

e-ISSN 2353-0758

MODERN | MANAGEMENT | REVIEW |

Quarterly, Volume XIX

(July - September)

Research Journal 21

(3/2014)

MMR Journal indexed, among others, on the basis of the reference of the Minister of Science and Higher Education and Index Copernicus Journal Master List 2013

Issued with the consent of the Rector

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The printed version of the Journal is an original version.

p-ISSN 2300-6366
e-ISSN 2300-0758

Publisher: Publishing House of Rzeszow University of Technology
12 Powstańców Warszawy Ave., 35-959 Rzeszow (e-mail: oficynal@prz.edu.pl)
<http://www.oficyna.portal.prz.edu.pl>

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From the Editorial Committee

We are giving you the next 21st (3/2014) issue of the Quarterly of the Faculty of Management of the Rzeszow University of Technology entitled "Modern Management Review".

The primary objective of the Quarterly is to promote publishing of the results of scientific research within economic and social issues in economics, law, finance, management, marketing, logistics, as well as politics, corporate history and social sciences.

Our aim is also to raise the merits and the international position of the Quarterly published by our Faculty. That is why we provided foreign Scientific Council, as well as an international team of Reviewers to increase the value of the scientific publications.

The works placed in this issue include many assumptions and decisions, theoretical solutions as well as research results, analyses, comparisons and reflections of the Authors.

We would like to thank all those who contributed to the issue of the Quarterly and we hope that you will enjoy reading this issue.

With compliments
Editorial Committee

Antonio BASSI¹

HUMAN AND ORGANIZATIONAL KNOWLEDGE IN A PROJECT MANAGEMENT CONTEXT

Purpose – This paper aims to study the improvement of project success in organizations by integrating knowledge management strategies with project management practices in a typical project lifecycle, assuming that the projects are the tools by which organizations achieve the strategic objectives.

All projects are considered successful if they are delivered on time, within budget, with the required features and functions. This could be an indication that project management practitioners have not fully acquired and transferred knowledge learned from past projects to ensure a higher success rate for current and future projects.

The knowledge created in the projects environment in almost any case is lost due to inefficiency of the processes of the enterprise organization. This leads to inefficiency in developing processes and activity already done by the projects organization in previous projects.

The proposal highlights the importance of an intelligent approach to knowledge sharing demonstrated on a practically approved procedure of knowledge sharing on a project management level. Furthermore the concept and process for a successful institutionalisation of Knowledge Management to foster communication and sharing among people is described by a case based through a procedure of “knowledge management in project environment”.

This paper doesn't provide a solution to the enterprise problems, this is not a methodology, but like the ISO standard 21500 on project management and PMBOK (Project Management Body Of Knowledge) by the Project Management Institute (PMI) provides the tools by which the organization can manage with effectiveness and efficiency the projects.

Keywords - Project Management, ISO 21500, Continuous improvement, lessons learned, historical information, Knowledge Transfer, Project Lifecycle, Project Success.

1. INTRODUCTION

The world of project management is an incredible generator of knowledge and before beginning to describe the relationship between project and knowledge, it is possible to describe, shortly, the context of project management.

A project, by the definition of the Project Management Institute (PMI), one of the most important organization in the project management context, is: a temporary endeavor undertaken to create a unique product, service or result a project define a unique deliverable (unique because it is never done by the enterprise organization) developed by a plan, in this way, project for the enterprise organization has a strategic value because it is the tool by which the enterprise organization can achieve its strategic goals. But a project, to achieves its goals, must work with a well defined policies and in a correct cultural context. It is important to define the rules for a correct and efficient Project Management.

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What is project management? By the definition of the PMI, it is the application of knowledge, skills, tools and technique to project activities to meet the project requirements. In an enterprise context, the project management defines the strategy to develop the projects and involves the whole organization. In fact, the project management culture involves not only the directions or divisions that develop the project, but all the organization. Project needs the cooperation of all the directions or divisions in the organization (marketing, purchasing, selling, operation ...).

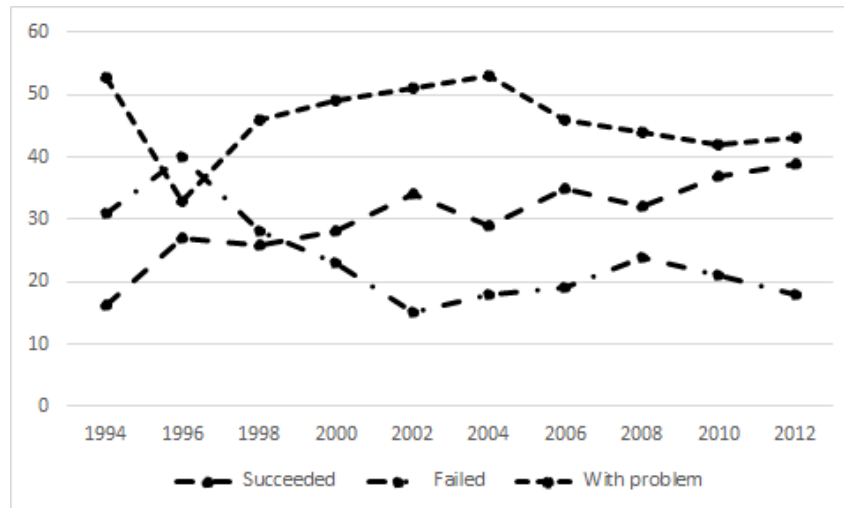
Project, during its lifecycle, produces a lot of documents, like, for example: project documents (plan, strategy, template, ...), meeting minutes, memos, personal and organizational knowledges. All these kinds of knowledge must be managed to improve the knowledge in project management and to enhance the capital assets of the organization to manage, in an effective and efficient way, the project with cost and time reduction, but, unfortunately, in most cases, this knowledge doesn't increase the value of the organization. The cost and time reduction is possible only through a correct recording of all the knowledge.

But what is the state of the art? The management, due to lack in organizational management, thinks that the recording activities are only loss of time and an unacceptable project cost, and, for their blindness doesn't see the advantages in the next projects by the time and cost point of view.

1.1. The state of the art

The Standish Group analyzes, every two years, in its CHAOS report, the performance of projects in various market sectors and in different cultural contexts. This report analyzed more than one hundred thousand projects managed all over the world in every cultural, industry and country context. The picture is quite critical in the regard of the implementation of projects which fail to meet the objectives for whom they were initiated. The last value obtained from this analysis will return a value of about 37% of projects that have met the customer aspectative and only one project up to three finished achieving its goals. It is possible to see a little increment in 18 years.

There is other significant information related to the 'project with problem': if the project doesn't achieves the time goal, the increment in time is nearly the 222% and for the cost is 186%. In this context the most important thing is to define the causes of these problems.



Standish Group – Chaos report

2. THE CAUSES

To define the main causes of these problems it is possible to outline three different areas:

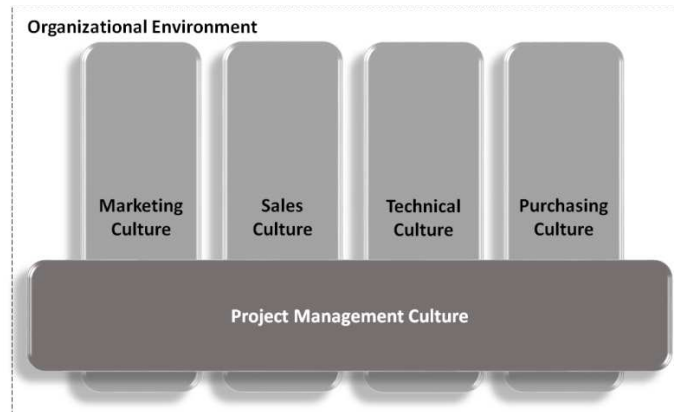
- Introduction of an *organizational project management culture* oriented, which is directly made by the top management of the organization. One of the most important element is the improper closure of a project to collect, catalog and archive the documents / information;
- Improvement of professional skills of project managers so that their behavior can always be directed to the ethics of the profession by allowing a proper and transparent communication within the organization;
- Definition of a Knowledge Management system that can handle all the knowledge generated by projects that allow you to store the information and at the same time to deploy it.

The first two areas are analyzed shortly, in the next paragraphs, and more time is dedicated to the definition of a Knowledge Management System.

2.1. Culture of Project Management

Recover a famous phrase of Napoleon "There are no bad regiments, only incapable colonels" that is perfectly suited to the organizational context, it is possible to say that it is the management the major source of problems of the organization. If proper guidelines are not distributed and will not supervise that these are properly executed, it cannot be expected that the results will meet expectations. In this context, one of the toughest tasks for which you will have to occupy management is the definition of a strong culture of project management, which, differs from other cultural contexts of the organization (e.g. sales, marketing, ...), are characterized by a vertical development within the

directions/departments, spread horizontally, because it embraces the whole organizational structure.



Development of a culture of project management (own source)

But, in many organizations it is possible to observe a dramatic absence of maturity in project management. This is due to a different perception, by the management, in the maturity of their organization because many managers consider the number of projects managed the index of their maturity.

The maturity in project management is made by the definition of strategy, tools, rules and processes to manage projects and in this context it is necessary to define the strategic approach to manage the knowledge made by past projects. In this way the projects can improve the accuracy of the project information to reduce the cost, duration and risk and the uncertainty of the results.

In order to improve the maturity and the project performance, the best approach and the only strategy is the definition of tools and procedures to capture and record all the project information and all the personal and enterprise experience gained during the execution of the lifecycles of the projects.

It is impossible to stop our activity to manage the information at the end of the project because the strategic value of this information is related to the start phase of the project because this historical information is an important input of the planning phase of the projects. In fact this information is used to better define our plan and to use, for similar projects, parts of past plans, to have a cost, time and risk reduction for the current project.

2.1.1. Project closure

The lack of a phase to collect, catalog and archive the documentations, generated during the execution of the project, is the first cause of the failure in the contest of project and knowledge management. The reasons, which at first sight might seem the most plausible, are the lack of resources, time and budget. Often people, due to the pressure of work, are assigned to other projects as soon as the previous project go into the closing phase. But, perhaps, the most plausible explanation is that generally the senior management considers the cost of the closure of the project as an unnecessary cost.

Another motivation on the human nature that avoids liability due to a job, is not done properly, leads team members and in particular the project manager who has managerial responsibilities to not perform this step, avoiding, in this way, the criticism of the work.

Kerzner observes that people are more likely to document the successes and are more reluctant to document the failures because their name would be inextricably linked to failures, for fear of retaliation.

Thomset compares projects with the "witch hunt", as one of the most ruthless and cynical organizational practices in which the victims (the project manager and sometimes his entire team) are accused by the top management, in any case, for the poor results. He identifies top management as the primarily responsible for the failure. To further substantiate this statement, it is possible to say that it is the top management who have to define all the directives for a proper project management. Unfortunately, in the majority of cases, this responsibility is ignored, for a variety of reasons ranging from the lack of a strong culture in project management to a wrong perception of reality in their organization.

Murray, however, advocates for greater professionalism of the project manager and his team inviting him to accept the responsibilities independently of the involved factors.

However, in these cases, he might lose sight of the real goal that must be pursued. The real goal of the closed phase of a project is the collection and documentation of everything that happened during the execution of the project in order to obtain extremely beneficial results in terms of saving and experience, in new projects that will be managed by the same organization.

It's true what Kerzner said, " the only real failures are those in which we learn nothing."

2.2. Professional skills in Project Management

The project manager is a professional, and as such he should be formed. Unfortunately, in many companies the growth of this professional is made not through an educational process that should begin with a careful analysis of the candidate's ability but through a mechanism of promotion that elevates the person who stood out for the undisputed technical skills. In this context, it is possible to lose sight of one of the most basic concepts of work and the allocation of responsibilities, which answers the following question: Is the person able to perform the task that is required? Since the role of the project manager is typically aimed at the managerial and not to the technical context, this persons do not always meet expectations because the tasks that will have to play are too far away from what is its working reality.

The main characteristics of a project manager, to manage in a correct way the project, are related to (the first three):

- Leadership;
- Communication;
- Problem Solving.

And now the question: how many project managers, that you know, have these kind of characteristics? In most case the answer could be: very few or nothing. This kind of profession need a very strong characteristics, and this is the answer because not all the persons could be able to manage a project.

If you need to define the role of a project manager you could define as a: manager. You can notice that the three characteristics listed before are related to managerial skills, and if a project manager needs to manage a great project with one or two hundreds persons and with a budget of 10 millions euros, this project could be quite similar to a little or medium enterprise.

2.3. Knowledge Management

In order to make effective and efficient structure for managing projects within an organization is required to have a knowledge management system that archives and, at the same time, make accessible all the information. The information generated by the organization are the lifeblood of all projects. Without them, the project will have:

- Difficulties in planning. Each project within the organization will be managed as «first project»;
- Difficulties in achieving the objectives. The project won't be able to use the historical information to better plan and manage project risks;
- Lack of management. The projects and related processes will not improve.

Consequently, the organization may not:

- Improve their level of organizational maturity.

Let's see how a proper organization of information can be beneficial to the organizations. Therefore, it is needed to start with the evaluation of different types of knowledge that are gained from the projects.

3. THE KNOWLEDGE OF THE ORGANIZATION

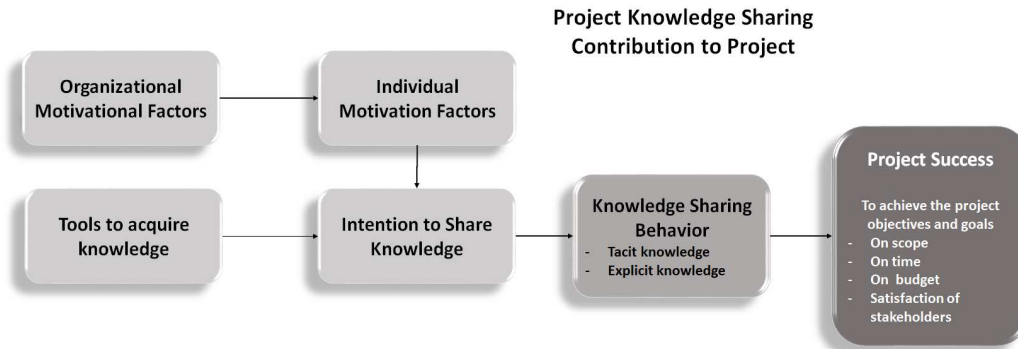
In an organization there are two different levels of knowledge that must be managed, from the historical information and lessons learned point of view:

- *individual knowledge*. What the people have learned during the execution of the project;
- *Organizational knowledge*. What the organization has developed and learned from the management of the projects.

3.1. Individual knowledge

Taking Ismail, «poor is the collection of information on how people share knowledge and experience», especially in the context of the project.

It is possible to propose a theoretical framework, represented in the following figure, which shows, by mean of appropriate motivational and removing those that may be of inhibitory factors in the sharing of knowledge and experiences, a more effective and efficient sharing of knowledge / experience that would help to increase the probability of success of a project.



The knowledge of individuals (own source)

This model is based on the "Nonaka's Knowledge Conversion Model (known as the SECI model)."

It was introduced as one of the most critical elements in the management of knowledge in this context, the management of the tacit knowledge of people. Only through a strong personal motivation, supported by strong motivations from the organization, a person may be willing to share their experience and knowledge. You have to remove the perception of *knowledge = power* to move towards a model of *power = ability to share* where people are valued for their ability to share knowledge and experience at all levels of the organization. This involves a radical cultural change in which even the reward systems of people must be rethought. To improve the success of this kind of activity is necessary to have a strong culture in project and knowledge management inside the organization. You need to remember that the main responsibility to define the correct level of organizational culture is for the top management. They are the makers of the success (or insuccess) of the organizational strategy and for the related results.

Referring again to the model proposed by Ismail, it is not entirely correct to say that only through the collection of these knowledge projects can be successful. Success can be achieved through a system of organizational collaboration in which all parties provide their own contribution: Individuals and organization.

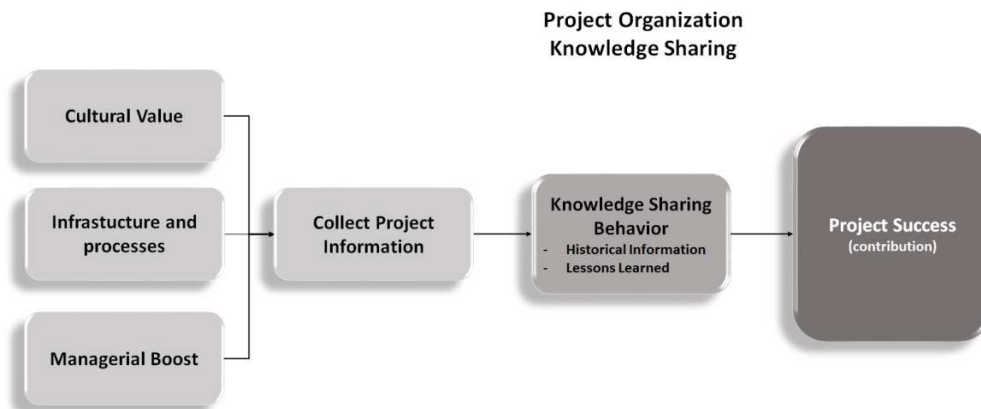
To achieve the desired result the organization, as a priority, you must define the strategy by which you can get this information, so you do not only need to motivate people, but to identify the means by which this collection is made possible. The classic tools such as brainstorming, focus groups, and others may no longer be sufficient. It may therefore be necessary to enlist the help of psychologists who help people to give an order to their thoughts and their feelings. It is often just what a person does not have a perfect knowledge but a subtle feeling that might be the key to success in future projects / activities.

3.2. Organizational knowledge

The management of projects, through the amount of documentation that is generated, it is an inexhaustible source of knowledge, if properly managed, which can make a significant contribution to the improvement of organizational processes allowing at the

same time to feed the loop of continuous improvement in order to achieve high maturity models.

In this context the culture of the organization becomes particularly important as it directs all project management organizational behavior and not to the collection, cataloging and information management as well as everything that has been learned in terms of experience (these knowledges are generically classified as Lesson Learned). Skills that are learned from such activities have been planned and executed and those who were their results. By critical analysis of these activities you can get to define what has been done in a correct way and that, therefore, it is fair to replicate in the projects that will be managed as a result but also what has not been done so correctly, but which still brings important elements of knowledge because it forces us to reflect on the causes of failure making us understand mistakes made by drawing at the same time the way so that in the same circumstances, in future projects, you can chose the best strategy. Another strategic element to improve the culture of organizational knowledge is the definition of the correct infrastructure with the related processes. To achieve the success in term of knowledge, the enterprise organization must define the organizational infrastructure to manage all the kind of knowledge. Infrastructure in terms of strategy, tools, procedures, template and resources.

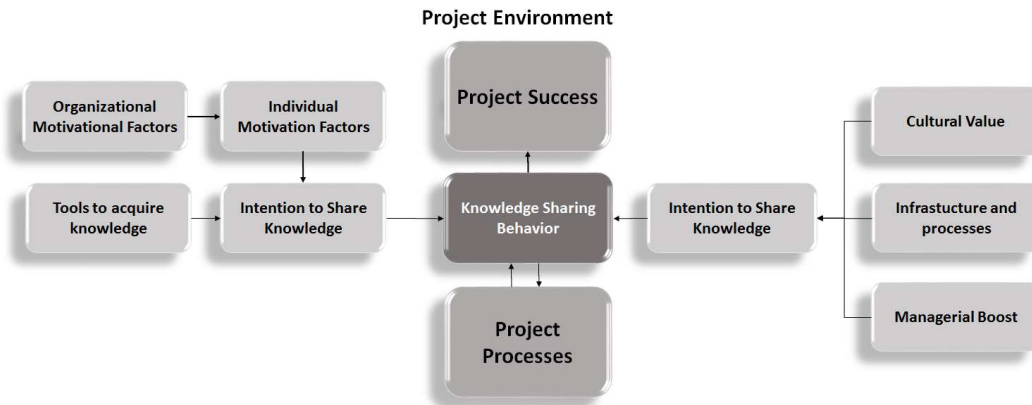


The knowledge of the organizations (own source)

3.3. The result

From these two organizational knowledge charts it is possible to outline what could be the framework that organizations can use to manage their knowledge.

Organizational and individual knowledge provided by the organization is the foundation on which the processes of project management can be improved to achieve the results for which the projects have been undertaken. Through this knowledge you have the possibility to identify the weaknesses and strengths of the processes, to improve them and their organizational flow, defining improvement actions that will direct the flow of actions towards the continuous improvement of the organization.



The knowledge in a project context (own source)

Factors of extreme importance are also the tools that technology provides us for the knowledge so that it can be properly managed. There are already technologically advanced tools for knowledge management in the context of a project but you need to have built-in tools that integrate planning tools with these tools of knowledge management.

The characteristics (minimum) of these tools should be:

- Automatic archiving of official documents (design documents, functional specifications, reports, ...);
- Managing the versioning of documents;
- Template management;
- Archiving of documentation for meetings, events and presentations;
- Lessons learned;
- Mail system design with automatic archiving in the database of the project;
- Immediate fruition of all information.

4. WHAT IS THE FUTURE

After the examination of the current situation with the evidence of the elements that characterized them it is possible to define, to guide our actions, what are the critical success factors of project management in a context of knowledge management:

- *Integrated management of knowledge;*
- *Establishment of a culture of project and knowledge management;*
- *Continuous improvement of organizational processes.*

4.1. Integrated management of knowledge

It is necessary, for the project management system, to integrate the management of knowledge in order that the projects can be managed in an effective and efficient way. The processes that govern the management should be defined in an ideal development project, as defined by the ISO with its standard ISO21500 project management and by the PMI in its PMBOK (Project Management Body Of Knowledge), through the 5 process

groups: initiation, planning, execution, monitoring, and closure the processes of knowledge management must be insert into the following groups:

- Initiating - projects must benefit from the knowledge of past projects in order to improve the management of the project, through the knowledge and past experience;
- Planning, execution, control - collecting and storing lessons learned gained from the development of the project;
- Closure - recording the lessons learned acquired in this last phase and all the information generated by the project (official and unofficial documents, presentations, memos, reports ...).

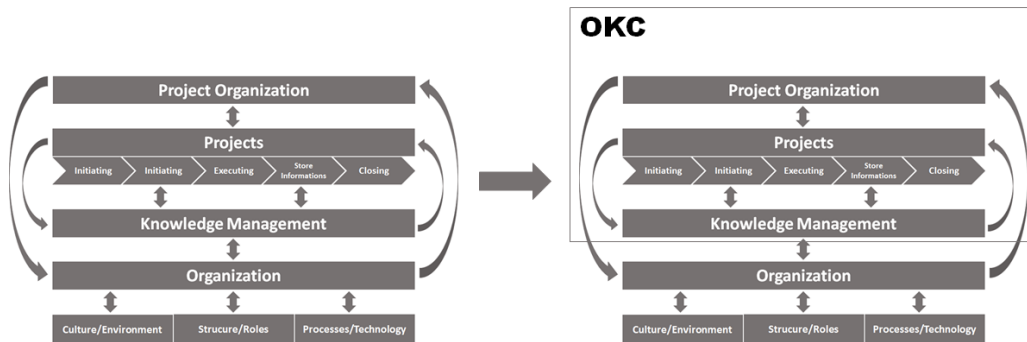
In this context, it would be desirable to the 10 knowledge areas (scope, time, cost, risk, ...), that make up the standard ISO21500, to add another one, the management of the knowledge. Only in this case you will have an effective integration between project management and knowledge.

4.2. Defining a culture of project and knowledge management

The culture of the project and knowledge management, to succeed, must permeate the entire organization. It must be able to develop horizontally embracing all organizational structures, placing a common factor principles and concepts that are shared by all, taking into account the specificities of each individual feature. A central body must be established which develops, and manages to branch out the principles and guidelines by which the organization can move forward with the knowledge that itself is able to generate.

In this context it is fundamental to have a clear vision not only of the cultural model but even of the strategy to achieve the projects and organizational success. In the following figure it is shown the flow of information and knowledge between the project organization and the organization and in the second part of the figure it is shown the area of interest and influence of organizational structure responsible for managing the knowledge that it is defined as *Organizational Knowledge Center* (OKC), whose main responsibilities / activities are:

- Definition of means of knowledge management;
- Definition of the development cycle of knowledge in a project structure;
- Definition of the processes of knowledge management in a project context;
- Transformation of knowledge into operational practices (process improvement, defining checklists, troubleshooting);
- Definition of the resources needed to manage and the related costs.



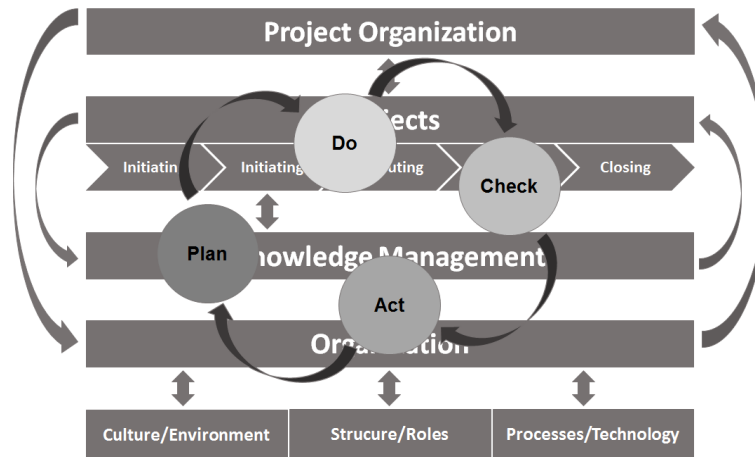
Organizational Knowledge Center (own source)

4.3. Continuous improvement of organizational processes

The ultimate goal of an organization is to pursue and achieve the strategic objectives for which the organization was created. In this context, the projects are the tools available for the organization to achieve this. In addition to having to meet the objectives there are the needs to commit itself for the results can be prosecuted effectively and efficiently, this is only possible through the adoption of the Deming cycle (Plan-Do- Check-Act) in the organizational context. By superimposing the cycle to the proposed model (OKC) is obtained by the model described in the image below where:

- Plan – during the planning phase of a project the project management plan, and all the information related to the project, will be managed as knowledge (collected, stored and disseminated);
- Do - the context of the project is running the project with the integration of the processes of knowledge management;
- Check - The project collects and analyzes the results;
- Act - the organization and knowledge management component to determine if the actions taken have resulted in benefits for which they were taken, approving those that are valid and rejecting ineffective ones. At the end of this cycle, with these results, you have an improvement of the processes.

The most important thing about this series is the fact that they must be repeated periodically to continuously improve the organizational context / knowledge in which both the company and the people continue to learn and improve.



Continuous improvement of the organization in a project management context
(own source)

4.4. Conclusion

To take advantage in the knowledge generated within a project in terms of information and experiences you should proceed in these ways:

- Definition of knowledge and project management organizational culture that defines rules and tools to manage the knowledge in relation to the projects management;
- Definition of the organizational processes that support the collection of knowledge in an organization.

Only through organizational culture and processes management, the organization will be able to obtain a costs, duration and risk reduction in project management as well as a reduction in the uncertainty of the results. In this way the project will be able to achieve the strategic goals of the organization with effectiveness and efficiency.

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WIEDZA ORAZ UMIEJĘTNOŚCI ORGANIZACYJNE W KONTEKŚCIE ZARZĄDZANIA PROJEKTEM

Artykuł ma na celu ukazanie w jaki sposób projekt może odnieść sukces w przedsiębiorstwie poprzez zintegrowanie strategii zarządzania wiedzą z praktykami

zarządzania projektem w typowym cyklu jego życia, przy założeniu, że projekt ten jest narzędziem, dzięki któremu organizacje są w stanie osiągnąć cele strategiczne.

Wszystkie projekty są uważane za skuteczne, jeśli są one dostarczane na czas, w ramach budżetu, oraz gdy posiadają wymagane cechy i funkcje. Jest to więc przesłanka, że wiedza wyniesiona z poprzednich projektów nie została przekazana przez praktyków zarządzania projektem w taki sposób, aby zapewnić wyższy wskaźnik sukcesu dla obecnych i przyszłych projektów.

Wiedza stworzona w środowisku projektów w prawie każdym przypadku jest wiedzą utraconą z powodu nieefektywności procesów organizacji przedsiębiorstwa. Prowadzi to do nieefektywności w rozwoju procesów i czynności już wykonanych przez organizację w poprzednich projektach.

W artykule podkreślono znaczenie inteligentnego podejścia do dzielenia się wiedzą na poziomie zarządzania projektem. Koncepcja i sposób dzielenia się wiedzą i przekazywania jej w celu skutecznej komunikacji została opisana w procedurze "zarządzania wiedzą w środowisku projektu". Artykuł nie jest sposobem na rozwiązanie problemów przedsiębiorstwa, nie jest to również metoda, ale zarówno normy ISO 21500 w zakresie zarządzania projektami oraz PMBOK (Project Management Body of Knowledge) i Project Management Institute (PMI) dostarczają potrzebne narzędzia, dzięki którym organizacja może zarządzać projektami skutecznie i efektywnie.

Słowa kluczowe – Zarządzanie projektem, ISO 21500, ciągłe doskonalenie, wnioski, informacje historyczne, transfer wiedzy, cykl życia projektu, sukces projektu

DOI: 10.7862/rz.2014.mmr.29

Tekst złożono w redakcji: wrzesień 2014

Przyjęto do druku: wrzesień 2014

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DENGLISCHE WERBESPRACHE – EINE UMFRAGE ZUM VERSTEHEN VON ANGLIZISMEN IN DER DEUTSCHEN SPRACHE

Jede lebende Sprache, darunter auch die deutsche, ist einem ständigen Wandel unterzogen und die Aufnahme von Wörtern aus allen Teilen der Welt gehört unabdingbar dazu. Gegenwärtig dominiert das aus der englischen Sprache stammende Lehnwort im deutschen Sprachgebrauch. Dieses Phänomen findet Interesse sowohl im öffentlichen Diskurs als auch in der linguistischen Forschung. Viele Deutsche kommen kaum noch ohne Englisch aus. Es ist normal, alltäglich und gewöhnlich geworden. Anglizismen finden wir in allen Bereichen des Deutschen und sie werden nach wie vor zu einem festen Bestandteil des deutschen Wortschatzes. Der vermehrte Gebrauch von Anglizismen führt, insbesondere in der Werbesprache, zu einer Mischung der zwei Sprachen Deutsch und Englisch und zur Entstehung eines neuen Sprachmix „Denglisch“², der sowohl in der geschriebenen als auch in der gesprochenen Sprache zu finden ist.

Im vorliegenden Artikel wird untersucht, ob und wie Sprecher des Deutschen englische Werbeslogans verstehen. Zuvor werden die zentralen Begriffe, nämlich Anglizismen, Denglisch und Werbeslogan, diskutiert. Danach werden die deutschen Werbepresseslogans unter der Berücksichtigung der denglischen Werbesprache und der meistgebrauchten Werbewörter präsentiert. Zum Schluss werden die Ergebnisse der empirischen Untersuchung dargestellt, die in Deutschland in zwei Altersgruppen durchgeführt wurde. Sie unterscheiden sich von den Ergebnissen, die die Süddeutsche Zeitung im Jahre 2009 durchgeführt hat.

Schlüsselwörter: Denglisch, Sprache, Anglizismen, Werbeslogan, Werbung.

1. HINFÜHRUNG ZUM THEMA

In der letzten Zeit wird viel über den Einfluss von Anglizismen auf die deutsche Sprache diskutiert, weil die Zahl der Anglizismen in der deutschen Sprache von Jahr zu Jahr zunimmt. Dieser Einfluss war und ist so intensiv, dass eine Mischung aus zwei Sprachen entstanden ist. Diese Mischung aus Deutsch und Englisch wird als „**Denglisch**“³ bezeichnet und ist sowohl in der geschriebenen als auch in der gesprochenen Sprache zu finden.

Bereits seit dem Jahr 2000 kann man in vielen deutschen Fachsprachen und Lebensbereichen einen wesentlichen Einfluss vom Englischen auf das Deutsche beobachten.⁴

Dieser Beitrag widmet sich der Textsorte der Werbeslogans. Es wird überprüft, wie weit diese Erscheinung in den letzten Jahren fortgeschritten ist und ob sie von den Deutschen als positiv oder eher negativ empfunden wird.

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² Vgl. *Duden – Deutsches Universalwörterbuch*, Mannheim 2001, S. 388.

³ Vgl. *ibidem*, S. 388

⁴ Vgl. A. Czech-Rogoyska, *Denglisch – czas anglicyzmów w języków niemieckim*, „Lingua legis” 2002/10, S. 53-63.

2. DEFINITORISCHE VERSUCHE

Zunächst muss geklärt werden, was unter den Begriffen Anglizismus, Denglisch und Werbeslogan zu verstehen ist.

2.1. Anglizismus

In einer Vielzahl von Untersuchungen zum Thema Anglizismen wird zunächst von Horst Zindlers Definition ausgegangen: „Ein Anglizismus ist ein Wort aus dem britischen oder amerikanischen Englisch im Deutschen oder eine nicht übliche Wortkomposition, jede Art der Veränderung einer deutschen Wortbedeutung oder Wortverwendung (Lehnbedeutung, Lehnübersetzung, Lehnübertragung, Lehnschöpfung, Frequenz-Steigerung, Wiederbelebung) nach britischem oder amerikanischem Vorbild“⁵ Diese Definition hat durch Broder Carstensen eine Erweiterung im Hinblick auf die Laut-, Satz- und Textebene sowie die Differenzierung zwischen Britizismen und Amerikanismen erfahren.⁶

Bei einem Anglizismus handelt es sich um ein Wort, das aus der englischen Sprache in den Wortschatz einer anderen eingegangen ist. Als Anglizismus bezeichnet man eine Übernahme oder Entlehnung aus allen Varietäten des Englischen ins Deutsche. Bei diesen Einflüssen des Englischen auf das Deutsche wird die Wortkreuzung „Denglisch“ verwendet.

2.2. Denglisch

Die meisten Definitionen des Begriffs „Denglisch“ schildern diese Erscheinung als eine neue Sprache, die infolge einer Mischung von zwei Sprachen, also Deutsch und Englisch, entstanden ist. Neben der Bezeichnung Denglisch kann man auch andere Begriffe für dieses Phänomen finden, nämlich **Denglish**, **Engleutsch** und **Germish**. Denglisch ist ein relativ neuer, aber legitimer und integrierter Bestandteil der deutschen Sprache.

Bei dieser Sprachmischung oder Mixsprache handelt es sich also um Wortschöpfungen, die aus deutschen und englischen Begriffen zusammengesetzt wurden.

Denglisch besteht aus Wörtern bzw. Phrasen wirklich oder scheinbar englischer Herkunft und umfasst

- Lehnwörter und -phrasen aus der englischen Sprache, d.h. Anglizismen wie **Airbag**, **Coffee to go**, **Download**, **Player**, **Shuttle**, **Bodyguard**, **Chip**;
- Wörter, die zwar mehr oder weniger englisch geschrieben und ausgesprochen werden, aber von englischen Muttersprachlern nicht bzw. mit anderer Bedeutung verwendet werden, d.h. Pseudo-Anglizismen wie **Handy**, **Oldtimer**, **Beamer**, **Dressman**, **Evergreen**, **Quizmaster**, **checken**;
- Phrasen aus deutschen Wörtern, die es 1:1 übersetzt auch im Englischen gibt, d.h. angebliche oder wirkliche Lehnübersetzungen wie **macht Sinn**, **nicht wirklich**, **ich denke**, **am Ende des Tages**.⁷

⁵ H. Zindler, *Anglizismen in der deutschen Pressesprache nach 1945*, Diss. Kiel 1959, S. 2. Zitiert nach: U. Busse, *Anglizismen im Duden. Eine Untersuchung zur Darstellung englischen Wortguts in den Ausgaben des Rechtschreibdudens von 1880–1986*, Tübingen 1993, (Reihe Germanistische Linguistik 139), S. 15.

⁶ Vgl. B. Carstensen, *Englische Einflüsse auf die deutsche Sprache nach 1945*, Heidelberg 1965, (Beihefte zum Jahrbuch für Amerikastudien 13), S. 30.

⁷ Vgl. *Denglisch 4ever*, <http://www.denglisch4ever.de/autoframes.html?/top10.html> (Zugriff am 18.04.2014).

2.3. Werbeslogan

Viele Werbetexte enthalten Slogans. Der Slogan ist auch als wichtigster Textbestandteil einer Werbeanzeige zu betrachten. Werbeslogans bieten einen sehr guten Zugriff auf die Spezifika der Werbesprache. Man versteht unter einem Slogan „eine formelhaft kurze, graphisch (oder sprecherisch) und bedeutungsmäßig meist isoliert erscheinende Zeile, die in der Regel längere Zeit benutzt wird“⁸. Nach Anke Wächter sollten Werbeslogans die Werbeaussage und den Produktnamen in das Bewusstsein des Empfängers „eingraben“. Die Einprägsamkeit des Slogans unterstützen die inhaltliche Prägnanz und die Originalität der Gestaltung und deswegen sei hier mit einer intensiven Ausnutzung der sprachlichen Formen und Strukturen zu rechnen.⁹

3. DEUTSCHE WERBESLOGANS IN DEN MEDIEN

Viele der Ausländer, die nach Deutschland kommen und nur Englisch sprechen, haben keine Probleme mit dem Verstehen der deutschen Werbeslogans in den Medien, da diese viele englische Wörter beinhalten. Diese Situation macht die zunehmende Verwendung von Anglizismen in der deutschen Sprache sehr deutlich.

3.1. Denglisch in der deutschen Werbung

Die Anzahl der in englischer Sprache abgefassten Werbeanzeigen, mit denen Millionen Deutsche jeden Tag konfrontiert werden, nimmt ständig zu. Die Deutschen beobachten solche Sprachveränderungen oft mit Besorgnis und immer häufiger vertreten sie den Standpunkt, dass die deutsche Sprache von Anglizismen überschwemmt wird. In diesem Zusammenhang hat man es nicht mehr mit Deutsch zu tun, sondern mit **Denglisch**.¹⁰

Die deutsche Werbung bietet **Hits for Kids** oder Joghurt mit **Weekend Feeling**. Im deutschen Fernsehen gibt es den **Kiddie Contest**, **History**, **Adventure** oder **History Specials** und im Radio **Romantic Dreams**. Die Deutschen stählen ihren Körper mit **Body Shaping** und **Power Walking**. Sie kleiden sich in **Outdoor Jack**, **Tops** oder **Beach Wear**. Sie pflegen sich mit **Anti-Aging-Creme** oder sprühen **Styling** ins Haar. Bei der Bahn mit ihren **Tickets**, dem **Service Point** und **McClean** verstehen sie oft leider nur Bahnhof.¹¹

Die Untersuchung der Häufigkeit des Vorkommens von Anglizismen zeigt, dass die „Bild“-Zeitung den höchsten Anteil an englischen Entlehnungen aufweist. Besonders auffällig ist der Unterschied zur „Frankfurter Allgemeinen Zeitung“, für die sich nur ein wenig mehr als ein Drittel der Anglizismenzahl der „Bild“-Zeitung ergibt.¹²

⁸ Vgl. B. Sowinski, *Werbung*, Tübingen 1998, S. 59.

⁹ Vgl. A. Wächter, *Deutsche Sprache im 18. Jahrhundert – wie spiegeln sich kommunikative Verhältnisse in den Stillehrbüchern dieser Zeit wider?*, Institut für Deutsche Sprache, Mannheim 1992, S. 89.

¹⁰ Vgl. K. Meder, *Anglizismen in der deutschen Werbesprache: Untersucht anhand ausgewählter Frauen- und Männerzeitschriften*, Berlin 2006.

¹¹ Vgl. Verein Deutsche Sprache, *Denglisch. Deutsch oder Denglisch?*, <http://www.vds-ev.de/ag-denglisch-thema> (Zugriff am 23.03.2013).

¹² Vgl. M. Adler, *Form und Häufigkeit der Verwendung von Anglizismen in deutschen und schwedischen Massenmedien*, 2., neu bearbeitete Fassung, Jena 2004, [http://www.db-thueringen.de/servlets/ DerivateServlet/Derivate-3386/Adler.txt](http://www.db-thueringen.de/servlets/DerivateServlet/Derivate-3386/Adler.txt) (Zugriff am 23.03.2013).

3.2. Meistgebrauchte Werbewörter in den deutschen Werbeslogans

Unter den meistgebrauchten Wörtern in deutschen Werbeslogans kann man auch Anglizismen finden. An erster Stelle dieser Rangliste steht das Wörtchen „**wir**“, gefolgt von dem Substantiv „**Leben**“. Den dritten Platz behauptet „**mehr**“, es folgen „**einfach**“ und „**Sie**“. An sechster Stelle landet das englische Pronomen „**your**“. „**Hier**“, „**ich**“, „**natürlich**“ und „**gut**“ bilden die hinteren vier Plätze der zehn meistgebrauchten Werbewörter in den deutschen Werbeslogans.¹³ Das Wort „**we**“ rangiert unter den 15 meistverwendeten Begriffen in deutschen Claims.

Man kann beobachten, dass die Werbetexter auf Wir-Gefühl, Englisch und Kunstwörter setzen. Die englische Sprache gilt gegenwärtig als internationales Bindeglied.

3.3. „WORST CASE IST KEINE WURSTKISTE“¹⁴

Sind englische Werbeslogans für die Deutschen verständlich? Als Titel zu diesem Abschnitt meines Artikels hat mir der Titel des Artikels über die denglische Werbung „Worst Case ist keine Wurstkiste“¹⁵ gedient, der auch als ein gutes Beispiel für denglische Werbeslogans dienen könnte.

Mit dieser Frage beschäftigen sich seit Jahren viele Forscher und Wissenschaftler¹⁶. Einerseits lieben die Deutschen die englische Sprache¹⁷ und verwenden ständig Englisch in der Alltags- und Berufssprache, andererseits sind Anglizismen in der Werbung deutschen Konsumenten oft nicht nur unverständlich, sondern lassen sie auch kalt.¹⁸ Viele Sprachschützer hoffen, dass die Anglizismen in der Zukunft aus der Werbung und sogar aus der gesamten deutschen Sprache verschwinden. Dieses geschieht aber heutzutage nicht, im Gegenteil, die deutsche Sprache verfallt und die Deutschen sprechen Denglisch, so ist eine verbreitete Meinung.¹⁹

Besonders die Werbung sei von Anglizismen überflutet.²⁰ „Englisch ist die beliebteste Sprache der Reklameprofis“,²¹ war schon 2003 im Spiegel zu lesen.

Sollten also die deutschen Werbespots mit Hilfe von Anglizismen verfasst werden? Aus vielen Untersuchungsergebnissen geht hervor, dass die Anglizismen und Denglisch in

¹³ Vgl. L. Herrmann, *Die zehn meistgebrauchten Werbewörter*; (Quelle: Slogometer), http://www.wuv.de/marketing/die_zehn_meistgebrauchten_werbewoerter (Zugriff am 20.02.2013).

¹⁴ Vgl. Spiegel online 2011, *Denglische Werbung: Worst Case ist keine Wurstkiste*, <http://www.spiegel.de/karriere/berufsleben/denglische-werbung-worst-case-ist-keine-wurstkiste-a-760476.html> (Zugriff am 12.11.2012).

¹⁵ Vgl. *ibidem*.

¹⁶ Vgl. S. Burmasova, *Empirische Untersuchung der Anglizismen im Deutschen am Material der Zeitung Die WELT (Jahrgänge 1994 und 2004)*, Bamberger Beiträge zur Linguistik, University of Bamberg Press, Bamberg 2010, S. 10–11.

¹⁷ Vgl. Spiegel online 2011, *op. cit.*

¹⁸ Vgl. Spiegel online 2004, <http://www.spiegel.de/unispiegel/wunderbar/denglisch-in-der-werbung-komm-rein-und-finde-wieder-raus-a-310548.html> (Zugriff am 12.11.2012).

¹⁹ Vgl. Spiegel online. Wirtschaft, *Werbung wieder deutsch, "Überleben Sie die Fahrt in unserem Auto"*, 2004, <http://www.spiegel.de/wirtschaft/werbung-wieder-deutsch-ueberleben-sie-die-fahrt-in-unserem-auto-a-287098.html> (Zugriff am 12.11.2012).

²⁰ Vgl. J.K. Androutsopoulos, *Sprachwahl im Werbeslogan. Zeitliche Entwicklung und branchenspezifische Verteilung englischer Slogans in der Datenbank von slogans.de*, Hannover 2004, S. 4, <http://www.mediensprache.net/networx/networx-41.pdf> (Zugriff am 12.11.2012).

²¹ T. Tuma, *Die Sense stimuliert*, „Spiegel“ 2003/38, S. 87.

den deutschen Werbetexten den Deutschen viele Verständnisprobleme bereiten. Einige seien im Folgenden skizziert.

Eine der Untersuchungen hat die Dortmunder Statistikerin Isabel Kick durchgeführt.²² Kick testete in einer Studie zum Thema Denglisch die Reaktion ihrer Probanden auf verschiedene Texte in der Werbung, indem sie den Hauptwiderstand beim Anhören der einzelnen Slogans maß. Dabei stellte sich heraus, dass die Gefühlsreaktionen bei Werbesprüchen auf Deutsch, wie zum Beispiel „Geiz ist Geil“, „Wir sind da“, oder „Ganz schön clever“, deutlich höher ausfielen als bei Sprüchen wie „Come in and find out“ oder „Designed to make a difference“.

Als ausschlaggebenden Grund für dieses Ergebnis vermutete Kick einfach Verständnisprobleme bei den Spots auf Denglisch. Auch schaffe es Werbung mit englischen Slogans kaum, ausreichend Aufmerksamkeit zu erregen.²³

Mit dem Phänomen „Denglisch“ in der deutschen Werbung hat sich auch der Verein der Deutschen Sprache mit Walter Krämer als Vorsitzenden beschäftigt.²⁴ Dieser ist natürlich erfreut über das Ergebnis der Studie der Dortmunderin Isabel Kick. „Ein alberner Anglizismus und eine ärgerliche Flucht aus der deutschen Sprache“, zürnt der Vizevorsitzende des Vereins der Deutschen Sprache Gerd Schrammen, „Engländer und Amerikaner lachen sich kaputt über den deutschen Drang zum Englischen.“²⁵

Immerhin hat aber der Verein auch festgestellt, dass der Trend in der Werbung wieder weg vom hässlichen „Denglisch“ geht. McDonalds beispielsweise änderte seinen Slogan von „Every time a good time“ zu „Ich liebe es“.

Die Art und Weise, wie englische Begriffe in die deutsche Sprache aufgenommen werden, ist für die Deutschen manchmal peinlich. Viele Formulierungen sind einfach missverständlich. In der „Bild“ ist zu lesen, dass die deutschen Werbetexte mit vielen denglischen Formulierungen verwirrend seien und oft in eine völlig andere Richtung als ursprünglich gewollt gingen.²⁶ Weiter lesen wir in der „Bild“²⁷, die Werbetexter wollten, dass die Reklame von den Konsumenten nicht nur verstanden, sondern auch cool empfunden werden sollte.

4. DARSTELLUNG DER EMPIRISCHEN UNTERSUCHUNGEN

Für die Umfrage werden folgende Fragen zugrunde gelegt:

- 1) Hängt das Verständnis des Werbeslogans von Alter und Schulbildung ab?
- 2) Für welche Zielgruppen eignen sich besonders englische Slogans?

²² Vgl. I. Kick, *Die Wirkung von Anglizismen in der Werbung. „Just do it“ oder lieber doch nicht?*, IFB Verlag, Paderborn 2004.

²³ Vgl. J. Leffers, *Denglisch in der Werbung: Komm rein und finde wieder raus*, Spiegel online. Unispiegel. 2004, <http://www.spiegel.de/unispiegel/wunderbar/denglisch-in-der-werbung-komm-rein-und-finde-wieder-raus-a-310548.html> (Zugriff am 20.02.2013).

²⁴ Vgl. K. Wirth, *Der Verein Deutsche Sprache. Hintergrund, Entstehung, Arbeit und Organisation eines deutschen Sprachvereins. Bamberger Beiträge zur Linguistik*, University of Bamberg Press, Bamberg 2010, S. 157–163.

²⁵ Vgl. J. Leffers, *op. cit.*

²⁶ Vgl. G. Rosemann, *Funny German Werbung. Die größten Blackouts deutscher Werbetexter*, Bild online 2012, <http://www.bild.de/ratgeber/2012/denglisch/werbung-werbetexter-fehler-blackout-robert-tonks-2253279.bild.html> (Zugriff am 20.02.2013).

²⁷ Vgl. *ibidem*.

- 3) Hat ein verständener Slogan einen positiven Einfluss auf die Einstellung zur Werbeanzeige?
- 4) Sind englische Werbeslogans erfolgreicher als die deutschen Werbeslogans?

4.1. Befragte Personengruppen

Die Befragung wurde im Zeitraum zwischen Januar und März 2014 realisiert. Von den Befragten haben 75 Prozent aus Bielefeld oder der näheren Umgebung, rund 20 Prozent aus München und 5 Prozent aus dem restlichen Bundesgebiet gestammt. Die Zielpersonen wurden per E-Mail oder persönlich zur Teilnahme an der Befragung eingeladen.

Insgesamt wurden 40 Personen befragt und allen wurden Fragen gestellt, wie sie bestimmte englische Werbeslogans verstehen. Die Befragten repräsentierten zwei Altersgruppen. In der ersten Personengruppe (20 Personen) wurden Jugendliche im Alter zwischen 17 und 22 Jahren befragt. Zu dieser Gruppe gehörten hauptsächlich Kollegiaten des Oberstufenkollegs an der Universität Bielefeld sowie Studenten der Universität Bielefeld. Die zweite Befragtengruppe dagegen haben Erwachsene im Alter von 25 bis 40 Jahren gebildet. Die meisten Befragten dieser Gruppe waren berufstätige Frauen und Männer mit Hochschulbildung. Alle Befragten haben die Fragen, was die englischen Slogans für sie bedeuten, schriftlich oder mündlich beantwortet.

4.2. Untersuchte Werbeslogans

Für die Untersuchungen sind vier Werbeslogans in englischer Sprache ausgewählt worden, die in Deutschland populär sind. In den Slogans geht es um Produkte verschiedener Branchen wie Kosmetikkonzerne, Fluggesellschaften, Fast Food Restaurants und Automarken.

Die gleichen Werbeslogans wurden im Jahre 2009 von der Süddeutschen Zeitung in einer Leserumfrage untersucht. Die Leser haben damals überlegt, was die Slogans in der englischen Sprache tatsächlich bedeuten könnten. Die Ergebnisse dieser Umfrage zeigen deutlich, dass die Ausdrücke nicht verstanden werden.

Der erste englische Werbeslogan lautet „**Come in and find out**“ der Parfümerie Douglas, die fast nur englische Slogans auf dem deutschen Markt hat.

Eine mögliche Übersetzung dieses Slogans nach der Umfrage der „Süddeutschen Zeitung“ lautet „**Komm rein und finde wieder raus**“.²⁸

Der zweite von mir gewählte und auch in der Befragung aus dem Jahre 2009 berücksichtigte Werbeslogan „**There’s no better way to fly**“ der Fluggesellschaft Lufthansa wurde im Jahre 2000 eingeführt und ist bis heute erhalten geblieben.

Auf Deutsch könnte dieser Slogan nach der Meinung der Zeitungsleser lauten „**Schneller kann man nicht entlassen werden**“.²⁹

Der Slogan der Fast Food-Kette Burger King „**Have it your way**“, der den dritten Platz in meiner Befragung hat, wurde schon vor ein paar Jahren in Deutschland eingeführt.

²⁸ Vgl. Süddeutsche.de, <http://www.sueddeutsche.de/leben/englische-werbeslogans-komm-rein-und-finde-raus-1.141830> (Zugriff am 06.12.13).

