housok, ahol csak az eredmény számít, a másik pedig a multik világa, ahol az eredmény és a célok a legfontosabbak. Magyarországon, aki vállalkozik a biztonságot és a félelmet már legyőzte, vagy erősebbek azok a jegyek, amik a szabadság és függetlenség iránt vannak benne. Akinél átbillen a mérleg a másik személyiségtípus felé, azok inkább hajlamosak vállalkozni*'. (Gábor) A mentorálási folyamatban is elvárásként fogalmazható meg a mentorálttal szemben, hogy akarjon és hajlamos legyen változni; ennek hiánya, a bejárt úthoz való ragaszkodás, az ismeretlentől való félelem a folyamat sikerét negatívan fogja befolyásolni. A nyitottság és a változások iránti elkötelezettség fontosságára János is felhívta a figyelmet, véleménye szerin *'aki nem képes túllépni a saját kis körén és komfortzónáján*', az nem lesz képes a vállalkozásfejlesztési mentorálási folyamatban sikeresen részt venni.

Tanulási és fejlesztési folyamatról lévén szó, kritikus tényezőnek tekinthető az alázat; annak hiánya sok esetben a folyamatot negatívan befolyásolhatja, mint Ágnes is mondja: *'ott általában az van, hogy igen, menjen neki háromszor a falnak, tanuljon egy pici alázatot a világtól, és aztán ezzel a fajta alázattal már tudunk vele dolgozni*', mert nyitottá és képessé válik a visszajelzések elfogadására, a felé irányuló figyelem, segítség és támogatás elfogadására. Az alázat azért is fontos, mert sok megkérdezett szerint a vállalkozók gyakran önfejűek, vagy úgy tekintenek magukra, mint akik mindent tudnak, akinek nem tanítható semmi új. Ilyen esetekben pedig a folyamattal szemben elvárt diadikusság nem valósulhat meg, azaz a folyamat minden bizonnyal sikertelen lesz. *'Általánosságban a vállalkozók mind önfejű, mindent tudó emberek, azt mondanák, hogy nekem ne mondja meg senki, hogy mit csináljak a vállalkozásommal, majd én azt tudom... Nyilván a legtöbb esetben nem tudják, és hibás döntéseket hoznak, de akkor is így gondolkodnak.'* (Dániel)

Az önfejűség más kontextusban is megjelenik, amely a határok feszegetésével és a már korábban említésre került komfortzónával is összefügg: a vállalkozók *'nagyon önfejűek, nagyon kevéssé hajlamosak arra, hogy a saját kompetenciáikat megkérdőjelezzék. Nem szeretnek hátra lépni, ők rettentő közelről szeretik nézni a dolgokat és azt gondolják, hogy kizárólag ez a nézőpont a helyes.*' (Ágnes) Ezt abban az esetben is fenntartják, ha a mentor – bizonyos esetekben a coach – rávezeti őket a megoldásra. Dániel elmondása szerint gyakori, hogy a mentorált olyan kérdéssel érkezik a folyamatba, amelyre nem ismeri a választ, *'míg a kérdések során a mentor rávezeti arra, hogy ez milyen jó, ez milyen zseniális, ezt fogjuk csinálni, akkor úgy érzi, hogy nahát ő jött rá. Akkor ugye sajátja a baba és emiatt sokkal hajlandóbb megcsinálni. Még úgy is, ha tudja, hogy így működik a dolog, még akkor is kitart önfejűsége mellett'*, pedig a megoldás, sok esetben mégsem önálló megoldás. Az önfejűség megléte és az alázat hiánya mellé, a vállalkozásfejlesztési mentorálási folyamatot negatívan befolyásoló tényezők kiegészítőjeként megjelenik, ha mindemellett a mentorált nem őszinte és szókimondó, *'23 évesek, azok valójában, egyszerűen, rettentően bizonytalanok és ezt nem merik bevallani'* (Ágnes), miközben hangoztatják, hogy *'viszonylag ritkán érezzük úgy, hogy van problémánk, ami lehet, hogy nem jó'* (Dániel). Minden bizonnyal ezek tulajdonságok és meglátások szintén befolyásolni fogják a folyamat sikerességét.