²⁹ Vgl. Süddeutsche.de, <http://www.sueddeutsche.de/leben/englische-werbeslogans-komm-rein-und-finde-raus-1.141830-2> (Zugriff am 06.12.13).

Die deutsche Version dieses Slogans nach den Zeitungslesern könnte man auf folgende Art und Weise übersetzen „**Nimm's mit auf den Heimweg**“.³⁰

Vierter und zugleich letzter Werbeslogan meiner Befragung der Automarke Ford lautet „**Ford – feel the difference**“ und auf Deutsch „**Ford – fühle den Streit**“.³¹ Diese Übersetzung des Werbeslogans der Automarke Ford hat die von der „Süddeutschen Zeitung“ durchgeführte Umfrage ergeben.

5. ERGEBNISSE DER BEFRAGUNG UND SCHLUSSFOLGERUNGEN

Die hier durchgeführten Umfragen zeigen andere Ergebnisse als die von 2009 der Süddeutschen Zeitung. Beide Gruppen von Befragten haben ähnlich geantwortet und die englischen Werbeslogans gut verstanden. Die erste befragte Personengruppe, also Jugendliche und Studenten, die die englische Sprache schon in der Schule als erste Fremdsprache gelernt haben, haben die Fragen u.a. auf folgende Art und Weise beantwortet:

- Wie verstehst Du diese englischen Werbeslogans?

„Come in and find out“ von der Parfümerie Douglas:

1. „Komm herein und finde es heraus.“
2. „Komm her und lass dich überraschen.“

„There's no better way to fly“ von der Fluggesellschaft Lufthansa:

1. „Es gibt keinen besseren Weg zu fliegen als mit dieser Airline.“
2. „Man kann nicht besser fliegen (eine bessere Airline wählen).“

„Have it your way“ von der Fast Food-Kette Burger King:

1. „Mach es, wie du es willst. Ich entscheide, ob ich einen Burger genießen darf!“
2. „Mach das auf deine eigene Art.“

„Ford – feel the difference“ von der Automarke Ford:

1. und 2. „Ford – fühle den Unterschied.“

Die zweite Personengruppe im Alter zwischen 25 und 40 hat dieselben Fragen folgendermaßen beantwortet:

- Wie verstehen Sie diese englischen Werbeslogans?

„Come in and find out“ von der Parfümerie Douglas:

1. „Komm rein und finde es heraus. Also, komm in unser Geschäft und finde heraus, was es dort zu kaufen gibt.“
2. „Komm herein und finde raus, was dir gefällt.“

„There's no better way to fly“ von der Fluggesellschaft Lufthansa:

1. „Es gibt keinen besseren Weg zu fliegen. Also, Lufthansa ist die beste Möglichkeit, um zu reisen.“
2. „Es gibt keinen besseren Weg, um zu fliegen.“

„Have it your way“ von der Fast Food-Kette Burger King:

1. „Mach es auf deine Weise. Also, bei Burger King gibt es für jeden Geschmack das Passende.“
2. „Hab es so wie du es magst.“

„Ford – feel the difference“ von der Automarke Ford:

³⁰ Vgl. Süddeutsche.de, <http://www.sueddeutsche.de/leben/englische-werbeslogans-komm-rein-und-finde-raus-1.141830-3> (Zugriff am 06.12.13).

³¹ Vgl. Süddeutsche.de, <http://www.sueddeutsche.de/leben/englische-werbeslogans-komm-rein-und-finde-raus-1.141830-7> (Zugriff am 06.12.13).

1. „Ford – Fühl den Unterschied. Also, erlebe beim Fahren den Unterschied zwischen Ford und anderen Automobilherstellern.“
2. „Ford – fühle den Unterschied.“

Die Antworten machen deutlich, dass beide befragten Personengruppen diese Slogans korrekt verstanden haben.

Man kann davon ausgehen, dass das Verständnis des Werbeslogans von Alter und Schulbildung abhängig ist. Die befragten Personen haben ein Studium abgeschlossen oder studieren gegenwärtig. Englische Werbeslogans sind also kein Problem für ausgebildete Personengruppen. Auch die Einstellung zur Werbeanzeige ist eher positiv als negativ. So kann man weiterhin annehmen, dass englische Werbeslogans so erfolgreich wie die deutschen Werbeslogans sind.

Geplant sind weitere Untersuchungen, um nächste Personengruppen zu befragen und dabei verschiedene Alters- und Sozialgruppen zu berücksichtigen. Die entstandenen Datenmengen lassen weitgreifende Schlussfolgerungen daraus ziehen.

* * *

Wenn man heutzutage einen Blick in Magazine wirft, Börseninformationen liest, in Kunden- oder Mitarbeiterzeitschriften blättert oder andere Medien in Deutschland verfolgt, stößt man häufig auf englische Begriffe und Wendungen, also Anglizismen. Das Englische ist auch die dominierende Sprache in der Werbung geworden.

Resümierend nach der Durchführung der Befragung muss man sagen, dass die englischen Werbeslogans für die Deutschen verständlich sind und keiner Erklärung bedürfen, da die meisten Deutschen die englische Sprache als erste Fremdsprache in der Schule lernen und in dieser Sprache problemlos kommunizieren können.

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DENGLISCH IN THE LANGUAGE OF ADVERTISING – THE SURVEY ON THE DEGREE OF UNDERSTANDING OF THE ANGLICISMS IN GERMAN

Each language that is alive is constantly changing. When we observe the contemporary linguistic tendencies we get the impression that languages exchange words, which results not only in the inclusion of specific foreign words into our native languages, but also in the assimilation of the new lexical items. The phenomenon of English words entering the German language is so intense that consequently we get a mixture of these two languages which is referred to as Denglisch.

The discussed phenomenon is increasingly present both in the specialist language varieties and in the common German. Advertising belongs to the areas, where we get a lot of examples of Denglisches: job positions, functions of the employees in the said field and advertising spots. The language of advertising is particularly rich in anglicisms. Not only do many of the German advertising slogans include anglicisms, but they are translated into

English as a whole. Bearing in mind the ubiquity of the said phenomenon Denglisch has attracted a lot of attention in Germany in the recent years.

This paper presents the results of the study conducted by the author which aimed at confirming how far the German slogans are understandable for the German language users. The study was carried out in Germany, in two age groups on the basis of the four, randomly selected advertisements operating on the German market. Additionally, the paper presents some main notions related to the topic in point, that is anglicism, advertising slogan and Denglisch.

Keywords: Denglisch, language, anglicism, advertising slogan, advertisement

DENGLISCH W JĘZYKU REKLAM - ANKIETA BADAJĄCA STOPIEŃ ZROZUMIENIA ANGLICYZMÓW W JĘZYKU NIEMIECKIM

W każdym żyjącym języku zachodzą stale zmiany. Obserwując współczesne tendencje językowe, można odnieść wrażenie, że języki wymieniają się słowami, co skutkuje nie tylko przepłataniem języka ojczystego obcozmięcami zapożyczeniami, lecz także asymilacją nowego słownictwa. Przykładem takich zapożyczeń są stosowane w języku niemieckim anglicyzmy. Przenikanie anglicyzmów do języka niemieckiego jest tak intensywne, iż dochodzi coraz częściej do pomieszania tych dwóch języków oraz do powstania zjawiska Denglisch – tworu językowego, którego nazwa jest połączeniem słów – Deutsch i Englisch. Zjawisko to jest coraz częściej zauważalne zarówno w specjalistycznych odmianach języka niemieckiego jaki i w języku potocznym. Jedną z dziedzin, w której Denglisch jest szczególnie widoczny i popularny, jest reklama. Począwszy od stanowisk i funkcji pracowników tej branży, a kończąc na spotach reklamowych, język reklamy jest niezwykle bogaty w anglicyzmy. W wielu przypadkach, niemieckie slogany reklamowe nie tylko zawierają anglicyzmy, lecz są w całości tłumaczone na język angielski. Zważywszy na jego wszechobecność, zjawisku Denglisch poświęca się w Niemczech wiele uwagi. Dla jednych Denglisch jest znakiem otwartości na świat, a przede wszystkim dowodem rozwoju języka, podczas gdy inni postrzegają go jako zagrożenie dla języka niemieckiego. W niniejszym artykule autorka przedstawia wyniki własnych badań mających na celu rozpoznanie, czy slogany reklamowe w języku angielskim są zrozumiałe dla odbiorców niemieckich. Badania zostały przeprowadzone w Niemczech w dwóch grupach wiekowych na przykładzie czterech losowo wybranych reklam występujących na rynku niemieckim. W artykule przedstawiono również główne pojęcia związane z tematem czyli anglicyzm, slogan reklamowy i Denglisch oraz scharakteryzowano niemieckie slogany reklamowe z pod kątem najczęściej stosowanych w nich słów.

Słowa kluczowe: Denglisch, język, anglicyzmy, slogan reklamowy, reklama

DOI: 10.7862/rz.2014.mmr.30

Tekst złożono w redakcji: maj 2014

Przyjęto do druku: wrzesień 2014

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PRANKVERTISING – PRANKS AS A NEW FORM OF BRAND ADVERTISING ONLINE

A practical joke (i.e. a prank) belongs to a category of disparagement humor, as it is a playful act held to amuse, tease or even mock the victim, and to entertain the audience. Although humor has been long exploited in broadcast and print advertising, the use of practical jokes is a more recent phenomenon esp. in digital marketing. The development of the Internet and social media creates new opportunities for using pranks as disguised adverts embedded in online strategies and there is an increasing number of companies which exploit pranks as a creative content solution for their on-line presence. As there is little academic endeavor devoted to this subject, this paper forwards a theoretical and practical framework for pranks. It recognizes pranks as innovative forms of digital advertising and it analyses their potential in terms of branding effectiveness (e.g. in maximizing brand reach, exposure, brand visibility, drawing consumer attention, eliciting strong emotions etc.). Possible prank effects are inferred from the theory of humor and from the secondary data collected by the authors of this paper. Key challenges, risks and limitations are discussed and relevant examples are provided. The paper concludes with several research areas and questions to be addressed in future empirical studies.

Keywords: a prank, brand, advertising online, prankvertising, brand management, advertising strategy, humor

1. INTRODUCTION

The Internet has become one of the most important advertising tools and it has overtaken traditional media in terms of brand-building possibilities. Year by year the online advertising market is experiencing a considerable growth and development. There is an increasing number of companies allocating their budgets in diverse forms of online communication e.g. display ads, search engine optimization, social profiles, games, and viral videos. According to Zenith Optimedia, it is online video that is one of the fastest growing advertising tools and it is expected to rise by a half to around 10 billion USD by 2016³. As videos are believed to generate traffic and online word-of-mouth, advertisers dedicate more and more resources to build appropriate video content that would contribute to positive advocacy among their target audiences. Video as a vehicle for viral marketing has

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³ *Media firms are making big bets on online video, still an untested medium*, New York, 3 May 2014, <http://www.economist.com/news/business/21601558-media-firms-are-making-big-bets-online-video-still-untested-medium-newtube>.

thus become an applauded lever for emotions, engagement and positive on-brand behaviors⁴.

This paper addresses a very specific type of online viral videos: video pranks, i.e. advertising messages disguised as practical jokes and disseminated by brands. It analyzes their role and functions in contemporary branding campaigns on the Internet. As the concept of a branding prank has been largely understudied and under-theorized by marketing scholars, the manuscript aims at providing theoretical and practical background to this phenomenon and attempts to identify key research areas which need to be further explored. At the end of the manuscript the authors provide a list of prank videos (table 1.), which serve as exemplifications of different statements presented in the text. In order to form a complete picture of pranks in digital advertising, the readers are strongly encouraged to watch the relevant footage along with reading subsequent sections.

2. PRANKS AND PRANKVERTISING – DEFINING A NEW CONCEPT

A prank is a ludicrous event or act done to entertain, amuse or ridicule. As cultural anthropologist, Richard Bauman⁵, suggests, it is an enactment of playful deceit. A practical joke is played by a trickster on an individual (i.e. a victim) who does not expect to be a subject of any mockery or comic situation. From socio-cultural viewpoint, pranks have been recognized as a category of play, as they attempt to blur the boundaries between artifice and reality, to reverse the typical social order and hierarchy of everydayness, and, simultaneously, they are unserious, make-believe, and involve magnitude of surprise⁶. Typical examples range from childish joke experiments (e.g. placing salt in a sugar bowl; hanging a bucket of water above a doorway), to “adolescent” office pranks (e.g. wrapping the office desks with stretch foil, so colleagues returning from their holidays think they are fired).

From an entertainment perspective, a prank is not a new phenomenon and it has been extensively used for decades by television producers in, for example, the Candid Camera format. In contemporary marketing, however, practical jokes have just begun to be exploited for online branding purposes, which contributes to one of the latest trends, namely called **prankvertising**. Professional pranks (i.e. staged by advertising agencies) are usually complex performances, planned ahead of execution and with anticipated results. In digital media pranks have become a modern executional tactic for promotional messages designed to draw consumers’ attention in a highly cluttered environment. They are increasingly used as a captive content for videos disseminated online by brands to promote themselves and to build a positive word-of-mouth. Such video pranks (hereafter called branding pranks) depict unsuspecting consumers caught up in a trap or set up by actors in prearranged marketing stunts. So, like in the traditional humor process, branding pranks usually involve 3 parties: an agent, an object and an audience⁷. Brands act as joke tellers and tricksters (agents) who set up a prank, engineer its scenario, and control the source of

⁴ J.-K. Hsieh, Y.-C. Hsieh, Y.-C. Tang, *Exploring the disseminating behaviors of eWOM marketing: persuasion in online video*, “Electronic Commerce Research” 2012/12, s. 201–224.

⁵ R. Bauman, *Story, Performance, and Event: Contextual Studies in Oral Narrative*, Cambridge UP, Cambridge 1986, p. 144.

⁶ M. Karpińska-Kraskowiak, *Consumers, Play and Communitas – an Anthropological View on Building Consumer Involvement on a Mass Scale*, “Polish Sociological Review” 3/187 (2014), p. 317–331.

⁷ C.S. Gulas, M.G. Weinberger, *Humor in Advertising: A Comprehensive Analysis*, M.E. Sharpe, New York 2006.

fun and humor; online users (i.e. target consumers) become the recipients of humor (an audience); and anonymous individuals are the objects (victims) of a joke.

It is the **surprise** and genuine reactions of objects (i.e. **staged veracity of the stunt**), that constitute a source of humor in branding pranks. However, the level of reality and surprise differs depending on a joke. In Carlsberg “Bikers in Cinema” prank, unsuspecting people enter the cinema where there are only limited seats available among a scary-looking group of bikers. The suspense is relieved when the most “courageous” visitors take a seat next to the bikers and are awarded with a beer for their outgoing attitude. While this situation was authentic, certain branding stunts are staged in more controlled environments, with prearranged equipment and specially selected actors. The Weather Channel (TWC), for example, officially admitted that in their prank, which had been designed to promote TWC’s new Android application to forecast the weather, they used professional actors.

3. PRANKS AND THEIR ROLE IN BRAND PROMOTION ONLINE

One can encounter many branding pranks across diverse product categories (e.g. airlines, household appliances, toys), but most spectacular stunts are staged by companies offering their products in FMCG sectors like food, beverages and cosmetics (e.g. Coca-Cola, Pepsi, Heineken, Carlsberg, McDonald’s, Nivea, Herbal Essences). These are predominantly low-involvement products, which have already exploited all arguments about extra attributes, functions or benefits they may provide, and they operate in highly competitive, dense markets, with extensive number of players and advertising clutter. Under such conditions, using unconventional promotional methods seems the most efficient strategy for differentiation and standing out from the online crowd.

Most frequent **objectives** set for branding pranks are: **maximizing reach** and **brand visibility**, **generating attention**, **eliciting strong emotions** and **providing a compelling portrayal of brand core ideas**. Despite their advertising origin and purpose, branding pranks do not directly promote products *per se*; they are not designed to sell, neither to induce immediate purchase behaviors on any viewers’ part. Instead, they are introducing the viewer into the world and philosophy of a particular brand (e.g. “Push to add drama” prank held by cable network TNT); they amusingly epitomize brand values and claims (e.g. Heineken and its “Champions league match vs. classical concert” prank), attributes (e.g. Nivea “The stress test”, LG “Meteor”, DHL “Trojan mailing”) or a reason to be (e.g. Coca-Cola “Singapore recycle happiness machine”, “Happiness truck”, “Happiness machine”). A product provides just a setting for playing a joke; it creates an occasion to trigger a play (e.g. a Samsung prank “All eyes on S4”) and make fun of unsuspecting nonprofessionals.

Most remarkable pranks can gather a **multimillion audience in a relatively short period of time**. Up to date (i.e. September 2014) the mostly viewed pranks were: TNT video “Push to add drama” which had been seen 51,149,105 times in two years⁸, WestJet “Christmas miracle” with 36,351,790 views in nine months⁹, and LG “Elevator” with

⁸ *A dramatic surprise on a quiet square*, <http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=316AzLYfAzw> (accessed: 22 September 2014).

⁹ *WestJet Christmas Miracle: real-time giving*, <http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=zIEIvi2MuEk> (accessed: 22 September 2014).

22,535,332 impressions in one year¹⁰. The actual reach of these pranks may become even greater as they are frequently shared, forwarded and cited across traditional media and social networking sites. LG video “Meteor”, for instance, was referred to in “Huffington Post”¹¹, “Telegraph”¹², “Daily Mail”¹³, “Mirror”¹⁴ etc. Similarly, positive reviews about TNT prank were presented in “Huffington Post”¹⁵, “Daily Mail”¹⁶ and even “Forbes”¹⁷.

Apart from gaining visibility online, pranks are designed to **generate intense emotions**. Humor in its essence has significant emotional power and appeal to massive audience. Strong emotions, as produced by humorous messages, are believed to drive on-brand behaviors, or at least leave considerable memory traces, which consumers may rely on in their subsequent decision-making. Surprisingly, it is **the negative nature of emotional appeal**, that seems to count for most marketing managers who attempt to advertise online with branding pranks. There are many examples of very provocative pranks, which actually base on negative emotions like fear, derision, embarrassment or mayhem. In Nivea “The stress test” prank, for instance, the objects (victims) are secretly photographed as they sit in the airport departure lounge. These images are immediately used to depict the objects as very dangerous fugitives in faux newspapers distributed around the airport and in TV programs broadcasted in that lounge. As the prankees become stressed, the airport security guards approach them with Nivea antiperspirant deodorants - the products designed to help consumers overcome the effects of stressful situations. Despite the positive closure of this video, a careful viewer would not only remember the brand, but might also associate Nivea with emotional harm and trauma experienced by the victims. Another example of a branding prank that uses non-positive humor signals was held by LG. It depicts candidates during job interviews, who are tricked into thinking that a meteor has just fallen on the city outside the office window. Albeit staged, “Meteor” video may raise viewers’ sympathy and compassion as they associate themselves with humiliat-

¹⁰ *So Real it's Scary*, <http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=NeXMxuNNIE8> (accessed: 22 September 2014).

¹¹ S. Barness, *LG Prank Makes People Think It's The End Of The World*, “The Huffington Post”, 9 March 2013, http://www.huffingtonpost.com/2013/09/03/lg-prank-spain_n_3861926.html (accessed: 22 September 2014).

¹² *LG pulls apocalyptic interview prank*, “Telegraph”, 5 September 2013, <http://www.telegraph.co.uk/news/newsttopics/howaboutthat/10290405/LG-pulls-apocalyptic-interview-prank.html> (accessed: 22 September 2014).

¹³ D. McCormack, *Welcome to the scariest job interview ever!*, “Daily Mail”, 5 September 2013, <http://www.dailymail.co.uk/news/article-2411950/Scariest-job-interview-LG-terrifies-applicants-Chile-faking-massive-meteor-crash-outside-office-window-thats-really-ultra-high-def-TV-screen.html> (accessed: 22 September 2014).

¹⁴ D. Raven, *Is this the world's scariest job interview? LG give job applicants the fright of their lives*, “Mirror”, 5 September 2013, <http://www.mirror.co.uk/news/weird-news/worlds-scariest-job-interview-lg-2252797>, (accessed: 22 September 2014).

¹⁵ *TNT's Red Button Ad Invites Users To “Push To Add Drama”*, “Huffington Post”, 4 November 2012, http://www.huffingtonpost.com/2012/04/11/tnt-red-button-ad-commercial-add-drama_n_1418731.html, (accessed: 22 September 2014).

¹⁶ M. Blake, *‘Push here for Drama’: How a quiet Belgian town was turned into a live action movie, complete with punch-ups, gunfights and kidnap... and a sexy biker in lingerie*, “Daily Mail”, 12 April 2012, <http://www.dailymail.co.uk/news/article-2128653/Push-Drama-How-quiet-Belgian-town-turned-live-action-movie-complete-punch-ups-gunfights-kidnap-sexy-lingerie-clad-biker.html> (accessed: 22 September 2014).

¹⁷ A.W. Kosner, *“Push To Add Drama” Video: Belgian TNT Advert Shows Virality of Manipulated Gestures*, “Forbes”, 4 December 2012, <http://www.forbes.com/sites/anthonykosner/2012/04/12/push-to-add-drama-video-belgian-tnt-advert-shows-virality-of-manipulated-gestures/> (accessed: 22 September 2014).

ed job candidates. Pranks, therefore, have to be used with caution in advertising, as they may convert mirth into contempt towards a trickster i.e. a brand.

As practical jokes are a form of disparagement humor, the use of negative emotions should not be a great surprise. From statistical perspective, fearful and derisive branding pranks may be even regarded as more effective in terms of media reach than positive and blissful ones. The most frequently viewed stunts were designed to mock or ridicule the victims. For example, in Pepsi Max “Test drive” video, an unsuspecting car salesman is taken to test drive a car with a disguised NASCAR racer, Jeff Gordon, who dangerously speeds along the streets. Despite the evident emotional harm imposed on a salesman, the video managed to get over 42,947,547 views in one year¹⁸. This, however, raises some doubts about delayed effectiveness of pranks: to what extent such number of views and extensive media coverage may compensate for generating unfavorable brand attitudes as a result of a negatively-oriented humor?

For brands which position themselves as fun, witty or entertaining, **pranks often become the foundation of long-term brand communications online**. Heineken, for example, has been long involved in staging practical jokes which engage and integrate football spectators all over the world. In one of the most exciting stunts, over 1,000 AC Milan fans were maneuvered into a fake classical music concert organized at the same time as a Real Madrid vs. AC Milan soccer game. Another example of using situational humor by Heineken is presented in “The negotiation” video. It depicts men trying desperately to persuade their female partners to spend almost 2,000 USD on two plastic, red, stadium chairs, in order to win a ticket for the UEFA Champions League finals in London (under one condition: they cannot mention the tickets in their negotiations). The abundant portfolio of Heineken pranks comprises also videos with: a fake job interview (“Candidate”), a female stranger in a bar offering a tour to a football game in another country (“The decision”), a challenge to find another half of the ticket in a supermarket (“3 minutes to the final”) and many others. They are all consistently embedded in the communications strategy in order to raise humor and persuasively portray a brand in real-life situations and contexts.

Non-humorous brands (i.e. with no associations to humor) **exploit pranks in single campaigns or marketing online events so as to visualize the main product benefit and authenticate it**. This is the objective of Nivea “The stress test” prank or Herbal Essence and its “Experiencia” stunt. Another example is “So real it’s scary” campaign, in which LG Electronics promote the IPS monitor as providing such realistic vision that may totally captivate the viewers or even evoke extreme reactions of panic, fear, anxiety or thrill. LG pranks are supposed to provide credibility and a sense of authenticity to the brand, as they present genuine expressions of unsuspecting victims caught up in diverse, optically delusive, traps e.g.: in an elevator (a grid of monitors is fixed in an elevator so that it broadcasts an optic illusion of a floor falling down - “Elevator”), in a restroom (monitors, which are installed above a row of urinals in a public restroom, display beautiful women starring and commenting on all visitors - “Stage fright”) and at a job interview (“Meteor”). LG positioning statement is not based on humor, but a joke serves temporarily as a vehicle for communicating key functional benefit of a product i.e. visual superiority.

¹⁸ Jeff Gordon: Test Drive | Pepsi Max | Prank, <http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Q5mHPo2yDG8> (accessed: 22 September 2014).

4. PRANK EFFECTS ON BRANDS – IMPLICATIONS FROM THEORY OF HUMOR

From marketing perspective, it is important to gain insights about the communication effects of pranks. Disappointingly, little academic work has been devoted to consumer studies on practical jokes and their efficacy in digital advertising. However, as pranks belong to a category of humor, one can infer from extant humor literature their possible persuasive powers and their likely impact on consumer behavior.

According to Speck¹⁹, there are mainly three broad groups of theories of humor response: cognitive-perceptual (e.g. incongruity theories), superiority (e.g. disparagement and affective-evaluative theories) and relief (e.g. psychodynamic theories). From marketing communications perspective, these theories offer a series of approaches which might prove useful in explaining, how humor (esp. used in a form of online pranks) works in terms of branding effects. One of the commonly accepted theoretical concepts is derived from a classical conditioning theory, Heider's balance theory²⁰ and a model of attitude formation²¹. The idea is that affective responses, stimulated by humor used in an ad, **directly influence (are transferred to) brand attitude without swaying brand recall or recognition**²². Simply, humorous ads (unlike serious ones) generate excessively higher levels of positive attitudes. This triggers the transfer of affect onto the brand, as individuals strive to keep consistency (balance) in their attitudes and behaviors.

Another conceptualization recognizes humor as **a distractive factor which impedes comprehension of the advertising stimuli and its recall**. Zillmann et al.²³ and Woltman Elpers et al.²⁴ have argued that respondents are so concentrated on humor, that they show low attentiveness to other layers of the message. Cognitively speaking, humor elicits strong emotions of mirth, pleasure and amusement, which serve as a sufficient encouragement to focus attention²⁵. The more intense the humor in the stimuli, the more probable it is to distract the audience from other (non-humor) aspects of this stimuli e.g. a brand. This assumption is frequently used to explain, why funny ads and commercials arrive at simultaneously low brand recall and high ad recall indicators.

¹⁹ P.S. Speck, *On humor and humor in advertising*, Texas Tech University 1987 (Ph.D. Dissertation), <https://repositories.tdl.org/ttu-ir/bitstream/handle/2346/19016/31295000275114.pdf?sequence=1> (accessed: 8 August 2014).

²⁰ F. Heider, *The Psychology of Interpersonal Relations*, Hillsdale, New Jersey 1958.

²¹ S.B. MacKenzie, R.J. Lutz, G.E. Belch, *The role of attitude toward the ad as a mediator of advertising effectiveness: a test of competing explanations*, "Journal of Marketing Research" 23/2 (1986), p. 130–143; S.B. MacKenzie, R.J. Lutz, *An empirical examination of the structural antecedents of attitude toward the ad in an advertising pretesting context*, "Journal of Marketing" 1989/53, p. 48–56.

²² S.B. MacKenzie, R.J. Lutz, G.E. Belch, *op. cit.*, p. 130–143; Prilluk R., B.D. Till, *The role of contingency awareness, involvement, and need for cognition in attitude formation*, "Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science" 32/3 (2004), p. 329–344.

²³ D. Zillmann, B.R. Williams, J. Bryant, K.R. Boynton, M.A. Wolf, *Acquisition of information from educational television as a function of differently paced humorous inserts*, "Journal of Educational Psychology" 72/2 (1980), p. 170–180.

²⁴ J.C.M. Woltman Elpers, A. Mukherjee, W.D. Hoyer, *Humor in television advertising: A moment-to-moment analysis*, "Journal of Consumer Research" 2004/31, p. 592–598.

²⁵ R.A. Martin, *The Psychology of Humor: An Integrative Approach*, Elsevier, Amsterdam 2007.

As humor is expected to persuade consumers, the Elaboration Likelihood Model (ELM) developed by Petty and Cacioppo²⁶, is often adopted to describe how humor can produce various communication effects. Out of two paths to persuasion, peripheral one requires little elaboration, low involvement, and it uses cues and inferences to elicit affective change. Along with this theory, **humor can serve as a peripheral cue to persuasion and stimulate delayed responses to brands** (including attitudes). However, as noted by Petty and Cacioppo²⁷ and Petty et al.²⁸, these responses are less persistent over time and less predictive of behavior than attitudes triggered by the central route.

In his work, Speck²⁹ suggests that under certain circumstances (e.g. in case of humorous products), humor can serve as a central message argument or it can help boost arousal and focus attention, thus perpetuating central route to persuasion (arousal may motivate individuals to concentrate on the message, while attention would increase their ability to process the message). Nevertheless, in most cases humor serves as an indirect incentive to produce attention and message acceptance. This view is strongly supported by available empirical evidence: while comparing humor to serious advertising messages, many scholars found humor to be more effective in gaining consumers' attention and liking towards the ad and the advertiser³⁰. Although much of these studies had been conducted prior to the advent of Internet, the impact of humor on attention is expected to be stable over diverse media channels³¹.

Many theoretical perspectives on humor in advertising (including those described above) do not compete, but complement one another. Unfortunately, the literature provides mixed empirical results on the effects of humor on several outcome variables i.e. comprehension, consumer memory, and brand attitudes³². For example Eisend³³, in his meta-analysis revealed that humor has no significant impact neither on brand recall, nor on comprehension of the stimulus, attitude towards the advertiser and purchase behavior. Weinberger and Campbell³⁴, Zhang and Zinkhan³⁵ found that humor might aid compre-

²⁶ R.E. Petty, J.T. Cacioppo, *The Elaboration Likelihood Model of persuasion*, "Advances in Experimental Social Psychology" 1986/19, p. 123–194.

²⁷ *Ibidem*.

²⁸ R.E. Petty, J. Kasmer, C. Haugtvedt, J.T. Cacioppo, *Source and message factors in persuasion: A reply to Stiffs critique of the Elaboration Likelihood Model*, "Communication Monographs" 1987/54, p. 233–249.

²⁹ P.S. Speck, *On humor and humor in advertising*, Texas Tech University 1987 (Ph.D. Dissertation), <https://repositories.tdl.org/ttu-ir/bitstream/handle/2346/19016/31295000275114.pdf?sequence=1> (accessed: 8 August 2014).

³⁰ C.P. Duncan, J.E. Nelson, *Effects of Humor in a Radio Advertising Experiment*, "Journal of Advertising" 14/2 (1985), p. 33–64; T.J. Madden, M.G. Weinberger, *The effects of humor on attention in magazine advertising*, "Journal of Advertising" 11/2 (1982), p. 8–14; D.M. Steward, D.H. Furse, *Effective television advertising*, D.C. Heath and Company, Chicago 1986; M.G. Weinberger, L. Campbell, *The use and impact of humor in radio advertising*, "Journal of Advertising Research" 31/12-01 (1991), p. 44–52.

³¹ M. Eisend, *A meta-analysis of humor in advertising*, "Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science" 2009/37, p. 191–203.

³² C.S. Gulas, M.G. Weinberger, *op. cit.*, p. 1–256.

³³ M. Eisend, *op. cit.*, p. 191–203.

³⁴ M.G. Weinberger, L. Campbell, *op. cit.*, p. 44–52.

³⁵ Y. Zhang, G.M. Zinkhan, *Humor in Television Advertising*, "Advances in Consumer Research" 1991/18, p. 813–818.

hension of an ad, while the opposite findings were reported by Gelb and Zinkhan³⁶ and Lammers et al.³⁷.

Indeed, the inconclusive nature of empirical results suggests that there exist additional factors that might moderate the humor-brand relationship. Out of many moderators, the most important ones are: product category and use, humor type and intensity, perception of humor³⁸. In order to gain positive results from humor on brand attitudes, the ads must be firstly perceived as humorous (perception of humor)³⁹. Ads perceived as humorous are more effective for low-risk and low-involvement products (product category), as they do not require deep elaboration and weighting alternatives. Under such conditions humor becomes a peripheral cue which indirectly impacts positive responses of consumers⁴⁰.

Based on the above discussion, one may conclude that **embedding a prank in an online video, may draw viewers' attention, lead to improved recall of this video, and contribute to positive attitudes towards it**. This relationship, however, may differ depending on the promoted product (e.g. low vs. high risk; low vs. high involvement), humor perception, type (e.g. disparagement vs. incongruity) and intensity (e.g. mild vs. intense). Nonetheless, **no significant impact on purchase behavior should be expected**. These suppositions, however, require further examination. As pranks constitute a very specific category of humor, they need thorough testing in order to establish their exact (and not inferred) influence on brand-related consumer behaviors and reactions.

5. RISKS AND LIMITATIONS OF PRANKVERTISING

In theory, a branding prank mostly involves unsuspecting victims maneuvered into eccentric scenarios in public places. A real-life setting and high dependence on spontaneity of non-actors entails a number of potential risks. Firstly, the marketers **cannot predict exactly whether and how the audience will understand and react to the joke**. As each member of the public assesses a prank based on their own personal experiences, individual sense of humor and subjective knowledge of aesthetics, many performances may sometimes generate unexpected results in terms of consumer understanding, liking, preferences and attitudes towards the trickster (i.e. the brand). For example, Toys"R"Us employed prankvertising in its campaign circled around a theme of "a wish". Brand executives organized a trip for kids; official destination was the forest, but in reality a school bus took children to the huge Toys"R"Us store, where they could have taken any toy of their choice. Despite the unbridled enthusiasm of the "victims", the video was not well received among the Internet users. What was intended to become a blissful and emotional prank, actually gathered a massive number of negative comments e.g.: "shame on you Toys R

³⁶ B.D. Gelb, G.M. Zinkhan, *Humor and advertising effectiveness after repeated exposures to a radio commercial*, "Journal of Advertising" 15/2 (1986), p. 15–34.

³⁷ H.B. Lammers, L. Liebowitz, G.E. Seymour, J.E. Hennessey, *Humor and cognitive response to advertising stimuli: A trace consolidation approach*, "Journal of Business Research" 11/2 (1983), p. 173–185.

³⁸ P. De Pelsmacker, M. Geuens, *The advertising effectiveness of different levels of intensity of humour and warmth and the moderating role of top of mind awareness and degree of product use*, "Journal of Marketing Communications" 5/3 (1999), p. 113–129; M.G. Weinberger, C.S. Gulas, *The Impact of Humor in Advertising: A Review*, "Journal of Advertising" 21/4 (1992), p. 35–59.

³⁹ K. Flaherty, M.G. Weinberger, C.S. Gulas, *The Impact of Perceived Humor, Product Type, and Humor Style in Radio Advertising*, "Journal of Current Issues and Research in Advertising" 26/1 (2004), p. 25–36.

⁴⁰ M.G. Weinberger, L. Campbell, B. Brody, *Effective Radio Advertising*, Lexington Books, New York 1994.

Us! take those kids to the forest!!”); „This promotion makes me sad. Portraying an outdoor field trip as the boring alternative to a trip to TrU is a cheap shot. Very unfortunate choice”⁴¹. Notwithstanding the impressive number of 1,120,685 views, the video collected 2,760 dislikes (along with only 1,071 likes)⁴² and the brand was criticized for using children for marketing purposes.

Secondly, **the reactions of the prankees can be unpredictable to the pranksters**. Certain scenarios may be insufficiently appealing or unengaging for participants, as in case of Kupiec (a brand of grain, rice and breakfast products) which did not succeed in attracting masses of people in their practical joke presented in the “Push and something will happen” video. Marketers do not have enough data, resources and equipment to anticipate and fully control the behavior of prank objects and they often need to rely on their individual feelings and subjective presumptions. This leads sometimes to the situations in which pranks become too provocative in terms of personal privacy or social acceptance, and they, therefore, inflict emotional distress, pain or even cause litigations and more advanced legal actions. A French producer of household goods, Cuisinella, conducted a prank that involved (allegedly real) pedestrians who became the objects of a street shooting. Although the targets were actually shot with fake bullets, they were forced into the coffins and finally transported to the mortuary. Staged or not, this stunt was regarded as outrageously invasive, abusive and very harmful to the victims. If marketers expose their prank objects to certain liability, fear or danger, the consequences may become surprisingly extreme. Toyota, for instance, is sued for stalking and terrorizing a consumer (a result of an unfortunate prank promoting the new model of a car), who is now demanding 10,000,000 USD in damages for psychological injury⁴³. In such situations, a better solution is to stage an ideally veracious prank (with professional actors) in order to avoid potential problems and accusations.

6. CONCLUSIONS

A branding prank is an advertising act disguised as a practical joke. It is designed by marketers to make people laugh and learn about the brand. As humor can appeal to sizeable audiences, pranks are believed to become a convenient solution for mass communication of brands and products. They are regarded as **very compelling performances for large number of consumers**, due to the use of fun, real-life settings, and non-actors. Contrary to traditional advertising, prankvertising is expected to provide greater **credibility** to the brand and offer viewers **authentic** experiences along with real entertainment value. Despite their unquestionable attractiveness, branding pranks involve, however, certain managerial limitations and challenges.

Firstly, the Internet has extended the environment for staging, recording and diffusion of branding pranks, but **it does not provide satisfactory tools for anticipating and measuring their results**. It allows pranks to proliferate, become interactive and address versatile audiences. Social media facilitate the dissemination of branding videos; it is the

⁴¹ *Busloads of kids get surprise trip to Toys “R”Us*, <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=q5SXYbm6bss> (accessed: 20 September 2014).

⁴² *Ibidem*.

⁴³ D. Gianatasio, *Prankvertising: Are Outrageous Marketing Stunts Worth the Risks?*, “Adweek”, 1 April 2013, <http://www.adweek.com/news/advertising-branding/prankvertising-are-outrageous-marketing-stunts-worth-risks-148238?page=1> (accessed: 1 September 2014).

viewers, however, not brand owners, who are empowered to comment, share, evaluate and forward the footage online. Such balance of power gives less importance to a brand itself and makes pranks less predictable as for their marketing outcomes. If a prank generates outrage or misunderstanding, negative associations will be attributed to the brand across many Internet channels. In general, the reception of pranks by online communities is largely unknown, and it is not only typical for controversial stunts (comp. Cuisinella), but also for less provocative ones (as was in case of Toys”R”Us).

Secondly, **humor is not a fully effective tactic for message content in marketing communication of brands**. Humor has been long used in traditional advertising in order to attract attention, encourage involvement with the message and the medium. Unfortunately, humor often serves as a distraction from the advertising content and it does not improve memory traces about an advertiser (esp. in case of high-involvement product categories). In other words, it is the humorous stimuli that consumers mostly remember, not the brand itself. Additionally, joke cognition is a highly subjective process i.e. not every audience member has skills, competences and identical sense of humor to decode a joke and understand its meaning. While pranks are a form of disparagement humor, they often become performances of mockery, which allow spectators to laugh at someone else’s expense. Not everybody enjoys ridiculing other people; not everybody laughs at the same things, ideas and situations.

Thirdly, the underlying limitation to all prankvertising efforts is **the void in data on the effectiveness of pranks and their possible impact on immediate and delayed consumer behaviors**. Practical jokes as branding weapons are very difficult to capture, measure and evaluate, due to: (1) dynamic nature of such performances, (2) many potentially moderating and mediating factors, (3) the attribution effect (i.e. the problem of attributing and tracing the link between specific results and investments). As a result, there are several questions to be addressed in future theoretical and empirical studies e.g.:

- What specific communication goals can be achieved through the use of pranks and to what extent?
- What factors (psychological, sociological, cultural, environmental etc.) moderate the outcomes?
- What immediate and delayed responses can be expected?
- What processes cause humor to occur in branding pranks?
- Which type of prank (staged vs. real; based on negative vs. positive emotions etc.) is more effective in driving desired consumer responses?
- How much of disparagement humor impacts the positive vs. negative effects of a branding prank?
- How and to what extent the effectiveness of a branding prank depends on a product category?

Future research efforts should focus on examining these questions and assessing prank influences with regard to diverse ROI and brand indicators.

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APPENDIX

Table 1. List of branding pranks cited in the text

BRAND - A PRANKSTER	TITLE OF A PRANK	EMOTIONS PLAYED BY A PRANKSTER	URL ADDRESS
Carlsberg	<i>Bikers in cinema</i>	Hilarity, surprise, excitement, fear, confusion	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=RS3iB47nQ6E
Carlsberg	<i>Carlsberg puts friends to the test</i>	Hilarity, surprise, excitement, fear, confusion	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=vs1wMp84_BA
Coca-Cola	<i>Singapore recycle happiness machine</i>	Happiness, warmth, hilarity, surprise	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=4D-RejzbC0Q
Coca-Cola	<i>Happiness truck</i>	Happiness, warmth, hilarity, surprise	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=hVap-ZxSDeE
Coca-Cola	<i>Happiness machine (London)</i>	Happiness, warmth, hilarity, surprise	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=M0D3jKLz6sA
Cuisinella	<i>Sniper shot</i>	Fear, anger, shock, pain, surprise	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=zdsdnMKTVAc
DHL	<i>Trojan mailing</i>	Hilarity, surprise, awe	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=07y1Ib6Di7k
Heineken	<i>Champions league match vs. classical concert</i>	Hilarity, surprise, happiness, excitement, awe	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=wB7DIo3nJas
Heineken	<i>Candidate</i>	Hilarity, surprise, happiness, warmth	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Aq6y3RO12UQ
Heineken	<i>The decision</i>	Hilarity, surprise, happiness, excitement	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=L0cNKHke7EY
Heineken	<i>3 minutes to the final</i>	Hilarity, surprise, happiness, excitement	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=JbYXJd3pRdY
Heineken	<i>The negotiation</i>	Hilarity, surprise, happiness, warmth	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=WHjyy2kfBq4
Herbal Essences	<i>Experiencia</i>	Arousal, surprise, amusement	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=dIhXOCHIcDM
Kupiec	<i>Push and something will happen</i>	Excitement, awe, surprise, amusement	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=ITwHCamudWs
LG	<i>Meteor</i>	Hilarity, surprise, excitement, fear, embarrassment, confusion	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=4xQb9KI-O3E
LG	<i>Elevator</i>	Hilarity, surprise, excitement, fear	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=NeXMxuNNIE8
LG	<i>Stage fright</i>	Hilarity, surprise, excitement, embarrassment, confusion	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=jOpccxCJPsY
McDonald's	<i>Big Mac mind tests</i>	Hilarity, surprise	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=PTJaztFBKL8
Nivea	<i>The stress test</i>	Hilarity, surprise, fear, embarrassment, confusion	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=n3hVfP8IMfc
Pepsi Max	<i>Test drive</i>	Hilarity, derision, fear, surprise	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Q5mHPo2yDG8
Samsung	<i>All eyes on S4</i>	Happiness, hilarity, sur-	https://www.youtube.com/

		prise, excitement, amusement	watch?v=CsGizu2NzX0
The Weather Channel	<i>Bus shelter</i>	Hilarity, surprise	http://www.youtube.com/watch?feature=player_embedded&v=6M-JQktwXU
TNT	<i>Push to add drama</i>	Hilarity, surprise, happiness, excitement	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=316AzLYfAzw
TNT	<i>Push to add drama on an ice-cold day</i>	Hilarity, surprise, happiness, excitement	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=ZIkPeZKP-d4
Toys”R”Us	<i>Busloads of kids get surprise trip to Toys”R”Us</i>	Excitement, awe, surprise, amusement	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=q5SXybm6bss
Westjet	<i>Christmas miracle</i>	Happiness, warmth, hilarity, surprise, nostalgia	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=zIEIvi2MuEk

PRANKVERTISING – PSIKUS JAKO NOWA FORMA REKLAMY MARKI W INTERNECIE

Praktyczny żart (tzw. psikus) stanowi formę humoru negatywnego; jest to zabawne i wcześniej zaplanowane działanie, przedsięwzięcie czy zdarzenie, które ma na celu rozśmieszenie publiczności, ale również wysmianie ofiary (bohatera) żartu. Mimo że zarówno pozytywny, jak i negatywny humor od lat jest dosyć powszechnie wykorzystywaną taktyką w reklamie, praktyczne żarty jawią się jako stosunkowo nowe zjawisko reklamowe. Rozwój Internetu i mediów społecznościowych stworzył szerokie możliwości stosowania psikusów jako ukrytych reklam wbudowanych w strategię komunikacji marketingowej online. Coraz więcej firm wykorzystuje tę formę żartu w swoich działaniach komunikacyjnych i postrzegają ją jako innowacyjne rozwiązanie pozwalające na zaangażowanie konsumentów w Internecie. Ze względu na brak badań oraz analiz naukowych poświęconych tej tematyce, niniejszy artykuł formułuje teoretyczne i praktyczne ramy dla psikusów, a także analizuje ich potencjał w zakresie budowania marki (np. w obszarze maksymalizacji zasięgu, ekspozycji marki, tworzenia jej widoczności, przyciągania uwagi konsumentów, obudowywania marki w silne emocjonalnie znaczenia). Do analizy potencjalnego oddziaływania praktycznych żartów wykorzystano koncepcje z teorii humoru oraz dane wtórne zgromadzone przez autorów. Ostatnia część tekstu została poświęcona charakterystyce kluczowych wyzwań, ryzyka i ograniczeń z tytułu realizacji psikusów na potrzeby reklamowe oraz omówieniu ich na licznych przykładach. Zidentyfikowano również główne obszary badawcze wymagające dodatkowego wysiłku naukowego oraz postawiono pytania, które należy uwzględnić w przyszłych badaniach empirycznych.

Słowa kluczowe: psikus, marka, reklama online, prankvertising, zarządzanie marką, strategię reklamowe, humor

DOI: 10.7862/rz.2014.mmr.31

Tekst złożono w redakcji: wrzesień 2014

Przyjęto do druku: październik 2014

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ÖKOLOGIE UND GESELLSCHAFT: ÜBER ETHIK UND RATIONALITÄT IM VERHÄLTNIS VON SYSTEM UND UMWELT

Ohne einen erweiterten Ansatz unseres Denkens und Handelns wird es keine Lösung der Umweltproblematik der Moderne geben. Vernunft und Ethik sind daher gefordert, die Möglichkeiten unserer Einsicht in diese Problematik und unserer Orientierung ihr gegenüber auszubauen. Um die prinzipiellen Schwierigkeiten zu verdeutlichen, die auf diesem Wege zu bewältigen sind, befasst sich der Beitrag mit den Themen „Selbstreferenz und Umweltethik“, „Azentrität und ökologische Vernunft“ und dem Verhältnis von „Ökonomie und Ökologie“. Im Mittelpunkt steht dabei die Frage, mit welchen Mitteln es dem modernen Menschen gelingen kann, eine Wiedereinführung der von ihm externalisierten Effekte vorzunehmen, um den Umweltfolgen seines intentionalen Entscheidens gerecht zu werden. Einerseits wird hierzu auf die Systemtheorie Niklas Luhmanns rekurriert, deren kritische Analysen verfolgt und hinsichtlich dieser Frage ausgewertet werden. Zum anderen wird auf Ansätze der Umweltökonomie eingegangen, um die Fragestellung auch andersherum anzugehen. Der Beitrag schließt seine Überlegungen mit einem Statement über „Co-Evolution und reflexive Modernisierung“. Vor dem Hintergrund beider Ansätze wird der Prozess einer allmählichen öffentlichen Bewusstwerdung, dass die Ökologie nicht nur eine elementare, im gesellschaftlichen Umgang zu lösende (Gestaltungs-)Aufgabe darstellt, sondern gerade hierin die kulturelle und sozio-ökonomische, als Kennzeichen der derzeitigen historischen Schwelle identifiziert. Im Zusammenhang damit wird ein wachsender Bedarf nicht nur an „Ethik“ und „Vernunft“ selbst, sondern auch an ihrer Problematisierung im öffentlichen Diskurs vermutet.

Schlüsselbegriffe: philosophische Gesellschaftstheorie, Verhältnis von Ökonomie und Ökologie, azentrische Umweltethik, Rationalität.

1. SELBSTREFERENZ UND UMWELTETHIK

Moral stellt für Niklas Luhmann ein soziales Regulativ dar, welches Handlungen über den binären Code gut / schlecht sanktioniert.² Dadurch erzeugt sie ihre eigene Paradoxie, da eine moralische Konditionierung selbst jeweils sowohl gute als eben auch schlechte Folgen haben kann, die Moral auf sich selbst angewandt also ihre eigene Unmoralität feststellen müsste.³ Die Ethik stellt demgegenüber eine Reflexionstheorie der Moral dar,

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² Vgl. N. Luhmann, *Ökologische Kommunikation*, Opladen 1986, S. 259ff.

³ Luhmann nimmt hier Max Webers Kritik einer Gesinnungsethik auf, die keine Verantwortung für ihre Folgen übernimmt (vgl. M. Weber, *Der Beruf zur Politik*, [In:] ders., *Soziologie, Universalgeschichtliche Analysen, Politik. Aufsatzsammlung*, Hrsg. u. erl. v. J. Winkelmann, 5. Aufl., Stuttgart 1973, S. 167–185), und rearran-

die der Entparadoxierung der moralischen Paradoxie verpflichtet ist; sie stellt sich daher Ersatzprobleme wie z.B. den „kategorischen Imperativ“.

Diese Ausführungen rekurrieren freilich nicht auf die Unterscheidung zwischen moralischem Handeln im Sinne einer verordneten und sanktionierten Moral und solchem, welches aus freiem Willen und Einsicht in die ethische Problematik eines Zusammenhangs erfolgt.⁴ Nichtsdestoweniger ist mit Luhmann anzunehmen, dass mit der notwendigen Theoretizität einer Reflexionsethik die Chancen ihrer praktischen Wirksamkeit sinken.

Hinzu tritt, dass es im Falle von Sozial- und Umweltethik um eine soziale Regulierung von einerseits der Behandlung von Menschen durch Menschen und andererseits der Behandlung von Umwelt durch Menschen geht. Im ersteren Fall ist die Wirksamkeit der Sanktionierung durch Achtung / Missachtung zumindest im Prinzip gesichert, da die innersoziale Komplexität unter den Bedingungen doppelter Kontingenz für eine moralische Konditionierung offen steht. Im zweiten Fall besteht das Dilemma, dass Menschen die Umwelt vor Menschen schützen sollen, die Umwelt selbst aber keine moralischen Sanktionen verhängen kann.⁵

Hinsichtlich der Frage nach ihrer effektiven Wirksamkeit ist daher die Unterscheidung von Moral und Ethik weniger bedeutsam als die Differenz von Sozial- und Umweltethik, deren tieferliegendes Problem auch Luhmann – allerdings nur anreißend – angesprochen hat: Zwangsläufig taucht für die Umweltethik das Problem auf, dass hier die *Subjekte der Moral* nicht mehr gleich den *moralischen Objekten* – also Menschen – sind. Diese Inkongruenz ist, wie sich zeigen lässt, durchaus keine rein theoretische, da ökologisch komplexe Probleme zu Konflikten zwischen „Sozial-“ und „Umweltethik“ führen können. Schon das Beispiel einer Eindeichung bei Sturmflutgefahr zeigt die Problematik, da sich der Zielkonflikt auftut, ob die Sicherheit von Menschen (und der für sie günstigen Umwelt samt ihrer Nutzung) für die Ethik bedeutsamer ist als das Leben der Wattflora und Fauna. Die Alternative „Schafweide oder Salzwiese“ mag simpel klingen, zeigt aber das generelle Problem, dass man sich entscheiden muss, auf welcher Grundlage (sozial- oder umweltreferenziell; anthropozentrisch oder nicht-anthropozentrisch) man seine Bewertung durchführen will. Steigt die Komplexität der Problematik, wird die Ethik darüber hinaus zunehmend von einer wissenschaftlichen Analyse abhängig, die als Unterbau einer ethischen

giert die Differenz von Gesinnungs- und Verantwortungsethik in systemtheoretischer Form; vgl. auch A. Metzner-Szigeth, *Zwischen Systemkomplexität und Akteursverantwortung*, [In:] *Technik – System – Verantwortung*, Hrsg. K. Kornwachs, Münster u. a. 2004, S. 391–409.

⁴ Grundlegend ist hier die von Kant eingeführte Differenz von Heteronomie, also dem Anspruch, dem Sittengesetz gehorchen zu müssen wie einem äußeren Souverän, und Autonomie, also dem Anspruch, einem selbstbestimmten Sittengesetz als innerem Souverän zu folgen. Vgl. I. Kant, *Grundlegung zur Metaphysik der Sitten* (Erstauflage: Riga 1785), [In:] I. Kant, *Werkausgabe*, Bd. VII, Hrsg. v. W. Weischedel, Frankfurt a. M. 1982, S. 33ff. Der kategorische Imperativ ist nun der Versuch einer Verbindung des Moments der Allgemeingültigkeit (aus ersterem Begriff) mit dem der individuellen Begründung aus freiem Willen (nach dem zweiten Begriff).

⁵ Schleichende Umweltveränderungen oder katastrophische Ereignisse können der Natur als Subjekt zugeschrieben werden, so als ob die Natur auf moralisches Fehlverhalten der Gesellschaft reagieren würde. Als „Rache der Natur“ taucht diese Denkfigur in appellativen Bearbeitungen der Umweltproblematik immer wieder auf, scheint aber ein viel älteres Motiv zu sein – man denke nur an die Sintflut.

Entscheidung diese aber nicht von diesem Dilemma entbinden kann.⁶ In der Öffentlichkeit tritt es wiederum um so schärfer zu Tage, wie (möglicherweise) Betroffene, als Subjekte der Ethik (und damit gleichzeitig originäre Objekte derselben), ihre Ängste artikulieren, während die Natur als Objekt der Umwelt-Ethik „stumm“ bleibt.

Wie geht die Ethik nun mit dieser Konstitutionsproblematik um? Eine der möglichen Reaktionen darauf ist die Überleitungskonstruktion, die ethisches Handeln gegenüber der natürlichen Umwelt als Erfordernis für das Leben *künftiger Generationen* begründet. Die *zeitliche Dimension* wird hier ausgeweitet, um ein aktuelles ethisches Handeln nun doch auf zukünftige Menschen als *Objekte der Ethik* richten zu können. Dieser Möglichkeit folgt etwa Hans Jonas mit seinem „Prinzip Verantwortung“.⁷ Künftige Generationen können sich aber erst in der Zukunft (selbst) artikulieren, nicht aber in der Gegenwart des ethischen Reflektierens vor dem Hintergrund anstehender Entscheidungsprozesse. Wenn nun andere es stellvertretend für sie tun, ist dieses Vorgehen allerdings wieder äquivalent mit einem stellvertretenden Eintreten für die Natur. Gegen wohlgemeinte aber möglicherweise fehlgeleitete Empfehlungen können sich zukünftige Generationen oder die Umwelt ebenso wenig zur Wehr setzen, wie gegen eine Inanspruchnahme der durch Rekurs auf sie möglichen Handlungslegitimation durch und im Interesse der Menschen des hier und heute.

Eine andere Möglichkeit zur Lösung dieses Dilemmas liegt in der *sachlichen Dimension*, besteht in einer Ausweitung des Umfangs der (Bezugs-)Objekte, auf die sich ethisches Handeln richtet. So unterscheidet etwa Klaus Michael Meyer-Abich „Acht Formen von Rücksichtnahme in der Ethik“, angefangen von einer egozentrischen über eine anthropozentrische bis hin zu einer allumfassenden physiozentrischen Ethik.⁸ Die Deanthropozentrierung erfolgt hierbei in einer Ebenendifferenzierung, die additiv den Umfang des Bereichs, auf den sich ethisches Handeln richtet, erweitert, allerdings ohne dass sich an

⁶ Einerseits bezieht sich das auf komplexe sozio-ökologische Zusammenhänge. Ein Beispiel dafür wäre etwa eine auf kleinstem Niveau betriebene Weidewirtschaft in einer semiariden Region dieser Welt. Ein forcierter Brunnenbau würde zwar die Ernährungslage verbessern können, aber die nun größeren Herden würden das ihrige zur Desertifikation tun. Vgl. L. Timberlake, *Krisenkontinent Afrika – Der Umwelt-Bankrott. Ursachen und Abwendung*, Wuppertal 1990. Eine einfach auf Werten, Normen oder idealistischen Motivationen basierende ethische Entscheidung über zu ergreifende Maßnahmen wird hier kaum besser sein können als eine Systemanalyse, die verschiedene Varianten kalkuliert und so eine Strategie zur Optimierung herausarbeiten will, wiewohl letztere lediglich utilitaristisch orientiert ist. Andererseits ist die ethische Behandlung komplexer Technologien, etwa der Gentechnologie, derart massiv an das Niveau fachwissenschaftlicher Theoretizität gebunden, dass ein solcher Diskurs von Ethik und Technik schnell zu einer Diskussion über verschiedene Anwendungsfelder und deren Chancen und Risiken wird. Vgl. *Chancen und Risiken der Gentechnologie*, Hrsg. Deutscher Bundestag, Der Bericht der Enquete-Kommission des 10. Deutschen Bundestages, Bonn 1987. Beides macht klar: Der ethische Diskurs verschiebt sich in zunehmendem Maße weg von der Frage, „wie“ eigentlich gehandelt werden soll, hin zu dem Problem, „dass“ die auf der Basis des möglichen Wissens über einen Zusammenhang optimale Entscheidung auch getroffen und getragen wird und nicht etwa eine bequemere, kurzfristigere oder partikularen Interessen folgende.

⁷ Vgl. H. Jonas, *Das Prinzip Verantwortung. Versuch einer Ethik für die technologische Zivilisation*, Frankfurt a. M. 1987.

⁸ Vgl. K.M. Meyer-Abich, *Wege zum Frieden mit der Natur. Praktische Naturphilosophie für die Umweltpolitik*, München 1986, S. 22.

den *Subjekten ethischen Handelns* etwas ändert. Belegt wird diese Position mit dem Übergang vom *Anthropozentrismus* zum *Physiozentrismus* in der Ethik.⁹

Die *gesellschaftliche Natur des Menschen* kann von den (Sozial-)Wissenschaften genauso wenig hinterschritten werden, wie die (Umwelt-)Wissenschaften die *biologische Natur des Menschen* nicht hinterschreiten können. Deutlich wird dies in besonderem Maße in den „integrativen“ Disziplinen Soziologie und Ökologie. Indem die *Ökologie* von der Natur handelt, zielt sie auf den Menschen, zielt sie auf die menschliche Lebensweise hinsichtlich ihrer existentiellen Grundlagen, reflektiert sie seine Position und seine Aktivität in der Umwelt. Indem die *Soziologie* von der Gesellschaft handelt, tut sie ein gleiches, nämlich zielend auf die menschliche Lebensweise gesellschaftliche Selbstorganisationsprozesse erschließen.

Der Mensch als Träger dieses Reflexions- und Handlungszusammenhangs nimmt immer (notwendig) eine „anthropozentrische“ Perspektive ein, da er keine andere Möglichkeit hat. Standort der klassischen Naturwissenschaften, der immer noch vorherrschenden naturwissenschaftlichen Denkweise, ist aber der sozusagen säkularisierte „göttliche Standpunkt“ als Subjekt über den Dingen, unvermittelt den Objekten seiner Erkenntnis gegenüberstehend, entsprechend einer Zentrierung der Natur- und Gesellschaftswissenschaften auf das bürgerlich isolierte denkende Subjekt. Die klarer formulierte Perspektive liegt daher in der Ablösung des subjektzentrierten Weltbildes durch ein „vitalozentrisches“¹⁰, die vermittelt über eine Neubestimmung der Subjektivität des Menschen bezogen auf seine Identität als bewusstes und lebendiges, biotisches und soziales Wesen erfolgt, und geeignet ist, Subjekt und Objekt nicht mehr als unvermittelten Gegensatz zu betrachten, sondern die Beziehungen des Menschen zu anderen Teilen der Natur in ihrer Relativität zu sehen.

Problematisch an der vorherrschenden Form der Ethik-Debatte ist erstens die Tendenz zur Individualisierung. Sie schreibt einzelnen Individuen Verantwortungen zu, die sie allein nicht tragen können, da sie in sozio-ökonomische Handlungssysteme eingebunden agieren. Problematisch ist zweitens die Fixierung auf neuartige Technologien. Notwendig erscheint demgegenüber erstens eine Zentrierung der Diskussion auf demokratische Prozesse der Entscheidungsfindung über Entwicklung und Einsatz alter wie neuer oder „al-

⁹ Zur Kontroverse zwischen diesen Perspektiven einer ökologischen Ethik vgl. etwa *Ökologie und Ethik*, Hrsg. D. Birnbacher, Stuttgart 1986. Bei Meyer-Abich fällt auf, dass er die Problematik der Verbindung zwischen der ethischen Handlungsfähigkeit des Subjektes und seiner anthropozentrischen Perspektive kaum tangiert und letztere schlicht mit einer besitzindividualistisch-materialistischen Einstellung identifiziert. Demgegenüber muss man sagen, dass auch die Idee einer Solidargemeinschaft der ganzen Schöpfung angesichts ihrer „kosmischen Leidensgeschichte“ (vgl. K.M. Meyer-Abich, *Wege zum Frieden mit der Natur...*, S. 190ff.) natürlich einer anthropozentrischen Projektion aufruht. Das Problem, dass ethische Normen und Werte ihre Begründung nur in sozialer Verständigung und Erkenntnis finden können, gleichwohl aber die ganze Natur betreffen sollen, wird hier religiös überkompensiert, da klar ist, dass sich aus der Naturordnung als solcher Werte und Normen nicht einfach ableiten lassen können.

¹⁰ Der Begriff des „Physiozentrismus“ kann die Konnotation eines deterministischen Zusammenhangs erzeugen, indem er nur in Richtung auf Physis, die Materie als Gegenstand und Produkt orientiert; es geht aber nicht um eine Ansammlung von Dingen, die mehr oder weniger determiniert naturgesetzlich zusammenhängen, sondern um den allgemeinen Lebenszusammenhang auf diesem Globus, der Ursprung und Grundlage unserer Existenz ist, dem wir einen Sinn oder Wert zumessen, wobei wir die Natur nicht als Menge von Objekten, sondern als schöpferischen Prozess sehen, dessen Elemente auch wir selbst sind.

ternativer“ Technologien, auch um Verantwortungen kollektiv, d. h. gemeinsam tragen zu können, und zweitens die Thematisierung des prekären Zusammenhanges von Technologieentwicklung, der Struktur wissenschaftlicher Forschung und deren ökonomischer Initiierung, Durchsetzung und Anwendung, welcher geeignet ist, das Primat einer demokratischen Politik zu unterlaufen.

Festhalten lässt sich, dass Luhmanns Kritik an der Öko-Ethik insofern plausibel ist, als er auf die Dimension der Gesamtgesellschaft aufmerksam macht, die die entscheidende Einheit bezüglich der Ökologiefrage darstellt, die Ethik aber – neben Tendenzen zur Individualisierung – kein Konzept der Vermittlung von Gesellschaft und Natur hat, auf dessen Basis sie das Problem von Anthropozentrik oder Nicht-Anthropozentrik hinreichend wirkungsvoll lösen könnte. Mit Luhmann lässt sich daher einsehen, dass eine Fixierung der Umweltdebatte auf Ethik problematisch wäre, denn: „Wenn irgendwo, stellt jedoch in der ökologischen Kommunikation die Gesellschaft sich selbst in Frage; und es ist nicht einzu- sehen, wie die Ethik davon dispensiert und als Notanker mit festem Grund bereitgehalten werden könnte“.¹¹

Einzuräumen bleibt allerdings, dass es auch keine Gesellschaftstheorie (und schon gar nicht eine, die das Verhältnis zur Natur mit verarbeitet) geben kann, die ohne ein bestimmtes Menschenbild auskommen könnte, das nolens volens mit (wenn schon nicht unbedingt explizierten, so doch immerhin impliziten) ethischen Grundlegungen verbunden ist.

Im Vergleich zu den Bemühungen der Ethik ist zu sagen, dass Luhmanns eigene Theorie dieser gegenüber zwar kritikfähig ist, aber selbst hinsichtlich einer konsequenten Reflexion zur Aufgreifung und Lösung der Ökologiefrage nicht weitreichend genug ansetzt.¹²

Für eine sozio-ökologisch orientierte Theoriebildung ist es demgegenüber von entscheidender Wichtigkeit, die ethische Orientierung mit der unerlässlichen Frage nach gesellschaftlichen Organisationsformen zu verbinden, die die Entfremdung von Mensch und Natur aufheben können. Resümierend lässt sich einbehalten, dass das Verhältnis von erstens einer normativ-ethischen Thematisierung mit dem Ziel einer normenregulierten Regelung, zweitens einer handlungsleitenden kommunikativen Vernunft mit dem Ziel konsensueller Verständigung, und drittens einer in gesellschaftlichen Organisationen zu implementierenden Vernunft mit dem Ziel sozial- und umweltverträglicher Regulierung die alles entscheidende Vernetzung einer ökologischen Umgestaltung darstellt.

¹¹ N. Luhmann, *Ökologische Kommunikation...*, S. 265.

¹² Dies betrifft nicht zuletzt die ethischen Implikationen ihres eigenen Welt-, Menschen- und Naturbildes, die (mangels Offenlegung) nicht intensiv und selbstkritisch genug verarbeitet werden, um eine wirklich weitreichende Kritikfähigkeit gegenüber konkurrierenden Untersuchungs- und Deutungsangeboten aufbauen zu können. Dies hat seinerseits zur Folge, die Gesellschaft insgesamt von Verantwortung zu entlasten, da sie gar nicht anders kann, als der Eigenlogik von selbstreferentiellen Funktionssystemen zu folgen, weil diese so gedacht sind, als ob sie aus evolutionären Prozessen heraus entstanden seien, die von menschlichen Individuen kaum zu beeinflussen und daher auch kaum zu verbessern sind.

2. AZENTRIZITÄT UND ÖKOLOGISCHE VERNUNFT

Vernunft ist Luhmann folgend als Selbstreferenz des Systems, als „Systemrationalität“ zu denken. Diese kann sich, folgert er, nur auf das Operieren des Systems selbst beziehen und nicht auf seine Umwelt. „Ökologische Vernunft“ kann daher nur in einer systemeigenen Kontrolle der Rückwirkungen der Umwelt auf die Gesellschaft bestehen. Diese ist aber azentrisch aufgebaut, insofern sie in funktionale Subsysteme differenziert ist. Sie unterliegt somit der jeweiligen Eigenlogik der gesellschaftlichen Subsysteme. Im Weiteren ist „ökologische Vernunft“ nach Luhmann also als je subsystemspezifische Anstrengung zu verstehen, mögliche Veränderungen der eigenen Systemumwelt zu kontrollieren und zu kompensieren. Er schließt, dass in diesem Sinne „ökologische Rationalität erreicht (wäre), wenn die Gesellschaft die Rückwirkungen ihrer Auswirkungen auf die Umwelt auf sich selbst in Rechnung stellen könnte. Für jedes Funktionssystem in der Gesellschaft wäre dieses Prinzip mit entsprechender Systemreferenz zu reformulieren, wobei zu beachten wäre, dass es keine Aggregation solcher Systemrationalitäten geben kann, weil jedes Funktionssystem nur die Eigenrationalität kalkuliert und die Gesellschaft im übrigen als Umwelt behandelt“. ¹³ Er begründet dies durch die theoretische Überlegung, dass Systemrationalität erreicht ist, wenn ein System seine System-Umwelt-Differenz in sein Prozessieren wiedereinführt und sich nicht an eigener Identität, sondern an Differenz orientiert.

Gegenüber dieser – zunächst einfach nur einleuchtenden – Denkfigur sind folgende drei Einwände in Erwägung zu ziehen:

(1) Sie ist nicht hinreichend, da sie es unterlässt zu spezifizieren, wie überhaupt – angesichts der (nur) *selektiven Perzeptions- und partikular codierten Beurteilungs-Fähigkeit* des je fokalen Sozialsystems – diese Rückwirkungen angemessen „in Rechnung gestellt“. d. h. wahrgenommen und bewertet werden können. Im weiteren bleibt daher unklar, welche Konsequenzen aus einer Situation der (nur) selektiven Perzeptions- und partikular codierten Beurteilungs-Fähigkeiten der Sozialsysteme zu ziehen sind, was nötige Fortentwicklungen oder Korrekturen ihrer eigenlogischen Operationsweise betrifft.

(2) Sie enthält das immanente Problem, dass diese Rationalitätsdefinition für alle *System-Umwelt-Verhältnisse* gilt, also sowohl für das Verhältnis sozialer Systeme zu anderen sozialen Systemen in ihren jeweiligen Umwelten, wie auch für das Verhältnis psychischer und sozialer Systeme und eben auch für das Verhältnis zur ökologischen Umwelt. Dies impliziert, dass ein soziales System zwischen drei verschiedenen Umwelt(form)en unterscheiden können müsste; es gibt bei Luhmann aber nur den Begriff der einen systemrelativen Umwelt¹⁴, d. h. es erfolgt keine Qualifizierung der jeweiligen Umweltreferenzen des Systems auf der Basis realer Wechselwirkungen.¹⁵

¹³ *Ibidem*, S. 247.

¹⁴ *Ibidem*.

¹⁵ Das so gefasste System-Umwelt-Verhältnis führt zu einer „Exteriorisierung“ des Ökologischen (vgl. A. Metzner, *Probleme sozio-ökologischer Systemtheorie. Natur und Gesellschaft in der Soziologie Luhmanns*, Opladen 1993, S. 169ff.), welches nur semantisch, als (gesellschaftsinterne) „Umwelt“ sozialer Systeme von Bedeutung bleibt. Für die „Menschen“, die in dieser Konzeption als duale Wesen erscheinen, zusammengesetzt aus psychischen und physischen Systemen, gilt etwas Ähnliches, insofern sie in der Umwelt sozialer Systeme ange-

(3) Sie wirft das Problem auf, dass die Frage nach der Vernunft im Verhalten zueinander damit konsequent und ausschließlich auf das Thema *Selbsterhaltung des Systems* fixiert wird. In diesem Sinne verhält sich ein Chemiekonzern, der Fluor-Chlor-Kohlenwasserstoffe (FCKW) produziert, solange rational, wie diese Produktion nicht negativ auf den Konzern selbst zurückwirkt. Dies mag für die Eigenlogik der ökonomischen Entscheidungsprozesse durchaus zutreffend sein, und es ist nicht unwichtig, dies zu bemerken. Innerhalb der oben angegebenen Rationalitätsbestimmung gibt es aber theoretisch keine denkmögliche Kritik an der Unvernünftigkeit dieser Praxis. Die auch faktisch dennoch wirksame Kritik daran, hat in der Theorie also kein Äquivalent, weil in dieser die Unvernünftigkeit eines Systems sozusagen nur intern erfasst und korrigiert werden kann, nicht aber von außen an dieses herangetragen und Korrekturen notfalls auch erzwungen werden können.¹⁶

Vor diesem Hintergrund fällt es leicht, den Niederschlag der konzeptionellen Restriktionen zu erkennen, der in der folgenden Aussage Luhmanns offenbar wird: „Der Problemaufriss der Rationalität besagt nicht, dass die Gesellschaft Probleme dieses Formats lösen müsste, um ihr Überleben zu sichern. Fürs Überleben genügt Evolution.“¹⁷ Einzuwenden ist dagegen zunächst, dass eine heute noch ernstzunehmende Theorie der Evolution diese weder im Sinne eines Fortschritts noch als Garanten des Überlebens verstehen kann. Für Gesellschaften mit einer ökonomischen Basis, die nicht durch die Anwendung einer modernen wissenschaftlichen Rationalität revolutioniert worden ist, kann man annehmen, dass die Integrationskraft mythischer – Natur und Gesellschaft verbindender – Weltbilder und daraus abgeleiteter regulativer Normensysteme hinreichend ist, um einen vernünftigen Umgang der Gesellschaft mit der Natur zu gewährleisten. Dann sind in der Tat derartige wissenschaftliche Anstrengungen nicht nötig, und man wird im Großen und Ganzen dem „natürlichen“ Lauf der Dinge Vertrauen schenken können. Für eine soziokulturelle Entwicklung wie die, die die modernen Industriegesellschaften geschaffen hat, ergibt sich aber, dass eine weitere Entwicklung wie bisher die instrumentelle Vernunft und technische Verfügbarkeit über partikuläre Ausschnitte von Natur und Gesellschaft immer weiter steigern dürfte, dies aber höchstens zur Beschleunigung der Prozesse ökologischer Selbstdestruktion führt, wenn dem nicht auf entsprechender Ebene eine gesellschaftliche vernünftige Regelung der Austauschbeziehungen an die Seite gestellt wird.

Was sich mit Luhmann einsehen lässt ist, dass Appelle an eine „ökologische Vernunft“ – die z.B. den vernünftigen Gebrauch nicht erneuerbarer Ressourcen gewährleisten sollen – zu kurz gegriffen sind, denn die Frage ökologischer Vernunft muss – um wirksam werden zu können – auf der Ebene gesellschaftlicher Organisationsformen diskutiert und

siedelt werden; die psychischen Systeme werden dabei aber immerhin als mit den sozialen Systemen verknüpfte Entitäten gedacht, weil beide Sinn prozessieren.

¹⁶ Festhalten lässt sich, dass hier ohne Abstriche ökologisches Denken ökonomischer Rationalität untergeordnet wird. Nur insoweit es gelingt, ökologische Erfordernisse in die Sprache der wirtschaftlichen Systemlogik einzufügen, können diese Erfolg haben. Theoretisch und praktisch ist Ökologie aber der umfassendere Begriff, der umfassendere reale Zusammenhang. Wenn nun ökonomische Aktivitäten zwar ökologisch destruktiv, aber trotzdem ökonomisch erfolgreich sind, ist damit klar, dass die rezenten Kriterien ökonomischen Erfolges, die solche „Fehlallokationen“ nicht nur zulassen, sondern geradezu erzwingen, nicht nur ökologisch irrationale sind, sondern damit auch als ökonomische Indikatoren produzierten Wohlstands auf Dauer nicht zu halten sind.

¹⁷ N. Luhmann, *Soziale Systeme. Grundriß einer allgemeinen Theorie*, Frankfurt a. M. 1984, S. 645.

gelöst werden. Es reicht weder der „starke Staat“, dem die Freiheit zugeschrieben wird, etwas gegen die zunehmende Umweltverschmutzung zu tun, da ihm erstens keine ökonomischen Verwertungsinteressen unterstellt werden, und zweitens er allein eine volkswirtschaftliche Gesamtperspektive einnehmen kann, noch die „öko-soziale Marktwirtschaft“, von der erhofft wird, sie könnte die umweltdestruktiven Potentiale der kapitalistischen Wirtschaftsweise hinreichend zügeln. Mit Luhmann lässt sich sagen, dass eine ökologische Wende alle gesellschaftlichen Teilbereiche und Subsysteme erfassen müsste, und gegen Luhmann wird man sagen müssen, dass es dabei um eine Systemveränderung gehen muss, wenn sich die „ökologische Kommunikation“ nicht in nur temporären Anpassungsreaktionen niederschlagen und in nutzlosen Ausweichmanövern erschöpfen soll.

Für ein adäquates Problemverständnis und ein hinreichend ausgedehnten Vernünftigsanspruch sind darüber hinaus drei Komplexe wichtig:

(1) Das Problem der zeitlichen Streckung von sozio-ökonomischer Auslösung, ökologischen Effekten, deren Rückwirkung auf die Gesellschaft, der Wahrnehmung dieser Rückwirkungen und schließlich der Reaktion darauf. In Anbetracht dieser Sequenz dürfte es zu spät sein, wenn ein „System seine Einwirkungen auf die Umwelt an den Rückwirkungen auf es selbst kontrollieren muss“¹⁸, um sich ökologisch rational zu verhalten. Zumindest wäre einzubeziehen, dass gegenüber Rückwirkungen nicht nur reaktiv, sondern antizipativ (re)agiert werden muss. Dies hängt natürlich mit dem verwertbaren Wissensstand zusammen, beinhaltet auch prinzipielle Unsicherheiten, ist vor allem aber problematisch, da die Rückwirkungen nicht unbedingt den Auslöser treffen, sondern andere – im Falle eines Chemieunfalls in Basel also vor allem die niederländischen Wasserwerke und deren Kunden, von den Fischen, den Fischern und etlichen anderen ganz zu schweigen. Daher muss, um hier überhaupt Problemlösungen anzugehen, ein handlungsfähiges gesellschaftliches „Subjekt“ vorhanden sein, welches zwischen Verursachern und Betroffenen koordinieren und Maßnahmen durchsetzen kann, was auf das Primat einer „proaktiven“ Politik verweist.

(2) Die Beziehungen der Gesellschaft zur ökologischen Umwelt müssen im Rahmen der Einbettung des gesellschaftlichen Systems in das ökologische System gesehen werden, d. h. die Frage ökologischer Rationalität muss darauf bezogen werden. Die rein selbstbezügliche Perspektive einer gesellschaftlichen Systemrationalität ist da zu wenig und beruht auf der unhinterfragten Prämisse, dass die erkennenden Subjekte ausschließlich an der Gesellschaft partizipierende Elemente sind und sich (selbst) auch nur als solche verstehen können. Sie können sich (selbst) aber durchaus auch als Elemente ökologischer Systeme sehen und in diesem Sinne sich selbst samt ihrer sozialen Beziehungen auf ihre Position und ihr Verhalten in ökologischen Systemen reflektieren.

(3) Wenn sich die verschiedenen Systemrationalitäten nicht zu einer gesamtgesellschaftlichen Rationalität addieren lassen können, ist klar, dass sie sich in verschiedenem Ausmaß komplementär oder antagonistisch zueinander verhalten; der Bezugspunkt ökologischer Rationalität könnte aber hier zu einem Zusammenwach-

¹⁸ *Ibidem*, S. 642.

sen – oder zumindest einem wechselseitig gesteigerten Verständnis ihrer jeweiligen operationalen Spezialisierungen – beitragen, da er nicht auf einzelne Sozialsysteme und deren selbsterhaltungsfixierte Eigenlogik zu beschränken ist.

3. ÖKONOMIE UND ÖKOLOGIE

Die Ökologieproblematik wird von der konventionellen (Umwelt-)Ökonomie mit Hilfe der Differenz von betriebs- und volkswirtschaftlicher Perspektive bearbeitet.¹⁹ Nutzung und Verschmutzung der Umwelt erscheinen so als ressourcenökonomische Kollektivgut- und Allokationsproblematik. Die theoretische Problemlösung gelingt folgerichtig nur unter Auflösung der unterlegten Differenz (von Privatwirtschaft und Allgemeinwohl) und verlangt nach einer betrieblichen Internalisierung der Kosten „externer Effekte“. Das sich derart ergebende „umweltökonomische Optimum“²⁰, als das günstigste Verhältnis der Nutzung von ökologischen Ressourcen gegenüber den volkswirtschaftlichen Kosten der Umweltverschmutzung bzw. den Kosten, die entstehen, wenn man diese vermeiden oder wieder reparieren will, trägt die Konnotation eines Gleichgewichts von Natur und Gesellschaft. Da aber ökologische Parameter in diese Rechnung gar nicht eingehen, ist zu fragen, wie eine Intakterhaltung ökologischer Systeme garantiert werden kann, selbst wenn dieses Kalkül tatsächlich Preise und ökonomisches Handeln bestimmen würde.

Die an Karl Marx orientierte Theoriebildung löst die Problematik hingegen nach der Differenz von Kapital und Arbeit auf. Sie erscheint dann als Interessenswiderspruch hinsichtlich der Aneignung von Werten und damit letztlich der Verwertung von Umweltressourcen. Über die Analogisierung der Verwertungsanalyse der Arbeitskraft mit der Verwertung der Natur, wobei deren Reproduktionskosten im Mittelpunkt stehen, wird eine Strategie submaximaler Nutzung derselben formuliert, welche im Interesse der Gesamtgesellschaft günstiger erscheint.²¹ Dabei wird, wie in der Umweltökonomie fast generell, die gesellschaftsinterne Differenz aufgelöst, welche zuvor durch die Theorie begründet wurde. Nur auf diese Weise kann das problematische *Verhältnis* von Ökologie und Gesellschaft so dargestellt werden, dass es innerhalb der Theorie als gelöst erscheint.

Die ökologische Dimension ist damit in beiden Fällen zwar keine marginale Bezugsgröße mehr, bleibt aber den herrschenden sozialwissenschaftlichen Denktraditionen insofern verhaftet, als sie eine residuale Kategorie bleibt und folglich nicht zu einem konstitutiven Teil der Theorie wird. Statt dessen wird die Umweltproblematik in eine schon vorgängig ausgebildete und auf anderen Feldern „bewährte“ Theoriearchitektur eingegliedert, wo angesichts der Tiefe und der Fülle neuer Fragestellungen und brennender Probleme, wie sie die ökologische Krise aufgeworfen hat, eine weitreichende Neukonstruktion notwendig wäre.

Die Praxisprobleme, die durch die auf uns eindringenden Veränderungen unserer Umwelt, sowie durch die daraus folgende Notwendigkeit einer ökologischen Umgestal-

¹⁹ Vgl. W.K. Kapp, *Soziale Kosten der Marktwirtschaft*, Frankfurt a. M. 1979.

²⁰ Vgl. etwa L. Wicke, W. Franke, *Umweltökonomie. Eine praxisorientierte Einführung*, München 1982, S. 17ff., 222ff.

²¹ Vgl. hierzu u. a. E. Gärtner, *Arbeiterklasse und Ökologie*, Frankfurt a. M. 1979; H. Immler, *Natur in der ökonomischen Theorie*, Opladen 1985; H. Immler, W. Schmied-Kowarzik, *Marx und die Naturfrage. Ein Wissenschaftsstreit*, Hamburg 1984.

tion der modernen Industriegesellschaft aufgeworfen werden, verlangen nach interdisziplinärer Zusammenarbeit. Es gilt diese durch eine forcierte transdisziplinäre Theoriebildung auszubauen und zu stabilisieren. Genau in diesem Zusammenhang ist festzustellen, dass ohne Beachtung und Assimilation des Erkenntnisstandes der Ökologie und ihrer Modelle auch die „Ökologie der Gesellschaft“ nicht mit der gebotenen Tiefe zu bearbeiten ist.

Anknüpfungspunkt für solche Überlegungen ist das Zentralmodell des ökologischen Systems. Im Milieu der Systemtheorie ist hier in engem Kontakt zu Biologie und Umweltforschung ein heuristisch fruchtbares, methodisch breit angelegtes und formal ausbaufähiges Konzept herangereift.²² Mit seiner konzeptionellen Orientierung auf die Ganzheit der Natur und die Verbundenheit ihrer mannigfaltigen Komponenten bietet der Ökosystembegriff einen in die Zukunft weisenden Alternativweg zwischen romantischen Vorstellungen einer beseelten Naturganzheit und einer sich weitgehend auf isolierte Zusammenhänge beschränkenden analytisch-reduktionistischen Naturforschung. Umgekehrt gilt allerdings, dass die ökologische Krise ebensowenig allein mit Hilfe naturalistischer Theorieansätze hinreichend zu erschließen ist. Denn so fehlt dem ökologischen Denken ein gesellschaftstheoretischer Rahmen, der geeignet ist, die Historizität von Veränderungen innerhalb der Entwicklung gesellschaftlicher Systeme mit der Dynamik der Veränderung ökologischer Systeme zu verknüpfen. Gesellschaften sind in ihrer materiellen Existenz Teil der ökologischen Systeme, auch wenn diese häufig – sowohl für die herrschende gesellschaftliche Praxis, wie auch für die daran orientierte sozialwissenschaftliche Analyse – als naturale Umwelt²³, als außerhalb der Gesellschaft stehende Natur erscheinen.

Folgt man den gerade skizzierten Überlegungen, so wird einsichtig, dass die ökologische Krise strenggenommen weder als Krise der „Umwelt“ noch als solche „gesellschaftlicher Institutionen“ betrachtet werden kann.²⁴ Sie betrifft das Innen und das Außen der Gesellschaft genauso wie das Innen und das Außen ökologischer Systeme. Zusätzlich kompliziert ist dieses Verhältnis dadurch, dass keine reziproken Perspektiven vorliegen, das Außen der Gesellschaft also nicht zwangsläufig deckungsgleich ist mit dem Innen ökologischer Systeme und umgekehrt. Als Kategorien sind Innen und Außen, System und Umwelt, Natur und Gesellschaft symbolisch erzeugte Konstrukte, die aufeinander beziehend definiert werden. Im Kontext verschiedener Denkweisen ergibt sich ein variierender Umfang und eine verschiedene Bedeutung dieser Begriffe. Diese handlungsleiten-

²² Vgl. u.a. B. Breckling, *Naturkonzepte und Paradigmen in der Ökologie. Einige Entwicklungen*, Berlin (WZB) 1993.

²³ Die Vielschichtigkeit des Begriffs der Natur macht den Rekurs auf ihre „Natürlichkeit“ problematisch. Immerhin lassen sich zwei mögliche Missverständnisse ausräumen, wenn man statt von „natürlicher“ von „natürlicher“ Umwelt spricht. Erstens: Es bleibt offen, inwieweit die Umwelt durch menschliche Aktivitäten mitgeprägt ist oder inwieweit sie ohne anthropogene Einflüsse geblieben ist. Zweitens: Es bleibt offen, was ein aus der Sicht des Menschen wünschenswerter, anzustrebender Zustand der Umwelt ist, und ob dieser einem ökologisch stabilen, „gleichgewichtigen“ Zustand der Umwelt entspricht. Da alle menschlichen Gesellschaften durch ihre Kultur geprägt sind, gibt es keinen „Naturzustand“, weder für den Menschen noch seine Gesellschaft. Überall wo Menschen existieren, beeinflussen sie als Naturwesen zwangsläufig ihre Umwelt. „Natürlichkeit“ im Sinne eines vom Menschen unbeeinflussten Zustandes kann für die Ökologie der Gesellschaft also kein Ziel sein. Der Begriff des „Naturalen“ ist hier neutraler, und hält Fragen und Diskussionsbedarf für einen konstruktiven Entscheidungsfindungsprozess offen.

²⁴ Vgl. U. Beck, *Die organisierte Unverantwortlichkeit*, Frankfurt a. M. 1988, S. 92f.

den Denkweisen wiederum, und die mit ihnen gegebenen Modelle des Verhältnisses von System und Umwelt, folgen der gesellschaftlichen Differenzierung, und – in theoretisch systematisierter Form – der Differenzierung wissenschaftlicher Disziplinen. Was die Soziologie als „Außen“ der Gesellschaft betrachten mag, stellt sich für die Ökonomie als ressourcen- und güterwirtschaftliche Ebene der Produktion durchaus als im „Inneren“ ihres gesellschaftswissenschaftlichen Gegenstandsbereichs liegende Größe dar. Für die Ökologie liegen diese Vorgänge wiederum zunächst nicht im Inneren ihres Gegenstandsbereichs, sondern sie registriert sie als anthropogene, von außen erfolgende Einwirkungen auf ökologische Systeme. Für die interdisziplinäre Diskussion und transdisziplinäre Modellbildung ist damit ein beträchtlicher Abstimmungs- und Klärungsbedarf vorgegeben.

4. CO-EVOLUTION UND REFLEXIVE MODERNISIERUNG

Die vorgestellten Überlegungen zu den Themen „Selbstreferenz und Umweltethik“, „Azentrizität und ökologische Vernunft“ sowie zum Verhältnis von „Ökonomie und Ökologie“ lassen darauf schließen, dass integrative Konzepte zur Bearbeitung der „Ökologie der Gesellschaft“ notwendig sind, zumindest, um das wieder zusammenzufügen, was im Zuge der Entwicklung der vielen einzelnen wissenschaftlichen Disziplinen voneinander geschieden wurde. Zwei Ansätze hierzu sind das Konzept der „Co-Evolution“²⁵ und das der „reflexiven Modernisierung“²⁶.

Das erste Konzept setzt am Gedanken der Co-Evolution der verschiedenen Populationen einer Biozönose an, die eine immerwährende Dynamik in Richtung einer Optimierung ihres Ökosystems erzeugt. Die Konfigurierung von Materiekreislauf und Energiedurchsatz erfolgt dabei in Richtung der bestmöglichen Nutzung aller verfügbaren Ressourcen. Es vertritt die These, dass der Mensch in seiner gesellschaftlichen Entwicklung aus dieser Co-Evolution freigesetzt bzw. ausgeschert ist. Seine ökologische Potenz entwickelt sich nicht mehr allein auf Basis der organischen Evolution von zufälliger Variation und Selektion, sondern vornehmlich auf Basis einer soziokulturellen Entwicklung durch gerichtete Lernprozesse. Diese schlagen sich in entwickelteren Formen sozialer Kooperation und Arbeitsteilung, effektiveren Organisationen gesellschaftlicher Arbeit und Produktion, leistungsfähigeren Technologien etc. nieder. Die Spezies „homo sapiens“ kann daher in die abiotischen und biotischen Gefüge von Ökosystemen in einer Qualität und einem Maße eingreifen, die keinem anderen Lebewesen möglich ist. Wenn aber die *soziokulturelle Evolution* des Menschen gleichzeitig mit dem herkömmlichen Muster organischer Co-Evolution bricht, ohne dass die Spezies „Mensch“ damit aus ihrer absoluten

²⁵ vgl. u. a. F. Hinterberger, *(Ko?)Evolution von Natur, Kultur und Wirtschaft. Einige modelltheoretische Überlegungen*, [In:] *Zwischen Entropie und Selbstorganisation. Perspektiven einer ökologischen Ökonomie*, Hrsg. F. Beckenbach, H. Diefenbacher, Marburg 1994, S. 317–348, sowie A. Metzner, *Offenheit und Geschlossenheit in der Ökologie der Gesellschaft*, [In:] *Zwischen Entropie und Selbstorganisation. Perspektiven einer ökologischen Ökonomie*, Hrsg. F. Beckenbach, H. Diefenbacher, Marburg 1994, S. 349–391, A. Metzner, *Constructions of Environmental Issues in Scientific and Public Discourse*, [In:] *Eco Targets, Goal Functions and Orientors*, eds. F. Müller, M. Leupelt, Berlin a. o. 1998, pp. 171–192.

²⁶ Vgl. u. a. U. Beck, *Risikogesellschaft. Auf dem Weg in eine andere Moderne*, Frankfurt a. M. 1986 sowie U. Beck, A. Giddens, S. Lash, *Reflexive Modernization. Politics, Tradition and Aesthetics in the Modern Social Order*, Cambridge 1994.

Einbindung in die Strukturgefüge ökologischer Systeme „befreit“ wäre, ist zu folgern: Die *ökologische Problematik evolutionären „Fortschritts“ der menschlichen Gattung* wird zu einer permanent zu bewältigenden und mit zunehmenden wissenschaftlich-technischen und ökonomisch-sozialorganisatorischen Möglichkeiten auch immer schwieriger zu bewältigenden Aufgabe, da die Komplexität, Mächtigkeit und Tiefe des menschlichen Wirkens innerhalb ökologischer Systeme zunehmen. Damit wächst nicht nur das Risiko- und Rückwirkungspotential, sondern es wird der Möglichkeit nach räumlich entgrenzt und zeitlich ausgedehnt.²⁷

Als Kennzeichen der derzeitigen historischen Schwelle darf hierbei, im Anschluss an das zweite Konzept, welches das Phänomen der reflexiven Modernisierung in den Mittelpunkt rückt, der Prozess der allmählichen Bewusstwerdung gelten, dass die Ökologie nicht nur eine elementare, im gesellschaftlichen Umgang zu lösende (Gestaltungs-)Aufgabe darstellt, sondern gerade hierin die kulturelle und sozio-ökonomische.²⁸ Entwicklungsperspektive der Moderne *für sich selbst* zum Problem geworden ist.²⁹ Im Anschluss daran ist zu vermuten, dass „Ethik“ und „Vernunft“ im öffentlichen Diskurs nicht einfach nur stärker nachgefragt werden, sondern auch ein wachsender Bedarf an ihrer Problematisierung besteht.

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²⁷ Vgl. weiter A. Metzner, *Die Tücken der Objekte. Über die Risiken der Gesellschaft und ihre Wirklichkeit*, Frankfurt a. M. u. a., A. Metzner-Szigeth, *Contradictory Approaches? – On Realism and Constructivism in the Social Sciences Research on Risk, Technology and the Environment*, “Futures” 41/2 (2008), pp. 156–170, <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.futures.2008.09.017>.

²⁸ Vgl. auch D. Hassenpflug, *Sozialökologie. Ein Paradigma*, Opladen 1993, S. 158ff.

²⁹ Vgl. A. Metzner-Szigeth, *Kultur & Technik als Medien menschlicher Selbstverwirklichung – Überlegungen zur philosophischen Anthropologie und Gesellschaftstheorie*, [In:] *Technik und Kultur – Bedingungs- und Beeinflussungsverhältnisse*, Hrsg. G. Banse, A. Grunwald, Karlsruhe, pp. 143–162, http://egora.uni-muenster.de/ifs/personen/bindata/20100713_Metzner-Szigeth_Kultur-und-Technik-als-Medien-menschlicher-Selbstverwirklichung.pdf.

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ECOLOGY AND SOCIETY: ABOUT ETHICS AND RATIONALITY AND RATIONALITY IN RELATION BETWEEN SYSTEM AND ENVIRONMENT

Without an extended approach for our thinking and acting there will be no solution of the environmental problem of modernity. Rationality and ethics are challenged therefore, to enlarge the possibilities of our insight in this problem and our orientation regarding this problem. In order to underline the principal complications that are to be mastered on this way, this paper is working on the themes “Self-Referency and Environmental Ethics”, “Acentricity and Ecological Rationality” and on the relationship of “Economy and Ecology”. Hereby it will be focused on the question, which media are needed to empower the modern human to arrange a re-entry of the externalized effects, in order to master the environmental consequences of his intentional decisions. On the one hand we will recur on the systems theory of Luhmann, whose critical analyses will be viewed and assessed regarding this question. On the other hand approaches of environmental economy will be considered,

in order to tackle the question also from the other side. The paper concludes its considerations with a statement about "Co-Evolution and Reflexive Modernization". In the background of both concepts is the process of gradual social awareness that the ecology is not only an elementary task, which in social intercourse can be solved, but the cultural and socio-economic shaping task, identified as characteristic of the current historical threshold. Related to, a growing need not only to "ethics" and "reason" itself, but also to their problematization in public discourse should be expected.

Keywords: philosophical theory of society, relations between economy and ecology, acentric environmental ethics, rationality.

DOI: 10.7862/rz.2014.mmr.32

Tekst złożono w redakcji: wrzesień 2014

Przyjęto do druku: październik 2014

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CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY – EIN SCHRITT ZU EINER KULTUR DER NACHHALTIGKEIT

Die Umsetzung des Konzepts der Nachhaltigkeit erfordert viele grundlegende, umfangreiche, übergreifende und aufeinander abgestimmte kulturelle Transformationen, die alle relevanten Ebenen des individuellen und gesellschaftlichen Lebens durchdringen. Angesichts der fortschreitenden Ökonomisierung der Gesellschaft und einer zunehmenden politischen wie sozialen Macht moderner Wirtschaftsorganisationen gewinnt die Unternehmenskultur eine besondere Bedeutung für die umfangreiche Verwirklichung nachhaltiger Entwicklung. Gegenwärtig wird die Philosophie und Ethik des sozialen Engagements und der sozialen Verantwortung (Corporate Social Responsibility, CSR) zur tragenden Säule der Nachhaltigkeitskultur in vielen Unternehmen. Manche internationalen Nachhaltigkeitsprogramme verweisen auf aktuelle Bedürfnisse auf der Ebene des sozialen Engagements von Unternehmen im transnationalen Ausmaß, die mit einer Anpassung bestehender sozialwirtschaftlicher Modelle an globale Herausforderungen im Hinblick auf die Umsetzung des Konzepts nachhaltiger Entwicklung zusammenhängen. Auf diese Weise stellen diese Programme einerseits einen Bezugsrahmen für die nationalen Wirtschaftspolitiken dar, die das Handeln von Unternehmen in Form einer Top-down-Steuerung beeinflussen, andererseits setzen sie bestimmte internationale Geschäfts-Standards fest, die infolge zunehmender wirtschaftlicher Weltintegration, sich ständig beschleunigender Informationskreisläufe und fortschreitender zivilgesellschaftlicher Prozesse horizontal und diagonal die einzelnen Ebenen des Wirtschaftssystems durchdringen. Der vorliegende Beitrag behandelt grundlegende Voraussetzungen der CSR-Philosophie und weist auf deren Nutzungspotenziale für die Entwicklung einer Nachhaltigkeitskultur im Unternehmen und um Unternehmen herum hin. Vor dem Hintergrund zentraler gesellschaftlicher, volkswirtschaftlicher und betriebswirtschaftlicher Funktionen der CSR wird auf einige aktuelle Kontroversen um deren wirtschaftswissenschaftliche Rechtfertigung sowie auf einige Gefahren, Herausforderungen und Erfolgsbedingungen eingegangen, die mit der Entwicklung dieser neuen, auf Prinzipien der sozialen Verantwortung und des gesellschaftlich-ökologischen Engagements von Unternehmen basierenden Managementkultur zusammenhängen.

Schlüsselbegriffe: nachhaltige Entwicklung, Unternehmenskultur, soziale Unternehmensverantwortung, soziales Engagement, Unternehmensethik.

1. EINFÜHRUNG

Angesichts der zunehmenden Popularität von CSR-Initiativen und eines verstärkten sozial- und umweltschutzorientierten Engagements von Unternehmen stellt sich die Frage, ob wir wirklich mit einer radikalen normativen Umorientierung und einem Wertewandel in der Ökonomie konfrontiert sind. Unternehmen, die im Rahmen der bisherigen umfassenden Kapitalismuskritik wegen ihres rücksichtslosen Gewinnstrebens und wegen ihres

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im Hinblick auf Mensch und Umwelt ausbeuterischen Handelns von allen Seiten angeprangert wurden, werden mit der neuen, auf Humanität, Fairness, sozialer Verantwortung und Gemeinnützigkeit gegründeten Wirtschaftsphilosophie und –ethik nun zu Wohltätern der Menschheit erklärt.² Was ist Entscheidendes passiert, dass das negative Unternehmensbild sowohl in der gesellschaftlichen Wahrnehmung als auch im Selbstbefinden plötzlich so umschlägt? Um diese folgenreichere Frage angemessen zu beantworten, muss man zunächst die Genese des Konzepts der CSR verfolgen. Dessen Ursprünge reichen bis in die frühen 1950er Jahre und werden oft auf die Arbeiten von Howard R. Bowen³ zurückgeführt. Angesichts der rapiden Konsumerismus-Entwicklung in den USA wies Bowen auf die dringende Notwendigkeit hin, das soziale Umfeld und die Erwartungen der Gesellschaft bei der intelligenten und reflexiven Unternehmensführung zu berücksichtigen. Das soziale Umfeld, das einerseits durch wachsendes Selbstbewusstsein und immer stärkere Ansprüche bei Konsumenten und Arbeitnehmern, andererseits durch zunehmende Aktivierung von Bürgerbewegungen und ihre steigende Druckausübung auf die Alltagspolitik gekennzeichnet ist, schafft die notwendigen äußeren Bedingungen für gesellschaftlich respektvollere Unternehmensführung und dadurch gewissermaßen auch für die umfangreiche Re-Moralisierung der Wirtschaftswelt. Neben diesen „externen“ Impulsen spielten auch bestimmte innerwissenschaftliche Selektionsmechanismen bei der Entstehung des CSR-Paradigmas eine wichtige Rolle. Vor allem die sich einerseits durch den Einsatz von auf Automatisierung basierenden modernen Produktionstechnologien und die damit zusammenhängende enorme Leistungssteigerung, andererseits durch die Globalisierung und die weltweite Expansion und Konsolidation von Unternehmen verschärfende Konkurrenz zwang die Wirtschaftsakteure dazu, in der Verbesserung der Reputation zusätzliche Wettbewerbsvorteile zu suchen. Dabei wurde versucht, auf soziales Engagement und Manifestationen sozialer Verantwortung zurückzugreifen. Die Gunst der Stunde wurde besonders gerne von Unternehmen genutzt, die durch Korruptionsskandale oder massive Umweltverbrechen gegen ernsthafte Reputationsprobleme kämpften und nun spektakuläre Wohltätigkeiten und Geldspenden als Ablenkmanöver oder Alibibesorgung verwendeten. Leider sahen damals nur wenige Unternehmen in ihren CSR-Initiativen die Chance, zahlreiche Synergien zwischen den ökonomischen, humanen und sozialen sowie ökologischen Dimensionen im Sinne nachhaltigen Wirtschaftens auf intelligente Art und Weise zu nutzen⁴ und dadurch – und nicht in erster Linie durch Vortäuschen der Bekümmertheit um Gemeinwohl und öffentliche Güter alleine um der Reputation willen – einen betriebswirtschaftlichen wie volkswirtschaftlichen Mehrwert zu erzeugen. Erst mit der Entstehung der theoretischen Grundlagen nachhaltiger Entwicklung Ende der 1980er Jahre und mit allmählicher Durchdringung dieser revolutionären Philosophie des Denkens und Handelns in die einzelnen Bereiche individuellen und gesellschaftlichen Lebens wur-

² Siehe hierzu K. Homann, *Moral in den Funktionszusammenhängen der modernen Wirtschaft. Zwei Beiträge zur Wirtschaftsethik unter Wettbewerbsbedingungen*, Stuttgart 1993; K. Homann, F. Blome-Drees, *Wirtschafts- und Unternehmensethik*, Göttingen 1992; P. Ulrich, *Integrative Wirtschaftsethik. Grundlagen einer lebensdienlichen Ökonomie*, 3. Aufl., Wien 2001; Vgl. L. Heidbrink, *Wie moralisch sind Unternehmen?*, „Aus der Politik und Zeitgeschichte“ 2008/31, S. 3.

³ Siehe hierzu H.R. Bowen, *Social responsibility of the businessman*, New York 1953.

⁴ I. Ślęzak-Gładzik, *Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) jako koncepcja porządkująca relacje między biznesem a społeczeństwem* [CSR als ein die Beziehungen zwischen Wirtschaft und Gesellschaft ordnendes Konzept], „Modern Management Review“ XVIII/2 (2013), S. 113 (poln.).

den die hinreichenden Bedingungen für eine richtige normative Wende zuerst in der volkswirtschaftlichen, dann in der betriebswirtschaftlichen Praxis geschaffen.

Da bei CSR – unabhängig vom gewählten Modell – menschliche Bedürfnisse, Interessen und Interaktionen konstitutiv sind, wurde das in den USA Anfang der 1970er Jahre entwickelte Stakeholder-Konzept zu einem wichtigen Bindeglied in der Evolution des CSR-Paradigmas. Dieses Konzept, das auf Einbeziehung der Interessen aller Betroffenen in die Entscheidungsfindung hinausläuft, entstand vor dem Hintergrund zivilgesellschaftlicher Demokratisierungsprozesse, die zur Herausbildung von Bürgerorganisationsstrukturen führten, die als Gegengewicht zur Dominanz des politischen Establishments in der Öffentlichkeit und zur Hegemonie der Großindustrie fungieren könnten. Das Stakeholder-Konzept, ergänzt um Überlegungen zu einer neuen Kultur gesellschaftlicher Beteiligung und konkreter partizipativer Modelle der Entscheidungsfindung, wurde in den Managementwissenschaften stark rezipiert⁵ und prägte in Verbindung mit der umfassenden Umorientierung auf Nachhaltigkeit das neue, auf soziale Verantwortung orientierte Paradigma der Unternehmensführung.