Az előzőekben bemutatott, fiatalokat és vállalkozókat jellemző tulajdonságok a folyamathoz való hozzáállást és elkötelezettséget is befolyásolják. Ilyen figyelhető meg abban az esetben, ha adott *' az a fajta fiatal, ilyen 23-24 éveseknél találkozok..., aki kilép az egyetemről és mindent tud. És pontosan meg tudja mondani hány forint hány fillér lesz a kezdő fizetése, azért, mert ő ezeket tanulta. Soha semmit nem csinált. Tanult. Ez egy nagyon klassz dolog, ezt csinálta, de hogy ettől ő még értéket nem feltétlenül teremtett más számára, csak a saját magának. És ez egy típus, aki erre rettenetesen büszke, hogy neki van egy diplomája és ettől kezdve neki jár valami.'* (Ágnes) vagy vállalkozók esetén *'általában, szintén vállalkozók többsége az ilyen, makacs egy kicsit ebben az értelemben: de én majd tudom, hogyan csináljam, és akkor emiatt hiába jönnek olyan impulzusok, miszerint az nem biztos, hogy jó'* (Dániel) nem fogadják el a visszajelzést, mert beállítottságuk, alapvető hozzáállásuk a folyamathoz negatív. Ilyen esetekben gyakorta figyelhető meg, hogy *'ők igazából, valójában, hogy is mondjam, a saját hiúságuk miatt jönnek'* (Ágnes), nem pedig az őszinte és nyílt érdeklődésük miatt érkeznek a vállalkozásfejlesztési mentorálási folyamatba.

A nyitottságot és az érdeklődést a folyamat iránt nevezhetnénk az akarat tényezőjének is. Anélkül, hogy a mentorált saját belső indíttatásából, motivációjától hajtva érkezne a folyamatba, nehezen képzelhető el teljes azonosulás, a bizalmi légkör kialakulása utáni megnyílás és a hatékony, diadikus tudásátadás. Segíteni ugyanis annak lehet, aki akarja és hagyja is, hogy segítsenek neki: *'én – mint mentor – nem fogok utána szaladni, akkor sem, ha azt gondolom, hogy szüksége van rám, nem lehet úgy segíteni valakinek, hogy segíteni akarok, várj meg, ha nem akarja'* (Ágnes). János hosszú évek tapasztalataként jutott el addig, hogy tudja *'a két szabályt, hogy választunk és, hogy te döntsd el, mint mentorált, hogy akarsz-e'*. (A választásra, mint olyanra a későbbiekben, mint a folyamatot jellemző matchingre, vagy annak hiányára még részletesen kitérünk.) Gábor megoldása az akarás problémára a Láthatatlan kiállítás egyik mondásához kapcsolódik: *' soha ne kísérjetek át olyan vak embert az úton, aki nem akar átmenni. Ugyanez van a coaching és a mentoring folyamatban is, hogy aki nem akar menni, azt ne erőltessük*.' (Gábor)

Az akarás hiánya két területen gátolhatja a sikeres folyamatot: egyrészt a mentorált kezd elmaradni, kimaradni a foglalkozásokról, másrészt nem lesz képes önmagáért felelősséget vállalni, magatartását nem a self-responsibility fogja jellemezni. A mentoráltra jellemzővé válhat a *' programon való nem részvétel, késés, tehát mások idejének nem tisztelete... a kritikákat nem tudta befogadni, és a visszajelzéseket sem, majdhogynem veszekedésekbe ment át. Mindig úgy gondolta, hogy sokkal jobban tudja. Ez többször is felmerült. Nem* *készültek a mentor találkozókra*'. (Zsófi) A mentoráltak ugyanezt saját példájukra visszatekintve is megerősítik, előfordult, hogy 'ott volt az a rengeteg lehetőség, hogy hozzáférjünk a mentorokhoz, csak mindig úgy gondoltuk, hogy mi meg tudunk oldani mindent magunktól és mi emiatt sokszor nem éltünk vele'. (Dániel) A program iránti elkötelezettség hiánya ebben az esetben nemcsak a mentor idejének, tehát a keretek nem tiszteletbe tartását jelenti, hanem rávilágít az alázat hiányára, valamint a hiányterület be nem ismerésére is. Ugyanakkor megjelenik a mentorált önmagáért vállalt felelősségének hiánya is.