Sicherlich gab es in der Wissenschaft bereits in der Antike Überlegungen zur humanen und gerechten Geschäftsführung und in den Wirtschaftseliten schon immer gute Menschen mit Sinn für Menschlichkeit, Gerechtigkeit, Solidarität und sonstige soziale Angelegenheiten, dennoch führten die bestehenden wirtschaftlichen Umgebungsfaktoren oft zu zahlreichen Sachzwängen (z.B. im Hinblick auf Konkurrenzfähigkeit), die ein umfassendes soziales Engagement der Unternehmen verhinderten oder gar ausschlossen. Der gesellschaftliche Wandel, der nicht nur das Umfeld der Unternehmen, sondern auch zwischenmenschliche Beziehungen, die bei den meisten Unternehmen den Kern ihrer Aktivitäten ausmachen, umfasste, brachte neue Chancen, auf die sozialorientierte Akteure der Wirtschaftswelt lange warteten. Neben fortschreitenden Demokratisierungsprozessen, die aus dem Bedarf nach Beteiligung und Mitbestimmung hervorgingen, neben der weitergehenden Verbesserung der Organisationskultur der Zivilgesellschaft, dem wachsenden Bewusstsein und dem zunehmenden Druck seitens der Öffentlichkeit trugen der steigende Wohlstand der Bevölkerung und die immanenten Wirtschaftsprozesse wie Internationalisierung und Globalisierung sowie die sich durch enorme Steigerung der Qualität und Effizienz infolge der wissenschaftlich-technischen Revolution spürbar verschärfende Konkurrenzlage⁶ dazu bei, dass die Forderungen, die an Unternehmen heute gestellt werden, umfangreiche soziale Verantwortung zu übernehmen, weder von Wirtschaftstheoretikern noch von Praktikern aus den Unternehmen selbst als uneinlösbar betrachtet werden. Aus ursprünglichen „Sonntagsreden“ wurde die CSR auf vielen Weltmärkten heutzutage zu einer Alltagspraxis. Sie stellt einen komplexen Handlungszusammenhang dar, in den unterschiedliche Akteure involviert sind, die sich im Handeln wechselseitig beeinflussen: befördern wie behindern. Die zunehmende Bedeutung und Popularität von Initiativen im Bereich der CSR verdanken sich einem Zusammenspiel ganz unterschiedlicher Faktoren, wie steigende Forderungen der Kunden und Wirtschaftspartner (Dienstleister, Lieferanten, Händler etc.), steigende Erwartungen der Öffentlichkeit und der lokalen Bevölkerung, die in einer Branche oder auf einem Handlungsgebiet geltenden Wirtschaftstrends und Verhaltensstandards (Vorbilder anderer Firmen), Auswirkungen der staatlichen Wirtschafts-

⁵ Siehe hierzu R.E. Freeman, *Strategic management: A stakeholders approach*, Boston 1984.

⁶ Vgl. N. Stehr, *Die Moralisierung der Märkte. Eine Gesellschaftstheorie*, Frankfurt am Main 2007, S. 49ff.

politik und deren konkrete Fördermaßnahmen (Vorteile bei der Versteuerung, Präferenzen bei öffentlicher Auftragsvergabe, Subventionen etc.), zunehmende Anerkennung der Bedeutung von Mitarbeiterzufriedenheit, verstärkte Wahrnehmung der inneren und äußeren Kooperationsvorteile und –potenziale, aber auch die persönliche Haltung und Politik von Führungskräften und Top-Mitarbeitern, die sich aus ihren moralischen oder religiösen Überzeugungen sowie aus ihrem sozialen Engagements und ihrer zivilgesellschaftlichen Aktivität ergeben.

Der Begriff von CSR wird heute sehr inflationär verwendet, es vermischen sich rechtliche, politische, ökonomische, soziologische, psychologische, ökologische und ethische Gesichtspunkte, die in so unterschiedliche Richtungen wie nachhaltige Entwicklung, gesellschaftlicher Status von Unternehmen (Corporate Citizenship), korporative und kollektive Verantwortungsfähigkeit, soziale Gerechtigkeit, strategisches Management oder Kommunikationskultur entwickelt werden. Über alle diese Problemfelder wird z.Z. sehr kontrovers diskutiert, was sich natürlicherweise auf das Verständnis von CSR auswirkt. Auf einzelne Fragen kann hier nicht eingegangen werden und hierfür müssen entsprechende Literaturhinweise reichen.⁷ Worin eine sozial verantwortliche Unternehmensführung genau besteht, ist zum Teil heftig umstritten. In der Folge dieser semantischen Pluralität und zunehmenden Willkürlichkeit der Verwendung dieses Begriffs wird in der Diskussion immer lauter gefordert, auf ihn ganz zu verzichten und ihn durch differenziertere Bezeichnungen zu ersetzen.⁸ Alle diese Umstände haben dazu beigetragen, dass trotz einer langen, über 50 Jahre dauernden Entwicklung des CSR-Konzeptes und dessen intensiver Popularisierung auf mehreren Ebenen soziale Verantwortung von Unternehmen heute weitgehend ein theoretischer Begriff bleibt, der zum einen vielmehr mit einmaligen spektakulären Wohltätigkeitsakten als mit alltäglicher Geschäftsführungskultur assoziiert wird, zum anderen als etwas Unglaubliches, auf falscher Interessenlosigkeit Beruhendes angesehen wird.

2. DAS EIGENTLICHE ANLIEGEN DES CSR-KONZEPTS

Da die Begriffe „soziale Verantwortung der Wirtschaft“ und „soziale Verantwortung von Unternehmen“ durch willkürlichen Gebrauch und Missbrauch weitgehend verwischt wurden, muss zunächst der Kern des Anliegens rekonstruiert werden, bevor man zu seiner Legitimierung, Operationalisierung und Implementierung übergehen kann. Der CSR-Gedanke ergibt sich aus der allgemeinen Theorie sozialer Verantwortung, die sich im gleichen Maße auf das Handeln von Individuen wie auf das von juristischen Personen bezieht und deren Geschichte auf die Ursprünge menschlicher Zivilisation zurückgeht. Das Prinzip sozialer Solidarität und gegenseitiger Verantwortung der Mitglieder einer Überlebensgemeinschaft füreinander, das Sorge auch für diejenigen Angehörigen in sich einschließt, die ihrerseits noch nicht oder nicht mehr fähig sind, die Verantwortung für sich selbst und für andere zu übernehmen, stellt den Kern der Soziallehre in den großen

⁷ Siehe hierzu etwa in A. Löhr, *Unternehmensethik und Betriebswirtschaftslehre. Untersuchungen zur theoretischen Stützung der Unternehmenspraxis*, Stuttgart 1991; M. Maring, *Kollektive und korporative Verantwortung: Begriffs- und Fallstudien aus Wirtschaft, Technik und Alltag*, Münster 2001; *Wirtschafts- und Unternehmensethik. Kritik einer neuen Generation. Zwischen Grundlagenreflexion und ökonomischer Indienstnahme*, Hrsg. H.G. Nutzinger, München 1999; H. Steinmann, *Unternehmensethik*, 2. Aufl., Stuttgart 1991; H. Steinmann, A. Löhr, *Grundlagen der Unternehmensethik*, 2. Aufl., Stuttgart 1994.

⁸ Vgl. I. Ślęzak-Gładzik, *op. cit.*, S. 115.

Religionstraditionen aller Zeiten dar. Die drei „klassischen“ Typen von Gerechtigkeit: die Tauschgerechtigkeit (lat. *iustitia commutativa*), die Verteilungsgerechtigkeit (lat. *iustitia distributiva*) und die kooperative Gerechtigkeit (lat. *iustitia legalis*), die in allen Kulturen und in allen Epochen als Fundament des menschlichen Zusammen- und Überlebens sowie als Garantie des sozialen Zusammenhalts, der gemeinschaftlichen und sozialen Sicherheit, der zivilisatorischen Entwicklung und der Festigung oder Verbesserung der Position im zivilisatorischen Wettbewerb galten und deren Befolgung durch zum Teil strenge Vorschriften und Sanktionen gemeinschaftlich abgesichert wurde, können als Ausdruck und natürliche Operationalisierung des Prinzips der Solidarität und der sozialen Verantwortung verstanden werden.⁹

In diesem Sinne werden von einem sozial engagierten und verantwortlichen Unternehmen, das sich zugleich als Individuum, Gemeinschaft und Mitglied noch größerer Gemeinschaften betrachtet, die finanziellen, materiellen, immateriellen und sonstigen Ressourcen und Produkte zum Teil gegen Ressourcen und Produkte anderer Akteure (Kunden, Zulieferer etc.) gerecht getauscht, zum Teil an die Gemeinschaft als Beitrag zum Gemeinwohl gerecht abgegeben und die Überschüsse werden unter allen „Angehörigen“ (Aktionäre, Mitarbeiter) gerecht verteilt. Aus diesen operationalen Zusammenhängen ergeben sich für Unternehmen gegenüber unterschiedlichen Stakeholdern unterschiedliche Pflichten, die Gegenstand von CSR sind. Da jedes Unternehmen in einem bestimmten gesellschaftlich-sozialen Umfeld agiert, in dem konkrete Verhaltensregeln und Handlungsprinzipien gelten, müssen sich Unternehmen an diese Spielregeln halten, wenn sie ihre „gesellschaftliche Lizenz“ zum Handeln erhalten oder verlängern wollen. Unternehmen nehmen bestimmte gesellschaftliche Ressourcen in Anspruch, an deren Herstellungskosten sie sich teilweise nicht beteiligen. Zu diesen Ressourcen gehören in erster Linie gut ausgebildete und sozialisierte Arbeitskräfte, viele öffentliche Güter wie Eigentumsrechte, Rechtsschutz und öffentliche Sicherheit, öffentliche Dienstleistungen, Infrastrukturen oder die meisten Umweltgüter. Unternehmen sind deshalb verpflichtet, sich an der Bereitstellung oder Reproduktion dieser Ressourcen mindestens proportional zu ihrer eigenen Verbrauchsrate zu beteiligen. Unternehmen, besonders diejenigen aus dem Produktionsgewerbe, sind in ihrem Wirtschaftshandeln in der Regel im größeren Maße als andere Akteure von den meisten Umweltgütern anhängig und haben einen stärkeren Einfluss auf den Umweltzustand. Das gilt sowohl für die starken Umweltfaktoren mit konventionellen Wirtschaftsfunktionen wie Rohstofflager oder Aufnahmekapazitäten für Emissionen oder Abfälle als auch für die schwachen Umweltfaktoren wie Landschaft und Naturästhetik, Biodiversität, Luftqualität, Lärm- oder Radiationspegel etc., die für Identitätsbildung, Prestigepflege oder schlicht für die Verbesserung des Arbeitsklimas und des Wohlbefindens von Mitarbeitern und Kunden zunehmend genutzt werden. Viele dieser immer mehr geschätzten Umweltgüter sind in ihrem Bestehen ernsthaft bedroht, und ihre Aufrechterhaltung und Vermehrung erfordert eine umfangreiche aktive und koordinierte Mitwirkung vieler gesellschaftlicher Akteure. Da sich Unternehmen dank ihrer Organisation und Kooperationskultur auf Mehrwerterzeugung spezialisieren und über viele Überschüsse verfügen, können sie für die Absicherung empfindlicher Umweltgüter einen entscheidenden Beitrag leisten, indem sie sich aktiv an den gesellschaftlichen Maßnahmen im Bereich der

⁹ Vgl. J. Stecko, *Zaufanie a społeczna odpowiedzialność biznesu* [Vertrauen und soziale Verantwortung der Wirtschaft], „Zeszyty Naukowe Politechniki Rzeszowskiej. „Zarządzanie i Marketing” [Wissenschaftliche Hefte der Polytechnischen Hochschule Rzeszow. Management und Marketing] 19/285 (2012), S. 153.

Umweltpolitik beteiligen und eigene Ressourcen und Wirkungspotenziale etwa für die Früherkennung und Lösung von Umweltproblemen und sozialen Konflikten um die Umweltgüter einsetzen. Darüber hinaus kommen im Handlungsumfeld jedes Unternehmens auf jedem Kontinent und in jedem Wirtschaftssystem eine Reihe von gesellschaftlichen und sozialen Problemen und Defiziten vor, deren Lösung oder zumindest erkennbare Milderung alleine mit Hilfe administrativer Maßnahmen des ersten Sektors oft nicht möglich ist. Das gilt nicht nur für arme Entwicklungsländer, sondern auch für die führenden Industrieländer mit der höchsten Wachstumsrate und einer strikt liberalen Marktwirtschaft. Gerade in diesem Wirtschaftssystem führen einerseits die extremen Einkommens- und Vermögensungleichheiten, andererseits der massive Zufluss illegaler Einwanderer zu ernsthaften Bedrohungen für soziale Integration, öffentliche Sicherheit und gesellschaftlichen Zusammenhalt. Durch sehr verhaltene Steuerpolitik verfügt der „Nachtwächter Staat“ über bescheidene Re-Distributionsreserven, die meistens nicht ausreichend sind, um soziale und ökonomische Exklusionen zu verhindern. Hier ist das soziale Engagement der Unternehmen und der Organisationen des dritten Sektors (NGOs) im Rahmen der intersektoralen Partnerschaften gefragt. Unternehmen, die sich für die Vorbeugung von sozialen Krisenlagen in der Gesellschaft einsetzen, tun es zum Teil in ihrem eigenen Interesse, denn viele gesellschaftliche Pathologien wirken sich sehr negativ auf die Bedingungen des Wirtschaftens aus, erwähnt seien hier etwa organisierte Kriminalität, Nachfrage-lücken, Ressourcenschwund, Mangel an geeigneten Arbeitskräften etc. Im Rahmen ihres sozialen Engagements können Unternehmen mit einem relativ geringen Aufwand grundlegende Verbesserungen in ihrem gesellschaftlichen und sozialen Umfeld initiieren. Bevor die Unternehmen eine richtige „soziale Offensive“ mit spektakulären Maßnahmen und systematischen alltäglichen gesellschaftlichen Aktivitäten entwickeln, können sie das gute Leben lokaler Gemeinschaften mit recht einfachen Mitteln fördern, indem sie sich nur auf human- und sozialverträglichere Personal- und Beschäftigungspolitik oder faire Lohn- und Preispolitik beschränken. Was das konkret bedeutet, muss im Einzelfall erst präzisiert werden. Dabei gelten einfache prozedurale Regeln wie Partizipation, Parität (proportionale Vertretung), Gleichbehandlung unter gleichen Bedingungen, Transparenz, Berücksichtigung von Interessen, die nicht repräsentiert werden, Schutz von Minderheiten, angemessene Kompensation für Benachteiligte, Rotationsprinzip bei nicht teilbaren Privilegien, mehr Rechte durch mehr Pflichten u.ä. Selbstverständlich können die Unternehmen viel weiter gehen und aktive Programme sozialer Verantwortung auf mehreren Ebenen entwickeln, wie z.B. durch Informations- und Bildungsaktionen, intelligentes Sponsoring, Schirmherrschaft oder Mäzenatentum zur Verbesserung der Gesellschaftsqualität beitragen oder durch sparsamen Umgang mit Ressourcen Überschüsse an Rohstoffen, Produktionsmitteln, Erzeugnissen oder Finanzmitteln freisetzen, die dann an bedürftige oder von sozialer Exklusion bedrohte Bevölkerungsgruppen verteilt werden können. Damit veredeln die Unternehmen nicht nur ihre eigene Reputation in der Gesellschaft und bauen sich in ihrem Umfeld ein gesellschaftliches Vertrauenskapital auf, sondern tragen auch wesentlich zur Steigerung der gesellschaftlichen Vertrauenswürdigkeit von Wirtschaftsorganisationen überhaupt bei.¹⁰ Diese letzte Dimension der sozialen Verantwortung von Unternehmen (solidarische Verantwortung für andere Unternehmen und für ihr Ansehen in der Gesellschaft, die Unternehmen zur gegenseitigen Mobilisierung und Unterstützung

¹⁰ Vgl. R.W. Griffin, *Podstawy zarządzania organizacjami* [Grundlagen des Organisationsmanagement]. Warszawa 2004, S. 120f. (poln.); I. Ślęzak-Gładzik, *op. cit.*, S. 118f.

bei ihren sozialen Aktivitäten verpflichtet) wird in der Diskussion um die CSR leider oft vernachlässigt.

Dass durch wirtschaftliche Aktivitäten eines Unternehmens auf einem bestimmten Gebiet nicht nur Waren und Dienstleistungen erzeugt werden, sondern auch (Un-)Zufriedenheit, Vertrauen(-losigkeit), (Un-)Recht, (Un-)Gerechtigkeit, Hoffnung(-losigkeit), positive wie negative Gefühle und Abwehrreaktionen bei einzelnen Menschen, bei menschlichen Gemeinschaften und gesellschaftlichen Organisationen, die im unmittelbaren Umfeld jedes Unternehmens agieren, ist mittlerweile fast allen Unternehmen klar. Dennoch nehmen heute nur sehr wenige Unternehmen die uneingeschränkte Verantwortung für ihre Handlungsfolgen für die Mitarbeiter und alle Betroffenen in ihrem Umfeld (Kunden, Kooperationspartner, lokale Bevölkerung, Gemeinschaften, Gesellschaft und Menschheit als Ganzes) wahr. Dabei handelt es sich um eine aktive, prospektive und umfangreiche Verantwortungsübernahme sowohl für unmittelbare primäre und sofort auftretende Handlungsfolgen als auch für indirekte, sekundäre und tertiäre, zeitlich verschobene, synergetische und kumulative Effekte, die in irgendeinem kausalen Zusammenhang mit dem Handeln von Unternehmen stehen. Eine solche verantwortungsbewusste Haltung eines Unternehmens soll sich aus dem Streben ergeben, guter und zuverlässiger Arbeitgeber, Partner, Nachbar und Bürger zu werden und sich die damit zusammenhängende gesellschaftliche Anerkennung und die gesellschaftliche Handlungsgenehmigung (den gesellschaftlichen Handlungsauftrag; engl. licence-to-operate) nachhaltig zu sichern.¹¹

Zu den zentralen Grundsätzen der CSR-Philosophie gehört der Respekt gegenüber allen Stakeholdern des Unternehmens, der zur Berücksichtigung ihrer Interessen bei der Gestaltung der Unternehmensstrategien verpflichtet. Die ursprünglich überwiegend an die organisierten aktiven externen Stakeholder mit viel Einfluss wie lokale Bürgerbewegungen und Interessengruppen (starke Stakeholder) orientierte Unternehmensverantwortung wurde allmählich um Akteure ohne organisierte Interessen erweitert (schwache Stakeholder), seit einiger Zeit werden auch Subjekte wie Gewerkschaften, einzelne Mitarbeitergruppen und ihre Vertretungen, Minderheiten und Einzelpersonen, die innerhalb der Unternehmen agieren, immer stärker in die CSR-Programme einbezogen. Manche CSR-Theoretiker schränken die CSR gar auf die Qualitäten der interpersonalen Relationen im Unternehmen ein.¹²

Zusammenfassend können die folgenden Handlungsprinzipien zum Pflichtrepertoire einer umfassenden, langfristigen, an Nachhaltigkeitskultur und sozialer Verantwortung orientierten systemischen Managementstrategie gezählt werden:

- Identifikation von Stakeholdern, ihren Interessen und potenziellen Konfliktfeldern;
- Aufnahme der Kommunikation mit allen Stakeholdern und gesellschaftliche Konsensbildung;
- Suche nach konfliktfreien Lösungen, die für alle Betroffenen günstig sind;
- Aufbau von transparenten und respektvollen Beziehungen mit allen Stakeholdern;
- Einbeziehung dieser Stakeholder in die diskursive Programmierung der Unternehmensstrategien und in gesellschaftlich bedeutsame Entscheidungsprozesse;

¹¹ Vgl. P. Drucker, *Spoleczeństwo prokapitalistyczne* [Prokapitalistische Gesellschaft], Warszawa 1999, S. 86f. (poln.).

¹² Vgl. A. Rudnicka, *CSR – doskonalenie relacji społecznych w firmie* [Die CSR – Verbesserung der sozialen Relationen in der Firma], Warszawa 2012, S. 50f. (poln.).

- ständige Pflege der Transparenz des eigenen Wirtschaftshandelns für alle Betroffenen;
- Verbesserung der Lebensqualität der Gesellschaft durch soziales Engagement, das über die gesetzlich festgelegten Pflichten weit hinausreicht;
 - aktive Beteiligung an allen Maßnahmen zur Umsetzung der nachhaltigen Entwicklung, etwa durch Erzeugung ausschließlich sozial- und umweltverträglicher Produkte;
 - Verbreitung und Förderung einer sozial- und umweltverantwortlichen Wirtschaftskultur durch vorbildliche Geschäftspraktiken, wie faire Vertragsabwicklung, vollständige Pflichterfüllung und faires Konkurrenzverhalten;
 - Unterstützung anderer Akteure bei ähnlichen Aktivitäten;
 - Schließen von Partnerschaften und aktive Beteiligung an allen möglichen Initiativen zur Förderung eines sozial-verantwortlichen Wirtschaftens und zur Stärkung der ethischen Kultur in Unternehmen;
- ständige Aktualisierung der eigenen Informationsbasis zu internationalen und nationalen CSR-Standards und Anpassung eigener Handlungsstrategien an diesen normativen Rahmen.¹³

Bei vollständiger Einhaltung dieser Handlungsregeln kann die CSR alle postulierten Zwecke erfüllen und den volks- wie betriebswirtschaftlichen Mehrwert des Unternehmenshandelns optimieren. Trotz zahlreicher Beispiele für einige gesamtgesellschaftlich wie einzelwirtschaftlich durchaus gelungene CSR-Initiativen wird die Rolle der CSR sowohl in der sozialen wie auch in der liberalen Marktwirtschaft vielfach in Frage gestellt.

3. KONTROVERSE UM CSR

Gegenüber jeglichen gesellschafts- und sozialorientierten Aktivitäten von Unternehmen, die über die gesetzlich vorgeschriebenen Pflichten gegenüber allen Vertragsparteien (Kunden und Auftraggeber, Zulieferer und Kooperationspartner, Aktionäre, Mitarbeiter) und den staatlichen Aufsichtsbehörden hinausgehen, herrschten in der klassischen Ökonomie und Betriebswirtschaftslehre bislang eine Reihe von Vorbehalten, ähnlich wie gegenüber Unternehmensethik im allgemeinen.¹⁴ Jede Form sozialer Verantwortungsübernahme durch Unternehmen und deren freiwillige Selbstverpflichtung zu zusätzlichen Leistungen zugunsten eigener Mitarbeiter, Verbraucher, Kontrahenten, lokaler Bevölkerung und lokaler Gemeinschaften, gemeinnütziger Vereine, der gesamten Gesellschaft, der Menschheit inklusive zukünftiger Generationen oder der Umwelt wird als unwirtschaftlich und ökonomisch irrational angesehen, denn diesbezügliche Kosten werden als viel zu hoch im Vergleich zu den zu erwartenden Eigenvorteilen eingeschätzt. Die Vorbehalte fungierten trotz der folgenden selbstverständlichen Paradoxie: Einerseits wird eine verstärkte Liberalisierung des Marktes und ein weitgehender Verzicht des Staates auf jeglichen Interventionismus und auf jegliche Regulationen postuliert. Durch den Rückzug des Staates sollen auf dem Markt die natürlichen (im Darwinschen Sinne) Selbststeuerungs-

¹³ Vgl. I. Ślęzak-Gładzik, *op. cit.*, S. 116; B. Rok, *Odpowiedzialny biznes w nieodpowiedzialnym świecie* [Verantwortungsvolles Wirtschaften in einer verantwortungslosen Welt], Akademia Rozwoju Filantropii w Polsce, Forum Odpowiedzialnego Biznesu [Akademie für Philanthropieentwicklung in Polen. Forum Verantwortlichen Wirtschaftens], Warszawa 2004, S. 18f. (poln.), <http://www.ae.krakow.pl/~gap/doki/23sympozjum/odpbiz.pdf>.

¹⁴ Siehe hierzu in J. Brewing, *Kritik der Unternehmensethik. An den Grenzen konsensual-kommunikativ orientierter Unternehmensethik*, Bern 1995.

mechanismen erst zur Entfaltung kommen. Der Rückzug des Staates und die natürlichen Prozesse der Marktregulierung bedeuten zugleich eine Minimierung der Kosten aller Wirtschaftstätigkeiten durch eine radikale Senkung von Steuern und eine radikale Vereinfachung aller Verfahren im Hinblick auf Beschäftigung, Umweltnutzung und Vertrieb von Waren und Dienstleistungen. Andererseits wird vom Staat erwartet, dass er den Wirtschaftsunternehmen umfangreiche öffentliche Güter und umfangreiche Leistungen wie äußerer Schutz und innere Sicherheit, faire Konkurrenzbedingungen, geeignete Rechtsordnung und Rechtsprechung, Zugang zu den für die wirtschaftlichen Zwecke notwendigen Natur- und Gesellschaftsressourcen wie Rohstoffe, Infrastrukturen, Technologien und Wissensbeständen sowie ständigen Zufluss entsprechend qualifizierter und sozialisierter Arbeitskräfte zur Verfügung stellt. Dabei wird jegliche soziale Verantwortung des Wirtschaftsunternehmens für das gute Leben der Gesellschaft geleugnet und ebenfalls auf den Staat und auf die Organisationen der Zivilgesellschaft abgewälzt. Unter diesen Umständen müsste man sich schon entscheiden, wer in erster Linie für die Qualität des gesellschaftlichen Lebens auf den einzelnen Ebenen zuständig ist und wer die (Mit-)Verantwortung für die Erhaltung von menschenwürdigen Lebensbedingungen, für den sozialen Zusammenhalt und Ausgleich sowie für die Befriedigung wichtiger menschlicher Bedürfnisse, die sich kommerziell mit marktwirtschaftlichen Mitteln sehr schwer befriedigen lassen (Hochkultur, Naturschutz, Erhaltung des kulturellen Erbes der Vergangenheit, nicht-kommerzielle und nicht-kommerzialisierbare Forschung, Vorbeugung von sozialen Exklusionen etc.), auf sich nehmen sollte.

Die Idee der CSR stößt unvermeidlich gegen die in der Wirtschaftsethik mittlerweile klassische Kontroverse, worin letztendlich der gesellschaftliche Auftrag der Unternehmen bestehe: In der Gewinnmaximierung oder in der Verbesserung des allgemeinen Wohlstands? So widerspiegeln die gegensätzlichen Positionen, die sich heute in der Diskussion um die CSR bilden, ungefähr die Landschaft der klassischen Diskussion um die Rechtfertigung der Wirtschaftsethik. Auf der einen Seite berufen sich die Ultraminimalisten auf ihren prominenten Vorläufer, den Nobelpreisträger Milton Friedman, der Unternehmenshandeln als alleine den Grundsätzen der Rentabilität, Legalität und Gewinnerzeugung gesellschaftlich verpflichtet erklärt.¹⁵ Der Gegenstand der sozialen Verantwortung der Manager sei die Deckung der gesellschaftlichen Nachfrage an Waren und Dienstleistungen, die Sicherung höchstmöglicher Renditen für Aktionäre, die Sicherung der Arbeitsplätze und der Einkommen von Mitarbeitern und die Sicherung der Steuereinnahmen des Staates durch Gewinnmaximierung. Auf der anderen Seite berufen sich radikale Maximalisten auf eine lange Tradition der an Gemeinwohl orientierten Marktwirtschaft, in der zu den fundamentalen gesellschaftlichen Verpflichtungen von Unternehmen ein umfangreiches soziales und ökologisches Engagement gezählt wird. Die diesbezüglichen Pflichten ergeben sich aus der spezifischen Bürgerschaft der Unternehmen und erstrecken sich auf Aktivitäten wie Geldspenden und Subventionen an Schulen und Bildungseinrichtungen, Krankenhäuser, Sportvereine, Kultureinrichtungen und zivilgesellschaftliche Umweltschutzorganisationen sowie an einzelne Veranstaltungen im Bereich der Kultur und Unterhaltung, die Stimulierung der eigenen Mitarbeiter zu ehrenamtlichem Engagement für Gesellschaft und Umwelt wie auch zu politischen und zivilgesellschaftlichen Initiativen, die Unterstützung der Mitarbeiter bei diesen Aktivitäten, die Beteiligung an der gesell-

¹⁵Mehr dazu in M. Friedman, *The social responsibility of business is to increase its profits*, „New York Times Magazine“ 13.09.1970.

schaftlichen Lösung sozialer Probleme durch angemessene Öffentlichkeitsarbeit, soziale Dienstleistungen für Mitarbeiter und lokale Bevölkerung (wie etwa Betreiben eines eigenen Kindergartens, familienfreundliche Gestaltung von Arbeitsbedingungen und –zeiten, sozialer Wohnungsbau oder Hilfe bei Naturkatastrophen) sowie Mobilisierung anderer Akteure zur Mitwirkung an derartigen Aktivitäten. Zwischen diesen beiden Polen liegen viele gemäßigte Positionen, die die Reichweite und den Umfang sozialer Verpflichtungen unterschiedlich definieren. Dieser Divergenz auf der Ebene der theoretischen Diskussion entsprechen vier unterschiedliche Grundhaltungen gegenüber der CSR auf der Ebene der Wirtschaftspraxis von Unternehmen:

- *Aversion und Obstruktionismus* bestehen in der Vermeidung jeglicher Form gesellschaftlichen Engagements oder im Vortäuschen einer Besorgtheit um soziale Probleme. Unternehmen mit solcher Einstellung haben kein Problem damit, gegen universelle wirtschaftsethische Standards oder sogar gegen das Gesetz zu verstoßen und, wenn sie dabei „erwischt“ werden, diese Fakten zu vertuschen versuchen sowie ihre Verantwortung dafür zu leugnen, auch wenn das menschliche Leben auf dem Spiel steht. Unter diesen Umständen kann von sozialer Verantwortung gar keine Rede sein.

- *Zurückhaltung, Minimalismus und Passivität.* Unternehmen mit solch passiver Einstellung beschränken sich in ihrem Wirtschaftshandeln nur auf die absolut notwendigen Aktivitäten, die im Rahmen der jeweils in dem unmittelbaren Umfeld geltenden CSR-Standards analog zu „politischer Korrektheit“ geboten sind: Befolgung elementarer Fairness- und Gerechtigkeitsregeln; ansonsten gemeinwohlorientiertes Engagement nur dann, wenn die strategischen Zwecke des Eigeninteresses und der Selbsterhaltung es erforderlich machen.

- *Adaptation, Kooperation und reaktives Verhalten.* Unternehmen mit dieser Grundhaltung haben prinzipiell die Bereitschaft, sich umfangreich an breiteren Aktionen in Richtung CSR zu beteiligen und ihre Ressourcen für gemeinnützige Zwecke zu verwenden. Sie ergreifen jedoch sehr ungerne selber die Initiative, ahmen gerne gute und gelungene Maßnahmen nach und kopieren bewährte Verhaltensmuster aus dem CSR-Bereich.

- *Aktive Offensivhaltung und Maximalismus.* Unternehmen mit dieser Einstellung suchen aktiv nach neuen Möglichkeiten, sich für das Gemeinwohl einzusetzen und bemühen sich ständig darum, ihre Vorreiterposition auf diesem Feld zu festigen. Diese Unternehmen nutzen möglichst alle Chancen, sich als freundlicher und gefragter Arbeitgeber, Hersteller, Kooperationspartner, Nachbar und Bürger zu etablieren. Damit verkörpern sie das Ideal einer sozial und gesellschaftlich verantwortlichen und zuverlässigen Wirtschaftsorganisation.¹⁶

Auf der Ebene der beiderseitigen, gesellschaftlichen wie unternehmerischen Vorteile aus dem sozialen Engagement der Unternehmen erwecken besonders die letzteren zum Teil starke Kontroversen. Zu den möglichen Profiten für Unternehmen werden Reputationsvorteile und die sich daraus ergebenden Aussichten auf zusätzliche Umsätze und Gewinne, die mit gesellschaftlicher Vertrauenssteigerung und Herausbildung von inneren und äußeren Loyalitäten zusammenhängende Absicherung der für die Marktposition und den wirtschaftlichen Erfolg grundlegenden Prozesse, Steigerung der Leistungsfähigkeit und Arbeitseffektivität durch Verbreitung entsprechender, auf Ehrlichkeit, Solidarität und

¹⁶ Vgl. I. Ślęzak-Gładzik, *op. cit.*, S. 117; siehe auch R. W. Griffin, *op. cit.*, S. 122–125.

gegenseitigem Engagement wie zusätzlichen positiven emotionalen Motivationen aufgebauter Kultur, positiver Einfluss eines neuen, sozial gerechteren Managementstils und der Verbesserung von sozialen Kompetenzen der Mitarbeiter auf die „Gesundheit der Organisation“, auf Atmosphäre im Unternehmen und auf den Teamgeist, Personalvorteile aus der Prestigeerhöhung und Steigerung der Attraktivität des Unternehmens für hochklassige Arbeitskräfte sowie aus der Einschränkung der Personalfluktuaton und Verstärkung der Anziehungskraft für gute Wirtschaftspartner gezählt.¹⁷ Allerdings ist es bis jetzt im Rechnungswesen nicht gelungen, systematische Kalkulationsmethoden zur Bilanzierung des sozialen Engagements von Unternehmen zu erarbeiten, und es konnten keine festen wirtschaftswissenschaftlichen Beweise erbracht werden, in wie weit „ethische“ Investitionen eines Unternehmens zur Steigerung des Unternehmenswertes und seiner Aktienpreise beitragen.¹⁸

Dadurch bestehen sowohl seitens der Unternehmen als auch seitens der Gesellschaft Bedenken, Vorurteile und umfangreiche Vertrauensdefizite. Es wird zum einen darauf verwiesen, dass die Wirtschaftsorganisationen keine moralischen Subjekte sind und keine ethische Entscheidungs- und Handlungsfähigkeit besitzen, wodurch sie prinzipiell nicht wie Privatpersonen für humanitäre Akte gesellschaftlich beauftragt sein können. Als auf Gewinnbringung gesetzlich vorprogrammierte Organisationen haben Unternehmen auch als juristische Personen keine Fähigkeit, sich an Lösungen sozialer Probleme der Gesellschaft zu beteiligen. Derartige Eingriffe der Unternehmen in Sphären, die weit außerhalb ihres eigentlichen, im gesellschaftlichen Auftrag festgelegten Kompetenzbereichs liegen, könnten als Einmischen in die Politik, Untergraben der Autorität des Staates, Verletzung der Regeln fairer Konkurrenz, Stiftung sozialer Interessenskonflikte, Generierung unnötiger Zusatzkosten, die im Endeffekt sowieso auf den Verbraucher abgewälzt werden, Vortäuschen einer falschen Besorgtheit um das Schicksal der Welt, um sich nur gesellschaftliches Alibi zu verschaffen und Straflosigkeit billig zu erkaufen oder Überforderung der Mitarbeiter mit unnötigen zusätzlichen Aufgaben und Pflichten, die über die normalen wirtschaftlichen Anforderungen weit hinausgehen, kurz gesagt: als Missbrauch und etwas Unglaubwürdiges betrachtet werden.¹⁹

4. HERAUSFORDERUNGEN UND ERFOLGSFAKTOREN. EIN AUSBLICK

Es gibt keine universellen Lösungen, die für alle Wirtschaftsbereiche, Erdteile und Zeiten einheitliche Vorgaben hinsichtlich der Ebenen, Formen, Reichweite und Intensität eines optimalen sozialen Engagements von Unternehmen beinhalten würden. Unter den Bedingungen des jeweiligen Wirtschaftssystems und im konkreten sozio-kulturellen Kontext hängt die Bestimmung des im Hinblick auf gesellschaftliche Legitimierung, Operationalisierung und Implementierung geeigneten CSR-Modells von vielen regionalen und Standort-Faktoren ab. Die soziale Aktivität des Staates (Sozialmodell), die gesellschaftlich eingeforderten ethischen Standards und die zivilgesellschaftliche Organisationskultur sowie der Grad der Bedürfnisbefriedigung und die sozialen Schichtungen in der Gesell-

¹⁷ Mehr dazu in G. Bartkowiak, *Spoleczna odpowiedzialność biznesu w aspekcie teoretycznym i empirycznym* [Soziale Verantwortung der Wirtschaft aus theoretischer und empirischer Sicht], Warszawa 2011, S. 77 (poln.).

¹⁸ Vgl. D. Vogel, *The market of virtue. The potentials and limits of corporate social responsibility*, Washington 2006, p. 16ff.

¹⁹ Mehr dazu in I. Ślęzak-Gładzik, *op. cit.*, S. 119.

schaft sind im gleichen Maße von entscheidender Bedeutung. Die notwendige innere Bedingung ist ein entsprechendes unternehmensinternes sozial-moralisches Budget. Für eine erfolgreiche Umsetzung ist das aber alleine nicht ausreichend und muss von günstigen Umgebungsbedingungen ergänzt werden. Es wird viel leichter fallen, die Unternehmen zu CSR-Aktivitäten zu bewegen, wenn diese dadurch bestimmte Vorteile gewinnen, die solche Aktivitäten auch noch ökonomisch rechtfertigen.

Wie die unterschiedlichen Erfolgsfaktoren zusammenwirken, kann man am Beispiel der aktuellen Situation in der südostpolnischen Region Karpatenvorland verfolgen. Bei einer im Jahr 2012 an einer umfangreichen Stichprobe durchgeführten Befragung erklärten weniger als 40 % der Befragten die Kenntnis des CSR-Begriffs, davon war mehr als die Hälfte nicht in der Lage, die Bedeutung dieses Begriffes zu erklären. Dabei äußerten weniger als jeder zehnte den Wunsch, sein Wissen über die CSR zu erweitern. Von den Befragten, die den Begriff der CSR kannten, konnte jeder dritte indes keine Beispiele von sozial engagierten Firmen nennen.²⁰ Diejenigen aber, die solche Beispiele nannten, lagen damit nicht ganz falsch. Es hat sich herausgestellt, dass die meisten der von den Befragten genannten Firmen im aktuellen nationalen Ranking der sozial verantwortlichen Unternehmen²¹ tatsächlich weit vorne rangierten. Das zeigt, dass Initiativen, mit denen Unternehmen ihre soziale Verantwortung manifestieren, von der Bevölkerung zwar noch nicht vollständig wahrgenommen, aber dafür meistens korrekt eingeordnet werden. Die genannte Studie brachte aber auch andere ganz interessante Ergebnisse. Die Befragten wurden gebeten, einige in Polen agierende Firmen zu nennen, die sich ihres Vertrauens erfreuen. Auch hier wurde meistens auf Unternehmen hingewiesen, die in demselben CSR-Ranking hoch rangieren. Diese überzeugende Übereinstimmung zeigt, dass CSR-Initiativen von Unternehmen in der Gesellschaft gut ankommen und die beabsichtigten Nebeneffekte auf der Ebene der gesellschaftlichen Vertrauensbildung erzielen.

Auf der anderen Seite ist es viel schwieriger, ein gesellschaftliches Überwachungssystem über tatsächliche CSR-Aktivitäten der Unternehmen zu installieren, um einschätzen zu können, in wie weit die Deklarationen über die soziale Verantwortungsübernahme mit tatsächlichen Handlungen in diesem Bereich korrespondieren. Hier werden unterschiedliche methodische Schwierigkeiten avisiert: *erstens* häufige pragmatische Inkonsistenzen im Unternehmenshandeln, die eine Gesamtbeurteilung weitgehend erschweren; *zweitens* die Abneigung seitens der Unternehmen, Betriebsinformationen der Öffentlichkeit zur Verfügung zu stellen; *drittens* eine zu starke Diversifizierung der CSR-Aktivitäten sowie ein Mangel an evaluativen Verfahren, um die heterogenen qualitativen Datenströme auf einen „gemeinsamen Nenner“ bringen zu können.²² Abgesehen von diesen Schwierigkeiten wurden in Polen landesweit Untersuchungen durchgeführt, die auf Veränderungen in der Wahrnehmung der CSR-Philosophie durch Unternehmen ausgerichtet waren. Die Befragungen umfassten mehr als 500 auf den hiesigen Märkten agierende Unternehmen und lieferten interessante Ergebnisse, die zumindest eine generelle Orientierung vermitteln: mehr als zwei Drittel der befragten Firmen kennt die CSR gar nicht; von denjenigen

²⁰ Vgl. J. Stecko, *op. cit.*, S. 157.

²¹ Vgl. http://odpowiedzialnybiznes.pl/public/files/Ranking_Odpowiedzialnych_Firm_2012-1335517208.pdf (20.11.2012).

²² Vgl. J. Stec-Rusiecka, *Wpływ społecznej odpowiedzialności na poprawę jakości życia społeczeństwa* [Auswirkungen der CSR auf die Verbesserung gesellschaftlicher Lebensqualität], „Modern Management Review“ XVIII/2 (2013), S. 90 (poln.); G. Bartkowiak, *op. cit.*, S. 79.

Firmen, denen CSR-Philosophie nicht ganz fremd ist, setzen wieder nur zwei Drittel in ihrem Handeln entsprechende Grundsätze um; nur etwa 20 % Unternehmen, die in Polen ihren Hauptsitz haben, kennen aktuelle nationale und internationale Richtlinien und Standards zur Umsetzung der CSR-Grundsätze; unter Firmen, die CSR in irgendeiner Form praktizieren, hat weniger als jede fünfte ein eigenes CSR-Programm und die damit zusammenhängenden internen Strukturen und Satzungen. Die meisten Firmen (ca. 70 %), die CSR in ihre Wirtschaftsstrategien integrieren, sind Großunternehmen; von den sieben zentralen CSR-Referenzbereichen, die in der Norm ISO 26000²³ bestimmt wurden, räumen polnische Unternehmen den Relationen mit Kunden (74 %) und mit Mitarbeitern (72 %) das Primat ein; relativ wenige Firmen halten Respekt vor Menschenrechten (20 %), Umweltschutzaktivitäten (20 %) und Engagement für die Bevölkerung (11 %) als wichtig für ihre eigene Entwicklung. Zu den wichtigsten Barrieren, die polnische Unternehmen am Aufnehmen von CSR-Aktivitäten hindern, gehören zu hoher finanzieller Aufwand und Mangel an erforderlichen freien Mitteln (38 %), Zeitmangel (33 %), zu große Komplexität dieser Maßnahmen, die die organisatorischen Potenziale des Unternehmens überfordert (32 %) sowie Mangel an einschlägigem Wissen und erforderlichen Handlungskompetenzen (30 %).²⁴ Die angeführten Ergebnisse der beiden Erhebungen zeigen, dass sowohl die Unternehmer und Manager als auch ihre Kunden bis jetzt noch nicht richtig verstanden haben, was die CSR ist, welche Möglichkeiten sie eröffnet und welchen Nutzen sie bringt. Im Rahmen der bisherigen Forschungsarbeiten, die auf dem Feld der CSR-Entwicklung in Polen durchgeführt wurden, konnten einige Schwächen der auf nationaler Ebene unternommenen Aktivitäten sowie wichtige Gefahren für die Stärkung der CSR in der Zukunft identifiziert werden. Zu den entscheidenden Schwächen der CSR-Entwicklung in Polen gehören

- eine offensichtliche Dominanz von defensiven, minimalistischen Einstellungen seitens der Unternehmen und ein besonders unter großen und einflussreichen Unternehmen mit fremdem Kapital verbreitetes strategisches Verständnis von CSR (Erklärungen und Manifestationen sozialen Engagements alleine um Reputationsgewinne und Konkurrenzvorteile willen);
- geringes Bewusstsein der Unternehmen über unterschiedliche Vorteilsdimensionen und Nutzungspotenziale von stärkerem sozialem Engagement;
- auf Seiten der KMU und der öffentlicher Verwaltung bestehende Probleme eines mangelnden Wissens über die aktuellen internationalen und nationalen CSR-Standards, über ausländische Erfahrungen und bewährte Lösungen in der Umsetzung dieser Standards;
- geringes Bewusstsein der Verbraucher über die Pflichten der Unternehmen und eigene Rechte (etwa im Hinblick auf Produktkennzeichnung, Abwicklung von Reklamationen oder Kundenbedienung), die sich aus den geltenden internationalen und nationalen CSR-Standards ergeben;

²³ Vgl. *Guidance on social responsibility*, ISO 26000:2010.

²⁴ Vgl. PARP [Polnische Agentur für Unternehmensförderung], *Ocena stanu wdrażania standardów społecznej odpowiedzialności biznesu wraz z opracowaniem zestawu wskaźników społecznej odpowiedzialności w mikro, małych, średnich i dużych przedsiębiorstwach* [Bewertung der Fortschritte bei der Umsetzung von CSR-Standards einschließlich der Erarbeitung von Indikatorensets für die CSR-Aktivitäten in kleinen, mittleren und großen Unternehmen], Warszawa 2012 (poln.), <https://www.parp.gov.pl/files/74/75/77/13078.pdf> (22.09.2014).

- die bestehenden bürokratischen Barrieren und Überregulierungen auf dem Markt.²⁵

Doch das steigende Interesse an der CSR-Problematik auf der internationalen Ebene, dessen Ausdruck etwa die Normungsinitiativen wie ISO 26000 sind, wird im Rahmen der gleichzeitig fortschreitenden Integrationsprozesse Polens in die EU-Strukturen und das globale Wirtschaftssystem, die umfangreiche Anpassungsmaßnahmen erzwingen, zu einer immer stärkeren Absorption der internationalen CSR-Standards führen. Eine ganz entscheidende Rolle wird dabei auch der Generationswechsel im Unternehmenspersonal spielen. Der Arbeitsmarkt für Ökonomen und Manager wird heute zunehmend vom Nachwuchs „gestürmt“, der auf der Grundlage neuer Trends zur Internationalisierung und neuer, die Wirtschaft humanisierender und sozialisierender Inhalte ausgebildet wurde. Das Eindringen dieser neuen Professionalität in die Unternehmen wird den CSR-Ideen und der Nachhaltigkeitskultur den Weg ins polnischen Wirtschaftsleben bahnen. Ein entscheidender äußerer Erfolgsfaktor für die Verbreitung und Umsetzung der CSR in Polen bleibt nach wie vor das Bewusstsein des Durchschnittsverbrauchers und dessen zivilgesellschaftliche Aktivität. Davon hängt in erster Linie ab, welche Erwartungen und Anforderungen „von unten“ an die Unternehmen direkt oder über die politischen Prozesse gestellt werden und mit welcher Entschlossenheit. Wird der gesellschaftliche Druck größer, werden die Unternehmen rasch ihre Politik modifizieren. Auf der Ebene der gesellschaftlichen Einwirkungen auf die Wirtschaftskultur ist auch das Verhalten der Medien, die gerade in Polen einen sehr starken Einfluss auf die öffentliche Meinungsbildung haben, von großer Bedeutung. Man darf aber auch viele Barrieren und Gefahren nicht aus den Augen verlieren. In erster Linie sind hier die heutigen Auswirkungen der nicht weit zurückliegenden wirtschaftlichen Rückständigkeit Polens und die zeitversetzten negativen Nebenfolgen der aktuellen Transformationsprozesse, die einerseits die Umstellung der zentralisierten staatlichen Planwirtschaft auf die freie Marktwirtschaft und andererseits die fortschreitende wirtschaftspolitische Integration mit Westeuropa umfassen, gemeint. Dazu kommt die anhaltende Unsicherheit, die durch die von allen Seiten proklamierte Weltfinanzkrise erzeugt wird. So braucht man sich nicht zu wundern, dass die meisten Firmen unter diesen Umständen auf sehr vorsichtige, defensive und minimalistische Handlungsstrategien zurückgreifen und von umfangreichen, aufwendigen CSR-Aktivitäten absehen. Aber auch durch die bisher eingeleiteten Maßnahmen zur CSR-Popularisierung wurde eine Reihe von negativen Effekten hervorgerufen, die eine breitere Aneignung der CSR-Grundsätze durch Unternehmen spürbar erschweren. Der Grund dafür waren vor allem die mangelnde Konsistenz, Kohärenz und Übersichtlichkeit der einschlägigen Initiativen, die von unterschiedlichen Akteuren aus unterschiedlichen Feldern und zu unterschiedlichen Zwecken „auf eigene Faust“ unternommen wurden. Immer noch mangelt es auch an erfahrenen Firmen und Organisationen, die gutwillige Unternehmen bei der Einbeziehung der CSR in ihre Operationsprogramme beraten und die Prozesse auditieren könnten.²⁶ Auf der Grundlage der bisherigen Erfahrungen mit der Verbreitung und Umsetzung der CSR-Philosophie in Polen kann darüber hinaus auf einige sonstige Bedingungen und Erfolgs-

²⁵ Vgl. Ministerstwo Gospodarki [Wirtschaftsministerium], *Rekomendacje w zakresie wdrażania założeń koncepcji Społecznej Odpowiedzialności Przedsiębiorstw w Polsce* [Empfehlungen für die Implementierung von CSR-Grundsätzen in Polen], Warszawa 2013, S. 8f. (poln.) http://www.mg.gov.pl/files/upload/13678/Rekomendacje_w_zakresie_wdrażania_zalozen_koncepcji_CSR_w_Polsce.pdf (07.03.2013).

²⁶ Vgl. *Ibidem*; mehr dazu in I. Ślęzak-Gładzik, *op. cit.*, S. 122.

faktoren der CSR zusammenfassend hingewiesen werden: statt abstrakter Slogans sollten möglichst klare und für jedermann verständliche Formulierungen der CSR-Anforderungen, bei Bedarf einschlägige detaillierte Begriffsklärungen und Anweisungen der Öffentlichkeit geliefert werden, statt Diskussionen auf der Ebene der ökonomischen Rechtfertigung sollte mehr Aufmerksamkeit der jeweils bereichsspezifischen Operationalisierung der CSR und ihrer Implementierbarkeit gewidmet werden, die CSR-Normen und –grundsätze müssen mit den aktuellen in der Gesellschaft dominierenden Wertvorstellungen kompatibel sein und die CSR muss mit geeigneten politisch-rechtlichen Instrumenten gefestigt werden, die eine schnellere, alle relevanten Akteure, wie Gesetzgeber und Entscheider in der Verwaltung, Unternehmer, Investoren, Führungskräfte, Arbeitnehmer, Verbraucher, staatliche Kontrolleure, Vertreter und Aktivisten zivilgesellschaftlicher Organisationen etc., umfassende Umorientierung in der Gesellschaft und auf dem Markt stimulieren würden. Besonders gefragt sind Instrumente, die Unternehmen zusätzliche Anregungen zur Übernahme sozialer Verantwortung geben, die Personen fördern, die sich für die Verwirklichung der CSR-Grundsätze in ihrem Unternehmen einsetzen und diesen Personen Schutz sichern, wenn sie dadurch in Konflikte mit ihren Arbeitgebern, Vorgesetzten oder anderen Akteuren geraten. Darüber hinaus müssen auf der Ebene der Öffentlichkeit ein störfreier Informationsfluss und eine möglichst gute Informationsverbreitung durch fairen Zugang zu Massenmedien sowie eine externe, gesellschaftlich glaubwürdige und zuverlässige Überwachung etwa durch Branchenvereinigungen, Verbraucher(-schutz-)organisationen oder andere zivilgesellschaftliche Strukturen gesichert werden. Doch die fundamentale Bedingung des Gelingens der geforderten generellen Umorientierung der Wirtschaft auf allgemeingesellschaftlichen Mehrwert, Solidarität und soziale Verantwortung ist, dass sich alle Beteiligten an dem gesamten Wirtschaftsgeschehen an die gleichen Spielregeln halten – so müssten die selben Forderungen, von egoistischer Eigennützigkeit abzusehen und sich in den Dienst an Menschlichkeit und Gemeinschaft zu stellen, im gleichen Maße an juristische Personen aus Politik, Verwaltung, Wirtschaft und Zivilgesellschaft wie an Privatpersonen als politische Leader, gesellschaftliche Entscheider, Leiter von Verwaltungseinheiten, Geschäftsleute, Manager, soziale Gruppenführer, einzelne Arbeitnehmer, Kunden und Konsumenten, Bürger und Anlieger (Nachbarn) von Unternehmen gestellt werden.

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CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY – KROK KU KULTURZE ZRÓWNOWAŻONOŚCI

Realizacja zrównoważonego rozwoju wymaga – obok właściwych politycznych scenariuszy i odgórnych, możliwie precyzyjnych społecznych wymagań oraz odpowiednich specyficznych sektorowych operacjonalizacji i rozwiązań techniczno-organizacyjnych – fundamentalnych, totalnych, wielkoskalowych, przekrojowych i wzajemnie zharmonizowa-

nych transformacji kulturowych, obejmujących wszystkie relewantne płaszczyzny życia jednostki i społeczeństwa. W warunkach postępującej ekonomizacji społeczeństwa i wzrastającej politycznej i społecznej roli biznesu szczególnego znaczenia dla powodzenia zrównoważonego rozwoju nabiera kultura przedsiębiorstw. Współcześnie filarem kultury zrównoważoności w wielu przedsiębiorstwach staje się filozofia społecznej odpowiedzialności i społecznego zaangażowania biznesu (Corporate Social Responsibility, CSR). Międzynarodowe programy zrównoważonego rozwoju wskazują aktualne potrzeby na płaszczyźnie społecznego zaangażowania biznesu na poziomie ponadnarodowym, związane z dostosowywaniem obecnych modeli społeczno-gospodarczych do globalnych wyzwań zrównoważonego rozwoju. W ten sposób programy te z jednej strony wyznaczają ramy odniesienia dla krajowych polityk gospodarczych oddziałujących na biznes na zasadzie „góra-dół”, z drugiej kształtują międzynarodowe standardy biznesowe, które pod wpływem postępującej gospodarczej integracji świata, coraz szybszego obiegu informacji oraz rozwoju społeczeństwa obywatelskiego przenikają do biznesu horyzontalnie i diagonalnie. Przedłożony artykuł omawia główne założenia filozofii CSR oraz wskazuje potencjały wykorzystania CSR dla budowania kultury zrównoważoności w przedsiębiorstwie i wokół przedsiębiorstwa. Na tle głównych społecznych, makro- i mikroekonomicznych funkcji CSR zwraca uwagę na kilka kontrowersji wokół jej naukowej legitymizacji oraz na niektóre zagrożenia, wyzwania i warunki powodzenia związane z rozwijaniem nowej zrównoważonej kultury zarządzania opartej na odpowiedzialności oraz społecznym i środowiskowym zaangażowaniu przedsiębiorstw.

Słowa kluczowe: zrównoważony rozwój, kultura przedsiębiorczości, społeczna odpowiedzialność przedsiębiorstwa, społeczne zaangażowanie, etyka przedsiębiorstwa.

CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY – A STEP TOWARDS THE CULTURE OF SUSTAINABILITY

The implementation of the concept of sustainable development requires basic, comprehensive and coordinated cultural transformations that permeate all relevant levels of individual and social life. In conditions of the progressive commodification of society and the increasing political and social power of modern business organizations, the importance of the corporate culture increases. Currently, the philosophy and ethics of social engagement and social responsibility Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) is the cornerstone of a culture of the sustainability culture in many companies. Some international sustainability programs refer to current needs at the level of social engagement of companies in the supranational level, associated with an adaptation of existing socio-economic models to global challenges related of the concept of sustainable development. In this way, these programs on the one hand provide a reference frameworks for national economic policies which affect the actions of companies in the form of a top-down, on the other hand international standards shape the business, which, under the influence of progressive economic integration of the world, faster flow of information and the development of civil society penetrate business horizontally and diagonally. Submitted article discusses the main objectives of the philosophy of CSR and indicates the potential use CSR for building a culture of sustainability in the company and around the company. On the background of major social, macro- and microeconomic functions CSR points out a few controversies over her scientific legitimization and to some threats, challenges and conditions of the success tied with developing the new balanced culture of the management based on the responsibility and public and environmental engagements of companies.

Keywords: sustainable development, culture of enterprise, corporate social responsibility, social engagement, business ethics.

DOI: 10.7862/rz.2014.mmr.33

Tekst złożono w redakcji: wrzesień 2014

Przyjęto do druku: wrzesień 2014

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ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE AS AN IMAGE OF ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE (IN THE LIGHT OF RESEARCH ON POLISH ORGANISATIONS)

The article is an attempt to scientifically represent the specificity of organisational culture of Polish companies, but also the differences within the scope of developing the attributes of cultures of state and market organisations, with the use of empirical evaluation of attitudes of their members in relation to the organisational climate prevailing in them. Organisational climate is understood here as visualisation (demonstration, materialisation) of „subconscious”, profound and hidden from the organisation’s environment (but also in a way from itself) values, norms and artefacts. The phenomenon of organisational climate is so interesting from a scientific point of view, that it may be subject to empirical verification in the workers’ attitudes due to its volitional (the members of an organisation have a will), cognitive (the members have an intellectual ability), emotional (the members are willing) and psychomotor (the members have technical competence) nature. It is also relatively easily attainable source of data, which raises its practical value and lowers the cost of research. Organisational climate is – according to the authors’ analytical convention – a logical, intuitive, generalised and extrapolated form of perceiving and expression by the community (an individual, group, and team) of an organisation – in the form of feelings, opinions as well as the behaviour of its participants – of the culture which characterises it. The purpose of the research was thus a diacritical analysis of organisational climate of bureaucracy and adhocracy (according to the authors, organisational climate is a synthetic and integral equivalent of organisational culture, considered synonymously as part of the adopted paradigm), developing in Polish organisations.

Keywords: organisational climate, human capital, organisational culture

1. INTRODUCTION

Organisational climate is understood here as visualisation (demonstration, materialisation) of „subconscious”, profound and hidden from the organisation’s environment (but also in a way from itself) values, norms and artefacts. It needs to be emphasised strongly that they are not realised, are difficult to formulate and thus comprehend judiciously or at the same time have practical applications in the organisation’s operational departments. This phenomenon affects all levels of management as well as its various techniques.

Analysis of climate shortens decision making processes, thus reducing the costs connected with long-lasting, expensive and difficult to evaluate process of examining organi-

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sational culture. On the basis of such a formulated *implicite* assumption, a hypothesis on theoretical, pragmatism as well as economic methods of this competitiveness compared with methods used in science, has been suggested.

The phenomenon of organisational climate is so interesting from a scientific point of view, that it may be subject to empirical verification in the workers' attitudes due to its volitional (the members of an organisation have a will), cognitive (the members have an intellectual ability), emotional (the members are willing) and psychomotor (the members have technical competence) nature. It is also relatively easily attainable source of data, which raises its practical value and lowers the cost of research. It seems equally handy in praxeological respect, as opposed to laborious and long-lasting analytical procedure in diagnosing organisational culture, which was suggested by Cameron and Quinn⁴.

The process of studying organisational culture on the basis of the *implicite* inference (inference based on the assessment of organisational climate) is subject to remarkable reduction, thus giving a chance to increase the effectiveness of decision making within the line of managers in both tactical and operational management. The authors' research concept, defined in this article, ought to be understood as an alternative analysis method of psychosocial determinants of an organisation's activity.

2. CULTURE AND ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE

In the Anglo-Saxon theory, organisational culture was commonly described as: „*a model of values, norms, beliefs, attitudes and assumptions, which do not have to be formalised, but which shape human behaviour and ways of realising tasks*”⁵. Organisational culture is: „*commonly accepted (in an organisation, authors' note) beliefs, attitudes and values existing in an organisation*”⁶, which also „*helps to eliminate uncertainty, providing all members of an organisation with one system of interpretation, creates social order through clear definition of what is expected from people, guarantees continuity which lies in next generations of members holding the same basic values and following the same rules, establishes group identity and joint commitment by forming bonds and also facilitates creating the vision of the future*”⁷. Popularly, it takes the form of a four-dimensional model⁸.

Human capital reflects the role of intellectual resources of an organisation, that is attitudes, values held by them, motivation, knowledge, predispositions, abilities as well as work skills. It is a combination of intelligence, capability and competence, which constitute a distinct character of an organisation. The human element is such that it is able to learn, change, introduce innovations, act creatively, and that will guarantee long-lasting existence of an organisation when well motivated. Unlike the other resources it does not

⁴ K.S. Cameron, R.E., Quinn *Kultura organizacyjna – diagnoza i zmiana. Model wartości konkurujących*, Oficyna Ekonomiczna, Kraków 2003.

⁵ M. Armstrong, *Zarządzanie zasobami ludzkimi*, Oficyna Ekonomiczna, Kraków 2005, p. 248.

⁶ A. Furnham, B. Gunter, *Corporate Assessment*, Routledge, London 1993, p. 34.

⁷ K.S. Cameron, R.E., Quinn, op. cit.

⁸ Compare R. Harrison, *Understanding your organizations character*, Harvard Business Review, 1972, 5, pp.119-128; C. Handy, *Understanding Organizations*, Penguin, Harmondsworth 1981, E.H. Schein, *Organization Culture and Leadership*, Jossey-Bass, New York 1985; A. Williams, P. Dobson, M. Walters, *Changing Culture: New organizational approaches*, IPA, London 1989.

belong to the organization⁹. Human capital is the most important component of intellectual capital, which consists of knowledge, acquired in the organisation and spread throughout it, and belongs to immaterial resources, which along with the material resources (money and fixed assets) create a market or total value of the organisation¹⁰.

Organisational climate is: „*a relatively permanent set of observations of organisation members, relating to the features and quality of organisational culture*”¹¹. Organisational culture reaches a deep and partly unenlightened organisational structure which determines its fundamental principles and rules, whereas organizational climate shows currently perceived and realised aspects of an organisation’s activity. In light of the above it may be said that *organizational climate is a catalogue of current observations, views and beliefs of members of an organisation regarding norms, values, principles, as well as rules of conduct which develop in it, but also an expression of opinions about the performed role in developing an organisation, thus influencing the nature and shade of interpersonal relations and general atmosphere at work, which is expressed in the actions of individuals and teams.*

3. THEORETICAL INSPIRATION FOR THE RESEARCH

In the authors’ study of organisational climate, whose results are included in the presented article, a bit forgotten concept of George Litwin and Robert Stringer¹² has provided a source of inspiration. The aforementioned authors in their monograph entitled: „*Motivation and Organisational Climate*”, presented a model questionnaire used in empirical measurement of organisational climate¹³, in which they included eight categories of variables, characterising a particular organisation, and among them dimensions as follows¹⁴:

- *Structure – understood as observations on barriers and autonomy of action, but also a degree of formalising and hierarchisation of organisational processes etc.*
- *Responsibility – perceiving oneself as treated with respect and trust in situations of delegating powers to do important tasks etc.*
- *Risk – perceiving organisational activities as dangerous and risky, in which the emphasis is on taking calculated risk, as well as preference for safe behaviour, etc.*
- *Warmth – existence of informal and friendly interpersonal relations, inducing the atmosphere of teamwork, developing and supporting decentralised bonds etc.*

⁹ D. Kłak, *Organizational dimension of management of human capital selection process*, Pragmata tes Oikonomias – VIII, Wydawnictwo Akademii im. Jana Długosza w Częstochowie, Częstochowa 2014.

¹⁰ B. Kłak, D. Kłak, *Kapitał intelektualny w kształtowaniu wartości przedsiębiorstwa*, [w:] Galata S. (red.), *Uwarunkowania strategii zarządzania nowoczesnymi organizacjami*, Wydawnictwo Naukowo - Dydaktyczne PWSZ w Jarosławiu, Jarosław 2008, p. 94.

¹¹ W.L. French, F.E. Kast, J.E. Rosenzweig, *Understanding Human Behaviour in Organizations*, Harper & Row, New York 1985, p. 82.

¹² G.H. Litwin, R.A. Stringer, *Motivation and Organizational Climate*, Harvard University Press, Boston 1968.

¹³ (Original name of the questionnaire: „*Organizational Climate Questionnaire*” - LSOCQ)

¹⁴ Giving a feature the form of dimension denotes that its structure is founded on a vector with average intensity of the analysed phenomenon, whereas in both research and assessment one acknowledges the fact of potential occurrence of extremes of intensity (characterises entirely or does not characterise at all). In this case, the subject features function as attributes, based on internalised as a result of organisational socialisation norms, encoded in the catalogue of organisational roles and regulations (scripts) on fulfilling them.

- *Support – noticeable help from management, superiors and co-workers, emphasis on cooperation, kindness, etc.*
- *Standards – existence of standardised rules and criteria of control, grasped by human resources meaning of aims and standards of actions, emphasis on achieving personal and team goals, etc.*
- *Conflict – the feeling that the board, superiors and co-workers avoid settlements and conceal problems by ignoring or underestimating and reducing their real meaning (repression) etc.*
- *Identity – the sense of belonging to the organisation, team, group, loyalty towards other participants, perceiving oneself as a valuable resource, experiencing affiliation as well as respect and recognition from others, etc.*

In all types of organisations, effective and skilful managers and specialists, whether they hold the post of state enterprise directors or manage market companies, whether are administrators in civil service or consultants within organisations, need to acquire an ability, or even proficiency in the art – as referred to by Gareth Morgan¹⁵ – „of deciphering situations in which they attempt to manage something or organise something”. This skill, deriving from inborn predispositions and talents, most frequently develops as a natural process as part of routine activities and actions, which appears to be an intuitive process, and decisions made within this process were taken subconsciously. Besides, often without rational justification, we ascribe almost supernatural powers to the most effective managers, believing that people able to solve difficult problems bring this gift with themselves into the world, moreover, they are in possession of some sort of magical power, enabling them to understand and transform situations they face.

The authors of this study, however, take the opposing view, claiming that the ability to perceive, identify and evaluate the organisation along with its surroundings in the light of their mutual interactions and the context of this feedback, is a result of arduously acquired thorough knowledge, but also systematically gained valuable experience, obtained during social processes by the optimally configured personality of the decision-maker. In a model in which the decision-maker plays fundamental yet not the only role, other people and values on which they build groups, teams and organisations, formed on the basis of the established norms, get substantial meaning. It is worth looking at and getting to know their views in order to gain another piece of interdisciplinary knowledge, which may turn out useful in the process of managing the organisation, still remembering that *social construction of reality* is a categorical and universal conditioning. Regardless of what one thinks about the theory of Karl Weick, it cannot be definitely contested, and therefore a compromise ought to be reached. An optimal solution to the emerging dilemma: „*whether to believe in observations as a base for solid knowledge about social and economic reality, or not to believe in them*”, becomes understanding and assessing cognitive processes of people who form organisations and perform (within their formal-legal frameworks) routine roles and occupational functions, in the face of which they adopt specific attitudes expressed in the voiced opinions and preferred activities or behaviour styles.

In light of the above-mentioned deliberations, a few research questions have been raised, namely:

¹⁵ G. Morgan, *Obrazy organizacji*, PWN, Warszawa 2005, p. 9.

- What are the characteristics of a phenomenon which makes the members of a particular organisation see it in an identical way, interpret processes existing in it in a consistent way and feel the overwhelming necessity to act in accordance with the created within the organisation axio-normative construction?
- Are there any determinants of developing organisational behaviour and what characterises their relationship with ethos and atmosphere prevailing in the whole organisation?
- Are there any theoretical and logical premises to imply about such subjects as organisational culture on the basis of the research on workers' attitudes? If so, can the climate prevailing in it be regarded as a designation of organisational culture, expressed in the form of beliefs, emotional reactions and behaviour of people who work within its structures?

Do types of organisations attract individuals of similar and consistent attitudes, or is it coherence and cohesion of their conduct which lead to the development and maturation of uniform organisational culture? Are various types of organisations characterised by specific types of organisational cultures? Can adhocracy and bureaucracy be regarded as an example of antagonised organisational cultures and what characterises the attitudes of their members?

4. METHODOLOGY OF AUTHORS' RESEARCH

In order to provide answers to the raised research questions, a nomothetic approach has been used, in the light of which no efforts have been spared to show the characteristics of organisational cultures of adhocracy and bureaucracy in attitudes towards organisational climate.

4.1. The logic of research model and research group

Taking the considered research issues into account, a methodological convention in the area of social sciences and studies on management has been used. The statistical survey, carried out as part of it, was conducted at the turn of the year 2009. The sample was taken among the general population of state-owned and municipal enterprises and civil service workers as well as the workers of private and market enterprises of the Subcarpathian Voivodship. In the used empirical model, bureaucracy became the designation of state organisations, whereas adhocracy demonstrates processes of market organisations and reflects the traits of its participants. In order to compare the characterisation of attitude of the members of adhocracy and bureaucracy with organisational climate prevailing in their organisations, the sample was divided into two homogeneous fractions. The research group (group A) consisted of 120 members of adhocracy, whereas the control group (group B) consisted of 120 members of bureaucracy. Collection of the sample as well as its division were of controlled nature, since it has been an aim to achieve such a state in which the influence of uncontrolled variables on variables under observation would be standardised as far as possible in both groups. Because of the representative sample size, analysis of the differences within the scope of characterisation of the analysed variables was based on the structure of percentage distribution with the reservation that the noticed differences could not be assessed in terms of statistical significance.

4.2. Research tool and hypotheses

Comparative analysis, referred to as diacritical, for its purpose is to show and describe differences in the area of the observed variables – features (categories) of organisational climate, has been carried out by way of the authors' questionnaire form entitled *Inwentarz Dobrej Roboty (An Inventory of Good Work) (KMIDR)*¹⁶. It consists of five dimensions, intended for measuring and assessing the qualities of factors which in total create the syndrome of organisational climate. The scale which evaluates the nature of organisational culture is formed by five sets of questions of diverse diagnostic structure, adjusted to the content of the analysed dependent variables. Each of the eight categories of the aforementioned Litwin&Stringer's model corresponded with a certain catalogue of survey questions, included in the KMIDR tool.

In connection with the raised research questions, the following hypotheses have been discussed:

- it is assumed that organisational culture, manifested in organisational climate, is in fact visible in the attitudes of organisation members,
- it is assumed that in terms of attitudes towards organisational climate, differences of views between the members of adhocracy and bureaucracy will appear.

5. ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE IN THE LIGHT OF EMPIRICAL RESEARCH

As a result of the conducted research a few regularities have been noticed in the area of developing subjects' attitudes from research group (group A) and control group (group B).

5.1. Motivation factors in the spectrum of organisational climate

Obtained research results show that the main motivation factor differentiating work satisfaction in groups A and B is the level of pay, which is more often described as satisfactory in the opinion of state administration workers (referred to as bureaucracy) than in the group of market organisation members. It confirms the popular opinion that working in the public sector guarantees financial stability and secures basic existential and social needs. There are no clear differences in opinions of the two groups when it comes to evaluation of the level of kindness in human relations in a team, possibilities of further career development and the possibility to make decisions about the performed work (see Fig. 1AB, below).

¹⁶ The questionnaire is found in the collections of research tools of the Institute of Physical Culture and Sport Management at the Academy of Physical Education in Katowice and is an authors' paper, intended for scientific research.

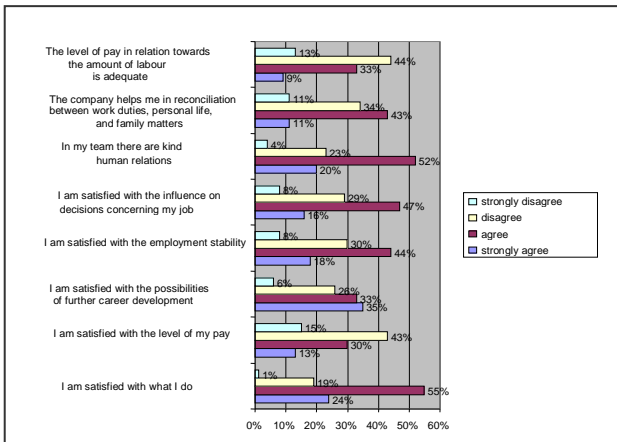


Fig. 1A. Distribution of attitudes towards motivation factors in group A

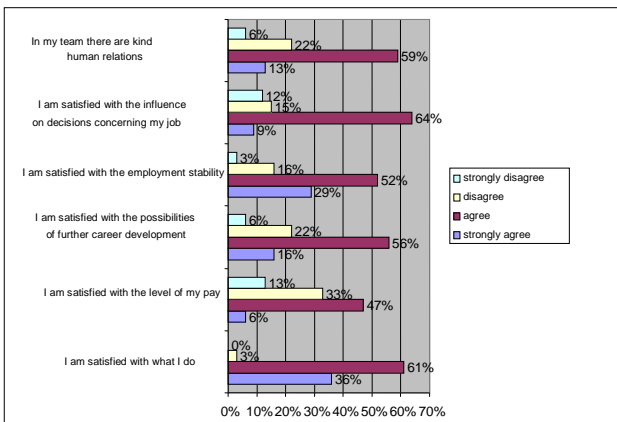


Fig. 1B. Distribution of attitudes towards motivation factors in group B

In relation to the results of the whole research a few alarming conclusions might be drawn, namely:

- every third subject believes that in his/her team there are hostile human relations and problems with creating an atmosphere of shared kindness,
- a considerable percentage of the subjects believe that they do not have any decision making influence on their work,
- in case of group A, almost 60% of subjects is dissatisfied with the level of received pay, every fifth subject from a market company performs his/her work out of necessity.

5.2. Management in the spectrum of an organisational climate

The analysis of attitudes of members of the two groups A and B towards the activities

of personnel managers demonstrated in the form of: listening to employees' remarks and opinions about working conditions, taking care of employees' further career development, objectivity and rationality in the process of promotion, the use of financial methods of motivation and encouraging work effectiveness, as well as systematically informing its personnel about organisation's plans of development, has not shown any evident differences (please see Fig. 2AB). However, it should be emphasised that the above-mentioned factors of organisational climate have been evaluated in an ambivalent way, not to say negative, regardless of the organisation type in which they are used as a managing instrument.

In the light of the obtained results it has been anxiously discovered that:

- every second subject believes that his/her organisation does not take into consideration one's opinions and ideas, almost 30% of the subjects is of the opinion that their career development is not being taken care of,
- promotion, in the opinion of almost half of the interviewed, is still given due to favouritism and nepotism, ways of pay, according to 30% of subjects, do not encourage work efficiency.

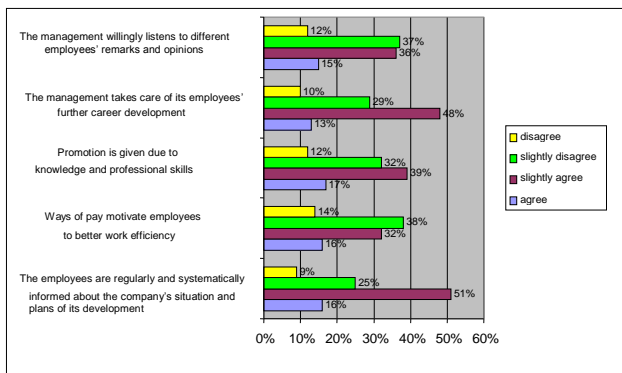


Fig. 2A. Distribution of attitudes towards personnel managers and supervisors in group A

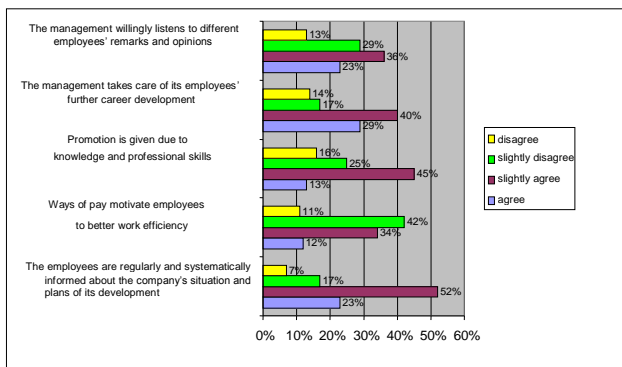


Fig. 2B. Distribution of attitudes towards personnel managers and supervisors in group B

5.3. Information in the spectrum of organisational climate

The analysis of opinions about the methods of information management in the organisation has shown that formal channels of information transfer are used more often in bureaucracy (from management’s announcements, from the supervisor, from team representative) than in market organisations where, in turn, informal oral information transfer is more predominant (Fig. 3AB, below). In both types of organisations traditional technologies and styles of communication play a predominant role and „hierarchical band” of official channels comes to the fore.

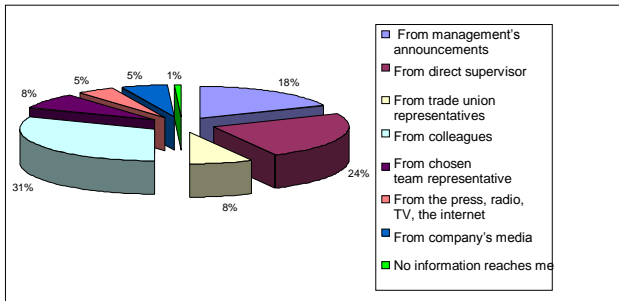


Fig. 3A. Distribution of attitudes towards information management in organisation in group A

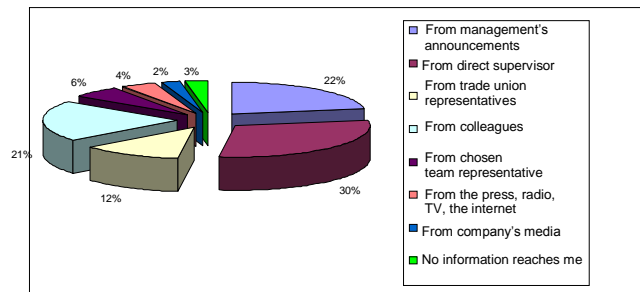


Fig. 3B. Distribution of attitudes towards information management in organisation in group B

5.4. Stressogenic factors in the spectrum of organisational climate

The analysis Factors which cause stress in adhocracies – enumerated in a descending order of importance – are: I – overworking, overstrain (16%), II – burdensome working conditions (13%), III – favouritism as far as differences in pay and giving promotion are concerned (10%) and also III – unexpected changes and sudden turns, changes of decision, IV – poor work organisation (9%), V – low self-esteem in the eyes of supervisors, VI – supervisors’ subjective evaluation of work (7%), VI – the lack of possibility to openly express ideas, VI – the lack of support from the team representative (7%) as well as VII

– the lack of support in problematic situations (6%) (see Fig. 4AB, below).

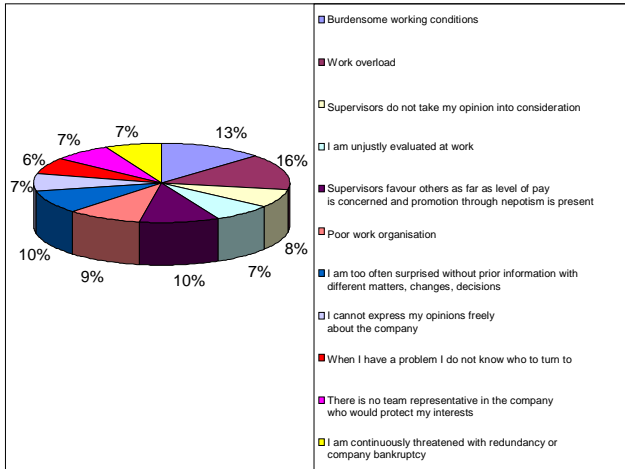


Fig. 4A. Distribution of attitudes towards stressogenic factors in organisation in group A

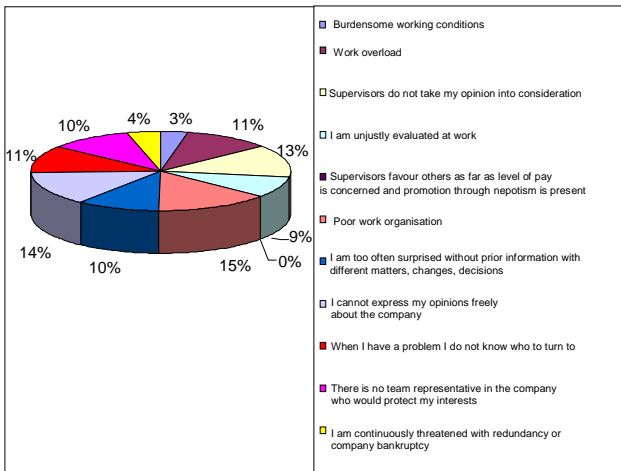


Fig. 4B. Distribution of attitudes towards stressogenic factors in organisation in group B

In case of the analysis of attitudes of employees from public companies, the leading stressogenic factor (importance I) is poor work organisation (15%), then the following (importance III) is the lack of ability to express ideas freely (14%) and supervisors not taking into account their subordinates' opinions (importance III, 13%). Whereas on the next consecutive positions are: IV – the lack of trusted supervisor or co-worker (11%) and work overload (11%), V – unexpected changes and surprising turns (10%) as well as lack of representative of employees' interests (10%), VI – unjust evaluation (9%), and finally the least important: the lack of appreciation in the supervisor's eyes (VII, 4%) and bur-

densome working conditions (VIII, 3%).

The oddity of the analysed distribution of attitudes is demonstrated in the fact that in bureaucracies, there is a complete lack of favouritism and nepotism as far as giving promotions and differences in pay are concerned, which is surprising enough and puts into question not only the common belief (that nepotism is widespread in public sector) but even the theories describing social occurrences shown in broad subject literature. What is also surprising is the fact that subjects from group B positively evaluate their supervisors in terms of taking into account their employees' opinions (compare Fig. 4AB, above).

It has been noticed that the most important difference in developing attitudes and opinions of the members of bureaucracy and adhocracy is based on the fact that the first group (bureaucracy) state that everyday working conditions are not burdensome for them, while the company employees claim the complete opposite – that they work in difficult conditions under time constraints, physical obstructions and are overworked. It should be mentioned that this kind of situation leads to, according to Tadeusz Tomaszewski's theory (theory of action), overstrain and psychophysical exhaustion, whose results can be damaging and very often irreversible (job burnout syndrome) for employee's work efficiency.

5.5. Direct supervisor in the spectrum of organisational climate

The analysis Over half of the subjects from group A believe that their supervisor is not able to infect them with enthusiasm and what makes the matter worse, in the eyes of their subordinates, he/she is rather a poor specialist (see Fig. 5AB).

Most of the time he/she does not take into consideration one's subordinates' opinions and makes decisions regardless of their arguments, dividing unjustly bonuses and rewards. In his/her actions a supervisor is goal-oriented, authoritative and uncompromising in goal pursuit, ignoring one's subordinates' opinions (almost 75%).

Apart from the above-mentioned pejorative features, in the opinion of subjects from group A: a supervisor is good at work organisation (c. 65%) and resolving problems within the team (58%), offering at the same time clear and sufficient information (71%) and engaging employees (about 65%).

In relation to attitudes of group B members, the research results are slightly different, in particular in terms of the evaluation of supervisor's professionalism whose competences not only leave no doubts but on the contrary distinguish him/her as a top class specialist (c.70%).

It should also be emphasised that in majority, the evaluations of management skills of direct supervisors in group B are positive. In most cases, the supervisor justly divides bonuses (61%) and takes into account employees' opinions (c.55%), which differentiates him/her from the supervisor from group A.

In light of the attitudes of all the subjects, among the characteristic features of management of the direct supervisor's, the same features are mentioned, being referents of *autocratic style of management* whose accelerator is the realisation of organisational goals.

It should be added that the direct supervisor in the opinion of bureaucracy and adhocracy workers has been, nevertheless, much higher noted than the organisation's management (see Fig. 2AB).

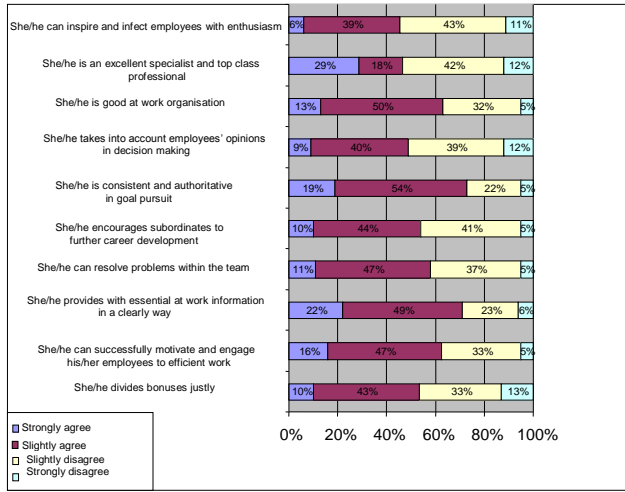


Fig. 5A. Distribution of attitudes towards the style of supervisor’s management in group A

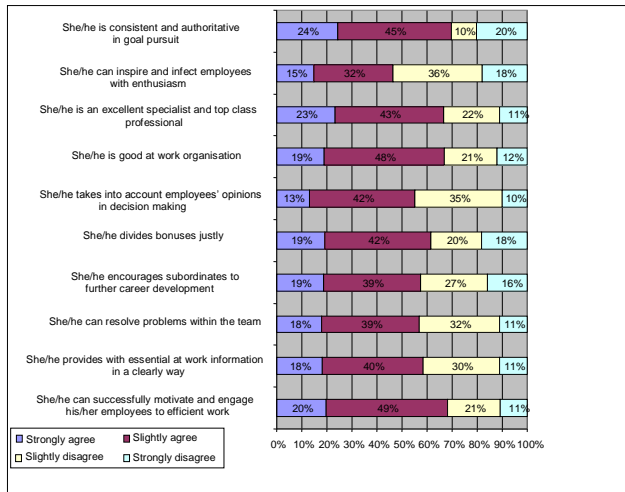


Fig. 5B. Distribution of attitudes towards the style of supervisor’s management in group B

5.6. Decision making rights in the spectrum of organisation climate

One of the questions asked to the workers of both public and market companies, was „which type of situation would satisfy you the most as a team member?“. It was a multiple choice type of question and subjects could choose from seven options. As a result of the conducted research the following distribution of answers has been obtained in both groups. Twice as often adhocracy workers (c.20%), in comparison to their colleagues from bureaucracy (10%), have pointed as satisfactory the situation of limited influence on

their supervisor’s decision who, although consults the decision with his/her team, also accepts any consequences herself/himself.

Reversed situation can be noticed when dealing with a situation in which the supervisor arbitrarily makes decisions informing her/his subordinates about them and requiring unquestioning obedience. Situation of this type has been satisfactory twice as often to the members of group B, which confirms the „internalised hierarchy syndrome” and „learned helplessness”– characterising bureaucracy.

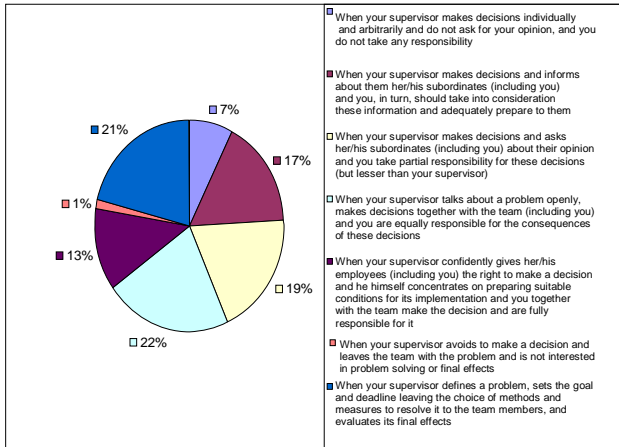


Fig. 6A. Distribution of attitudes towards participation in the decision making processes in group A

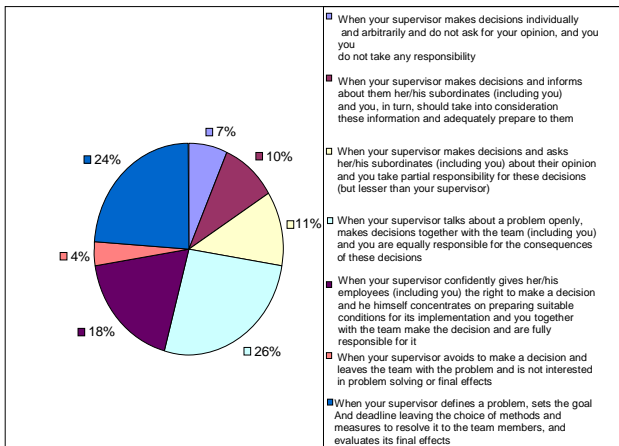


Fig. 6B. Distribution of attitudes towards participation in the decision making processes in group B

From the point of view of the sample from bureaucracy and adhocracy members, the following have been regarded as the most satisfactory decision making situations: co-decision and joint decision making responsibility (every fifth subject) and total decision making responsibility (preferred by every fifth interviewed), therefore, it may be concluded that almost 70% of the analysed members of organisational cultures prefer conditions in which they would influence organisational decision making without fearing the consequences and taking responsibility for them.

5.7. Loyalty in the spectrum of organisational climate

The research results demonstrate that predominant factor in making a decision to leave a company and start working for a rival company is the level of pay. The age of the subjects, their family situation, education background and time left to retirement etc. have been omitted. These data could, in some way, change the obtained results, nevertheless, observed attitudes are not at variance with documented thesis about motivation and existential influence of salary. Majority of the interviewed from both groups A and B (over 60%) would change their jobs, if the rate of pay rose considerably. Group B members (8%) more rarely would be inclined to do so, if they were offered lower basic salaries and performance-based bonuses, than subjects from group A (12%). Curiously, when offering subjects from group B to raise their salaries by half (over 20%) and doubling it (40%), an increased interest in rival companies is noticed. Bureaucratic loyalty has, therefore, a high price but is hardly realistic. In case of both groups of subjects there is a certain, stable – in terms of loyalty towards the company – group of workers, which in case of group B is only insignificantly bigger. Taking into consideration the previous research results, which show that bureaucracy workers are more content with the work environment as well as working conditions and rates of pay, the loyalty level as far as they are concerned is surprisingly low.

5.8. Employment stability in the spectrum of organisational climate

In the table shown below, which is taken from one of the scales of KMIDR questionnaire, a simulation of certain work situation is included and subjects from groups A and B were asked to choose alternative answers (Table 1, below). The content of the task reads as follows: „*let's assume that you are currently looking for a job. You have received a few job offers. Please choose one answer from each of the 6 pairs of job offers given (please mark your answers by putting „x” in the box, each time marking only one box)*”.

Table 1. Alternative answers in the set of multiple choice questions in the KMIDR questionnaire

No.	Content of the offer	X
1. A.	Genesis Inc. offers competitive rates of pay but does not guarantee employment stability	
1. B.	Museo Rosenbach Company offers rather low pay but guarantees long term employment stability	
2. A.	Banco del Mutuo offers competitive pay but do not offer any training possibilities	
2. B.	Premiata Forneria offers rather low pay but offers a lot of training opportunities	

3. A.	Yes Inc. offers attractive pay but at the same time employees do not influence decision making concerning their work (work organisation, distribution of bonuses, working conditions)	
3. B.	Jethro Tull Inc. offers rather low pay but at the same time employees influence decision making concerning their work (work organisation, distribution of bonuses, working conditions)	
4. A.	Nazareth Corporation guarantees long term employment stability but does not offer any training	
4. B.	Carravan Inc. does not offer long term employment stability but offers, on the other hand, a lot of training opportunities	
5. A.	Omega LLC. guarantees long term employment stability but simultaneously employees do not influence decision making concerning their work (work organisation, distribution of bonuses, working conditions)	
5. B.	Rush LLC does not guarantee long term employment stability but employees influence decision making concerning their work (work organisation, distribution of bonuses, working conditions)	
6. A.	Pink Floyd Inc. offers its employees a lot of training opportunities but simultaneously employees do not influence decision making concerning their work (work organisation, distribution of bonuses, working conditions)	
6. B.	Led Zeppelin Inc. does not offer its employees any training but employees, on the other hand, influence decision making concerning their work (work organisation, distribution of bonuses, working conditions)	

In the light of the obtained findings, it appears that the members of group A most willingly would choose the following job offers: „*Banco del Mutuo offers a very competitive rate of pay but does not offer any training possibilities*” (c.70%) and „*Museo Resenbach Company offers rather low pay but it guarantees, on the other hand, employment stability*” (53%) and „*Yes Inc. offers attractive pay but at the same time employees do not influence decision making concerning their work (work organisation, distribution of bonuses, working conditions)*” (55%); the remaining alternative offers have been treated with moderate optimism and the attitudes towards them have been distributed evenly. It means that half of the employed in adhocracies appreciate non- financial components of pay and their motivation is based not only on Herzberg’s hygiene factors but also encompasses satisfaction factors.

Attitudes of group B members are slightly different; they tend to choose offers by Banco del Mutuo (68%), Museo Rosenbach (62%) and Yes Inc. (52%) more willingly than members of group A. They also highly evaluated another job offer: „*Nazareth Corporation guarantees long term employment stability but does not offer any training*” (c.70%) and „*Omega LLC guarantees long term employment stability but simultaneously employees do not influence decision making concerning their work (work organisation, distribution of bonuses, working conditions)*” (61%). A diacritical model of attitudes towards financial and non-financial components of pay takes its extreme form in relation to the following job offer: „*Led Zeppelin Inc. does not offer its employees any training but employees, on the other hand, influence decision making concerning their work (work organisation, distribution of bonuses, working conditions)*”, which would be interesting to almost all the subjects from group B (c.85%).

They would ignore, however, the following job offer „*Pink Floyd Inc. offers its employees a lot of training opportunities but simultaneously employees do not have any*

influence on decisions concerning their work (work organisation, distribution of bonuses, working conditions)” (71%). Members of group B working in formal organisations prefer to influence decision-making concerning social factors, bonuses, division of labour, level of pay, significantly neglecting at the same time the need and will for their further professional development. It confirms the existence of the „learned helplessness” syndrome in bureaucracy. Attitudes of this type are reinforced by the present among bureaucracy members mechanisms of social influence with group thinking as well as the truths proclaimed at the front. Tendencies to possess power have also been revealed.

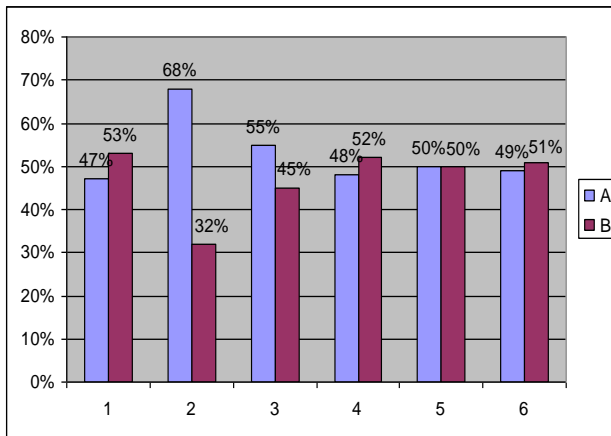


Fig. 7A. Distribution of attitudes towards employment stability and level of pay in group A

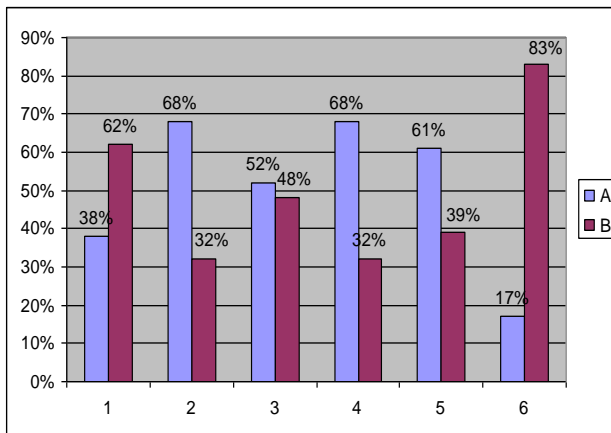


Fig. 7B. Distribution of attitudes towards employment stability and level of pay in group B

6. Verification of research hypotheses and conclusions

In light of the conducted research, it has been noted that organisational climate expressed in the form of workers’ attitude in a diacritical model of adhocracy and bureau-

cracy, is characterised by the existence of certain specific views, feelings and behaviours. Description of predominant values, norms and bundles of behaviours is presented by the *Diacritical Model of Organisational Climate of Bureaucracy and Adhocracy* (see Table 2, below).

Table 2. Diacritical Model of Organisational Climate of Bureaucracy and Adhocracy

Categories of organisational climate in the concept of Litwin & Stringer (1966)	Mechanistic organisation (Dominant features of the climate of bureaucracy according to the author's research)	Organic organisation (Dominant features of the climate of adhocracy according to the author's research)
Structure	aspiring to power & the need of power, need of employment stability, recognition of authority, subordination and admiration for one's supervisor, allocation of decision rights at higher levels of management, autocratic management style, centralisation, hierarchy of interpersonal relationships, distanced & hostile human relations, lack of incentive pay systems, lack of support, sense of alienation, poor organisation of work, etc.	need of accomplishments and development, financial & non-financial motivation, limited influence on decisions and organisational strategies, management by way of aims, physical & mental strain due to one's work, competition and tense interpersonal relationships, neglecting opinions of executive staff, nepotism, lack of rational criteria of awards and promotion, lack of incentive pay systems, unfair and biased judgement, etc.
Categories of organisational climate (cont.)	Mechanistic organisation (Dominant features of the climate of bureaucracy according to the author's research)	Organic organisation (Dominant features of the climate of adhocracy according to the author's research)
Responsibility	poor organisation of team work, subordinates have a sense of obligation towards the organisation, but do their work out of necessity; workers' loyalty has its price, they would change the company, but keep doing their work feeling underpaid due to the fear of losing it, they prefer situations in which they have an opportunity to make decisions in an autonomous way and be responsible for them, etc.	poor organisation of team work, subordinates have a sense of obligation towards the organisation, but do their work out of necessity; they are not entirely loyal towards their organisation, consider themselves responsible for it, but feel threatened and underappreciated, they are ready and inclined to bear responsibility in return for decision-making rights, etc.
Risk	need of professional stabilisation, recognition of superiors & management's competence, poor organisation of work; they would choose a job in which they would get a bigger salary, without the need for improving one's skills, etc.	the feeling of threat, attitudes of rivalry, unfriendly interpersonal relationships, stress caused by sudden change and unexpected reversal of situation, etc.

Warmth	distanced interpersonal relationships, fear of the lack of support from one's superiors etc.	relations based on rivalry, lack of decision-making influence, sense of obligation and excessive workload etc.
Support	lack of involvement in subordinates' matters, centralisation, limiting one's influence on organisational processes etc.	lack of involvement in subordinates' matters, centralisation, limiting one's influence on organisational processes, trainings and development of one's professional competence etc.
Standards	norms are: certainty of employment, pessimism, trained helplessness, attachment & priority for comfortable working conditions, apathy and reluctance to raise qualifications and develop professionally, truths told about the significance of the performed roles etc.	norms are: the feeling of helplessness, lack of influence on the management's decisions & organisational strategy, low self-esteem in the context of being evaluated by one's supervisors, necessity of doing one's work, feeling the lack of support etc.
Conflict	superiors solve conflicts effectively, exert influence with the use of formal authority; in a hierarchical organisation, the factor which supports modelling behaviours is the formalisation of processes, etc.	superiors solve conflicts effectively, exert influence by way of directive management style, using traditional methods of reinforcement, award & punishment; fear of losing one's job determines the type of relation, etc.
Identity	the work itself gives satisfaction, but it may be done for another employer, if he guarantees fairly comfortable and very financially attractive conditions etc.	the work done gives satisfaction, the more so if it gives employees an opportunity to meet existential, social and dictated by ambition needs.

Obtained results seem to prove the proposed research hypotheses, since by way of theoretical and empirical analysis no grounds for rejecting them have been discerned. Therefore, one ought to accept as true, in a spirit of Popper's disproof of hypotheses, these proving that:

- organisational culture manifested in organisational climate is in fact visible in characteristic attitudes of organisation members, expressed in the form of specific views and beliefs (element of knowledge), feelings (emotional element) and behaviours (behavioural element),
- in an area of attitudes towards organisational climate, differences in beliefs among the members of adhocracy and bureaucracy will appear,

which have been attempted to prove in the course of the presented findings and substantiated in the attached tabular juxtaposition.

CONCLUSIONS

As a result of the carried out discourse along with its findings, it seems completely justified to arrive at some final conclusions, among which the following have been recognised as entitled to be formulated:

- thesis one – organisational culture is expressed in specific attitudes of organisation members, which consist of three dimensions: knowledge, feelings and behaviours,

- thesis two – characterisation of attitudes is created by the influence of social mechanisms and the process of learning, which condition the forming of organisational culture,
- thesis three – climate prevailing in the organisation, which displays the qualities of culture present in the organisation, is expressed in attitudes,
- thesis four – organisation climate of state enterprises is different from the one of market enterprises, since the dissonance in this aspect is evident in the attitudes of their employees,
- thesis five – regardless of the type of organisation and the relevant culture, organisational climate of Polish companies both state and market does not express the atmosphere of joint participation, commitment as well as co-decision. An average market organisation ranked among *achievement culture*, in which innovativeness, creativity and ambition are so to speak dogmatically supported, and development in realities of Polish economy takes a degenerated form, which resembles only this type of culture, because it is also characterised by the atmosphere of rivalry. One tends to forget about the ethnocentric principle of objective and fair judgement, which in the face of the whole inconvenience of rules for working in achievement culture (the rat race syndrome), is characterised by simply stringent criteria of awarding and promoting. Protectionism excludes the evolutionary process of improving organisational mechanisms and processes, being the greatest enemy of progress based on progressive organisational culture. Civil service and state enterprises, ranked among *role culture*, in which work is controlled by means of procedures and regulations, and tasks as well as organisational aims are more significant than the person who fulfils them. Authority is divided here between the leader and bureaucratic structure, roles are clearly defined, and hierarchy, position and status acquire major significance. Hence, one may find it strange that in formalised, legal and rational conditions, members of this type of culture discern nepotism and organisational disorder,
- thesis six – the dominant method of development and improvement in organisational climate, and at the same time organisational culture, is investing in the progression of knowledge and intellectual capital of the organisation, which create favourable conditions to develop the right attitudes: innovativeness, creativity and resourcefulness.

A factor which diversifies organisations into various forms is the structure of their environment, and above all its stability, unpredictability and changeability¹⁷. Behaviours of the organisation in steady and predictable surroundings are characterised by monotony and specialisation in doing routine activities in conditions of strict hierarchy of authorities, and also explicitly and clearly determined job descriptions¹⁸. A model of a machine with specialised functions and high operating effectiveness becomes a metaphorical illustration of the characteristics of structure and activity of the bureaucratic type of organisation¹⁹.

¹⁷ K. Mrozowicz, *Klasy przedsiębiorczości w świetle teorii organizacji*, Nauka i Gospodarka, 2010/1, UE w Krakowie, Kraków 2010, p. 67.

¹⁸ M.J. Hatch, *Teoria organizacji*, PWN, Warszawa 2002, p. 88.

¹⁹ G. Morgan, op. cit., pp. 17-33.

In turbulent surroundings, subject to frequent and quick changes, which makes it for the organisation a source of permanent uncertainty, they need much higher expression and dynamics of action, elasticity of boundaries, structures, mechanisms and processes, also including adaptive skills, manifested in the improvement in the quality of social potential, as well as in the adaptation of technological processes in accordance with the demands of the environment²⁰. Allegorical models of living organisms, which similarly to living beings flexibly adapt to the changing circumstances and environmental conditions, accommodating to situations and adjusting their build and functions to the possibilities existing in the environment, are applied to adhocracy²¹. Elasticity corresponding to organic organisational forms (adhocracy, matrix, network, cluster etc.) increases creativity, innovativeness, adaptive and didactic abilities, and development of enterprise culture, based on multilateral, diverse and interdisciplinary management methods²². Logic and profitability of mechanisation, specialisation, routine as well as standardisation of knowledge, beliefs and behaviours may turn out more effective in monothematic, stable and hierarchical conditions. Tom Burns and George Stalker proved in a convincing way that dissimilar conditions of environment force the organisation to use distinct organisational activities, and the most effective ones from them are conditioned each time by the complexity and changeability of environment²³.

Finally, it is worth adding that the role of organisation does not restrict itself only to reactions to limitations and conditions, which the environment imposes upon its actions and the behaviour of their members, but includes active and innovative activity of its social potential, management in particular, in using appropriate management methods in order to facilitate its mechanisms adjusting it to unstable domination of environment.

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²⁰ M.J. Hatch, op. cit., p. 88.

²¹ G. Morgan, op. cit., pp. 41-79.