A folyamat ugyan kétirányú, de *'a felelősség ott van a mentorált oldalán is, tehát én (mint mentor) mondhatom azt, hogy van ez az ötletem, tök nyitott vagyok, kezdjük el a folyamatot, megy ez 6 hónapig és utána én ezt kezdem elengedni, mert pl. nincs idő, más dolog történik az életében*' (János). Ahhoz, hogy a mentorált részéről kialakuljon az önmagáért való felelősségvállalás, rá kell döbbennie, hogy valamilyen elakadással áll szemben, azaz, mint a korábbiakban is láthattuk, nem mindent tudó: *'ez furcsa dolog, mert szerintem a fejlődés első lépése, hogy nekem van egy elakadásom, vagy egy olyan pontom, amit fejleszteni kell, ezért merek és tudok segítséget kérni. Ez a kettő így egymás mellett fut, mert ugyanúgy, mint egy alkoholista, vagy egy drogfüggő, maga előtt fölvállalja, de kifelé nem. Elkezd keresgélni valahol, csak meg ne tudják. Sokszor még a felesége előtt is titkolja, hogy eljár a névtelen alkoholistákhoz, stb.*' (Gábor) Mindaddig, amíg a mentorált maga sem képes elismerni az elakadást, kiállni a folyamatban való részvétel mellett, addig minden bizonnyal annak sikeressége is sérül. A sikerességet sokszor gátolja az is, hogy több esetben a külső, befolyásoló tényezők, azaz referenciacsoportok tagjai negatívan ítélik meg a mentorálási folyamatot, az abban résztvevőre pedig tehetetlen, inkompetens személyként tekintenek: *' kértem referenciát az egyik coacholtmatól. Azt mondta, hogy ne haragudj, de nem, mert a cégben ciki lenne az, hogy nem én vagyok ilyen okos, hanem valaki más. Ezzel a cégvezetővel nem is az irodában találkoztunk, hanem a lakásán. Vannak ilyen emberek is...*' (Gábor)

A külső befolyásoló tényezőknek nem feltétlen kell magára a mentorálásra irányulniuk, lehet, hogy azok közvetetten fejtik ki kedvezőtlen hatásukat a folyamatban résztvevőre. Leggyakoribb ilyen hatás a mentorált privát életében bekövetkező változás: *'Szül, férjhez megy, megnősül, gyereke születik, belekezd egy másik vállalkozásba, tehát másfele megy a karrierje. Érdekmúlás történik*.' (János) Az érdekmúlás történhet egyéni szinten, de csapatok mentorálása esetén a csapaton belüli egyensúlyi viszony megbomlása negatívan hathat a folyamat sikerességére is, hiszen 'a különböző külső befolyásoló tényezők, azok oda sodorták a csapat munkamorálját, hogy mindenki elkezdett kicsit a saját sorsára figyelni, és a saját sorsát terelgetni', (Márk) ezáltal a közös és a mentorral végzett munka háttérbe szorult, ami pedig a hatásfokot negatívan befolyásolta.

A negatív kimenetelű folyamatoknak gyakorta a kimaradás és az eltűnés, azaz a mentorálási folyamatból történő kiszállás az eredménye. A kimaradás mögött állhat időszakos motivációs hiány, feladathalmozódás, 'van az a fajta eltűnedezés, amikor, egyszerűen egy nagyon nehéz feladat előtt áll és lelkiismereti problémája van ezzel, hogy nem csinálja meg, és akkor egy ilyen elutasító eltűnés van, hogy lemondom, nem érek rá', (Ágnes) de gyakorta az is előfordul, hogy eltűnik minden indoklás nélkül a mentorált. Mint ahogy Ágnes fogalmaz, ahhoz, hogy a mentor tisztán lássa a képet és ebből is tanulhasson, döntő fontosságú, hogy *'a saját fejlődése érdekében ilyenkor rá kell jönni az okra. Ott valami, valahol nem volt jó, hogyha eltűnik, és nem jelentkezik többé'*. Az okfejtés végezhető önvizsgálattal és önreflexió készítéssel, de a megoldáshoz gyakorta az ügyfél, a mentorált járul hozzá: rávilágít az eszközrendszer nem megfelelő használatára, a folyamatban való részvételi kedv elsikkadására, csökkenésére. A mentor fejlődéséhez pedig az is hozzájárul, mint azt Ágnes tapasztalatai mutatják, hogy a félresiklott folyamatoknak általában *' az okai valahol egészen a folyamat elején keresendők'*, azaz vagy a keretezés, vagy a mentor tevékenysége nem elégséges a sikeres folyamatvezetéshez.

<u>A mentor szerepe a sikertelen vállalkozásfejlesztési mentorálási folyamatban</u>

A mentorálási folyamat diadikus volta következtében, annak sikertelenségéhez nemcsak a mentorált tulajdonságai és hozzáállása, de a mentor betöltött szerepe és feladatai is jelentős befolyással vannak. Mint arról az egyik mentorált interjúalany beszámolt, *' nem volt ilyen áttörés egyik mentorral sem, hogy márpedig most így tovább...', '...nem tudom, ez egy érdekes kérdés, mert én arról olvasok, hallok, meg azt is mondom, hogy egy jó mentor az sokat számít és nagyon értékes, de valahol még nem éreztem ezt, nem tapasztaltam meg a saját életemben, hogy tényleg lett volna egy olyan mentorom, akire azt tudom mondani hogy, huh, tényleg megváltoztatta a nézőpontomat vagy az életszemléletemet, illetve tanácsokkal látott el...'* (Dániel). Egyik saját mentorálási folyamatát éppen azért tartotta sikertelennek, mert nem kapta a folyamattól meg 'azt', amit várt. Kérdés ilyenkor, hogy mit takar az 'azt' kifejezés, ugyanazt érti-e alatta a mentor és mentorált, ugyanazon célért és ugyanolyan elköteleződéssel dolgoznak-e, amely ismételten a keretek fontosságára hívja fel a figyelmet.

Valamelyest ehhez kapcsolódik Gábor is, aki szerint *'az a legveszélyesebb ebben a szakmában, hogy itt minden mondat öl. Minden mondatnak hatása van az adott ember életében, vagy pozitív, vagy negatív. És egyedül rajtad – mentor – múlik, hogy ez melyik.'* A mentor szerepének, gondolatainak, visszajelzéseinek fontossága, más kontextusban is megjelenik: *'azzal nem szoktunk foglalkozni, mi van akkor, ha valaki rosszul csinálja... Mi van akkor, ha valaki rossz tanácsot ad, mi van akkor, ha álmot álmodik más helyett a mentor... van tehát egy felelősségem abban, hogy belelovalok valakit abba, hogy olyan folyamaton menjen végig, ami neki kell, nekem még nem sikerült, de neki talán sikerül...'* (János). Figyelembe véve tehát a szolgáltatási funkciót, azt mondhatjuk és a fenti tapasztalatok is azt támasztják alá, hogy a mentor szerepe döntő fontosságú lesz a folyamat hatékonyságának és sikerének észlelése során. Kérdésként merülhet fel, mik azok a leggyakoribb hibák, amelyeket a vállalkozásfejlesztési mentorálási folyamat során a mentor elkövethet.