²² K. Mrozowicz, op. cit.

²³ T. Burns, G.M. Stalker, *The management of innovation*, Tavistock, London 1961.

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KLIMAT ORGANIZACYJNY JAKO OBRAZ KULTURY ORGANIZACJI (W ŚWIETLE BADAŃ ORGANIZACJI POLSKICH)

Artykuł jest próbą naukowej reprezentacji specyfiki kultury organizacyjnej polskich firm, a także różnic w zakresie kształtowania się atrybutów kultur organizacji państwowych oraz rynkowych, przy zastosowaniu empirycznej oceny postaw ich członków w stosunku do panującego w nich klimatu organizacyjnego.

Klimat organizacyjny rozumiany jest tutaj jako wizualizacja (unaocznienie, materializacja) „podświadomych”, głębokich i ukrytych przed otoczeniem organizacji, a także w pewnym sensie przed nią samą wartości, norm i artefaktów. Zjawisko klimatu organizacyjnego jest o tyle interesujące z naukowego punktu widzenia, że może ono ze względu na swój wolitionalny (członkowie organizacji mają możliwość), kongwistyczny (członkowie mają zdolność intelektualną), emocjonalny (członkowie są skłonni) i psychomotoryczny (członkowie posiadają kompetencje techniczne) charakter zostać poddane empirycznej weryfikacji w postawach pracowniczych. Jest też stosunkowo łatwo osiągalnym źródłem danych, co podnosi jego wartość praktyczną i obniża koszty badań. Klimat organizacyjny stanowi - w przyjętej przez autorów artykułu konwencji analitycznej - logiczną, intuicyjną, uogólnioną i zgeneralizowaną formę postrzegania oraz wyrażania przez społeczność (jednostkę, grupę, zespół) organizacji – w postaci odczuć, opinii oraz zachowań jej uczestników – cechującej ją kultury.

Celem badań uczyniono przeto analizę diakrytyczną klimatu organizacyjnego biurokracji i adhokracji (klimat organizacyjny w uznaniu autorów jest syntetycznym oraz integralnym odpowiednikiem kultury organizacji, traktowanym w ramach przyjętego paradygmatu synonimicznie), kształtujących się w polskich organizacjach.

Słowa kluczowe: kultura organizacyjna, kapitał ludzki, klimat organizacyjny

DOI: 10.7862/rz.2014.mmr.34

Tekst złożono w redakcji: wrzesień 2014

Przyjęto do druku: wrzesień 2014

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РАЗВИТИЕ ФОРМ УЧАСТИЯ НАСЕЛЕНИЯ В РЕШЕНИИ ВОПРОСОВ МЕСТНОГО ЗНАЧЕНИЯ: РЕТРОСПЕКТИВНЫЙ АНАЛИЗ

В статье представлен анализ современных и сформированных в прошлом тенденций относительно участия населения в решении вопросов местного значения. Рассматривается сущность и особенности территориальной общины как субъекта местного самоуправления согласно украинскому законодательству, выделены основные содержательные аспекты местного самоуправления применительно к данному исследованию.

Анализ эволюции общественных трансформаций на уровне местного самоуправления позволил сделать вывод о том, что идеи и практика самоуправления имели место ещё в глубокой древности (до возникновения государственности), преимущественной формой которого были народные собрания и советы старейшин, получившие в дальнейшем статус постоянных органов управления. Рассматриваются особенности вечевой демократии на территории Украины. Показаны специфические черты веча как важного института развития местного самоуправления, ставшего одним из органов государства, власть которого реализовывалась путём собрания полноправных граждан старшего города земли при участии населения предместий. Показаны особенности созыва, проведения веча и принятия решений.

Выделены причины быстрого распространения магдебургского права на территории Украины. Проведён хронологический анализ получения магдебургского права украинскими городами, что позволило выделить три категории таких городов, а также разделить такие города в зависимости от их статуса. Представлены особенности самоуправления населения городов на магдебургском праве, в частности структура органов местной власти, процедура местных выборов, проблемы в осуществлении на украинской территории.

Проведённый в статье анализ позволил сделать вывод о формировании института участия членов территориальной общины в структуре местного самоуправления в решении вопросов местного значения как определённой системы, которая является совокупностью организационных форм и институтов прямого самоуправления, с помощью которых реализуются принципы и функции местного самоуправления.

Ключевые слова: местное самоуправление, исторический анализ, власть, органы управления, вече, магдебургское право, участие жителей.

1. ВВЕДЕНИЕ

В условиях усовершенствования осуществления публичной власти в Украине появилась чрезвычайно сложная проблема реформирования местного управления,

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совершенствования форм и методов его осуществления. Принимая во внимание это, развитие института местного самоуправления является важным шагом в дальнейшей демократизации общественной жизни. Важность этого процесса обусловлена и тем, что само местное самоуправление выступает в качестве важной составляющей механизма реализации прав человека на местном уровне.

Недостаточное освещение теоретических и прикладных аспектов участия территориальных общин и образованных ими органов самоуправления населения в решении вопросов местного значения в науке государственного управления предопределяет важность разработки новых концептуальных подходов относительно усовершенствования форм непосредственной демократии на местном уровне. Важным также является разработка новых механизмов реализации права граждан на местное самоуправление с целью налаживания системного публичного диалога между властью и населением.

Конституционное закрепление за территориальной общиной статуса первичного субъекта местного самоуправления значит, что её члены также являются участниками управленческого процесса на локальном уровне. Современный этап развития местной демократии в Украине характеризуется повышением роли членов территориального общества в процессе принятия органами местного самоуправления управленческих решений. Местные советы пытаются налаживать сотрудничество с членами территориальных общин, привлекать их к общим мероприятиям с целью решения неотложных проблем. Дальнейшее развитие партнёрства органов местного самоуправления с населением должно стать залогом решения наиболее актуальных вопросов, которые волнуют жителей.

В исследовании обеспечения развития форм участия территориального общества в решении вопросов местного значения особое значение приобретает научно-теоретическое определение характеристика тех понятий, которые составляют непосредственное предметное поле данного исследования. Предоставление сущностной характеристики основных понятий требует проведения эмпирического, элементарно-теоретического и исторического анализа, который позволит выделить характерные качества исследуемого явления.

2. ЭВОЛЮЦИЯ ФОРМИРОВАНИЯ МЕСТНОЙ НЕПОСРЕДСТВЕННОЙ ДЕМОКРАТИИ НА ТЕРРИТОРИИ УКРАИНЫ

В соответствии со ст. 140 Конституции Украины и ст. 3 Закона Украины «О местном самоуправлении в Украине» граждане, которые относятся к соответствующим территориальным общинам, имеют право реализовывать право на участие в осуществлении местного самоуправления как непосредственно, так и через сельские, поселковые, городские советы и их исполнительные органы, а также через районные и областные советы, которые представляют общие интересы территориальных общин сел, поселков, городов².

Поскольку понятие «местное самоуправление» отображает комплексное и разнообразное явление, то его реализация порождает различные подходы к исследованию участия членов территориального общества в решении вопросов

² Конституція України : прийнята на п'ятій сесії Верховної Ради України 28 черв. 1996 р. – Режим доступу : <http://zakon4.rada.gov.ua/laws/show/254%D0%BA/96-%D0%B2%D1%80..>, С.9.

местного значения. В пределах данного предметного поля следует выделить такие содержательные аспекты местного самоуправления:

– право территориальной общины, как населения соответствующей территории, на самостоятельное разрешение местных дел (это предусматривает со стороны государства признание автономности местного самоуправления, его самостоятельности в пределах определённых законом, а также обязательство государства относительно создания необходимых условий для его осуществления, обеспечения судебной защитой и другими гарантиями);

– формы и способы осуществления территориальной общиной власти на местном уровне, которые обеспечивают самостоятельное решение гражданами вопросов местной жизни с учётом исторических и других местных традиций.

Одной из основных функций местного самоуправления является обеспечение участия населения в решении местных вопросов. Местное самоуправление способствует приближению власти к народу, созданию гибкого механизма местного управления с меньшей бюрократией, чем при централизованной системе управления. Это предусматривает развитие непосредственной демократии, создание условий для самостоятельного решения населением дел местного значения, поддержку инициатив и самостоятельности граждан, разных форм самоуправления.

Эволюция общественных трансформаций свидетельствует о том, что во все времена люди самоорганизовывались и объединялись в разные коллективы для самостоятельного решения своих неотложных проблем, обеспечения собственной жизнедеятельности и интересов. Общественное самоуправление было и является проявлением активности граждан, формы коллективного объединения людей, с помощью которых они добровольно и безвозмездно участвуют в разрешении конкретных дел местных сообществ. Оно является системой управления общественными делами, построенной на основе самоорганизации, самостоятельности

и саморегулирования. Общественное самоуправление – это одна из разновидностей и производных народовластия, и в то же время важный фактор его становления и развития.

Мировое сообщество сегодня в целом формулирует основные требования к осуществлению местного самоуправления, которые отвечают базовым признакам демократических государств, наработанные в течение многих веков. Такие страны и их административно-территориальные единицы должны были решать вопрос относительно того, допускать ли народ, как неосведомлённую массу, к управлению или избрать вариант, когда все проблемы на местном уровне должны разрешать избранные населением компетентные должностные лица. История доказала, что наиболее эффективным является не прибегать к крайностям, а выработать такую модель местного самоуправления, когда определяется степень участия населения, разрабатываются механизмы и формы взаимодействия власти и населения³. На каждом этапе исторического развития изменялся характер и масштабы местного самоуправления. Определённые объективные и субъективные причины функционирования народовластия содействовали росту политического сознания и

³ Заборова Е. Н. Участие граждан в управлении городом / Е. Н. Заборова // Социс. – 2002. – № 2. – С. 23 – 24.

политической культуре населения и как следствие – имели продуктивное влияние на улучшение общинного самоуправления.

Исторический опыт разных эпох и народов свидетельствует о том, что идеи и практика самоуправления восходят к глубокой древности, фактически начиная с первобытнообщинного строя. Они обеспечивали существование разных сообществ на принципах самоорганизации, развивались и обогащались, приобретая все более сложные формы на следующих ступенях исторического прогресса: от родоплеменного уклада, в котором управление осуществлялось на основе принципа первобытной демократии, к сложной организационной структуре управления государством. Такую связь можно проследить на примере эволюции народных собраний и советов старейшин, которые получили в дальнейшем статус постоянных органов управления (народных собраний «панку» у хеттов; китайских собраний свободных граждан «гожень»; индийских народных собраний «сабха» или «самити»; военных сходок индейцев Северной Америки; афинских народных собраний; римских комиций; народных собраний древних германцев; скандинавских «тингов»; древнерусского веча⁴.

Местное самоуправление в Украине также имеет давнюю историю. Как и многие другие общественно-политические институты нашей страны, оно развивалось достаточно самобытно и не равномерно, его результаты не всегда и не во всем совпадали со становлением этого явления в других странах. Однако, резкое противопоставление отечественного опыта зарубежному не является верным, потому что принципы гражданской активности населения, которые были реализованы в демократических государствах и Украине по содержанию похожи, особенно учитывая европейское влияния на осуществление отечественного городского самоуправления.

Среди важнейших особенностей украинского исторического пути следует выделить то, что страна на протяжении веков развивалась в достаточно сложной геополитической обстановке, была объектом многовековой агрессии сначала со стороны кочевых народов, а потом других стран, что отразилось на эволюции государства и условиях развития местного самоуправления. Невзирая на это, отечественные традиции местного самоуправления имеют глубокие корни, что обусловлено объективными историческими причинами.

Наиболее значимыми вехами формирования местной непосредственной демократии в Украине следует назвать самоуправление на Руси в виде вечевого самоуправления, а также введение и действие норм магдебургского права.

3. ВЕЧЕВАЯ ДЕМОКРАТИЯ КАК ФОРМА УЧАСТИЯ НАСЕЛЕНИЯ В РЕШЕНИИ ВОПРОСОВ МЕСТНОГО ЗНАЧЕНИЯ

Уже в начале становления Киевского государства определились общие черты местного самоуправления, его основные формы, признаки и некоторые параметры взаимодействия с центральной властью; непосредственное участие народа в местном самоуправлении; выборность должностных лиц; зависимость от центральной власти и подчинение ей по определённым кругу вопросов;

⁴ Коваленко Н. Е. Местное самоуправление как форма демократии: учеб. пособие / Н. Е. Коваленко. – СПб. : изд-во СПбГУЭФ, 2008. – С.55-56.

самостоятельность в решении заданий местного значения. Развитию самоуправления содействовал тот факт, что княжеская власть имела ограниченную возможность поставить под контроль децентрализованную земледельческую периферию, а рассеивание на большой территории небольших сел делало возможным осуществление преимущественно фискальной функции.

На Руси важнейшей особенностью городского самоуправления был его вечевого характер («вече» от старославянского «вет» – совет). Его происхождение имеет догосударственный характер. Как отмечал М. Грушевский, вече было элементом и давним (исходя из племенного самоуправления), и новым (приобрело новую политическую окраску под воздействием княжеско-дружинного уклада)⁵. С доисторическим происхождением веча (до IX века соглашается М. Владимирский-Буданов, давая его определение во времена Киевской Руси как органа государственной власти, которая реализуется путём собрания полноправных граждан старшего города земли)⁶.

Таким образом, государственное управление характеризовалось определённым дуализмом, когда одновременно существовала княжеская власть и вече. При этом граждане не относились враждебно к государству и князю, вечевого уклад позволял им свободно относиться к князю, как выразителю народной воли. Верховенство и первенство князя зависели от его индивидуальных способностей и качеств. Если народ был недоволен князем, то мог с помощью вечевого порядка призвать на княжеский престол того, кто не только имел родовое право его занять, но и казался самым идеальным правителем. Вече заключало с претендентом договор относительно управления государством, а при нарушении его условий – устраняло такого князя⁷. Возможно, именно с такими событиями связывают тот факт, что наибольшее развитие на территории Украины приобрело киевское вече, в других городах его деятельность была не такой значительной⁸.

Вече состояло из всех полноправных совершеннолетних граждан старшего города, участие жителей предместья также было возможным, потому что сохранялась идея всенародного участия в таких собраниях. В то же время, она практически не была реализована из-за того, что фактически собрать всех жителей большой территории в одном месте было невозможным, потому такое участие было случайным. Решения веча главного города были обязательными для предместья и сел⁹, которые составляли волость, поскольку их жители считали себя младшими относительно горожан. Сельская территориальная община в XI – XII веков (мир, задруга, вервь) сочетала в себе элементы соседского и семейного сообщества, которое занималось вопросами перераспределения земельных наделов,

⁵ Грушевський М. Історія України-Русі: в 11 т. / М. Грушевський. – К. : Наукова думка, 1991. – Т. 3. – С.209.

⁶ Владимирский-Буданов М. Ф. Обзор истории русского права / М. В. Владимирский-Буданов. – Ростов-на-Дону: Феникс, 1995. – С.74-75.

⁷ Тисяча років української суспільно-політичної думки; у 9 т. Т. 1 / упоряд. О. Сліпущко; редкол. Т. Гунчак [та ін.]. – К.: Дніпро, 2001. – С. 175-176.

⁸ Грушевський М. Історія України-Русі: в 11 т. / М. Грушевський. – К. : Наукова думка, 1991. – Т. 3. – С.210.

⁹ Чубатий М. Огляд історії українського права. Історія джерел та державного права : у 2 ч. Ч. 1 – Мюнхен: [б.в.], 1947. – С.71.

решением фискальных вопросов, ведением судебных тяжб и споров, расследованием преступлений и осуществлением наказаний. Именно для решения вопросов местного управления, как правило, могло собираться вече в предместье.

Если вече собиралось не для устранения и приглашения нового князя путём созыва звоном или криками, то сам князь мог его созывать и участвовать в нем вместе с боярской думой и духовными лицами. Решения принимались фактически подавляющим большинством голосов. Таким образом, вече не было органом одного (простонародного) класса и представляло власть общеземскую. В течение XI – XII веков влияние веча было значительным, принимая во внимание широту его прав в различных сферах: вечевого законодательства; внешней политики и мира; государственного строя (приглашение и смещение князей); судебной власти; текущего управления (замещение чиновников)¹⁰. Как отмечал Я. Падох, этот ранний демократизм был очень глубоким и сильным, органично связанным с мировоззрением украинского человека¹¹.

В XII – начале XIII веков местная власть сосредоточилась исключительно в руках князей, которые передавали свои властные полномочия и должность по наследству. В этих условиях на большинстве территорий древнерусского государства объем прав и полномочий органов местного самоуправления был перераспределён в пользу князя и его жены. Права веча существенно ограничивались, особенно при сильном князе и, наоборот, возрастали при слабом.

В связи с монголо-татарским нашествием старшие города утратили своё былое значение и практически ослабели, что привело к исчезновению такой формы местной демократии как вече. Общины потеряли свою роль самоуправных единиц, поскольку территории были экономически и политически парализованы. Этим самым в значительной степени была деформированна основа общества, которая представляла сословно-представительскую власть, концентрирующаяся главным образом в политико-экономических центрах территорий.

Общинно-вечевой строй Киевской Руси, который стал результатом эволюции давних начал жизни славянских племён, соответствовал таким же тенденциям развития и других европейских народов. Сформированное в результате городское управление было близким к европейскому, что способствовало быстрому распространению магдебургского права на территории Украины. Другими факторами его распространения была немецкая колонизация восточноевропейских стран XII – XV веков, в том числе и Украины; соответствие норм магдебургского права социальным и экономическим потребностям украинских городов, что позволило адаптировать один из вариантов немецкого городского права на отечественной почве; близость украинцев к европейской культуре.

4. РЕЦЕПЦИЯ МАГДЕБУРГСКОГО ПРАВА НА ТЕРРИТОРИИ УКРАИНЫ

Распространение магдебургского права в украинских городах была мирной, в отличие от получения коммунальных свобод городами стран Западной Европы. В

¹⁰ Владимирский-Буданов М. Ф. Обзор истории русского права / М. В. Владимирский-Буданов. – Ростов-на-Дону: Феникс, 1995. – С.81-82.

¹¹ Тисяча років української суспільно-політичної думки; у 9 т. Т. 1 / упоряд. О. Сліпущко; редкол. Т. Гунчак [та ін.]. – К.: Дніпро, 2001. – С.175-176.

городах, которые входили в состав Галицко-Волынского государства, а потом со середины XIV ст. Польского королевства, Великого княжества Литовского, Речи Посполитой, юридическое воплощение магдебургского права осуществлялось в результате усилий государственной власти и владельцев городов через заключение магдебургских грамот и других актов¹².

В научной литературе из-за недостаточности исторических источников отсутствует единая точка зрения относительно хронологии получения магдебургского права украинскими городами. Некоторые документы удостоверяют, что ещё во времена Галицко-Волынского княжества некоторые украинские города имели частичное магдебургское право. Одними из первых городов на этнических западно-украинских землях, которые получили привилегию на самоуправление по немецкому праву, были города Новый Сонч (1229/1294 г.), Львов (1287 г.), Владимир (1324 г.), Луцк (1287 г.)¹³. Наличие грамоты о предоставлении магдебургского права городу Сянок в 1339 г. засвидетельствовало бесспорно этот факт, но не стало подтверждением первенства этого города в получении такого права.

Исследователи насчитывают до 400 городов, городков и сел, которым в течение XIV – XVI веков было предоставлено самоуправление на немецком праве. Достаточно рано получили такое право города Закарпатья, которые входили в состав Венгрии (Хуст, Вышков, Тячев – с 1329 г.). Первой исторической датой, которая указывает на рецепцию немецкого права на восточно-украинских землях, является привилегия на магдебургию для Каменец-Подольского, предоставленная во времена Великого Княжества Литовского (в 1374 г.). Значительно более интенсивно немецкое право стало распространяться в центральной и восточной частях Украины с XV века (Кременец, Житомир, Киев, Ковель, Переяслав, Чигирин, Канев). Другим городам (Стародубу, Нежину, Чернигову) оно было предоставлено только в первой половине XVII века.

Хронологический анализ позволяет все города магдебургского права в Украине разделить на три категории. К первой относятся города преимущественно Правобережной Украины, которые получили такое право от литовских князей, польских и венгерских королей. Во вторую категорию входили города, которые получили привилегию на устройство по немецкому праву от их владельцев (например, города Лохвица, Лубны, Пирятин, Прилуки получили его в XVI ст. от князей Вишневецких), которое могло быть изменено или отменено. К третьей категории принадлежали города, которым магдебургское право было дано грамотами гетманов после присоединения Украины к Московскому государству (в 1752 г. Полтаве такое право было подарено гетманом К. Разумовским). До конца XVIII века магдебургское право получили почти все города Левобережной Украины. Грамоты гетманов преимущественно подтверждали права городов Украины на самоуправление, которое они получили, находясь ещё под литовским и польским господством.

¹² Грушевський М. Історія України-Русі: в 11 т. / М. Грушевський. – К.: Наукова думка, 1991. – Т. 5. – С.225, 227, 11.

¹³ Яремчук В. Бондарчук Я. Магдебурзьке право в Острозі: європейські традиції в українському. – Режим доступу: <http://www.day.kiev.ua/27245/>. – Назва з екрану.- С.120.

Исходя из статуса, учёные выделяют две группы магдебургских городов: города с полным магдебургским правом – магистратские города (Львов, Каменец, Киев), где формировались городские представительские органы власти – совет с бургомистром и лава с войтом, что составляли магистрат; города с полным магдебургским правом – ратушные города (все остальные).

Города с магдебургским правом получали самоуправление, что (как отмечено в магдебургской грамоте Львова) значило исключение его из-под юрисдикции всех административных и судебных органов государства, его общего законодательства и передачу под руководство войта¹⁴. Магдебургское право регламентировало порядок избрания городской власти, её функции, основные нормы гражданского и уголовного права, правила судопроизводства и налогообложения, определяло деятельность купеческих объединений, ремесленных цехов, порядок торговли и тому подобное.

Получение городами права самоуправления превращало их жителей в замкнутое, корпоративное сообщество. Мещанство выделилось в отдельную общественную группу, которая имела свои сословные органы самоуправления. Таким органом в крупных городах был выборный городской совет (магистрат), который, как правило, состоял из войта (возглавляющего магистрат), его помощников (бургомистров) и двух коллегий – совета (членов магистрата, ратманов, советников) и лавы (лавников, заседателей). Магистрат избирался городским населением (иногда войт назначался государственной властью). Количество членов магистрата в зависимости от размера города колебалось от 6 до 24 лиц. Из своего состава члены магистрата избирали бургомистра, который председательствовал на заседании совета.

Выборы осуществлялись ежегодно в заранее определённый день. В выборах участвовали все мещане города. Для членов городского самоуправления в разных городах устанавливался возрастной ценз – от 25 до 70 лет. Требования к кандидатам в органы городского самоуправления касались зажиточности («из мещан знатных..., не излишне богатых... и не очень скудных»), осёдлости («дома всегда жить»), личных качеств («постоянных, совестливых, рассудительных, добронравных и где могут быть учёных..., не ростовщиков»), гражданства («не иноверных и не иностранных»)¹⁵ и тому подобное.

Практически, одно из главных положений магдебургского права о годовом сроке пребывания в составе совета в украинских городах не соблюдалось. На должности городских правительственных чиновников попадали самые богатые жители, поэтому в составе совета были представители одних и тех же богатых семей в течение десятков лет. Злоупотребления властью в виде различных нарушений, притеснений и введения ограничений вызывали возмущение со стороны мещан и часто приводили к вооружённым столкновениям и восстаниям против старост и воевод (например, в Черкассах и Каневе в 1536 году, в Виннице и Брацлаве в 1541 году). В таких случаях, в отдельных городах создавались учреждения с контрольными функциями. Например, согласно привилегии короля Стефана

¹⁴ Грушевський М. Історія України-Русі: в 11 т. / М. Грушевський. – К.: Наукова думка, 1991. – Т. 5. – С. 232.

¹⁵ Дядиченко В. А. Нариси суспільно-політичного устрою Лівобережної України кінця XVII – початку XVIII ст. – К.: вид-во Академії наук Української РСР, 1959. – С. 284.

Батория в 1577 г. во Львове была образованна «коллегия 40 мужей», куда входили наполовину купцы и ремесленники, которых избирали пожизненно. Без её согласия магистрат не имел права проводить какие-либо операции с налогами и расходами.

В начале введения норм магдебургского права ими могли пользоваться только римо-католики, поскольку украинское православное население было отстранено от участия в органах самоуправления городов¹⁶. Во Львове, Дрогобыче, Перемышле, Каменке и других городах православные украинцы должны были проживать только в одной части города, все мещане-украинцы не имели права участвовать в жизни города по магдебургскому праву. Обращение львовских мещан с жалобой на национальные и религиозные гонения к королю Сигизмунду этого положения вещей не изменило, королевская грамота оставила все предыдущие притеснения украинского населения в силе. В то же время, были иные прецеденты, в частности в Киеве в 1506 г., когда киевские мещане добились отмены штрафа за зажигание ночью свеч.

В начале XIX ст. магдебургское право практически прекратило своё существование. Однако, внося определённые черты западноевропейского городского уклада в организацию самоуправления украинских городов, данное право стало одним из важных факторов сближения Украины с Западной Европой.

5. ВЫВОДЫ

Ретроспективный анализ показывает, что институт участия членов территориальной общины в решении вопросов местного значения представляет собой определённую систему, являющуюся совокупностью организационных форм и институтов прямого самоуправления, с помощью которых реализуются принципы и функции местного самоуправления. Такая деятельность должна быть организационно обеспечена комплексом методов и мер касательно взаимодействия членов территориальной общины между собой, а также с органами местного самоуправления и местными органами исполнительной власти в процессе решения вопросов местного значения. Кроме того, такое участие возможно при условии нормативного закрепления чётко очерченных организационных форм на законодательном уровне, наделения местных органов власти соответствующими полномочиями относительно привлечения населения к непосредственному участию в процессах местной демократии.

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¹⁶ Грушевський М. Історія України-Русі : в 11 т. / М. Грушевський. – К. : Наукова думка, 1991. – Т. 5. – С.238.

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DEVELOPMENT OF THE POPULATION PARTICIPATION FORMS IN DECISION MAKING ISSUES OF THE LOCAL CHARACTER: RETROSPECTIVE ANALYSIS

The article deals with the analysis of modern and formed earlier tendencies as to population participation in decision making issues of the local character. The essence and peculiarities of the territorial community as a subject of local self-government in accordance with Ukrainian legislation are considered, the main substantive aspects of local self-government in relation to this study are distinguished. The analysis of the evolution of the social transformations at the local government level allows to make conclusions that the ideas and practice of self-government occurred in ancient history (before statehood), the predominant forms of which were the people's assembly and the councils of elders, which received the status of the permanent government bodies. The peculiarities of the Veche (popular assembly) democracy in Ukraine are considered. The peculiarities of the convocation, holding Veche and decision-making are shown. The reasons for the rapid spread of the Magdeburg Law in the territory of Ukraine are distinguished. The chronological analysis of the Magdeburg Law, which allowed the Ukrainian cities to identify three categories of such cities, as well as separate cities depending on their status, is made. The peculiarities of urban self-government on the Magdeburg Law are represented. The analysis, made in the article, allows to conclude of the formation of the institute community members' participation in the structure of local self-government in decision making of issues of local significance as a system, which is a combination of organizational forms and institutions of direct self-government that help implement the principles and functions of local self-government.

Keywords: local self-government, historical analysis, power, administration organs, the Veche, the Magdeburg law, the participation of inhabitants.

DOI: 10.7862/rz.2014.mmr.35

Текст złożono w redakcji: sierpień 2014
Przyjęto do druku: wrzesień 2014

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IMPROVING LABOR MARKET AS A STRATEGIC FACTOR IN ECONOMIC GROWTH

The article focuses on the labor market of the Ukraine and the meaning of human resources for economic growth.

The article deals with the effect of unemployment, which in the Ukraine is not only part of the market economy, but also the result of specific political and economic factors. The article deals with the content of research labor market on the brink of social, economic and psychological aspects. Proposed methodology which applied to determine the emotional state of the individual and the model of monetary panic on the coverage of mental and emotional mood of social groups or society as a whole. With increasing polarization in society is an urgent social justice and protection of the population and the demand for labor as the main source of income is the primary desire and goal at a time. According to the duality theory of mathematical programming (as a way of balancing the relationship between employers and workers), improving the labor market is a priority task, because according to parameters of official salary and assessment of professional knowledge and skills mathematical problem has not the solution, has no common points. Therefore the national economy should be developed according to economic laws, in spite of existing imbalances in the national economy, the people of the Ukraine deserve adequate assessment of their knowledge and skills and, therefore, have possibility to exercise their moral and material needs. Proved that the most important measure of social-economic policy of Ukraine is the formation of a qualitatively new economy, the basis of which is the humane, rational, efficient use of labor resources.

Keywords: economics, increase, labour force, duality theory.

RAISING THE QUESTION

Economic growth is the main indicator of development and prosperity of any country, one of the chief macroeconomic objectives. It is essential to achieve accelerated growth of national income compared to the amount of population.

Socio-labour relations are the cornerstone of the entire system of relations in the society. Improving utilization of human resources is of strategic importance for further development of the global and national economies.

The labour market is the most difficult element of the market economy, which not only links the interests of workers and employers in price for the services provided and working conditions, but also shows the socio-economic changes. The labour market performs both general and specific functions, presents the correlation between supply and demand of labour force and reflects current state of affairs in the industry.

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Thus, the concept of human development is based on inability to make social progress equal to growing income: economy exists for people's development, and not vice versa².

The aim of the article is to study the problems of formation of the national labour market and of harmonization of socio-labour relations.

ANALYSIS OF RECENT RESEARCH AND PUBLICATIONS

The issue of labour force has always been of great interest among national and foreign scientists. The following researchers paid their attention to this problem: S. Bandur, V. Geyets, V. Inozemtsev, V. Goyko, A. Klepach, A. Kolot, Yu.Krasnov, B. Danylyshyn, L. Pashko, B. Bilobrova, V. Vasylchenko, S. Zlupko, B. Paskhaver, D. Bogynya, V. Kutsenko, L. Semiv, E. Libanova, S. Pyrozhkova, I. Petrova and others.

However, despite the significant achievements of scientists in the study of this topic, it still requires further research because of its extreme complexity.

UNSOLVED ASPECTS OF THE PROBLEM

The twenty-first century is the century of the information society, which implies increasing importance of science, education, information, innovative technologies, and human intelligence in general that is highly marketable and, therefore, has a number of specific properties. This non-material product creates a material basis of economic activity and serves as an important factor for economic growth.

However, often the ideas generated in Ukraine are not put into practice in this country and, therefore, benefit some other foreign economy instead of the national one.

THE RESEARCH RESULTS

The state of socio-labour relations is influenced by the unemployment rate, which is a component of the market economy and is one of its negative consequences. It should be noted that the unemployment rate in the Ukraine is lower than in the European Union, where in the 1st quarter of 2013 the average unemployment rate amounted to 11%, in particular, in Greece and Spain – 27%, in Croatia and Portugal – 18%, Ireland – 14%, Latvia – 12%³. Youth unemployment is one of the most acute problems as its rate is the highest as compared to the rate among other age groups, although this is a global tendency as well. Moreover, the process of employment of young specialists requires significant improvement.

High unemployment rate causes increased socio-economic stratification, lower income, deskilling of the labour force, under-utilization of manpower, which, in turn, means a loss of potential production of goods and services, psychological trauma and social conflicts. Vacant positions, existing along with unemployment, not only reflect under-utilization of labour force, but also show irrational utilization of the main means of production. There are numerous reasons that cause this situation, among them low salaries for these vacancies, poor working conditions, high intensity of work, imbalance between

² The concept of humanitarian development of Ukraine for the period until 2020 (2011), available at: https://docs.google.com/view?url=http://www.kultura.pl.ua/images/doks/koncepciya_hum_rozvytku.pdf.

³ M.V. Lazebna, *Quality of employment of people should be in the first place*, "Rynok pratsi ta zajniatist' nase-lennia" 2013/3, p. 3.

demand and supply of jobs, which results in significant economic and social distortions and losses⁴.

The complex study of economic, social and psychological aspects of the labour market is extremely important and topical.

When making effective decisions agents of the market economy pay more and more attention to the emotional component of an individual, which sometimes can form the opinion of not only a separate specialist, but of a certain social group.

Mental and emotional aspects and their impact on labour productivity are investigated by many scientists, including V. Vitlinsky⁵, who indicates the existence of problems related to internal and external adjustments of individuals to risks.

Thus, external adjustment to risk (introversion) lies in an attempt to modify external conditions, whilst internal adjustment to risk (extraversion) is characteristic of those individuals, who do not believe in control over external circumstances or in the possibility to influence them.

Stress caused by unemployment can result in a life crisis (it has been proved that everyone has a predisposition to it), but attitude to this situation varies depending on individual, inherited or acquired, internal resources⁶.

Psychological tests show that the level of stress caused by a job loss is the same as the level of stress caused by the death of a dear person⁷.

This approach helps to distinguish a vector of individual condition, which provides quantitative assessment of the state of an individual in a given period of time defined by a new event that changes the coordinates of the vector.

The vector of individual condition (VIC) contains values of emotional and rational individual experience. Coordinates of the vector are **n** elements that show positive emotions at this exact moment (or those saved in memory), **m** elements that denote negative emotions, **p** element that stands for rationality corresponding to the existing practical experience about a changing event and **h** element that defines theoretical knowledge of this individual⁸.

Thus, the vector of individual condition of a person taking a decision is as follows:

$$\text{VIC} = (e_{o1}, e_{o2}, \dots, e_{on}, e_{p1}, e_{p2}, \dots, e_{pm}, e_p, e_h),$$

where the first **n** elements of the vector and the last two elements take values 0 or 1 depending on the availability of this emotion now or in memory, the following **m** elements may take values 0, -1, -2, depending on the degree of negative emotions. The dif-

⁴ A.M. Kolot, *Sotsial'no-trudova sfera: stan vidnosyn, novi vyklyky, tendentsii rozvytku* [Socio-labour sector: the state of relations, challenges and trends], Kyiv'skyj Natsional'nyj ekonomichnyy universytet im. V.Het'mana, Kyiv 2010, p. 45; L.M. Yemel'ianenko, *Sotsial'no-ekonomichni dominanty liuds'koho i tekhnolohichnoho rozvytku Ukrainy* [Social and economic dominants of human and technological development of Ukraine], NAN Ukrainy, Kyiv 2009, p. 34.

⁵ V.V. Vitlins'kyj, P.I. Verchenko, *Analiz, modeliuвання ta upravlinnia ekonomichnym ryzykom* [Analysis, modelling and management of economic risk], KNEU, Kyiv 2000, p. 12.

⁶ T.M. Tytarenko, *Zhyttievij svit osobystosti u mezhakh i za mezhamy budennosti* [The life of an individual within and beyond ordinary], Lybid', Kyiv 2003, p. 56.

⁷ I.M. Liashenko, I.M. Korobova, I.A. Horitsyna, *Modeliuвання ekonomichnykh, ekolohichnykh i sotsial'nykh protsesiv* [Modelling of economic, environmental and social processes], Vydavnycho-polihrafichnyj tsentr „Kyiv'skyj universytet”, Kyiv 2010, p. 163.

⁸ N.V. Apatova, *Formation of the vector of individual condition of an economic agent*, “Sbornik nauchnykh trudov V Mezhdunarodnoj shkoly-simpoziuma AMUR” 2011, TNU im. V.I.Vernadskogo, Ukraine, p. 16.

ference in the range of positive and negative emotions can be even larger, which is explained by the fact that negative emotions are stronger and stay for a longer period of time in the memory of an individual. Leading psychologists state that negative emotions remain in the memory 3-4 times longer than the positive ones (ratio 80/20).

The methodology shows that the sum of coordinates of the vector of individual condition is the actual state of an individual at a given moment of time. It is obvious that as soon as an individual receives new external signals, the quantitative assessment of the vector will change and will serve as the characteristics of the individual under given circumstances for the corresponding period of time.

It should be mentioned that the psycho-emotional state of the population is always taken into account when creating the model of currency panic.

Panic is characterized as an avalanche, chain process. In socio-economic terms this effect on population can be caused by exchange panic, advertising, sales, state of affairs at the real estate market or market of precious metals, elections, revolutions etc.

As for the model of currency panic, let us assume that the amount of money owners is big. We can say that people willing to change the money to currency are 'contaminated' with a panic virus, if they communicate their desire to exchange money to other money owners who can be 'contaminated' or 'uncontaminated'. The downside of this approach is multiple records of people who were 'contaminated' several times because they got messages from other individuals at the same time⁹.

This approach provides an opportunity to efficiently tackle the issue of mood changes in the social groups, relieve social tension of the population and achieve harmonious microclimate in the company. It will not only improve the quality of decision-making, but also will affect moral satisfaction the employees receive from their work, and hence increase productivity and allow performing more accurate socio-economic forecasts for growth and development of the economic system.

Work is considered to be ideal when it brings moral and material fulfilment of human needs, but if it doesn't, it can cause discomfort, depression or social tension among the staff or the society as a whole. It should be noted that the issue of harmonization of relations between employers and workers is the most difficult issue at the labour market and in the society in general.

From 2001 to 2012 the number of religious organizations increased from 24311 to 34586, in addition, there were approximately 1914 unregistered religious organizations¹⁰. Respect and tolerance serve as the basis for healthy microclimate and diligent attitude to work. However, there is a thought that the amount of such organisations is also dependent on the socio-economic decrease of living standards.

Key aspects of quality of life include economic, social, political, demographic and intellectual development of the country.

Rising unemployment makes the poverty issue more acute, and, therefore, the role of social policy as a set of social and economic activities aimed at overall development of

⁹ T.S. Klebanova, N.A. Dubrovina, O.J. Poljakova, *Modelirovanie jekonomicheskoy dinamiki* [Modelling of economic dynamics], 2 ed., Izdatel'skij dom „INZhJeK”, Kharkiv 2005, p. 35.

¹⁰ *Statistical Yearbook of Ukraine for 2012*, Kyiv 2013, p. 56.

people and insuring appropriate quality of life, social justice and protection significantly increases¹¹.

Human development is treated as a criterion of social progress, as a means of increasing income, and is valuable only then when it really impacts people's welfare¹².

The demand for labour as the chief source of income and the labour supply affect the amount of income received as wages or salaries. So the main issue under discussion between a worker and an employer is a price for some amount of work to be done. This price defines both the *income* the worker will obtain and the *cost* the employer will pay for the work.

Such duality can also be observed in the fact that a person is a *manufacturer* of all material goods and services and simultaneously a *consumer* of these goods and services. Depending on the above given definitions, it can be stated that humanization should be the basis for labour relations, but in fact it is not always so.

Using the duality theory (the relations between workers and employers are of dual nature) allows to produce the following mathematic task:

$$Z = c_1x_1 + c_2x_2 + c_3x_3 + \dots + c_nx_n \rightarrow \max$$

$$a_{11}x_1 + a_{12}x_2 + a_{13}x_3 + \dots + a_{1n}x_n \leq b_1$$

$$a_{21}x_1 + a_{22}x_2 + a_{23}x_3 + \dots + a_{2n}x_n \leq b_2 \tag{1}$$

$$a_{m1}x_1 + a_{m2}x_2 + a_{m3}x_3 + \dots + a_{mn}x_n \leq b_m$$

$$x_j \geq 0, j = 1;2;n,$$

where $x_{1\dots n}$ – amount of the work of i-type done, units;

$c_{1\dots n}$ – wage/salary for the completed amount of work of i-type, currency units;

a_{ij} – time for completing the work of i-type, hours;

b_{im} – total amount of time for completing the work of i-type, hours.

Let us consider another task. Let us suppose that there is an employer that wants to hire manpower for satisfying the needs of his enterprise and who has a sufficient amount of material resources and money. Both the employer and the worker face the question about the amount of money the employer is willing to pay and the worker wants to obtain. If we denote the price of a corresponding labour unit as y_i , then the employer's task is to minimize costs for engaging manpower. However, the employee will agree to perform the task only if the amount of money received for carrying out professional activities is not

¹¹ O.V. Zhadan, *Sotsial'no-trudovi vidnosyny v umovakh hlobalizatsii: teoriia i praktyka derzhavnoho rehuliu-vannia* [Socio-labour relations in the context of globalization: theory and practice of state regulation], Natsional'na akademija derzhavnoho upravlinnja pry Prezydentovi Ukrainy, Kharkiv's'kyj rehional'nyj instytut derzhavnoho upravlinnja, Kharkiv 2012, p. 35.

¹² E.M. Libanova, E.M. Palij, *Rynok pratsi ta sotsial'nyj zakhyst* [Labour market and social security], Osnovy, Kyiv 2004, p. 11.

less than the amount of the expected income gained by hourly work or/and running own business. The mathematical form of this problem looks as follows:

$$\begin{aligned}
 W &= b_1 y_1 + b_2 y_2 + b_3 y_3 + \dots + b_m y_m \rightarrow \min \\
 a_{11} y_1 + a_{21} y_2 + a_{31} y_3 + \dots + a_{m1} y_m &\geq c_1 \\
 a_{12} y_1 + a_{22} y_2 + a_{32} y_3 + \dots + a_{m2} y_m &\geq c_2 \\
 a_{1n} y_1 + a_{2n} y_2 + a_{3n} y_3 + \dots + a_{mn} y_m &\geq c_n \\
 y_i &\geq 0, i = 1; 2; m,
 \end{aligned} \tag{2}$$

where y_i is the price for performing the work of i -type, currency units.

These two tasks are well known and paradigmatic, but clearly reflect the meaning and essence of the employee's wage/salary regardless of the form of the employer's enterprise¹³.

Task 2 is double (dual) or conjugated to Task 1, which is called straight, starting or given to Task 2.

The connection between the starting and dual tasks lies in the fact that the solution of one of these tasks can be obtained from the solution of another one.

A well developed tool for mathematical programming allows using computational procedures not only to elaborate the best plan, but also to make some meaningful economic conclusions based on the properties of the dual task.

The average wage under current conditions does not match moral or material expectations of employees. It is well known that the amount of one's wage in the Ukraine is the lowest in Europe. The share of wages in operating costs per unit of output is also low and does not meet the established European standards. In general, this rate in the industry of Ukraine is slightly higher than 9%, which is three times lower than in the industries of the European countries. It is also appropriate to note that inter-sectoral wage differentiation – up to 5.5 times – is unreasonable and contradicts the principle of compliance of an employee's wages with the level of his qualifications.

CONCLUSIONS AND PROSPECTS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH IN THE FIELD

The main functions of the state social policy during crisis are distributive and protective ones, i.e. they should guarantee a set of organizational legal and economic measures aimed at ensuring the well-being of every member of the society under specific economic conditions.

According to recent research, wages as the main component of labour income does not perform its essential functions, including insuring social security, as it remains very low.

Only sustainable economic growth can reduce poverty. However, poverty that results in primitive culture, poor education, training and ill health is a barrier to growth, espe-

¹³ *Matematicheskie metody optimizacii i jekonomicheskaja teorija* [Mathematical methods of optimization and economic theory], translated by G.I. Zhukova, F.Ja. Kel'man, Ajris-press, Moscow 2002, p. 15.

cially during the formation of a qualitatively new economy based on a humane, rational and efficient use of labour forces.

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СОВЕРШЕНСТВОВАНИЕ ФУНКЦИОНИРОВАНИЯ РЫНКА ТРУДА КАК СТРАТЕГИЧЕСКОГО ФАКТОРА ЭКОНОМИЧЕСКОГО РОСТА

В статье акцентируется внимание на рынке труда Украины, значении трудовых ресурсов для экономического роста.

Исследовано влияние безработицы, которая в Украине является не только составляющей рыночной экономики, но и результатом влияния особых политических

и экономических факторов. Раскрывается содержание исследований рынка труда на грани социальных, экономических и психологических аспектов. Использована методика по определению психоэмоционального состояния отдельной личности и модель валютной паники, по освещению психоэмоционального настроения социальной группы или общества в целом. При усилении поляризации в обществе становится насущной справедливость и защищенность населения, а спрос на труд как основной источник доходов является первоочередным желанием и задачей одновременно. Установлено, что согласно теории двойственности по математическому программированию, как способа уравнивания отношений между работодателем и работником, совершенствования рынка труда является первоочередной, так математически задача согласно показателей официальной заработной платы и оценки профессиональных знаний и умений не имеет решения, не имеет общих точек. Следовательно национальная экономика должна развиваться согласно экономических законов, несмотря на что просматриваются диспропорции в национальной экономике, что население Украины заслуживает адекватной оценки своих знаний и умений, и, соответственно, иметь возможность реализовывать свои моральные и материальные потребности. Доказано, что важным стратегическим мероприятием социально экономической политики Украины является формирование качественно новой экономики, основой которой является гуманное, рациональное, эффективное использование трудовых ресурсов.

Ключевые слова: экономика, рост, трудовые ресурсы, теория двойственности

DOI: 10.7862/rz.2014.mmr.36

Tekst złożono w redakcji: lipiec 2014

Przyjęto do druku: wrzesień 2014

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УЧАСТИЕ ТЕРРИТОРИАЛЬНОЙ ОБЩИНЫ В МЕСТНОМ ПУБЛИЧНОМ УПРАВЛЕНИИ: ПРОБЛЕМЫ И ПУТИ ИХ РЕШЕНИЯ

В статье рассматриваются проблемы низкого уровня участия членов сельских, поселковых, городских территориальных общин в решении вопросов местного значения в Украине и предложены пути их решения. Показаны процессы использования различных механизмов привлечения граждан к участию в местном публичном управлении в городах Украины, основанные на изучении мнения и выявлении приоритетов для населения касательно местной жизни путём их опроса и проведения анкетирования, объявления конкурсов и выдачи грантов, участия в Программе развития ООН. Анализируется понятие «социальное партнёрство» между территориальной общиной, муниципальными органами и органами государственной власти, представителями бизнес-структур, предприятиями разных форм собственности. Подчёркнуто, что отношения между субъектами местного самоуправления и государственными органами могут быть урегулированы путём передачи территориальным общинам большого количества прав и полномочий, которыми владеет государство. Определено приоритетное направление социального партнёрства представительских органов территориальной общины с жителями как деятельность органов местного самоуправления в сторону обеспечения интересов и потребностей обычного человека, который проживает на территории общины.

Определяется важность такого направления взаимодействия субъектов в сфере местного самоуправления, которое осуществляется на паритетной основе для вовлечения населения в процесс осуществления местного публичного управления в условиях реформирования местного самоуправления в Украине.

Показана значительность использования общественных совещательных советов (комитетов) как инструмента сотрудничества представителей территориальной общины и органов местного самоуправления на постоянной или временной основе. Выделяются вопросы, которыми должны заниматься постоянные и временные общественные советы, что может иметь значение для практической работы общественного совета и повлиять на результативность его деятельности.

Обосновывается необходимость проведения институциональных изменений в органах местного самоуправления и повышения уровня муниципального образования депутатов местных советов, должностных лиц местного самоуправления и граждан в рамках разработанной общегосударственной программы образования по вопросам местного самоуправления. Для граждан предлагается использование местных

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образовательных программ, основанных на принципах дифференциации и персонализации.

Ключевые слова: территориальная община, местное публичное управление, местное самоуправление, участие жителей, привлечение населения, реализация права на местное самоуправление.

1. ВВЕДЕНИЕ

Местное самоуправление не является тождественным общественному самоуправлению и, как легитимная форма самоорганизации местных сообществ, характеризуется политическим, гражданским и правовым аспектами, имеет институционную структуру, то есть является системой деятельности местных общин в сфере управления общественными и некоторыми государственными делами, адаптируя их к местным потребностям и условиям жизни населения. Местное самоуправление, как первичный уровень публичной власти и системы управления в государстве, в современном мире признается единственно возможным демократическим институтом управления местным сообществом, которое опирается на правовые нормы, а также традиции, обычаи и общественное мнение членов общины. Такая форма осуществления местной власти непосредственно приближена к жителям, что даёт возможность обеспечивать их потребности и интересы, участвовать в решении вопросов местной жизни.

В условиях реформирования публичного управления в Украине особенного внимания заслуживает необходимость использования потенциала самоорганизации населения в процессе решения местных проблем. Недостаточный уровень участия населения в принятии управленческих решений на локальном уровне, обусловленный причинами объективного и субъективного характера, актуализирует проведение исследований, посвящённых теоретическому обоснованию новых направлений привлечения членов территориальной общины к местной публичной жизни, а также разработку мер, направленных на повышение роли территориальной общины в осуществлении местного самоуправления.

В связи с этим, целью статьи является анализ сущности территориальных общин в Украине, выделение их специфических признаков в зависимости от определённого уровня, а также рассмотрение проблемных вопросов участия населения в местном самоуправлении и внесения предложений относительно повышения уровня участия населения в решении вопросов местного значения.

2. ОБОБЩЕНИЕ ПОДХОДОВ ОТНОСИТЕЛЬНО РЕАЛИЗАЦИИ ЧЛЕНАМИ ТЕРРИТОРИАЛЬНОЙ ОБЩИНЫ ПРАВА НА МЕСТНОЕ САМОУПРАВЛЕНИЕ

Местное самоуправление, как первичный уровень публичной власти и системы управления в государстве, в современном мире признается единственно возможным демократическим институтом управления местным сообществом, которое опирается на правовые нормы, а также традиции, обычаи и общественное мнение членов общины. Такая форма осуществления местной власти непосредственно приближена к жителям, что даёт возможность удовлетворять их потребности и интересы, участвовать в решении вопросов местной жизни. Местное самоуправление не является тождественным общественному самоуправлению и, как легитимная форма самоорганизации местных сообществ, характеризуется

политическим, гражданским и правовым аспектами, имеет институционную структуру, то есть является системой деятельности местных общин в сфере управления общественными и некоторыми государственными делами, адаптируя их к местным потребностям и условиям жизни населения.

Местное самоуправление, как институт публичной власти, имеет общественный характер и распространяется на всех членов общины, в частности на жителей каждой административно-территориальной единицы. Как замечает М. Баймуратов, при всем единстве публичной власти имеет место и существенная разница в её субъектном составе. Для публично-самоуправленческой власти характерно, что она осуществляется не государством, а специальным субъектом, который имеет особенный объект управления и другие имманентные качества, присущие такой власти³. Им выступают непосредственно жители городов, поселков и сел, объединённые в местные общины или представительские органы в лице советов, которые избираются жителями и действуют в интересах населения соответствующей общины. Низовые территориальные сообщества составляют наиболее общую субъектную основу местного самоуправления. Внешней формой их формального выражения в Украине выступают территориальные общины.

Обобщение разных подходов относительно сущности местных общин позволяет выделить виды территориальных общин в зависимости от их предметной деятельности, направленной на удовлетворение определённых потребностей (получение качественных услуг) в пределах конкретной территории проживания жителей общины. Как видится, первый уровень представлен территориальными общинами сел, поселков или городов, которые осуществляют свои полномочия непосредственно или через органы местного самоуправления. На втором уровне находятся объединения территориальных общин сел, поселков и городов. Такие объединения могут иметь характер постоянных или временных, что зависит от осуществляемых совместных проектов, при этом права и обязанности относительно реализации заданий по проектам будут осуществлять соответствующие местные советы. Третий уровень составляют «микрообщины», которые включают общины района в городе, микрорайон, квартал, улицы, дома и могут реализовать право на местное самоуправление непосредственно, через органы местного самоуправления или органы самоорганизации населения.

Несмотря на то, что основное бремя функциональной нагрузки относительно решения вопросов местного значения возложено на органы местного самоуправления, согласно украинскому законодательству территориальная община, как субъект местного самоуправления, имеет такие специфические признаки:

- признание и гарантированность деятельности территориальной общины как субъекта местного самоуправления на конституционном уровне;
- право жителей территориальной общины на местное самоуправление является специфической формой народовластия;
- местное самоуправление территориальной общины осуществляется с соблюдением прав и свобод человека и гражданина;
- законодательство закрепило возможность реализации права на местное самоуправление с помощью представительской или непосредственной демократии,

³ Баймуратов М. А. Муниципальная власть: актуальные проблемы становления и развития в Украине : монография / М. А. Баймуратов, В. А. Григорьев. – О. : Юридическая литература, 2003. – С.14.