Ágnes szerint *'alapvetően magunkban [mentorok] meg a folyamat elejében keresendő az ok'*, de amennyiben a folyamat ezen túllép, előfordulhat, hogy *' nem volt elég nagy mintázat a mentor fejében ahhoz, hogy felismerje, itt valami hiányzik'*, azaz alapvető mentori kompetencia sérül, a viszonyítási, azaz benchmarking képesség. Zsófi szerint előfordulhat, hogy a mentor és a mentorált nem passzolnak egymáshoz (Ld. később a matching kérdéskörét), más területen jártas a mentor, ami önmagában még nem feltétlen jelentene problémát, de abban az esetben, ha hiányzik a mentor részéről az empátia – *'amikor ő [mentor] multikkal foglalkozott, és nála megállt a világ ott, és egyszerűen nem tudta felfogni azt, ha egy kis csapatnak nincsen pénze marketingre, akkor nem fog tudni elkölteni akkora összegeket, mint egy multi, tehát ő saját kezűen fog az Instagramon megforgatni egy filmet.'* – azaz a mentor és a mentorált más szinten mozgott. Ez abban az esetben jelent negatív hatást a folyamatra nézve, ha *'a mentorok az esetek többségében inkább megmondó emberek, mint coachok'* voltak (János), tehát visszajelzéseikkel, jó- és rossz gyakorlataikkal nem elsősorban a mentoráltat igyekeztek rávezetni saját megoldásaikra, hanem sokkal inkább a kész megoldást tárták elé választási lehetőségek nélkül. Mindez azért történt *'mert meg voltak győződve arról [a mentorok], mint én magam is, hogy én tudom, ha nem is a tutit, de azt biztosan, hogy jót akarok a szegény mentoráltnak, és az neki segítséget fog adni'* (János).

Végül a mentorral szemben támasztható kritikai észrevétel lehet, hogy nem hard, hanem soft-skilljei esetén szenved hiányosságokat: *'úgy gondolom, ...hogy vannak, akiknek nagyon nagy a tudásuk, viszont emberi oldalról nincsen olyan kvalifikációjuk, hogy ezt a tudást át tudják adni másoknak, és ebből számos konfliktus születik'* (Márk). Tehát legyen bármennyire is járatos egy mentor adott területen, rendelkezzen is bármilyen tapasztalattal, ha azt a megfelelő helyen, a megfelelő időben és módon nem képes átadatni, vagy azért, mert nem akarja, vagy pedig azért mert nem rendelkezik a megfelelő kompetenciákkal, akkor maga a folyamat sem lehet sikeres. Legvégső esetben, ha a mentor tevékenysége miatt sérül a bizalmi légkör, nem képes a diadikus folyamatokban részt venni, akkor, mint azt Márk is összefoglalta, elkezdte a mentor *'a hitelességét megkérdőjelezni'*, azaz nem bízott benne, elvesztette a mentor személyes szimpátiáját, nem működhetett kettőjük között a hatékony kapcsolat sem.

A személyes és szakmai szimpátia, azaz a matching meglétének hiánya vagy megszűnése a folyamat sikerességét szintén nagy mértékben befolyásolhatja. Mint János is mondta, két szabályt kell figyelembe venni: az első, hogy *'választunk'*, azaz a mentor-mentorált párok kialakítása nem valamilyen szabályszerűség, random algoritmus segítségével történik, hanem a személyes kapcsolódás figyelembevételével. Amennyiben valamilyen okból sérül a bizalmi viszony, például *'személyes konfliktus'* adódik a résztvevők között, vagy *'valamilyen módon megbomlik a chemistry, de leginkább valamilyen bizalmatlanság, csalás'* történik (Zsófi), gyakran találkozhatunk a folyamat felbomlásával, felfüggesztésével, illetve sikerességének csökkenésével.

Magának a szimpátiának a megbomlásához is több ok vezethet. Egyik leggyakoribb, hogy a kezdeti szimpátia elmúlik, például, *'ha a felek nem egyenrangúként állnak a folyamathoz, vagy az egyik túl fontosnak, a másik kisebb prioritásúnak érzi az együtt gondolkodást'* (Tímea), azaz más szintű bevonódást tapasztalhatunk. Szintén a szimpátia megbomlását és ezáltal a folyamat megszűnését jelenti, ha az erőviszonyok alakulnak át a mentorálási kapcsolaton belül és nem valósul meg a reciprocitás: '*...amikor először találkoztunk, akkor ... ő ... élettapasztalatban, ... sport technikai oldaláról sokkal tapasztaltabb volt, mint* *én. Akkor volt egy jelentős szintbeli különbség közöttünk, amit én érzékeltem, és nagyon tetszett nekem, fel tudtam nézni rá, és ahogy teltek az évek... nagyon sokat fejlődtem, tanultam, nagyon nyitott voltam az új dolgok irányában. Ez a szintkülönbség szépen lassan kezdett eltűnni és volt egy pont, amikor már azt éreztem, hogy bizonyos tekintetekben – főleg emberi oldalról – abszolút túlnőttem őt...konfliktusokat szült a dolog*' (Márk).

A szimpátia sérülésének további oka lehet, hogy a mentorválasztás folyamatában a személyes kapcsolódás adott, a közös munka során mégis kirajzolódik a felek szemléletmódja, fókusza közötti különbség, valamint szakmai hozzáértése és témához való kapcsolódásának eltérései, ugyanis '*nem minden mentor tud minden mentoráltnak segíteni, az összeegyeztethetetlenség miatt*' (Márk). Ilyen esetekben a mentorált úgy érezheti, hogy a szerződéskötés folyamatában, azaz a keretek tisztázása során hiba és félreértés történt, amely a folyamatba vetett hitét és bizalmát negatívan befolyásolja, ezáltal pedig magát a folyamat sikerességét is. Szintén a hitelesség kérdéskörébe tartozik, ha a fókusz ugyan megegyezik, de a mentor mégsem tud hitelesen jelen lenni a folyamatban, mert '*az derül ki, hogy nem vagy elég felkészült és nem tudsz segíteni [mint mentor], de lehet, hogy valamilyen titkomat elárultad vagy átvertél valamilyen módon. És, hogyha ezekre figyelek, hogy hiteles legyek, megvan hozzá a tapasztalatom, a szakmaiságom, az életkorom, a kémia, tényleg kötöm magam a titoktartáshoz*' (Zsófi), azaz a bizalmi légkört ebben az esetben nemcsak megteremti, hanem fent is tartja a mentor, így biztosítva a folyamat sikerességét. A bizalmatlanság azonban nem ok nélkül jelenik meg a mentoráltak részérül: '*El tudnék képzelni olyan helyzeteket, melyekben olyan irányba terelek valakit [mint mentor], hogy az a végén ne neki, hanem nekem legyen jó. Vagy elmond nekem ötleteket és mentorként lenyúlom és megvalósítom. Nekem több tapasztalatom van és én tudom, hogyan kell. Fogom, megcsinálom két nap alatt, amit három hónap alatt* csinálna meg [a mentorált]' (Márk). A bizalmi légkör bárminemű sérülése tehát a folyamat teljes sikerességét befolyásolhatja.

<u>Egyéb, a sikertelenséget predesztináló tényezők</u>

Az interjúalanyok által két olyan tényező került említésre, amely egyik alkód alá sem sorolható be. Egyik ilyen, amit Csaba gyakran tapasztal, hogy a mentoráltak '*megijednek a folyamattól*', amely során komfortzónájukon kívülre kerülnek és a többnyire jellemző magas bizonytalanságkerülési mutatók következtébe az ismeretlen és bizonytalan környezetben nem képesek működni. Második tényezőként az úgynevezett '*jatrogén ártalmat*' (János) emelném ki, amely olyan, többnyire az orvostudományban használt kifejezés, amely egy beavatkozást következtében létrejövő állapotot jelent, ami nem szándékolt hatás. A szervezetfejlesztésben is használt kifejezés János szerint kérdéseket vet fel, arra vonatkozóan, hogy '*hol van mentor felelőségének határa*', illetve, hogy '*vállal-e bármiféle felelőséget a tanácsaiért*' a mentor, hiszen a szándékolt hatáson túlmutatóan is befolyásolhatja a mentoráltat, nemcsak szakmailag, de emberileg is, amely pedig egyes esetekben a bizalmi kapcsolat romlásához , így a folyamat sikertelenségéhez vezethet.