которая предусматривает такую форму осуществления управленческих полномочий как самоорганизация и формирование соответствующих управленческих органов;

- самостоятельность территориальной общины при решении вопросов местного значения;
- единство прав и обязанностей территориальной общины;
- деятельность территориальной общины проходит в пределах и порядке, определённом действующим законодательством;
- территориальная община выступает одновременно в качестве объекта и субъекта управленческой деятельности;
- компетенция территориальной общины ограничивается решением вопросов местного значения;
- публичная власть территориальной общины носит локально-пространственный характер;
- обеспеченность и гарантирование права граждан на местное самоуправление предусмотрена на конституционном и законодательном уровнях.

3. ПРОБЛЕМЫ УЧАСТИЯ ЧЛЕНОВ ТЕРРИТОРИАЛЬНОЙ ОБЩИНЫ В МЕСТНОМ САМОУПРАВЛЕНИИ УКРАИНЫ

При разработке механизмов реализации гражданами права на местное самоуправление, которое предусматривает также привлечение жителей территориальных общин к решению вопросов местного значения органами местного самоуправления, необходимо учитывать вид населённого пункта – села, посёлка или города. От этого зависит непосредственное и опосредованное взаимодействие жителей определённой территории, межличностное общение, общий труд и отдых, общее пользование ресурсами территории, а также общие системы управления и распределения. В малых поселениях важную роль играют непосредственные контакты, общий труд, тесные семейные связи. В больших населённых пунктах преобладают связи опосредствованные общими инфраструктурными, производственными, управленческими элементами. Это является «объективной причиной формирования разных факторов самоуправленческой активности территориальных сообществ и разной организации механизмов самоуправления на территориях разного уровня»⁴.

Подавляющее большинство жителей городов получают информацию о деятельности местной власти через средства массовой информации. Определённая прослойка населения получает информацию через информационные городские сайты и сайты городских советов. К сожалению, они не содержат проекты документов, которые будут рассматриваться, а также решения, которые принимаются городскими советами. Общественные слушания проводятся в городах, как правило, не с целью услышать мнение жителей относительно очередного повышения коммунальных платежей, а предоставить информацию о неизбежности такого повышения, убедить население в необходимости осуществления такого шага. Кроме этого, если общественные слушания проводятся в течение рабочего дня, то большинство наёмных работников города не могут участвовать у них, территориальную общину

⁴ Демьянов Е. А. Территориальная общность как субъект самоуправленческой активности / Е. А. Демьянов // Проблемы местного самоуправления. – 2004. – № 2 (10). – С. 20 – 24.

при этом представляют неработоспособные лица и представители общественных организаций.

Формы и методы взаимодействия жителей сел и поселков с представителями органов местного самоуправления являются несколько иными, принимая во внимание относительно небольшое количество членов местной общины, наличие очень стойких социальных связей между его членами, в том числе и с должностными лицами соответствующих советов и исполкомов. Поэтому общение с сельскими и поселковыми должностными лицами может проводиться лично во время визита в исполком поселкового или сельского совета, или на собрании жителей. Как считает Н. Мишина, сельский сход является наиболее приемлемой формой локальной демократии для сельских населённых пунктов⁵. Это подтверждается и распространённой практикой их проведения. Впрочем полученная таким образом информация, как правило, касается уже принятых решений относительно жизни определённой территории. На принятие большинства проектов решений граждане практически не имеют возможности влиять. Хотя именно такое общение, в первую очередь, направлено на возможность для жителей отдалённых сел решить свои проблемы местного значения.

4. ПРАКТИЧЕСКИЙ ОПЫТ ПРИВЛЕЧЕНИЯ ЧЛЕНОВ ТЕРРИТОРИАЛЬНЫХ ОБЩИН В УКРАИНЕ К РЕШЕНИЮ ВОПРОСОВ МЕСТНОГО ЗНАЧЕНИЯ

В повышении эффективности осуществления местного самоуправления на территории общины важное место занимает изучение мнения и выявление приоритетов для населения в местной жизни. Наиболее целесообразным инструментом изучения общественного мнения остаются опрос и анкетирование. Как свидетельствует практика, опросы, которые проводятся органами местного самоуправления, являются действенной мерой определения приоритетов их работы в интересах местного населения. Подтверждением этому является опыт города Комсомольска, где было отобрано двадцать неотложных проблем города и задан вопрос жителям относительно определения уровня их важности. Результаты удивили местную власть тем, что те проблемы, на которые было потрачено больше всего средств и времени, не были первоочередными для общины, а на первом месте оказались вопросы, которым власть не уделяла внимания. Согласно этому опросу, главные для населения проблемы начали обсуждаться на общественных слушаниях и были реализованы соответствующие программы⁶.

Результаты опросов украинских граждан относительно степени доверия власти свидетельствуют о том, что население больше доверяет местным советам по сравнению с региональным и государственным уровнем⁷. По мнению Г. Линевича,

⁵ Мишина Н. Органи самоорганізації населення в населених пунктах міської та міської місцевості. – Режим доступу : <http://www.library.oridu.odessa.ua/>. – Назва з екрану.

⁶ Самостійність місцевих влад та розподіл повноважень між ними: організація місцевого самоврядування відповідно до принципів Європейської хартії місцевого самоврядування : матеріали міжн. конф., м. Київ, 11-12 черв. 2002 р. / упоряд. В. Кравченко, М. Пухтинський. – К. : Логос, 2002. – С. 90-91.

⁷ Линевич Г. Підстави для довіри і підтримки. Їх в Україні має лише місцева влада, в чому переконують черкаські самоврядні ініціативи // Розвиток громад і регіонів України / В. Гулак, Г. Линевич, О. Бойко-Бойчук [та ін.]; за ред. С. Максименка. – К.: Логос, 1999. – С. 14 – 15.

конкретным проявлением развития общины является объединение граждан на уровне микрорайонов, городских кварталов или улиц с целью решения общих проблем (начиная от оборудования детских площадок до проблем коммунальной сферы). Он предлагает как образец модель «процесса социального действия», которое включает такие этапы: выявление инициаторов (группа жителей); обсуждение возможных вариантов достижения цели; разработка конкретного плана; аккумуляция всех необходимых факторов и ресурсов через информирование по радио, телевидению, газеты и тому подобное; проведение и окончание работ. Такая модель является достаточно эффективной, принимая во внимание создание управления микрорайона, которое включает наиболее активных и инициативных жителей. Постоянным рабочим органом является правление, в состав которого, кроме жителей, входят депутаты городского и районного советов, избранные от микрорайона. Еженедельно правление на рабочих совещаниях разрешает текущие проблемы и при необходимости они выносятся на рассмотрение исполкома совета⁸.

В городе Первомайске ещё в 1999 году была введена новая технология привлечения населения и представителей деловых кругов города к решению социально значимых для городской общины проблем путём организации конкурсов и выдачи грантов из бюджета развития, а также введён ещё ряд инициатив налаживании диалога с жителями. Такие местные инициативы были восприняты городским советом достаточно осторожно, поскольку они задевали многочисленные личные и групповые интересы и выявили ряд проблем и противоречий⁹. Сегодня такие инструменты привлечения жителей к местному публичному управлению используются органами местного самоуправления достаточно часто.

Среди городов Украины, которые первыми начали и продолжают активно привлекать общественность к процессу принятия решений, следует выделить Комсомольск, Бердянск, Славутич и другие¹⁰. Например, в Комсомольске были проведены первые в Украине общественные слушания «Политика Комсомольского городского совета на современном этапе в решении городских проблем, которые сложились в сфере жизнедеятельности города в период экономического кризиса». Кроме этого, местная власть Комсомольска использует разнообразные формы и методы взаимодействия с местным населением. К ним относятся: общественные слушания, опросы общественного мнения, создания групп волонтеров, мероприятия относительно общественного просвещения населения путём сотрудничества с местными СМИ, привлечения жителей общества к социально-экономическому развитию города и стратегическому планированию¹¹.

Большое значение для развития общинного самоуправления имеет реализация Программы развития ООН (далее – ПРООН). Эта программа способствует

⁸ Там же, с.18-19.

⁹ Бойко-Бойчук О. Влада, бізнес і громада: шлях до конструктивного діалогу / О. Бойко-Бойчук // Розвиток громад і регіонів України: [Проект Київського центру Ін-ту Схід-Захід] / В. Гудак, Г. Лисневич, О. Бойко-Бойчук [та ін.]; за ред. С. Максименка. – К.: Логос, 1999. – С. 62-63.

¹⁰ Драган І. В. Сучасний стан взаємодії органів державного управління та місцевого самоврядування України з громадськістю / І. В. Драган // Держава та регіони. (Сер. «Державне управління») – 2007. – № 3. – С. 67.

¹¹ Шара Л. Крайній досвід громадських слухань в Україні / Л. Шара. – К.: Фонд «Європа ХХІ», 2002. – С.24,27.

установлению партнёрских отношений и распространяет положительный опыт в сфере расширения участия граждан в управлении, повышения ответственности власти и улучшения работы на всех уровнях. Кроме этого, ПРООН стремится помочь и поддержать субъекты местного самоуправления в вопросах повышения уровня предоставления разным слоям населения высококачественных общественных услуг. С момента подписания базового соглашения о предоставлении помощи ПРООН Украине в 1993 г. общие проекты ПРООН и Украины направлены на продвижение главных принципов демократического самоуправления на всех уровнях путём поддержки административной реформы и привлечения граждан к участию в процессе принятия решений. Введение ПРООН проектов в сфере местного самоуправления и их финансовая поддержка со стороны ЕС, сделали возможным значительное распространение положительного опыта относительно реализации проектов, ориентированных на социальное развитие общин Украины. На основе применения территориального подхода развивается потенциал партнёров проекта с целью привлечения жителей местных общин к самопомощи и решению местных проблем¹².

Учитывая приобретённый положительный совместный опыт Украины и европейских организаций по вопросам местного развития можно сделать вывод, что благосостояние территориальной общины и её успешное развитие в значительной степени зависит от формирования партнёрских отношений и координации совместной деятельности при решении местных проблем в системе власть – общество. Такое сотрудничество является следствием реализации одного из важнейших принципов демократического самоуправления – участия населения в процессах управления на всех его уровнях.

Сегодня в исследовании взаимодействия территориальной общины и местных органов власти вводится новый термин – «социальное партнёрство», который ещё до недавнего времени применялся только как средство достижения социального баланса между наёмными работниками, работодателями и государством, а в последнее время между органами государственной власти и общественными организациями¹³, а также через тесное социальное сотрудничество бизнеса, власти и жителей территориальной общины¹⁴. Как видится, с целью повышения уровня обеспечения жителей территориальных общин сёл, поселков и городов надлежащими услугами необходимо рассматривать установление отношений социального партнёрства как один из элементов взаимодействия на местном уровне между тремя субъектами: территориальным обществом, муниципальными органами, органами государственной власти. Сюда также можно включить, как отдельные стороны бизнес-структуры, предприятия разных форм собственности. Преимуществом социального партнёрства является равноправное участие всех субъектов местного самоуправления в осуществлении местного публичного управления.

¹² Напрями національної політики участі громадян у місцевому сталому розвитку : аналіт. документ № 1, січень 2007 р. – К. : Компанія ВАІТЕ, 2006. – С.11.

¹³ Новак В. В. Організаційно-правові питання соціального партнерства органів державної влади та громадських об'єднань в Україні : стан та перспективи розвитку : автореф. дис... канд. наук з держ. упр. : 25.00.01 / Новак Валентин Володимирович ; Інститут законодавства Верховної Ради України. – К., 2008. – С.

¹⁴ Бобровська О. Ю. Розвиток форм соціального партнерства в муніципальних утвореннях / О. Ю. Бобровська // Держава та регіони : наук.-вироб. журнал / редкол. : В.Л. Корінев (голов. ред.) [та ін.]. – Запоріжжя : Гуманітарний університет «ЗІДМУ», 2007. – № 3. – С. 17 – 22.

Под социальным партнёрством Е. Демьянов понимает совместную деятельность социальных объектов по достижению интересов, которые взаимно перекрещиваются (частично или полностью совпадают). Основанием социального партнёрства при этом является развитие структур местного самоуправления, повышение их деятельности через привлечение самоуправленческой активности территориальной общины¹⁵.

Развитие социального партнёрства на уровне местного самоуправления – государственная власть обусловлено тем, что, как формы публичной власти, они имеют единое происхождение и объективно не могут быть антагонистами и противодействовать друг другу. Невзирая на их функционирование на разных уровнях, они имеют единую правовую природу, в результате чего «обречены» на сосуществование и тесное взаимодействие¹⁶. По мнению С. Крыжановского, отношения между субъектами местного самоуправления и государственными органами могут быть урегулированы путём отказа от практики делегирования большого количества полномочий и передачи территориальным общинам прав и полномочий, которыми владеет государство. Социальное партнёрство же представительских органов территориальной общины с жителями должно быть, в первую очередь, направлено на деятельность органов местного самоуправления в сторону обеспечения интересов и потребностей обычного человека, который проживает на территории общины¹⁷. Такие отношения могут закрепляться на местном уровне специальным Соглашением о социальном (межсекторном) партнёрстве. Детализация отношений в зависимости от разных вопросов местной жизни может осуществляться специальными дополнительными договорами о взаимодействии, как это делается в Великобритании.

Позитивным для использования также является опыт Нидерландов, где в начале 1980-х гг. был принят закон о благосостоянии населения, направленный на обеспечение потребностей жителей общин. Главным принципом политики является социальное партнёрство и поиск достижения консенсуса в обществе. Например, из бюджета города Гааги значительная сумма выделяется на выполнение задачи по взаимодействию с населением. Каждый муниципалитет имеет свои научные отделы, которые занимаются выявлением потребностей жителей, их мнения, проблем. В небольшом городке Арнем проводятся около 20 опросов ежегодно, ведётся статистика, постоянный мониторинг общественного мнения, которое является основанием для выработки социальной политики в городе, отвечающей запросам жителей. Если должно проводиться строительство, то обязательно проводятся консультации с населением, общественными организациями. Для предоставления социальных услуг населению проводятся конкурсы или тендеры. Муниципалитет может передать выполнение некоторых своих функций органу территориального общественного самоуправления¹⁸.

¹⁵ Демьянов Е. А. Территориальная общность как субъект самоуправленческой активности / Е. А. Демьянов // Проблемы местного самоуправления. – 2004. – № 2 (10). – С. 23.

¹⁶ Глухачов Ф. Місцеве самоврядування в Україні: особливості його правової природи / Ф. Глухачов // Актуальні проблеми державного управління. – 2001. – № 1. – С. 41.

¹⁷ Крижанівський С. Територіальній громаді – належні повноваження / С. Крижанівський // Місцеве самоврядування. – 1998. – № 5 – 7 (14). – С. 139 – 140.

¹⁸ Гаврилова И. Н. Местное самоуправление и социальное партнерство в Нидерландах / И. Н. Гаврилова // Государственная власть и местное самоуправление. – 2005. – № 4. – С. 25.

К сотрудничеству органов местного самоуправления и территориальных общин могут быть привлечены общественные советы. В демократических странах местная власть, как правило, сотрудничает с общественными совещательными комитетами. Их функции заключаются в содействии и привлечению граждан к участию в процессах управления, а также информировании власти о потребностях граждан. В Украине недостаточная эффективность их деятельности связана с тем, что члены общины не заинтересованы в создании и функционировании таких органов. Их созданию мешает высокий уровень недоверия между властью и жителями, отсутствие определения их основных заданий, целей и функций деятельности, политическая ангажированность, игнорирование местной властью решений и рекомендаций общественных советов, отсутствие организационного, финансового обеспечения деятельности. Эти проблемы не могут быть устранены быстро, но, по инициативе органов местного самоуправления, которые готовы услышать мнение жителей и привлечь их к участию в управленческой деятельности, такая форма сотрудничества станет возможной в большинстве городов Украины. Конечно, более логичным является создание общественных комитетов по решению группы инициативных граждан. При этом местная власть должна поддерживать такие начинания и оказывать соответствующую материально-техническую и организационную поддержку, которая касается выделения места для проведения заседаний, подготовки повестки собраний, обеспечения доступа к информации совета и др.

Образование общественных советов имеет смысл в том случае, когда есть проблемы, решение которых требует постоянного участия населения. Поэтому целесообразно органу местного самоуправления сначала определить такие вопросы, а потом включиться в процесс деятельности общественного совета. Все это необходимо отображать в специальных положениях, утверждённых местным советом, учитывая тип общественного образования (постоянный или временный). Постоянные общественные советы могут заниматься вопросами бюджета и планирования, экономического развития, общественного транспорта, санитарии, жилья, образования, вопросами нетрудоспособных лиц и др. Временные советы могут образовываться для реализации конкретных проектов местных органов власти. Определение направления деятельности имеет большое значение для практической работы общественного совета, потому что именно это является признаком серьёзности и необходимости его образования. Полезные рекомендации общественных советов и положительные результаты их действий со временем приведут к одобрительной оценке жителями, а также повышению заинтересованности в их деятельности.

С целью организации изучения потребностей территориальной общины возможно в местных советах создавать отделы по соответствующим вопросам, которые бы занимались собственными исследованиями, обращаясь к независимым экспертам, местным организациям по вопросам мониторинга, общественным организациям относительно разработки и реализации методологии проведения исследований. Эффективность работы созданного специализированного отдела местного совета зависит от подбора и привлечения высококвалифицированных кадров, а деятельность внешней организации будет иметь пользу только в случае привлечения независимого профессионального исполнителя с достаточной институциональной возможностью и позитивным имиджем, политически непредвзятого.

5. УПРАВЛЕНЧЕСКОЕ ОБРАЗОВАНИЕ НАСЕЛЕНИЯ КАК НАПРАВЛЕНИЕ ПОВЫШЕНИЯ УРОВНЯ УЧАСТИЯ ЧЛЕНОВ ТЕРРИТОРИАЛЬНОЙ ОБЩИНЫ В МЕСТНОМ САМОУПРАВЛЕНИИ

Значительное количество граждан Украины не реализует предоставленное им право на участие в решении вопросов местного значения из-за незнания механизмов его реализации, а потому не может быть партнёром местной власти во время принятия управленческих решений и участия в управлении местными делами. Опыт развитых демократических стран свидетельствует о том, что переход к новой системе местного самоуправления, изменения в отношениях граждан и публичной власти не обходятся без управленческого образования населения. В странах Западной Европы и Северной Америки существуют общественные движения за доступ граждан к участию в местном самоуправлении, которые занимаются вопросами муниципального просвещения. Несомненно, Украине нужна общегосударственная программа образования по вопросам местного самоуправления, в основе которой была бы идея свободного доступа граждан к участию в местном публичном управлении. Кроме этого, на местном уровне также необходимо разрабатывать образовательные программы, основанные на принципах дифференциации и персонализации, то есть с учётом особенностей социального статуса, возраста, пола, культурного уровня людей.

Разработкой мероприятий относительно муниципального образования граждан должны заниматься специалисты по вопросам местного самоуправления, которые имеют соответствующее управленческое образование. Приобретённая в результате учёбы управленческая компетенция будет сочетать в себе как теоретическую подготовку, так и практический опыт управленческой деятельности в органах местного самоуправления. Особенно это важно при нынешнем низком уровне управленческой культуры как населения, так и должностных лиц местного самоуправления, которые не всегда понимают сущность государственно-управленческих процессов, не чувствуют связи между выполнением должностных инструкций и своим участием в муниципальном управлении, осознавая себя только наёмными работниками органа местного самоуправления. Получения тех знаний, которые предусмотрены программой профессиональной подготовки и переподготовки в рамках повышения квалификации, является недостаточным для применения их на практике. Заниматься самостоятельно учёбой избранные и должностные лица местного самоуправления не имеют возможности из-за значительной служебной нагрузки. Поэтому важной является разработка системы обучения депутатов местных советов и должностных лиц местного самоуправления по вопросам взаимодействия с местной общиной, что будет содействовать повышению как их муниципальной культуры, так и возможности привлечения граждан к решению вопросов местного значения.

6. ВЫВОДЫ

В значительной степени повышение уровня участия членов территориальной общины в местном публичном управлении зависит как от активности самих жителей, так и от желания управленцев допускать и привлекать население к решению вопросов локального значения. Обобщение опыта деятельности органов местного самоуправления в Украине показывает, что инициатива местных органов власти

всегда находит отклик со стороны граждан. В условиях демократизации местного публичного управления в Украине основной задачей органов местного самоуправления является использование тех механизмов, которые позволят убедить население в важности активного участия в управленческих процессах.

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TERRITORIAL COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION IN LOCAL PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION: PROBLEMS AND WAYS OF THEIR DECISION

The article considers the problems of the low level participation of villages, settlements, towns, cities territorial communities in decision making issues of local character in Ukraine and the ways of solutions which are offered. The processes of different mechanisms of citizens' involvement to participate in local public administration in the towns in Ukraine are described. They are based on examination of opinions and identification of priorities for population as to local life by conducting public inquiries and polls, announcement of competitions and grants, participation in the Development Program of the UNO.

The article examines the concept of "social partnership" among the territorial community, municipal bodies and state authorities, representatives of business structures, enterprises of different forms ownership. The importance of such directions of interaction of actors in the field of local self-government, which is carried out on a parity basis to involve local people in the process of implementation of the local public administration in the conditions of reforming local self-government in Ukraine, is defined. The issues that should be dealt with permanent and temporary public councils that may be relevant to the practical work of the public council and affect the efficiency of its activities are distinguished. The necessity to carry out institutional changes in local self-government bodies and raise the level of urban education of deputies of local councils, local government officials and citizens within the framework of the national program of education for local self-government is proved. It is offered to use local educational programs based on the principles of differentiation and personalization for citizens.

Keywords: territorial community, local public administration, local self-government, the participation of inhabitants.

DOI: 10.7862/rz.2014.mmr.37

Текст зложено в редакци: wrzesień 2014

Przyjęto do druku: październik 2014

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A PROCESS OF DYNAMIC TRADE SHOW ACTIVITY MANAGEMENT WITHIN A REAL ESTATE DEVELOPMENT PROJECT LIFE CYCLE

This paper presents a problem of the management of trade show activity in relation to the retail Real Estate development project life cycle of a huge shopping centre. Variability of that cycle in retail Real Estate business requires dynamic and flexible approach to the management of trade show activity, which is a complex process consisting of several stages. The aim of the paper is to recognise trade show activity of the retail Real Estate developers, who were not very experienced, in the duration of a full investment project life cycle of a big shopping centre. The research has included the activity of 6 large-sized shopping centre developers, who were not very experienced, in a period of about two and a half years. Throughout that time the developers participated in 7 consecutive trade shows for retail Real Estate market. There have been applied qualitative research methods: mystery visitor (as a type of participant observation) and unstructured interviews. Also, an analysis of information and advertising materials of the developers under research has been used. An analysis of the relation between the developers' activities performed at five stages of a project life cycle and trade show activity management at every of these stages has been explored and presented.

Keywords: B2B trade shows, trade show management, project life cycle, retail Real Estate development, participant observation.

1. BACKGROUND

A development activity of investment projects in the form of Real Estates with modern retail area can be categorised into a group of industrial services rendered by enterprises for enterprises (business to business – B2B). The purchasers and users of the services are entities that lease the floor space available in new shopping facilities. The most important tenants of shopping centres developed in Poland are, above all, international enterprises and a few domestic companies, which create retail trade networks and offer their own popular and strong brands. Those entities, which are called anchor tenants, lease the largest shopping spaces with the area ranging from 500 m² to even 10,000 m² and represent mainly retail trade businesses selling goods connected, for example, with: groceries, home and garden furnishings, household appliances, audio and video devices, sport, clothes and shoes.

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For above 5 years, the Polish development market in modern shopping areas has been perceived as the mature market with established investment project management rules. Having considered, for instance, the diversification of project management processes, one can distinguish the following types of modern shopping facilities: a shopping centre, an outlet, a retail park, a strip mall and a high street³. The authors of this paper have focused on the activity of the developers which developed medium- and large-sized shopping centres, i.e. with Gross Leasable Area (GLA) of above 25,000 m². B2B services rendered by this type of entities display the following characteristics: great complexity and diversification of processes, constant contact between a developer and potential tenants, long duration of a full service cycle, a considerable developer's risk, a high level of developer's capital commitment⁴.

The maturity of the Polish development market in large shopping centres shows diversified management processes with regard to this type of investment projects. They are carried out by experienced developers or the developers who have very little experience in the business. The first group includes predominantly international entities which offer not only development services, but also a wide range of services that support the growth of investment projects. The other group encompasses almost entirely domestic entities which – due to the fact of possessing a Real Estate situated in an attractive location suitable for a shopping facility – frequently decided to choose a strategic option related to investing in and developing a shopping centre. In the Real Estates intended for such facility, many of those entities had run before business activities connected with manufacturing or warehousing. Such entities perceive going into retail Real Estate development business as a one-time opportunity, rather than a long-term development strategy. However, there are examples of enterprises which have attained a competitive position in the business and remained permanently in it. High standards of the management of complex and usually risky investment projects necessitate, especially in the case of the developers who have little experience, making use of services provided by a number of specialist entities, for example lease brokers, legal and financial advisers, companies offering technical expert opinions, market research and analysis, architecture services or construction works. This paper presents the results of the research that has examined the trade show activity of the entities representing the second group of developers. For this group, participation in trade shows – apart from direct sale – is one of the most important forms of marketing activities conducted in order to lease area in shopping centres.

Having considered the medium term perspective of trade show activity planning, the dynamic management of exhibit activity in a variable investment project life cycle is a serious research problem. The aim of the paper is to recognise the trade show activity of the developers that are not very experienced, which occurs in the duration of a full investment project life cycle of a big shopping centre. There have been applied qualitative research methods, including participant observation and an unstructured interview. Furthermore, information and advertising materials of the developers under research have been analysed.

³ *Nowe obiekty zmieniają układ sił na mapach handlowych głównych miast*, "Rynek handlowy w Polsce – II kw. 2013", Jones Lang LaSalle, p. 2, <http://qbusiness.pl/uploads/Raporty/jllhandel22013.pdf> (accessed on: 8 July 2014).

⁴ D. Siemieniako, *Model zarządzania lojalnością relacyjną opartą na zobowiązaniu w związkach usługowych*, "Marketing i Rynek" 2012/5, p. 8.

2. TRADE SHOW ACTIVITY MANAGEMENT WITHIN A PROJECT LIFE CYCLE – LITERATURE REVIEW

The concepts of project and project management have been known and widely used for a long time, both in theory and practice⁵. According to Westland, project management is a combination of specialist knowledge, skills and experience necessary to reduce a risk throughout the project execution phase, as well as a set of various types of tools used by project managers⁶. Project management is also a series of different processes and techniques required to monitor and control the time, costs, quality and scope of a project. Lester proposed a definition of project management, which is a compilation of several definitions existing in the literature on the subject and contains all relevant elements. According to the author, project management is “the planning, monitoring and control of all aspects of a project and the motivation of all those involved in it, in order to achieve the project objectives within agreed criteria of time, cost and performance”⁷.

One can claim that projects go through a life cycle, from beginning to end. Projects may differ with regard to a size, diversification of activities and complexity, or in other words, the level of the intricacy of activities which require from contractors to have high qualifications. A project life cycle can be divided into stages which have their own unique features. Referring to the norms of British BS 6079 standards, Lester distinguishes 8 project life cycles⁸:

- 1) “concept: basic ideas, business case, statement of requirements, scope;
- 2) feasibility: tests for technical, commercial and financial viability, technical studies, investment appraisal, DCF, etc.;
- 3) evaluation: application for funds, stating risks, options, TCQ criteria;
- 4) authorization: approvals, permits, conditions, project strategy;
- 5) implementation: development design, procurement, fabrication, installation, commissioning;
- 6) completion: performance tests, hand-over to client, post project appraisal;
- 7) operation: revenue earning period, production, maintenance;
- 8) termination: close-down, decommissioning, disposal.”

A different and simpler approach to the project life cycle was presented by Westland, who sets forth four phases: initiation, planning, execution and closure⁹. In order to define

⁵ L. Lindkvist, J. Söderlund, F. Tell, *Managing product development projects: On the significance of fountains and deadlines*, “Organization Studies” 19/6 (1998), p. 931–951; J. Packendorff, *Inquiring into the temporary organization: New directions for project management research*, “Scandinavian Journal of Management” 11/4 (1995), p. 319–333; Hodgson D., Cicmil S., *The politics of standards in modern management: Making ‘the project’ a reality*, “Journal of Management Studies” 44/3 (2011), p. 431–450; J. Söderlund, *Theoretical foundations of project management: Suggestions for a pluralistic understanding*, [in:] *The Oxford handbook of project management*, ed. P.W.G. Morris, J.K. Pinto, J. Söderlund, Oxford University Press, Oxford 2011, p. 37–64; M. Hällgren, A. Söderholm, *Project-as-practice: New approach, new insights*, [in:] *The Oxford handbook of project management...*, p. 500–516.

⁶ J. Westland, *The Project Management Life Cycle: Complete Step-by-Step Methodology for Initiating, Planning, Executing & Closing a Project Successfully*, Kogan Page, London 2006, p. 3.

⁷ A. Lester, *Project Management, Planning and Control: Managing Engineering, Construction and Manufacturing Projects to PMI, APM and BSI Standards*, Butterworth-Heinemann, Jordan Hill 2007, p. 5.

⁸ *Ibidem*, p. 37.

⁹ J. Westland, *op. cit.*, p. 4–15.

the life cycle processes of a huge and complex development project, the authors have adopted this division.

Mainela and Ulkuniemi indicate three levels of personal interaction, which constitute the components of relationship management in business projects: person-to-person interactions, relationship and community¹⁰. Relationship management, referred to as partnering in development projects, is presented as an essential factor of success in project performance¹¹. In construction project relationship management Meng indicated the project partnering which represents short-term collaborative relationships, and strategic project partnering which describes the long-term collaborative relationships¹².

Trade show participation management is poorly described in the domestic literature on the subject. Similarly, the publications written by foreign authors devote very little attention to this issue as well. Very often, the exhibit activity management is presented from the angle of a single trade show performance¹³. And this fact has to be considered narrowing down, since a management perspective is limited in this case only to the activities performed during one trade show. Taking into account such a narrow presentation, within the process of preparing and giving a trade show performance one distinguishes the following stages: defining goals of the participation in trade shows, selecting a particular exhibit event, approving a budget, arranging and preparing a stall, creating advertising materials, selecting and training personnel, participation in the trade show (the exact trade show performance), follow-up activities. The above-mentioned process consists of the stages which include more detailed activities, repeated cyclically during consecutive trade show performances¹⁴.

However, the exhibit activity management can be understood in a broader sense – from the point of view of the whole marketing activities performed by one exhibitor during many events. Trade shows should not be used as a one-off, ad hoc activity. They can be used more effectively when: 1) they are viewed as a possible series of exhibitions; 2) they are integrated carefully with other communications tools; 3) they are selected and planned well in advance; and 4) their effectiveness is constantly measured¹⁵. Such strategic approach includes the long-term utilisation of exhibit marketing in order to achieve effectively goals of an organisation. Consequently, the participation in particular trade shows is not accidental (it results from the strategy which had been adopted before) and serves as a complementary element of the activities carried out during other trade show

¹⁰ T. Mainela, P. Ulkuniemi, *Personal interaction and customer relationship management in project business*, "Journal of Business & Industrial Marketing" 28/2 (2013), p. 105.

¹¹ A.M. Odeh, H.T. Battaineh, *Causes of construction delay: traditional contracts*, "International Journal of Project Management" 20/1 (2002), p. 67–73; X. Meng, *The effect of relationship management on project performance in construction*, "International Journal of Project Management" 30/2 (2012), p. 188–198.

¹² X. Meng, *op. cit.*, p. 194.

¹³ For instance: B. Siskind, *Powerful Exhibit Marketing: The Complete Guide to Successful Trade Shows, Conferences, and Consumer Shows*, John Wiley & Sons Canada, Mississauga 2005, p. 1–2; P. de Pelsmacker, M. Geuens, J. van den Bergh, *Marketing Communications: A European Perspective*, Pearson Education, Harlow 2010, p. 511–515; A. Batko, A. Borcuch, A. Mochoń, M. Piłat-Borcuch, U. Świerczyńska-Kaczor, *Rynek targowy: scena wystawców i organizatorów*, Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Humanistyczno-Przyrodniczego Jana Kochanowskiego, Kielce 2010, p. 13–14.

¹⁴ M. Gębarowski, *Współczesne targi. Skuteczne narzędzie komunikacji marketingowej*, Regan Press, Gdańsk 2010, p. 74.

¹⁵ P.R. Smith, Z. Zook, *Marketing Communications: Integrating Offline and Online with Social Media*, Kogan Page, London 2011, p. 403.

performances. Furthermore, such management perspective makes it possible to maintain cohesion between exhibit activity and promotion of all types (advertisement, personal sale, promotion of sale, public relations).

In the context of the subject of this paper, the key determinant of the trade show activity management – understood in a broader sense – is the area of the market on which an exhibitor occurs (B2B and B2C markets). The stage of a development project life cycle, which is being executed while taking part in a trade show, is also important.

It is accepted in the literature on the subject that trade shows play a special role in the marketing activities conducted by the entities which operate on the business-to-business market. The researches that have been carried out cyclically for more than several years by a German organisation, AUMA (*Ausstellungs- und Messeausschuss der Deutschen Wirtschaft*), demonstrate that economic trade shows and exhibitions are mentioned as the second (the first place is occupied by personal sale) most useful communication instruments for the attainment of sales goals on B2B markets. For the enterprises representing this sector, it is particularly important that the trade shows – owing to the fact that exhibitors can talk directly with visitors – let explain the complexity of products (including services) in a more efficient manner, compared to the majority of other communication instruments¹⁶. The exhibitors from business-to-business area should take into consideration the differences between B2B and B2C markets¹⁷. This entails, predominantly, adjusting a stall and the concept of offer positioning to the needs of customers from B2B sector, giving a proper form to a trade show performance so that there is an opportunity to hold discussions with specialists, ensuring appropriate preparation (factual knowledge) of the team representing an exhibitor, gathering detailed information on potential customers (in the context of prospecting), conducting follow-up activities consistently and completely¹⁸.

Within the exhibit activity management, a developer attempts to attain diversified marketing goals at each individual stage of a project life cycle, which necessitates modifying the components of his trade show performances – both physical components (stalls, showpieces, advertising materials) and non-physical elements (interactions with customers, atmosphere during discussions). The developers' trade show performances can reflect three dimensions: informative, promotional and commercial. Depending on the stage of a project life cycle, each of the dimensions strongly prevails or they occur to a similar extent. When the informative dimension is dominant, an exhibitor pays attention, first of all, to matter-of-fact argumentation, supporting a trade show demonstration with printed advertising materials and multimedia presentations. Should the promotional aspect be prevailing, a broad spectrum of the forms of influence on potential customers is used, as well as an appropriate atmosphere at a stall is created (according to the assumptions of experiential marketing). Contrary to the above, the commercial dimension concentrates on having more secret discussions, whose aim is to make a transaction.

¹⁶ S. Jensen, A. Nuneva, *Trade show as a brand management instrument in the B2B sector*, [in:] *Trade Show Management*, ed. M. Kirchgeorg, W. M. Dornscheidt, W. Giese, N. Stoeck, Gabler, Wiesbaden 2005, p. 1085.

¹⁷ Ph. Kotler, W. Pfoertsch, *B2B Brand Management*, Springer, Berlin-Heidelberg 2006, p. 20–34.

¹⁸ M. Gębarowski, *Zarządzanie udziałem w targach w kontekście działań marketingowych realizowanych na rynku B2B*, [in:] *Zarządzanie wobec współczesnych wyzwań społeczno-ekonomicznych. Księga jubileuszowa dedykowana Profesorowi Janowi Adamczykowi*, ed. J. Wiażewicz, Oficyna Wydawnicza Politechniki Rzeszowskiej, Rzeszów 2013, p. 79.

3. RESEARCH METHOD

As a research method, participant observation has been chosen, which can be categorised as a qualitative research method. Enterprises with a Polish capital, which were inexperienced or had very little experience in a retail Real Estate development business, served as research units, whereas decision-makers, project managers and board members, who were employed in those organisations, were subjects of the research. The research included 6 enterprises which were developing new (medium- or large-sized) shopping centres in Polish cities, with gross leasable areas (GLA) of 25,000 to 50,000 m². One of the enterprises under research, was developing two shopping facilities simultaneously, and the remaining companies were implementing one investment project. Some of the enterprises had run before manufacturing activity in the buildings located on the premises of the shopping centres to be developed. When the attractiveness of the land increased, its administrators and owners decided to carry out a development project related to a shopping activity. In the contrary to the above case, the other enterprises, which represented diverse businesses (such as development housing services), purchased the rights to Real Estates in order to develop a shopping centre.

The field research was conducted by one of the authors of this paper, who additionally, throughout the research period, was dealing with the project management of a huge shopping centre in a practical sense. The duration of the research was about two and a half years – from September 2011 to February 2014. It covered 7 consecutive cyclical exhibit events devoted to retail Real Estate market, including 2 world's biggest retail Real Estate trade shows, MAPIC, organised in Cannes (France), as well as 5 biggest trade shows held in Poland and East-Central Europe, Shopping Center Forum (SCF) – 3 autumn and 2 winter editions. The participation in the cyclical trade shows enabled the observation of the changes that occurred in development project execution and marketing activity of 6 indicated developers, whose representatives were present during the most of the trade show events in which the researcher also took part.

The basic method applied in the research was one of the varieties of participant observation – i.e. a mystery visitor¹⁹. Also, a few other qualitative methods have been used, such as unstructured interview, opinion poll, analysis of secondary materials (including trade publications and informative and advertising materials of the developer under research). For the mystery visitor method, observation questionnaires served as research tools. Furthermore, the researcher used a scenario of unstructured interview. The data collected from the observation questionnaires has been quantified and analysed. Regarding the unstructured interviews, the researcher took notes immediately after the interviews had been conducted. The approach adopted by the author can be called as triangulation, since many qualitative research methods were applied in different periods of the research²⁰. It fits squarely into an interpretive and symbolic paradigm of management sciences, which has been based, among other things, on the social constructionist epistemology²¹.

¹⁹ M. Gębarowski, D. Siemieniako, *Targi rynku nieruchomości handlowych w świetle badań metodą obserwacji uczestniczącej*, "Marketing i Rynek" 2014/9, p. 33–39.

²⁰ A.G. Woodside, E.J. Wilson, *Case study research methods for theory building*, "Journal of Business and Industrial Marketing" 18/6 (2003), p. 498.

²¹ Ł. Sułkowski, *Paradygmaty nauk o zarządzaniu*, "Współczesne Zarządzanie" 2013/2, p. 21.

4. RESULTS

The research results have been presented in addition to connecting each stage of a project life cycle with goals and activities referring to the trade show activity of exhibitors at individual stages. Such model enables to present systematically the developers' under research attitude towards the trade show activity management – both in the whole life cycle of the project and at individual stages of the cycle.

Table 1 illustrates the stages of a retail Real Estate development project life cycle and project management processes that comprise individual stages. Moreover, a typical duration of the stages, expected by customers, has been presented. For each stage of the project life cycle, the table shows also the dimensions of the trade show activity performed by the exhibitors that are the shopping centre developers, entering into the market and having little experience.

Table 1. The dimensions of exhibitors' trade show activity in a typical development project life cycle of a huge shopping centre

The stages of a retail Real Estate development project life cycle	Project management processes comprising individual stages	The duration of a stage	The dimensions of the trade show activity of the exhibitors who are entering into shopping centre development market
I. Project initiation	From identifying a development project as a strategic option to verifying the project as an attractive market opportunity for an investor	For 1 year	- informative (gathering information)
II. Project planning	From the investor's decision about commencing the project planning to obtaining a positive appraisal of project execution conditions	1.5-3 years	- informative (as above) - promotional (propagating an idea, project, creating an image)
III. Preparatory execution	From taking on first considerable financial obligations (e.g. placing an order for the preparation of architectural design) to declaring the readiness for ordering main construction works	1.5-2 years	- informative (as above) - promotional (as above) - commercial (negotiations, carrying out a transaction)
IV. Real execution	From ordering main construction works to receiving a certificate of occupancy	1.5-2 years	- mainly commercial
V. Project closure	From opening the shopping centre to finishing the processes of execution, commercialisation and financing	3-6 months	- mainly commercial

Source: Own elaboration.

The duration of **stage I (initiation)** can be completely different – 1 year, and even 5 or 10 years. A potential developer can observe and analyse the situation of an enterprise and micro and macro environment from the perspective of the readiness for the decision to initiate a development project. The results of the participant observation showed characteristic activities of the developers under research, which were carried out for stage I:

- conducting market research and analysis,

- identifying and analysing key factors conditioning the project execution, including for example: the absorption rate of the market – consumers and competition, the level of the Real Estate market attractiveness, adjusting communication system in the vicinity of the Real Estate, chance to get the financing of the project, the level of the competence and experience of own resources with regard to feasibility to implement the project,
- preparing a preliminary architectural conceptual design of the project and its strategic indications,
- testing the conceptual design among people from the business, in particular among experts and the representatives of shopping networks.

Within stage I, the developers attain the following goals connected with trade show activity:

- becoming acquainted with mechanisms and situations in the retail Real Estate business,
- getting to know expert opinions from the business, which refer to a preliminary concept of a shopping centre,
- gathering information – especially about tenants and existing and potential customers.

The participation of the developers under research in the trade shows was either a public or secret action, depending on whether they preferred to reveal their own intentions of shopping centre development or not. In the case of the public trade show activity, it is possible to arrange a meeting between a developer's representative and entities – especially experts – which are interesting for him or her.

At **stage II (planning)**, the developers usually performed the following activities:

- ensuring material, financial and human resources; creating conditions for operating in a proper legal and organisational structure,
- conducting market research and analyses by themselves and by using specialist entities,
- selecting a commercialisation agent in order to test the tenant market,
- ordering and preparing an architectural conceptual design with visualisations,
- preparing a strategic plan consisting of the following parts: (i) market analysis, (ii) commercialisation plan, (iii) promotion plan, technical execution plan, (iv) schedule, (v) financial plan,
- commencing the commercialisation – it is possible to conclude at this stage rental agreements with the entities that sell grocery items or house and garden furnishings, which require large areas for their business activities,
- commencing promotional activities (including public relations) of the project,
- ending all existing relationships due to which the Real Estate has to incur costs,
- taking advantage of or evaluating positively the opportunity to fulfil basic conditions of project execution.

Apart from the informative dimension, the objectives of the participation in trade shows at the planning stage had also the promotional aspects:

- gathering information about the situation in the business, financing, tenants, competitors and customers,
- getting acquainted with opinions, in particular the ones expressed by tenants, regarding the architectural conceptual design of the shopping centre,

- making the concept of the shopping centre recognisable,
- supporting the act of concluding rental agreements with the key anchors, for example with an entity selling grocery items or house and garden furnishings,
- forming personal relationships with people from the business.

Throughout stage II, the representatives of the developers under research took part in the trade shows as visitors, the most often in the presence of a commercialisation agent, who provided professional support regarding the lease of shopping area. Trade show meetings had been usually arranged before an event began, however, ad hoc meetings took place as well. The developers' representatives presented technical and advertising materials and promoted their own projects in relation to basic parameters, i.e. a location, information about the market, communication availability, zones of influence, a size, an advantage over competitors.

Within **stage III (preparatory execution)**, the developers under research indicated the following most important activities:

- performing promotional activities (including public relations),
- conducting commercialisation (including concluding the rental agreements with the key tenants),
- obtaining an approval for the project financing,
- producing an architectural building permit and/or detailed design,
- creating an interior design and land development plan,
- receiving a building permit,
- selecting specialist entities for the execution of the project, among others: the general contractor, a tenant coordinator, building control officers, a law office to support commercialisation process,
- carrying out preparatory construction works (e.g. demolition, clearing the Real Estate).

The biggest trade show activity of the developers under research was precisely during the preparatory execution of the project. Additionally, the commercial dimension of the participation in the trade shows occurred at this stage. Therefore, the objectives of the trade show activity concerned:

- gathering information about the situation in the business, financing, tenants, competitors and customers,
- building the credibility of the development project,
- informing tenants about the progress in the construction of the shopping centre,
- speeding up the process of concluding rental agreements with a bigger group of potential anchor tenants,
- strengthening the personal relationships with other trade show participants.

Similarly to the previous stage, the developers' representatives were accompanied during the trade shows by a commercialisation agent. It was of great importance to arrange the meetings in advance. The high point of the developers' trade show activity throughout the whole project life cycle involved using their own stalls, where the final visualisation of the project was presented in various forms, such as: a mock-up, multimedia presentations, printed materials, touch screens. The developers under research used their own stalls once or twice in a row during two consecutive trade show events. It was a common fact that the exhibit stalls were for the first time presented at the biggest trade show in Poland – SCF, during the autumn edition, and sometimes for the second time during the winter edition (which is smaller than the one organised in autumn). The developers were

given assistance from several commercialisation agents, law office representatives and interior designers. At stage III, the developers promoted during the trade shows the shopping centres under development process, putting a heavy emphasis upon the interior design and the progress in commercialisation. They presented the offer using various forms of printed advertising materials and trade show accessories. After closing their own stalls, they carried out short- and long-term activities intended for fulfilling the promises made during the trade shows.

At **stage IV (Real execution)**, the developers performed the following activities:

- technical execution of the shopping centre,
- commercialisation of the whole project,
- financial support of the investment,
- management of the Real Estate during the technical execution,
- coordination of shopping centre tenants,
- preparation of the shopping centre for the opening,
- process of obtaining the certificate of occupancy (an administrative procedure),
- preparation for handing-over the administrative control of the facility after its opening.

The trade show activity objectives were achieved mainly in the commercial dimension, and they involved:

- maintaining the credibility of the project,
- speeding up the process of concluding rental agreements with all potential tenants representing particular target groups,
- informing tenants about the progress in the technical execution and commercialisation.

The aim of the developers' participation in the trade shows as visitors was to complete negotiations with precisely indicated potential tenants of the shopping centre under construction. At this stage, the commercialisation agents provided very strong support. It should be also highlighted that short-term activities conducted after the trade shows had finished were important.

Stage V (project closure) can be defined with relation to the following activities:

- opening the shopping centre,
- completing all the execution-related and technical processes,
- finishing the commercialisation process,
- settling an account with the financing institution and commencing the process of discharging obligations after the opening,
- testing the processes of shopping centre management.

The developers under research, whose project life cycle was already at a completion stage, basically did not perform any trade show activity. However, due to the fact that at the time of the opening there were some shopping areas that had not been leased yet, the developers declared that they would participate in trade shows in the future in order to:

- inform the market about the fact of opening the shopping centre and effects of that fact,
- speed up the process of concluding rental agreements for the areas which were still not leased after the shopping centre had been opened,
- recommercialisation (leasing some of the areas again following the withdrawal of tenants).

At the completion stage, the representatives of some of the developers under research participated in the trade shows as visitors alone. It is not practised at this stage to use own stalls in order to avoid a feeling that too intensive marketing activities, relating to the shopping centre that is being promoted, are performed. Such actions – in the market opinion – could result in a negative judgement.

5. DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

The objective of this paper has been accomplished by presenting the activities at the individual stages of the investment project life cycle, which was implemented by domestic developers with little experience, in relation to the trade show activity management at each of the separate stages. The authors of this paper have identified and presented the development project life cycle of a huge shopping centre, which constitutes a copybook example. In Real, especially in the case of the developers that have little experience, the cycle is usually subject to many disruptions, which results in extending the duration of individual stages. It is worth noting that in the retail Real Estate business, the time for the execution of a huge investment project life cycle, which is expected by the market (among others, tenants and financing institutions), as of the date of giving an announcement in the market (stage II), is 4 to 7 years – the similar time period has been achieved in the results of the research (table 1). As a consequence of delay in project execution, a flexible approach to the management of various processes is required, including also the trade show activity process management. Therefore, the trade show activity management is by its very nature dynamic.

In general, one can observe that in the trade show activity management there are three characteristic periods, related to the progress in the investment project execution. The first period involves the management of the developer's representative participation in the trade shows, who performs a role of a visitor. The period is preliminary and entails the preparation of the investment project for execution (stage I and II of the project life cycle). Second period of the trade show activity management constitutes the high point in the project life cycle, and involves a one- or two-time trade show performance by a developer (stage III). And finally, third period means a drop in the developer's trade show activity and is connected with the completion of the investment project (stage IV and V). The boundary between second and third period is quite fluid, and it depends on the progress in the project execution. This is the point where the flexibility in the trade show activity management may occur.

The fact that the results presented herein are qualitative makes the research limited, and therefore no generalisation is allowed. However, the research enabled to notice in a long time changes in the activities of the entities in question. The research goal defined herein required to apply qualitative methods.

It can be expected that trade show activity management performed by experienced retail Real Estate developers, implementing many investment projects at the same time, at various stages of sophistication, would be different. A substantial quantity of projects under implementation and, additionally, a broader scope of services provided by such developers determine a more complicated, multifactor relationship between a life cycle of a particular project and a trade show activity. However, this problem is not the subject matter of the research presented in this paper. The authors recommend that the above-mentioned issue should be dealt with in the future. Further research related to the trade

show activity management of retail Real Estate developers may focus on a trade show performance by a particular developer from the perspective of the management of a promise given to tenants²². The management of experiential marketing by the exhibitors representing the business under analysis may constitute yet another, essential research problem.

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PROCES DYNAMICZNEGO ZARZĄDZANIA AKTYWNOŚCIĄ TARGOWĄ W CYKLU ŻYCIA PROJEKTU DEVELOPERSKIEGO

W artykule przedstawiono problematykę zarządzania aktywnością targową w odniesieniu do cyklu życia projektu deweloperskiego dużego centrum handlowego. Zmienność tego cyklu w branży nieruchomości handlowych wymaga dynamicznego i elastycznego podejścia do zarządzania udziałem w wydarzeniach wystawienniczych, który jest złożonym procesem, składającym się z kilku etapów. Celem artykułu jest rozpoznanie aktywności targowej mało doświadczonych (tj. dopiero wchodzących na rynek) deweloperów nieruchomości handlowych, rozciągniętej w czasie trwania pełnego cyklu życia projektu inwestycyjnego dużego centrum handlowego. Przyjęto, że cykl życia projektu deweloperskiego nieruchomości handlowych składa się z pięciu etapów: inicjacja projektu, planowanie projektu, realizacja przygotowawcza, realizacja właściwa, zamknięcie projektu. Każdy z etapów przedstawiono poprzez zdefiniowanie procesów zarządzania projektem właściwych dla poszczególnych etapów. W badaniu uwzględniono aktywność 6 mało doświadczonych deweloperów dużych centrów handlowych, w okresie około 2,5 roku. W tym czasie uczestniczyli oni w 7 kolejnych targach rynku nieruchomości handlowych. Wykorzystano jakościowe metody badawcze: mystery visitor (jako rodzaj obserwacji uczestniczącej) oraz wywiady swobodne. Zastosowano także analizę materiałów informacyjnych i reklamowych badanych deweloperów. Przedstawiono analizę powiązania działań badanych podmiotów w odniesieniu do pięciu etapów cyklu życia projektu deweloperskiego, z zarządzaniem aktywnością targową na każdym z tych etapów. Wskazano na dominujące, podczas realizacji poszczególnych faz, płaszczyzny aktywności targowej wystawców (spośród trzech rodzajów wymiarów: informacyjnego, promocyjnego, handlowego).

Słowa kluczowe: targi B2B, zarządzanie aktywnością targową, cykl życia projektu, deweloper nieruchomości handlowych, obserwacja uczestnicząca.