Következtetések

Jelen tanulmány témája annak vizsgálata, hogy milyen tényezők és tulajdonságok, történések játszanak szerepet és jellemzik a sikertelen vállalkozásfejlesztési mentorálási folyamatokat. A mélyinterjúk rámutattak arra, hogy egy adott tényező, tulajdonság, vagy akár annak hiánya önmagában nem tekinthető a sikertelenség okának. Az eredménytelenül zárult mentorálási folyamatokkal kapcsolatosan felmerült, ismétlődő tényezők és elakadások azonban csoportokba rendezhetők. A csoportok rendre a külső, nem befolyásolható negatív hatások, a folyamatvezetéshez kapcsolódó tényezők, a mentorálttal összefüggő tényezők, a mentorral kapcsolatba hozható összetevők, valamint az egyéb, jatrogén hatások elnevezést viselik. Következtetésként levonható továbbá az is, hogy amennyiben a mentor és mentorált összetett kapcsolatrendszerének a sikertelensége sem bontható vissza egy tényezőre, akkor minden bizonnyal a sikeres folyamatok sem egy-egy tényezőn, hanem azok kombinációján, tényezőcsoportokon fognak alapulni. Ezen tényezőkombinációk pedig egy tágabb kutatás szükségességét körvonalazzák.

Megállapítható továbbá, hogy habár egy fejlesztésre irányuló tevékenység meglehetősen negatív kontextusban került vizsgálatra, mégis érdemes a kérdéskörrel foglalkozni, hiszen a hibákból, rossz példákból legalább ugyanannyit, ha nem többet lehet tanulni, mint a sikeres folyamatokból. Így a negatív minták is hozzájárulhatnak a széleskörű felméréseken alapuló, fogyasztói igényeket leginkább figyelembe vevő és kielégítő, a célelérést segítő vállalkozásfejlesztési mentorálási folyamat kialakításához.

Annak érdekében, hogy mind a sikeres, mind a sikertelen folyamatokkal kapcsolatosan jobb megértés alakuljon ki, megfogalmazhatók bizonyos kutatási irányok és aktivitások. Elsősorban szükséges lenne a segítő szakmákkal kapcsolatos széleskörű ismeretterjesztésre annak érdekében, hogy az abba érkező vállalkozók tudják mire számíthatnak, mi a módszer célja, az együttműködés időtávja és milyen paraméterekkel rendelkezik a kapcsolat. Másrészt szükséges lenne olyan benchmarkok felkutatása és megismerése, amelyek hozzájárulhatnak a hatékony működéshez. Ilyen, már eredményesen működő rendszerek találhatók például a Szilicium-völgyben és a Kuala Lumpur elővárosában, Cyberjayaban működő MaGIC inkubációs központban is. Harmadrészt, nemcsak külső viszonyítási pontokra, hanem belső szabályozásra és képzésre is szükség lenne. Amennyiben valamennyi, vállalkozásfejlesztési mentor rendelkezne egy közel azonos, alapvető eszközrendszerrel és ismertanyaggal, akkor a folyamat során tanúsított magatartás is kiszámíthatóbb lenne, amely észszerű keretek között standardizált, de mégis az ügyfél igényeihez igazodó fejlesztési folyamatot eredményezne. A képzőrendszer ellátható ellenőrző-, és visszacsatolások kezelésére alkalmas funkciókkal is, amelyek segítenének beazonosítani a negatív mintákat, valamint biztosítanának a további fejlődést.

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Szerző rövid életrajza

Zsigmond Száva

Zsigmond Száva a Budapesti Gazdasági Egyetem Pénzügyi és Számviteli Karának, Vállalkozás és Emberi Erőforrások Intézeti Tanszékének oktatója és Team Coach-a. Közgazdász-gazdálkodási szakon végzett a Miskolci Egyetemen, majd Business Coach diplomát szerzett a Budapesti Gazdasági Egyetemen, valamint nemzetközi tanulmányokat folytatott a Jyväskylän University of Applied Sciences Egyetemen, ahol Team Coach képesítést is szerzett. 2012 szeptemberében kezdett Team Coach-ként a Team Academy módszertannal foglalkozni, amely egy, graduális rendszerben működő, learning-by-doing elvére épülő vállalkozóképzést takar. Itt találkozott először a vállalkozásfejlesztési mentorálással, amely egyik kutatási területe és doktori disszertációjának témája is.