DOI: 10.7862/rz.2014.mmr.38

Tekst złożono w redakcji: wrzesień 2014
Przyjęto do druku: październik 2014

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PRODUCT IN THE SUSTAINABLE MARKETING CONCEPT

The achievement of economic goals while respecting the environment and considering social aspects without harming future generations is included in the area of sustainable development. A special role in sustainable marketing, which is part of a sustainable development, plays a product which is the most important component of a sustainable marketing mix. The area of interest is the strategy of product in sustainable marketing activities of businesses. The aim of this study is the analysis and summary of the major findings of the literature on the subject of the work. The paper is theoretical in nature and is based on literature studies in the field on the theme and the author's experience. Testing method applied is the study of literature based, inter alia, on the use of secondary sources such as: national and international scientific publications, scholarly articles, scholarly journals, magazines and trade directories, statistical yearbooks, conference materials, laws, internet information services. As a result of recognition of the state of knowledge in the field of sustainable marketing, including sustainable product strategy, it should be noted that this is a new and growing area of research that requires further analysis in theoretical and empirical terms. The presented solutions are designed to serve as a model and may be a signpost to the business operators.

Keywords: sustainable development, sustainable marketing, sustainable product

INTRODUCTION

The progressive development of civilization and the increase in the number of inhabitants of the Earth, prompts production companies to produce more and more products. An increasing number of the world's population contributes to the increase in demand for a variety of goods, which is reflected in the increase of production. Rapidly increasing production and sales is a source of income for the production organisation. The observed situation carries with it some risk to the environment. On one hand, manufacturing companies produce ever-increasing quantities of goods counting incomes on the sale, on the other hand, the increasing consumption contributes to environmental degradation. A countless number of products flood the world market, causing environmental and social problems. In order to reduce the negative impact of business production processes, companies should implement the concept of sustainable marketing, including strategy for sustainable product.

The sustainable marketing theory suggests a completely different approach to a range of marketing activities that were previously carried out by operators. Therefore, there is a need to extend knowledge through further theoretical and research analysis.

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Marketing and product strategy in the sustainable concept includes human affairs orientation, so the focus is on the man himself, future generations and the socio- environmental surrounding. The essence of sustainable marketing and product strategy as claimed by Gary Armstrong and Philip Kotler is to conduct business with respect for the environment that meets the needs of consumers and businesses while providing the ability to satisfy the needs of different generations or even increase their capacity to meet them in the future.

1. SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT IN THE ENTERPRISES MARKET

Sustainable development is a relatively new area included in the management sciences. Due to the seriousness of the issue, sustainable development is receiving more and more interest among scientists and the enterprise and social organisations itself. Kiefer Lee and Steve Carter argue that the origin of the term comes from the broad global debate on the environment. Undertaken global debate focuses on the problems of achieving sustainable development, which should meet the needs of the present generation and at the same time ensure the opportunity to meet such needs for future generations. This concept was discussed at the Earth Summit in Rio de Janeiro in 1992 and the Kyoto summit in 1997 and The Hague in 2000².

An increasing number of the world's population contributes to the increase in demand for various goods. This represents an increase in global demand for food, tangible products and services. To meet them, there is a need to increase the volume of production leading to the formation of new businesses and the expansion of the production capacity of existing entities. The effect of these changes is a greater demand for raw materials, water, fuel and other goods to enable the functioning of economies, including those of the enterprise. Enlargement of the society is accompanied by rapid economic growth. This results in a transformation of an increasing number of commodities into products, which further results in the significant energy and water consumption, formation of waste and toxic substances. Increasing global production and consumption (including the enterprise market) causes unheard in the history of mankind destruction in the natural environment³. Therefore, manufacturing and service companies should take on the concept of sustainable marketing, including the implementation of strategies for sustainable product. Citing Holger Rogall, it can be concluded that the Earth's natural resource consumption and pollutant emissions will increase. The author argues that after 280 years they will be a thousand times greater than it is today⁴. The presented information are alarming for the future of the next generations and their chances of development. Destruction of the environment is irreversible and it should be remembered that some minerals have limited resource.

The process of globalization has become a reality, and its impact covers all areas of social life, the economy, politics, culture, ecology and science. The prevailing economic globalization processes affects trade processes between the economic systems functioning in the world.

² K. Lee, S. Carter, *Global Marketing Management*, Oxford University Press, New York 2009.

³ A. Pabian, *Zrównoważony marketing na rynku przedsiębiorstw*, „Zeszyty Naukowe Uniwersytetu Ekonomicznego w Poznaniu”, Poznań 2012/226.

⁴ H. Rogall, *Ekonomia zrównoważonego rozwoju. Teoria i praktyka*, Zysk i S-ka, Poznań 2010.

Increasing social and economic disparities between the industrialized rich countries and developing countries where extreme poverty is increasingly deepening division between rich and poor. An example of social stratification of the world population is the problem of hunger. In rich countries of Western Europe and the United States, there are millions of tons of wasted food that goes in the trash, while the poor countries of Africa suffer famine. The population of the world in the 21st century cannot cope with the problem of hunger and poverty. The concept of sustainable development seems to be a useful solution to the growing problems of social, economic and environmental impacts. To implement the principle of sustainable development there must be a change of thinking of world leaders, politicians, managers, managing large corporations, and above all, of the population of the world that has the greatest impact on the political, social and economic changes in their own countries.

Sustainable development in the enterprise market means achieving its economic objectives by the company, taking into account environmental and social aspects contributing in this way to provide opportunities for the development of future generations or even increase of these opportunities.⁵ Promoting fairness in global trade, the rational exploitation of natural resources of the Earth, reducing harmful emissions generated in the production process, social sensitivity to violence, injustice, and the prevailing poverty and equitable distribution of wealth is the basis of sustainable development and improves the quality of life of modern societies.

2. SUSTAINABLE MARKETING OF ENTERPRISES

Marketing is the driving force of manufacturing and sales activities in most businesses. Marketing and production activities primarily affect the negative ecological and social processes. Production consumes vast quantities of raw materials necessary to produce goods. This produces a countless number of waste products and by-products. The task of sustainable marketing is balancing the emerging adverse effects on environmental and social grounds. Sustainable marketing, in order to be in full compliance, should include the following areas of activities⁶:

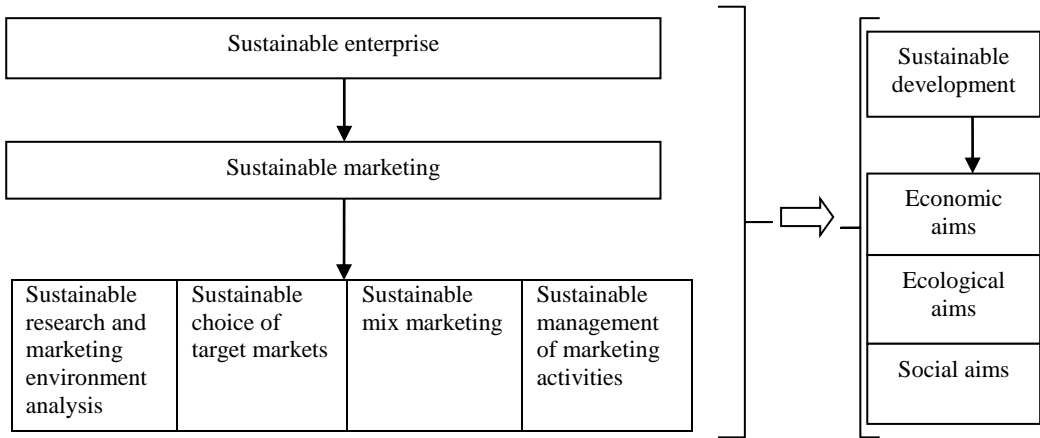
- sustainable research and analysis of business marketing environment;
- sustainable selection of target markets;
- sustainable marketing mix;
- sustainable management of marketing activities.

Through the implementation of these areas the company will be able to execute the ideas of sustainable development, which include the economic, ecological and social aims of an enterprise. The concept of sustainable marketing graphically is presented.

⁵ G. Armstrong, P. Kotler, *Marketing wprowadzenie*, Wolters Kluwer, Warszawa 2012.

⁶ A. Pabian, *op. cit.*

Figure 1. Sustainable marketing in a sustainable enterprise



Source: own work on basis A. Pabian, *Zrównoważony marketing na rynku przedsiębiorstw*, “Zeszyty Naukowe Uniwersytetu Ekonomicznego w Poznaniu” 2012/226, p. 128.

The concept of sustainable marketing is a new and not fully specified term. In the literature on marketing issues much space is devoted to this subject. In reviewing the literature it can be found, inter alia, the definition of sustainable marketing proposed by Gary Armstrong and Philip Kotler, who claim that it is “socially responsible marketing, conducted with respect for the environment that meets the current needs of consumers and businesses, while maintaining or even improving the ability of future generations to meet their needs in the future”⁷. Due to the small number of definitions of sustainable marketing proposed in the marketing literature, the author tries to formulate this concept as follows: *sustainable marketing embraces rational, responsible and ethical marketing activities of the company, meeting the needs and desires of the client, with the respect for and protection of the environment and simultaneously achieving the economic goals of enterprise*. Citing Frank-Martin Belz it can be concluded that sustainable marketing is to meet the needs and expectations of consumers with respect to social and environmental values and at the same time providing a benefit to the organisation. This will make possible by maintaining a sustainable relation with buyers, social and ecological surrounding⁸.

⁷ G. Armstrong, P. Kotler, *op. cit.*

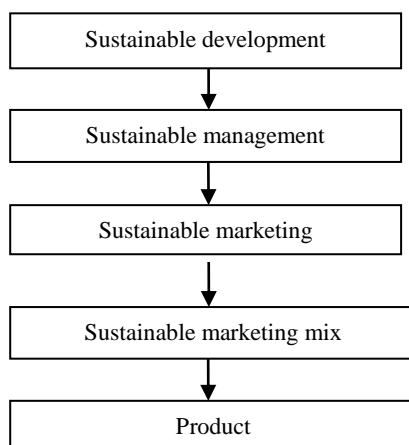
⁸ F.-M. Belz, *Marketing in the 21 st Century*, “Business Strategy and the Environment” 15/3 (2006).

3. PRODUCT IN THE SUSTAINABLE MARKETING SPHERE

The concept of sustainable product is a derivative of actions in the field of sustainable management, sustainable marketing and sustainable marketing mix. As a result of successively appearing stages a sustainable product is formed.

An important issue is the fact that since the beginning of the production activities of an enterprise each of the listed phase was carried out on the base of assumptions of sustainable business operations, which means developing skills to achieve business objectives, taking into account environmental and social aspects. Arnold Pabian points out to yet another stage, namely sustainable development as the beginning of the road to a sustainable product⁹.

Figure 2. Product in the structure of sustainable development



Source: own work on basis of A. Pabian, *Strategia produktu w zrównoważonej działalności marketingowej*, „Zeszyty Naukowe Uniwersytetu Ekonomicznego w Poznaniu”, Poznań 2011/172, p. 150.

Donald Fuller writes that sustainable products “they possess positive ecological attributes that are nothing more than enhanced waste management factors that have been purposely designed in (embedded) through decisions concerning how products are made/manufactured, what they are made of, how they function, how long they last, how they are distributed, how they are used, and how they are disposed of at the end of useful service life. These decisions essentially operationalize pollution prevention.”¹⁰

The product in sustainable concept should meet the needs and expectations of customers. The observed phenomenon of an increased number of customers who purchase products that meet environmental and pro-social norms, which means those that do not cause losses in the

⁹ A. Pabian, *Strategia produktu w zrównoważonej działalności marketingowej*, „Zeszyty Naukowe Uniwersytetu Ekonomicznego w Poznaniu” 2011/172.

¹⁰ D. Fuller, *Sustainable marketing. Managerial-ecological issues*, SAGE, California 1999.

environment and do not harm the man, leads to a change in company policy in relation to the product. Consumer awareness on care for the environment and pro-social expectations of buyers towards entrepreneurial activity in the longer term will affect the change of thinking of executives that, trying to meet the demands of customers, will have to implement into the enterprise activities based on the concept of sustainable management and marketing. Companies deciding to launch a new product, should plan product life cycle in such a way that it can serve its customers as long as possible without causing damage to the environment and society. A particularly important phase in the product life cycle will be the last one, which is death, decline or a withdraw from the market. The duties of the company should include developing ways to decommissioning and disposal of the product, which was in the last stage of the life cycle. The role and participation of the organisation in the final stage of the life cycle is important because the opinion of managers responsible for production may specify which parts, components and materials of the old product can be useful and reused for the new batch. No less important is the first phase of the product life cycle, the phase of the launch. In this phase, the buyer meets its usability and learns the proper use of the product in the case of complex electrical, electronic or other ones. Proper use contributes to a longer life of the product, which will translate into less demand for mineral resources, energy consumption for the production of a specific product. Product in the sustainable concept implies development of such product life cycle that will satisfy the needs of customers while not inflicting harm to the environment and society.

Out of the wide range of similar products offered to customers, a sustainable product that has been developed taking into account environmental and social aspects, will certainly stand out against identical or similar products. Diversity of product offerings can help companies gain a competitive advantage over other manufacturers offering the same or similar goods. For this reason, in addition to the difficulties faced by sustainable manufacturing companies, there is a chance in creating sustainable products to gain leadership in sales and increase market share of manufacturing organisation.

The strategy of sustainable products involves at the production stage elimination of the emission of harmful gases, liquids, solids and radiation and reduce the waste of energy, heat, water, raw materials and other elements necessary to produce the product. During use, sustainable product is characterised by its durability, functionality and is safe for people using it, which means that it does not endanger the health and lives of a purchaser. An important feature of the product produced in accordance with the concept of sustainable marketing is to save energy, fuel, water, gas and other substances repelling the move of the product. This applies to a specific group of mainly mechanical products, which use different types of energy. Another important feature is the durability of sustainable product use. Reliable products are used for a long time by the consumer and rarely break down. Unfortunately, many of the manufacturers develop a policy that determines the lifetime of the product, which may be used for a short period, followed by the total corruption of the product. As a result, the amount of waste increases, which leads to countless tons of waste destined for disposal or recycling, as well as causing problems with the storage of unnecessary products. In place of the discarded products,

new batches are introduced, which entails the acquisition of raw materials, fuel and energy necessary to produce them¹¹.

Ernst von Weizsacker, Amory Lovins and L. Hunter Lovins suggest that sustainability is one of the most obvious strategy to reduce waste and improve the productivity of materials¹².

Frank-Martin Belz and Ken Peattie emphasize that a good way to reduce the volume of production, thus limiting the use of mineral resources, energy consumption and emissions as well as waste generation is the principle of mutual lending products. The authors suggest that this is particularly justified in the case of products that are expensive and rarely used, such as power tools. Sharing products can contribute to a decline in demand for products and thus reduce the natural environmental destruction¹³.

4. CONCLUSIONS

Sustainable marketing activity of production companies involves manufacturing products considering the environmental and social aspects in order to increase the opportunities for the development of future generations. The role of a sustainable company does not end with just manufacturing the product and its introduction into the market. Pointing to the above description it should be emphasized that sustainable product strategies go beyond the production activities. The concept of sustainable product requires monitoring of the life of the product from its birth to the descent of the market and liquidation.

The strategy of sustainable product should be consistent with the mission and objectives of the company, that requires the subordination of important areas of sustainable business companies, which include sustainable research and analysis of business marketing environment, a sustainable selection of target markets, sustainable marketing mix and sustainable management of marketing activities. Carrying a business in terms of sustainability is not a simple task. Implementation of projects of sustainable marketing requires from the companies to reconcile economic goals with environmental and social objectives. On one hand, the main objective of the manufacturing organization is such production that aim to increase sales and enlargement of market shares, and the other hand, introducing products of a high durability, which aims to contribute to long-term use and reducing of production. Strategy of the product durability is often contrasted with the interests of the company. According to the author's opinion, implementation of sustainable marketing, including sustainable product strategy for a long term business operations will benefit the interests of the organization, which will result in a competitive advantage.

Sustainable economic activity of enterprises is not universally popular among manufacturing organizations. Most companies are focused on profit and expanding its market share ignoring issues related to protection of the environment, or sensitivity to the social matters. According to the author, sustainable development and a growing awareness of societies will force

¹¹ *Ibidem*.

¹² E. von Weizsacker, A. Lovins, L.H. Lovins, *Factor Four: Doubling Wealth, Halving Resource Use*, Earthscan, London 1997.

¹³ F.-M. Belz, K. Peattie, *Sustainability Marketing*, Wiley & Sons, Hoboken 2010.

manufacturing companies to take action to protect the environment and to commit to social issues. In the longer term, companies that ignore emerging trends will be doomed to failure.

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PRODUKT W KONCEPCJI ZRÓWNOWAŻONEGO MARKETINGU

Osiągnięcie celów ekonomicznych przy jednoczesnym poszanowaniu środowiska naturalnego oraz uwzględniania aspektów społecznych bez wyrządzania szkód przyszłym pokoleniom zawiera się w obszarze zrównoważonego rozwoju. Szczególną rolę w zrównoważonym marketingu, który wchodzi w skład zrównoważonego rozwoju odgrywa produkt będący najważniejszym elementem zrównoważonego marketingu mix. Obszarem zainteresowania autora jest strategia produktu w zrównoważonej działalności marketingowej przedsiębiorstw. Celem opracowania jest analiza i zestawienie najważniejszych ustaleń literaturowych dotyczących tematu pracy. Artykuł ma teoretyczny charakter i powstał w oparciu o studia literaturowe z zakresu podjętej tematyki oraz doświadczeń autora. Zastosowaną metodą badawczą jest studium literatury przedmiotu oparte między innymi na wykorzystaniu źródeł wtórnych takich jak: krajowe i zagraniczne zwarte publikacje naukowe, artykuły naukowe, czasopisma naukowe, czasopisma i katalogi branżowe, roczniki statystyczne, materiały konferencyjne, ustawy prawne, internetowe serwisy informacyjne z zakresu przedmiotowej tematyki. Przeprowadzone studia literaturowe pozwalają stwierdzić, iż ten obszar wiedzy znajduje odzwierciedlenie w takich nurtach jak marketing zielony, ekologiczny czy społeczny. W wyniku rozpoznania stanu wiedzy z zakresu zrównoważonego marketingu, w tym zrównoważonej strategii produktu należy stwierdzić, iż jest to nowy i rozwijający się obszar naukowy, który wymaga dalszej analizy pod względem teoretycznym jak i empirycznym. Pomimo nielicznych publikacji na temat zrównoważonego marketingu autor wskazuje, iż jest to bardzo ważny, ciekawy i przyszłościowy nurt badawczy z punktu widzenia przyszłych pokoleń, środowiska naturalnego, a także zmiany profilu funkcjonowania przedsiębiorstw. Przedstawione rozwiązania mają charakter modelowy i mogą być drogowskazem dla podmiotów gospodarczych.

Słowa kluczowe: zrównoważony rozwój, zrównoważony marketing, zrównoważony produkt

DOI: 10.7862/rz.2014.mmr.39

Tekst złożono w redakcji: grudzień 2013

Przyjęto do druku: wrzesień 2014

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KEY VALUES OF BUSINESS-TO-BUSINESS RELATIONSHIP MARKETING

The main subject of this paper is to introduce the most significant values of business-to-business relationship marketing. The attention is particularly paid to mutual value creation, long-term co-operation, loyalty and customer retention due to the most fundamental buyer-seller relationships based on trust. Moreover, the relationship marketing, business-to-business co-operation in the context of basic marketing relationships are described. The relationship marketing, regarding to Gummesson's definition, is seen in the context of relationships, networks and interaction. This approach underlines the meaning of relationship management, which aims at creation, development, and maintenance of network in which the company succeeds. Moreover, there is a strong need for interaction between buyers and sellers due to produce and sell the goods and services with impact on direct, personal communication. The relationship marketing is the value itself in the process of interaction between parties involved, as it provides the rule of equity between co-operating companies of more winning and less losing situations.

This paper highlights the value of co-operation, however does not exclude competition. Co-operation and competition are treated inseparably in business. There is also a concern for activity and taking responsibility by parties involved described as well as the importance of relationship and service values instead of bureaucratic-legal values stressed. Customers need to be in focus, respected, treated individually as they are the purpose of value creation in the business-to-business relationship marketing.

Keywords: relationship marketing, values, co-operation, business-to-business

1. INTRODUCTION

"Marketing moves"², quoting Harvard Business School modern representatives, from the traditional, transactional marketing mix concept to the contemporary relationship marketing one. The purpose of a business is to create and keep a customer³. No longer should customers be treated as segmented masses but as individuals, moreover, partners. According to Voss and Voss⁴, many viewpoints compare marketing relationships to a marriage marked by the ongoing mutual commitment and interest of both parties, while other viewpoints conceive that

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² D. C. Jain, S. Maesincee, Ph. Kotler, *Marketing moves: A new Approach to Profits, Growth and Renewal*, Harvard Business School Publishing Corp. 2002.

³ T. Levitt, *After the sale is over*, "Harvard Business Review" 1983.

⁴ G.B. Voss, Z.G. Voss, *Implementing a relationship marketing program: a case study and managerial implications*, "The Journal of Services Marketing" 11/4 (1987).

relationship marketing is an asymmetrical marketing process that requires an in-depth, personalized understanding of customer needs and characteristics.

Today's business success depends on mutual value creation, particularly based on trust, loyalty and long-term co-operation. Close co-operation with strategic customers (partners) leads to improved product quality, increases customer satisfaction, reduces costs, expands access to market information and new technologies, furthermore, creates a high threshold of competitiveness.

All theorists and practitioners argue that there is no single definition of relationship marketing, common to all markets and operating in their respective industries. Markets are very different, also subjected to ever-changing influences which shape different types of relationships. The multiplicity and the nature of the relationship would prevent its categorical definition. Regardless, for the purpose of this paper, the relationship marketing is understood as Gummesson⁵ put it: "marketing seen as relationships, networks and interaction", moreover, marketing seen as relationship management: "creating, developing, and maintaining a network in which the company thrives". Then as interactive which stands for: "bilateral and multilateral seller-buyer activities to produce and deliver goods and services, primarily in a person-to-person communication with less left to mass communication". Lastly, relationship marketing could be seen in the aspect of long-term, underlying that: "relationships need time to be built and to be maintained".

Gummesson⁶ characterizes relationship marketing as "value for the parties involved, created through an interaction process between sellers, buyers, competitors and others. Co-operators are often co-producers who create value for each other in a joint effort". Values of the relationship marketing stand for "more win-win and less win-lose, for more equal parties. All parties carry a responsibility and can be active in a relationship, long-term relationships".

Relationship marketing is a combination of recognized marketing concepts such as marketing mix, the network approach to industrial marketing, services marketing, and internal marketing. "It is more than marketing management, it is rather marketing-oriented management – an aspect of the total management of the firm – and not limited to a marketing or sales department. Moreover, relationship marketing is the marketing manifestation of the imaginary (virtual, network) organization – and vice versa"⁷.

It is worth to underline that relationship marketing offers some advantages to the company as "increases customer retention and duration, marketing productivity and thus profitability, and increases stability and security". Gummesson⁸ also distinguishes some advantages to the market economy saying that: "relationship marketing adds co-operation to competition and institutions. The symbiosis between these three forces contributes to a marketing equilibrium, a dynamic and optimal balance of the market economy seen from a marketing management

⁵ E. Gummesson, *The New Marketing – Developing Long-Term Relationships*, "Long-Range Planning" 1987/4, p. 11.

⁶ E. Gummesson, *Relationship Marketing as a Paradigm Shift: Some Conclusions from the 30Rs Approach*, "Management Decision" 35/4 (1997), p. 267.

⁷ *Ibidem*, p. 267–268.

⁸ *Ibidem*.

perspective”. There are also many advantages to society and the citizen that should be quoted: “relationship marketing is marketing for the new economy – the service society, the information society, the postmodern society or the value society – which adds value through increased focus on customized production and one-to-one marketing; diminished focus on standardized mass manufacturing and anonymous mass marketing” (p. 268).

The relationship marketing meaning is evident in business-to-business as it is “largely conducted through networks of relationships. Therefore, relationship marketing can be applied to all kinds of companies and offerings”. However, “the relationship range and the application is always specific to a given situation”.⁹

2. CORE VALUES OF BUSINESS-TO-BUSINESS RELATIONSHIP MARKETING

The core values of relationship marketing are found in its emphasis on co-operation and the creation of mutual value. It concerns viewing suppliers, customers and others as partners rather than opposite parties. In 1976 Baker already said that marketing should be defined as mutually satisfying exchange relationships. Relationship marketing should be beneficial for all those involved, and then all regards the relationship meaningful. If these conditions are fulfilled, the relationships have a chance to sustain.¹⁰

Co-operation is perceived as the fundamental value of relationship marketing, although both competition and co-operation are essential in a functioning market economy. Traditional marketing favors the benefits of competition whereas it sees co-operation as restraining the forces of the market. Relationship marketing approach treats co-operation as the reason for building an organization in order to create value together. However, quoting Gummesson¹¹: “In total relationship marketing you both collaborate and compete, inside as well as outside the organization”, thus co-operation and competition are inseparable in the marketplace.

Relationship marketing highlights the value of existing customers, putting less stress on getting new ones. Together with CRM influence customer retention while simultaneously prevents customer defection. Retaining customers goes first, attracting customers second.¹²

Another fundamental value concerns activity and taking responsibility by parties involved. It is assumed that every co-operating company should be active and responsible for its actions. This approach is just opposite to the traditional point of view where the supplier is not a dynamic partner. In business-to-business marketing customers are the initiators of innovations in order to encourage suppliers to vary their products or services.¹³

Gummesson¹⁴ calls: “Relationship and service values instead of bureaucratic-legal values. Bureaucratic-legal values are characterized by: rigidity, legal jargon; application of dysfunctional laws and regulations; a focus on internal routines; more interest in rituals than in results;

⁹ *Ibidem*, p. 268.

¹⁰ *Ibidem*.

¹¹ E. Gummesson, *Relationship Marketing in the New Economy*, “Journal of Relationship Marketing” 2002/1, p. 52.

¹² E. Gummesson, *Total Relationship Marketing*, Butterworth-Heinemann, Oxford 1999.

¹³ E. Gummesson, *Total Relationship...*

¹⁴ *Ibidem*, p. 16.

belief in the supplier as the expert and the customer as the ignorant; the customer being a cost and residual of the system; customers as masses and statistical averages; and the importance of winning over the customer in a dispute”.

In the past, these values dominated the governments, public organizations and private companies as well. Today, relationship marketing requires different values based on relationships and services to the customer. According to these values, all customers are individuals and different in certain respects; the outcome is the only thing that matters; the customers are the source of revenue and should be in focus; and the supplier’s task is to create value for customer.¹⁵ It is essential that marketers and top management understand and accept relationship values as natural vantage points. Otherwise, relationship marketing becomes a naive plan.

The ethical aspects of relationship marketing are also worth to discuss. Among frequently quoted values of relationship marketing one can find trust, honesty, goodwill, reliability, commitment and diligence.¹⁶

If the relationship is mutually beneficial, has a chance to exist. There cannot be any doubt in good intentions of partners. Communication understood as formal and informal exchange of important, credible and current information must be open, honest and frequent.¹⁷

Such regular communication influences both companies’ interest and customers’ welfare and guides to trust and trust leads to relationship commitment. Intensity of communication can determine customer view of so called special status and closeness which indicate proper relationships. The relationship marketers can develop their trust-worthiness by the opening lines of communication, guaranteeing the service, and a higher standard of conduct. According to Berry, success of communication during trust creation can have the influence on organizational structure, particularly in companies who deal with customers in the course of different representatives dedicated to every service contact. Sometimes companies need to reorganize its service systems in order to assign single representative to specific geographic area or customer segment.

“Delivering services through cross-functional teams also fosters service continuity and communications with customers. Customers are served by a team for most of their service requirements, giving a big company the opportunity to deliver a level of personalized service more characteristic of a small company”. So, communication is the one mean to build the trust, while guaranteeing the service may be another one. It is especially important when company deals with customer’s dissatisfaction. Guaranties the company gives to their clients “symbolize a company’s commitment to fair play with customers and facilitate competitive differentiation; also, force the organization to improve service to avoid the cost and embarrassment of frequent payouts”. The quality level of guarantees should never be poor; moreover, the companies should constantly improve their service quality. Companies looking for genuine relationships with their customers need to offer a higher standard of performance than just legality. “Relationship marketers must be prepared to subject every policy and strategy to

¹⁵ Idem, *Relationship Marketing in the New Economy...*, p. 50–52.

¹⁶ Idem, *Relationship Marketing as a Paradigm Shift...*, p. 269.

¹⁷ J. Świątowiec, *Więzi partnerskie na rynku przedsiębiorstw*, PWE, Warszawa 2006, p. 152.

a fairness test. They must be willing to level the playing field, and ask not only if it is legal, but also if it is right".¹⁸

As demonstrated, the relationship building depends on the foundation of trust which is "a willingness to rely on an exchange partner in whom one has confidence".¹⁹ Moreover, parties involved in the relationship must understand and appreciate the act of giving, instead of just getting, therefore must adhere to comparable values. When parties trust each other the risk of failure decreases. Moreover, it should be noticed that "the degree and significance of trust vary extensively between cultures and nations".²⁰

In the following part the general values of business-to-business relationships are presented as the synthesis from research within the B2B network approach; studies within sociology and psychology conducted since the 1970s.

Co-operation is perceived as a crucial value of relationships and can be connected with single deal as well as be constant. Gummesson²¹, quoting Wilkinson and Young²², says that the degree of co-operation could be combined with the degree of competition. Therefore, when talking about a situation with little competition and little co-operation between companies one can find it an excellent beginning of long-term mutual co-operation. On the other hand, a high degree of co-operation and a low degree of competition supports continuousness and peacefulness of a relationship. The relationships are able to prosper in a situation of both extensive co-operation and competition. However, if the competition determines and co-operation becomes less important, the relationship needs to be reconsidered.

"The long-term relationship is a pillar of RM"²³, that is why it can become more useful for co-operating parties, when more time-consuming. When time passes by, the parties have an opportunity to better know each other, to become closer to each other, to work on the relationship in order to make it beneficial to all of them. Sometimes happens the relationships are unsatisfactory and should be broken.

The employees play the crucial role in relationships' longevity, "the longer employees stay with the company, the better they are able to serve their customers"²⁴. Long-term employees better know the business and have more opportunities to develop bonds of trust and familiarity with customers. However, according to Reichheld, it is very important to decide on the appropriate employees who are to be kept in the company due to their usefulness in relationship marketing. He encourages companies to reconsider the practice of rotating managers through a

¹⁸ L. Berry, *Relationship Marketing of Services – Growing Interest, Emerging Perspectives*, "Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science" 23/4 (1995), p. 243.

¹⁹ C. Moorman, D. Rohit, G. Zaltman, *Factors affecting trust in market research relationships*, "Journal of Marketing" 57/21 (1993), p. 3.

²⁰ E. Gummesson, *Total Relationship Marketing...*, p. 23.

²¹ *Ibidem*, p. 21–22.

²² I. Wilkinson, L. Young, *On Co-operating: Firms, Relationships and Networks*, "Journal of Business Research" 55/2 (2002).

²³ E. Gummesson, *Total Relationship Marketing...*, p. 22.

²⁴ F. Reichheld, *Loyalty-Based Management*, "Harvard Business Review" March–April 1993, p. 68.

series of branch offices, because it negatively influences the long-term perspective needed in relationship marketing.

The success of every relationship depends on the engagement. "If the relationship is important, we are dependent on it, so we must commit ourselves to making it work".²⁵ Reliance is extremely important in case of a crisis. In services marketing there are three levels of dependency and commitment proposed by Berry and Parasuraman in 1991, as Gummesson agreed. The first level occurs when customers are attracted by low prices above all. But if the competition behaves the same way by lowering the prices, the achievement is none. This level is commonly imitated. The second level appears when the relationship has been intensified. The price level becomes less important in favor of a closer one-to-one communication with the customer. When the parties reach the last level it means that the structural dimension takes place and companies have joined their resources. At the third level their commitment is very strong to invest in developing the relationship.

The relationships may be bothered by the concept of power. The symmetry of power can vary in time. Power in the relationships may be of two kinds: symmetrical or asymmetrical. The symmetrical means that each party has the same amount of power. If the relationship is asymmetrical, one party may feel uncomfortable or used. So the relationship exists if there is no opportunity for fair enough. Nonetheless, no one should be used excessively to maintain a relationship; therefore the parties should feel obliged to respect each other.²⁶

In lasting relationships the parties need to adjust to each other.²⁷ Such adaptation may become expensive, as concerns some investments, and lasts for a very long time, particularly in industrial markets.

Business long-term relationships also need an attraction factor between the parties to begin and remain. Some studies have shown that attraction between companies may require a combination of rational financial motives and psychological factors. Even in business, just like in the marriage, a partner should be worth a desire. In business-to-business some relationships become very personal, especially when partners see each other frequently and have some private connections. Closeness seems important as makes possible mental and emotional contact.²⁸

Companies call for informality as a part of formal contracts. If the parties trust each other the problems can be solved for example by the phone. Formal discussions may take place on other than business occasions, for example in the club. Nevertheless, partners should not forget about the formal aspects of their relationship. One of them is transparency. Parties should consider the extent of what they want to reveal to each other, for example, own costs or revenues.²⁹

²⁵ E. Gummesson, *Total Relationship Marketing...*, p. 22.

²⁶ *Ibidem*, p. 23.

²⁷ *Ibidem*, p. 24.

²⁸ *Ibidem*, p. 25.

²⁹ *Ibidem*, p. 26

After a period of time the majority of relationships turn into routine. Although it seems discouraging, routine procedures can be necessary for efficiency and cost effectiveness, Gummesson³⁰ claims. In B2B, routines are established for deliveries; both, the customer and the supplier are to obey regular procedures. There should be a compromise between routines and standard procedures for speed and low costs as well as feeling that the relationship lives and develops.

According to Gummesson³¹, the content of business relationships is usually seen as ordinary economic exchange. Marketing is the exchange in this sense. However, in relationship marketing the meaning of business relationship has changed - the relationship is seen as interaction and joint value creation. Its content is often knowledge and information.

The importance of each value described above is relative to a particular situation. Therefore, the power may be in some circumstances more significant than commitment and trust which are undeniably crucial. Certainly the ability to co-operate must always be the most important in the relationship.

Above values can contribute to the evaluation of a relationship, its development or liquidation, but alone cannot be sufficient enough for marketing decisions, planning and execution.³² Even if each of them highlights an interesting phenomenon, they must be put into context. "The basic values of relationship marketing should include the acceptance – in action, not only in rhetoric – of interactive relationships and a win-win situation; of both the buyer and the seller and other parties being drivers of a network of relationships; of long-term relationships being advantageous to the parties involved; and of the customer being a co-producer of value and a partner. Otherwise there will be no positive effect on relationship marketing".³³

3. CHARACTERISTIC OF BUSINESS-TO-BUSINESS RELATIONSHIPS

The relationship marketing concept puts customers at the first place and has them in focus, opposite to the traditional marketing management approach. Frequently "mass marketing treats customers as statistics, decimals, and averages of grey masses, whether it is a large general mass or smaller mass segment".³⁴ In addition, it is considered that the mass promotion and mass distribution are cost-effective, that is why most companies do not want to treat customers individually believing it is too expensive. On the contrary, relationship marketing concept underlines that company success arises from developing relationships with customers as individuals.

Gummesson³⁵ gives the example of Wind and Rangaswamy who extended relationship marketing approach to the concept of customerization which is a suggestion to every manager to start immediately interacting with customers and building relationships with them. "Rela-

³⁰ *Ibidem*.

³¹ *Ibidem*.

³² *Ibidem*.

³³ Idem, *Relationship Marketing as a Paradigm Shift...*, p. 267–268.

³⁴ E. Gummesson, *Relationship Marketing in the New Economy...*, p. 50–51.

³⁵ *Ibidem*, p. 51.

relationship marketing requires managers to start with each individual and build from there, either keeping the customer as an individual, or making customers members of communities according to their wants and behavior. If a company looks at the market as an anonymous mass and then divides it, the customer becomes no more than a residual in a hierarchy”.

Drucker in the 1950s said that “marketing is the whole business seen from the point of view of its final result, that is, from the customer’s point of view.” The essence of marketing concept is to understand customer needs and wants. If a company offers goods and services that satisfy needs and create value for the customer, customer satisfaction and the right customer perceived quality, the company has the greatest chance to success. This is marketing-oriented and customer-centric approach, completely different from production orientation, according to which the customer is obliged to buy what is offered or not to buy at all. Therefore, it is advised to broaden marketing management into marketing-oriented management that is one of the basic relationship marketing principles.³⁶

Companies which appreciated the marketing-oriented management and agreed that continuous improvement and innovation of relations with customers are the premises of their success understood that keeping customers is more important than acquiring them.

Some portrays relationships to be important under any circumstances. Reichheld and Sasser³⁷ underline increased profitable growth from long-term customers over less profitable short-term customers. The research conducted in variety of service industries proved that the profits increase steeply when a company successfully decreases its customer-defection rate. They found out, after analyzing over 100 companies, that the companies could improve profits from 25 percent to 85 percent by reducing customer defections by just 5 percent. It has been concluded that not only loyal customers generate more revenue for more years; the costs to maintain existing customers often are lower than the costs to get new ones. So, relationship marketing benefits not only the customer but the company as well. Others³⁸ claim that only certain types of relationships are worth building, whereas some are not worth invested in, and should even be ended. This point arises from the view that long-term customers may not be necessarily more profitable than short-term customers, and that not all customers may be interested in developing relationships with companies. According to such approach, customers are seen as being in different levels of relationships. It means that they are differently sensitive to marketing activities due to the relationship level. Therefore, relationships at diverse levels should be treated separately as required.³⁹

Swedish scholars⁴⁰ observed that companies concentrate on the financial value of customers to estimate which ones are profitable enough to have relationship with, or on searching for a customers’ tendency to engage in a relationship with the company. It appeared that “the

³⁶ E. Gummesson, *Relationship Marketing as a Paradigm Shift...*

³⁷ F. Reichheld., W. Sasser, *Zero Defects: Quality Comes to Services*, “Harvard Business Review” 1990/IX–X, p. 107.

³⁸ K. Storbacka, J.R. Lehtinen, *Sztuka budowania trwałych związków z klientami, Customer Relationship Management*, Oficyna Ekonomiczna, Kraków 2001.

³⁹ C. Grönroos, J. Gummerus, K. Hellén, M. Sääksjärvi, *Love at First Sight or Long-term Affair? Different Relationship Levels as Predictors of Customer Commitment*, “Journal of Relationship Marketing” 6/1 (2007).

⁴⁰ C. Grönroos, J. Gummerus, K. Hellén, M. Sääksjärvi, *Love at First Sight...*, p. 46–58.

reasons for having relationships could be of multiple kinds". The researchers identified two levels of relationships. The first one, called a product-level relationship, indicates a relationship with a specific product, determined by the product attractiveness and involvement. At this level the relationship may evolve from a passive into an active one, which means that customers become more emotionally attached to the product; the product properties become less important. The second level of relationships, called a firm-level, means that the customer wants to engage into relationship with the entire company what leads customer to loyalty. Authors concluded that "the second relationship level may evolve from satisfaction with products which stem from product involvement".

The levels of relationship between the company and the customer were also in Payne's interest as illustrated in his marketing ladder of customer loyalty. The higher level of the ladder, the stronger the relationship. Payne notes that many companies prefer focusing on the lower level relationships (prospects and existing customers) which are often not served enough, than on the higher level relationships which show tendency to evolve from the clients into the partners. The reason may lie in the obstacles which companies encounter in shifting customers from the bottom to the top levels of the loyalty ladder. Companies may be successful only if they learn about their customers' needs and wants. However, it is not enough to follow the customers' expectations; therefore companies should most of all go beyond them in order to make a customer a supporter or an advocate.

According to Payne's⁴¹ view: "the best marketing is that done for you by your own customers, which is why the customer loyalty ladder and creation of advocates is so important". Referral markets, inferred from the relationship marketing six markets model, consist of existing customers or advocates, but also other business groups and organizations like, e.g., distributors, who can powerfully influence company's growth.

Companies should be aware the successful co-operation with referral markets needs time. Business should be done on the basis of the marketing plan, developed especially for the exact referral market and the effects as well as expenses need to be continuously monitored.

3.1. The buyer-seller relationships

The buyer-seller relationships constitute the foundations of marketing. Many scholars have contributed to industrial marketing by examining long lasting relationships between buyers and sellers. Some underlines that the core focus of industrial marketing should be on buyer-seller relationships, instead of products or markets. Significant become the statement that suppliers and customers in industrial markets demand broad knowledge about themselves if they want to collaborate. However, it is rather not the information about the products they need, but the knowledge about the resources, organization and strategies. Therefore, it is necessary they create a kind of information platform for their companies to allow department specialists to communicate and exchange information.

⁴¹ A. Payne, *Relationship marketing: The six markets framework*, working paper, Cranfield Graduate School of Management, 1993, p. 6.

As IMP Group studies proved, there are numbers of personnel engaged in the relationships. Therefore, the confidence in the relationships is so important. The meaningful relationships are quite close, provided that the appropriate investments have been made. The indicator of the long term relationships is also “a match between the supplier’s capability and customer’s needs”. This can involve parties to make some adjustments according to products, processes or organizational structures. Companies continuously learn how to adapt to each other in order to improve using their resources. Besides, they make a lot of investments in their relationships, e.g., in internal information channels or social relations. Companies stress that there are strong and specific connections between firms in industrial markets caused by quantitative as well as qualitative associations. Together they are able to “increase both transaction and production efficiency, gain access to much wider information and competence area, or gain some control over some important suppliers and customers, although they have to give up some of their autonomy in exchange”. The findings also show that the relationships are the consequence of interactions between the firms. Due to these interactions, the suppliers and the customers may “establish, develop, and maintain relationships with each other”.⁴²

Referring to Turnbull and Valla⁴³ “industrial markets are often characterized by stability and source loyalty, high costs of change of partner, power-dependence and, perhaps most importantly, by long-lasting supplier-customer relationships”. In industrial marketing buyer-seller relationships refer to satisfy mutual interests. Both parties engage in the long term relationship which is an “interaction process, varying in intensity at different stages of an individual relationship”. This interaction approach sees relationships as “a self-regulation system, often involving such high levels of investment for the two counterparts that stability commonly characterizes industrial markets”.

4. CONCLUSIONS

While deciding on implementing relationship marketing strategies, companies should remember about few fundamental values to make co-operation right. First of all, partners need to be trustworthy and loyal. The mutual trust is one of the basic values that influences the significance of the relationship. If there is no trust there is also no loyalty. It is worth to stress that the style of co-operation and the strength of the relationship usually depend on the past practices and experiences. The more satisfaction and effectiveness accomplished in the past, the more probability for partnership success for now and future.

Secondly, partners must achieve mutual understanding which is possible when they engage in the co-operation. The most important seems to be the role of management and their attitude towards building the partnership. But, the vitality of the relationship depends on the partners’ approach too. Mutual engagement is a key element of any value creation.

⁴² L. Hallen, J. Johanson, *Networks of Relationship in International Industrial Marketing*, JAI Press, Greenwich, CT, 1989.

⁴³ P. Turnbull, J. Valla, *Strategies for International Industrial Marketing*, Croom-Helm 1996, p. 2–4.

To support the value creation in the relationship marketing companies can be suggested to obey some rules in accordance to co-operation.⁴⁴ In brief, initially, it is necessary to build a team of well trained, qualified and trustful employees dedicated to the partner. Then, create a common policy to gain and share the knowledge due to developing joint practices. More, sustain smooth communication to predict, prevent and handle crisis situations. Finally, partners need to improve the system of co-operation all the time.

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⁴⁴ M. Wiśniewska, *B2B Relationship Marketing Co-operation*. [in:] *Enterprise management. The customer perspective and internal processes management*, ed. J. Kalkowska, E. Pawłowski, H. Włodarkiewicz-Klimek, Publishing House of Poznan University of Technology, Poznań 2013.

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KLUCZOWE WARTOŚCI MARKETINGU PARTNERSKIEGO NA RYNKU PRZEDSIĘBIORSTW

Tematem artykułu są wartości, zasadnicze z perspektywy marketingu partnerskiego, takie jak: współpraca, lojalność, zaufanie i utrzymanie klientów oraz współpraca na rynku business-to-business, w kontekście fundamentalnej relacji marketingowej pomiędzy sprzedającym a nabywcą. Marketing partnerski, w odniesieniu do definicji Gummesson'a, jest postrzegany w kontekście relacji, sieci i interakcji. Podejście to podkreśla znaczenie zarządzania relacjami, którego celem jest tworzenie, rozwijanie i utrzymywanie sieci powiązań, w której firma działa. Co więcej, istnieje silna potrzeba interakcji między kupującymi i sprzedającymi ze względu na wspieranie produkcji i sprzedaży towarów i usług, z naciskiem na bezpośrednią, a nie masową, komunikację. Marketing relacji jest wartością samą w sobie w procesie współpracy, ponieważ propaguje zasadę równości między partnerami, z naciskiem na „wygrać więcej, a nie wygrać mniej”. W artykule podkreślana jest wartość współpracy, jednak nie deprecjonuje ona znaczenia konkurencji, jako że współpraca i konkurencja są traktowane nierozdzielnie w biznesie. Marketing partnerski kładzie nacisk na aktywność współpracujących ze sobą przedsiębiorstw i nie uciekanie od odpowiedzialności. Klienci winni być szanowani, zawsze w centrum uwagi, traktowani indywidualnie, ponieważ to oni są sensem tworzenia wartości w marketingu relacji na rynku przedsiębiorstw. W związku z tym, partnerstwo zobowiązuje do przywiązywania większej wagi do budowania więzi opartej na współpracy w długim okresie czasu. Artykuł podkreśla także znaczenie wzajemnego zaufania i lojalności, które idąc w parze, wpływają na siłę i trwałość biznesowej relacji.

Słowa kluczowe: marketing partnerski, marketing relacyjny, wartości, współpraca przedsiębiorstw

DOI: 10.7862/rz.2014.mmr.40

Tekst złożono w redakcji: wrzesień 2014
Przyjęto do druku: październik 2014

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ROLE OF DIVERSITY MANAGEMENT IN PROCESS OF IMPROVING STAFF MOTIVATING SKILLS

Diversity management is a strategy which, so far, has been mainly discussed in the American and Western European literature of the subject. The strategy has become a method applied to reduce unfriendly behaviour towards employees and an approach leading to reducing or even removing certain pathologies occurring at a work place (mobbing, discrimination). Rich literature on human capital management in organisations offers lot of information on employees' characteristics important in the workplace. Typically, diversity is identified in people's skills, qualifications, certificates they hold, their personality, knowledge and characters. Still, to some degree, there is a feeling of dissatisfaction from absence of reliable information on analyses and conclusions from analysing the impact of other categories of employee diversity (sex, age, educational background, race, culture, religion, disability, etc.) on effectiveness of management process. The importance of the issue has recognised in the contemporary business world to the extent that it occupies a prominent position in the core legal regulations of many countries. In turn, these resulted in launching various programmes addressing the regulations and translating them into practice. However, diversity management goes far beyond best practices and their exemplary implementation. This paper has been written to present results of research demonstrating that diversity management is also an important and valuable tool for optimising the efficiency of employee motivating process in contemporary organisations.

Keywords: diversity, management, motivation, system

1. INTRODUCTION

Strengths and weaknesses of the diversity management strategy were broadly discussed by experts in various fields (management and psychology in particular).² It takes a major change in the way of thinking about the role of a man in the life of an organisation to appreciate advantages of employee diversity. On the other hands, such approach a thorough and thoughtful analysis of all that an employee contributes to the organisation from the environment in which they live.³ Such awareness followed by an in-depth analysis of

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² G. Maxwell, *Minority report. Taking the initiative in managing diversity at BBC Scotland*, "Employee Relations" 26/2 (2004), pp. 182-183; also: E. Friday, S.S. Friday, *Managing diversity using a strategic planned change approach*, "Journal of Management Development" 22/2003, pp. 863-885; also: R.J. Ely, D.A. Thomas, *Cultural diversity at work: the effects of diversity perspectives on work group processes and outcomes*, "Administrative Science Quarterly" 46/2 (2003), p. 270; also: M.S. Stockdale, F.J. Crosby, *The psychology of management of workplace diversity, leadership model, employee outcomes, and organizational culture*, "Journal of Business Ethics" 2009/90, p. 530; also: M.L. Egan, M. Bendick, *Workforce diversity initiatives of US multinational corporations in Europe*, "Thunderbird International Business Review" 45/6 (2003), pp. 701-705; also: K. Williams, *Interior motivation*, "Training" 44/6 (2007), p. 64.

³ M.L. Egan, M. Bendick, *Combining multicultural management and diversity into one course on cultural competence*, "Academy of Management Learning and Education" 7/3 (2008), p. 387 and M. Ali, C.T. Kulik, I.

the essence and sense of differences between people creates the opportunity to optimise the effectiveness of the human capital management process and the process of managing the entire organisation.⁴ Ignorance of the differences creates a serious risk that such effectiveness cannot be achieved. As it is always risky to treat an illness with a therapy which is not entirely clear. In the light of the above, the key challenge is to identify properly what our employees can truly offer and who they are.⁵ Now is the time to see a border drawn clearly between the structure of the incentive system i.e. the type of incentives (motivation tools) available to employers to offer employees and the method of their selection, dependent on people's actual preference. Diversification of incentive instruments proposed so far contributed more to spreading and strengthening the existing stereotypes (because of sex, age, education, disability, etc.) instead of offering an insight into true expectations of employees. People vary not only in terms of their classification to a generation (Generation X followed by Generation Y, Generation Z, Alpha Generation or, possibly, the New Silent Generation).⁶ People vary also, or possibly, primarily, as its members.⁷ Diversity management is not a short-lived fashion or a whim. Diversity is a challenge faced or to be faced soon by each business operating on the market. Diversity is a fact. It is ignored by some organisations. By doing that, they lose potential business opportunities that it could bring. Examples from all over the world show that we have passed the stage of discussing the need for diversity and arrived at the stage of debating on methods for drawing the maximum benefits from it.⁸

2. SUBJECT OF THE RESEARCH; METHODOLOGY APPLIED

Diversity management should be approached as the highest level in the evolution of thinking about the role of a man in the organisation. Business advantages of the strategy may be found on different stages of implementing the personnel function (recruitment, selection, training, performance appraisal, career path modelling, etc.). The paper analyses the dependence between diversity management and the degree of people's motivation for work.

A research questionnaire (presented in electronic version) was the analytical tool applied in the research process. Respondents (random sample) were asked to score 47 incentive tools (motivators) divided into 3 groups Tangible financial tools (A1-16), tangible

Metz, *The impact of gender diversity on performance in services and manufacturing organizations*, Academy of Management Annual Meeting Proceedings 2009, p. 1.

⁴ R. Allen, G. Dawson, K. Wheatley, C. White, *Perceived diversity and organizational performance*, "Employee Relations" 30/1 (2008), p. 20, also: C.I. Chavez, J.Y. Weisinger, *Beyond diversity training: a social infusion for cultural inclusion*, "Human Resource Management" 47/2 (2008), p. 331; also: Q.M. Roberson, *Disentangling the meaning of diversity and inclusion in organizations*, "Group and Organization Management" 31/2 (2006), pp. 212–216, also: T. Miller, W. Toyah, M. Triana, *Demographic diversity in the boardroom: mediators of the board diversity- firm performance relationship*, "Journal of Management Studies" 46/5 (2009), pp. 755–786.

⁵ K. Williams, *Interior motivation*, "Training" 44/6 (2007), p. 64.

⁶ P. Brown, *Talking about my generation*, "Promotions & Incentives" January 2007, p. 1.

⁷ J. Cason, *One size does not fit all. Diversity rules*, "The HR Guide to Recognition & Incentives", Special Section, June 2008, p. 45.

⁸ H. Bochniarz, [in:] *Zarządzanie różnorodnością w miejscu pracy*, ed. E. Lisowska, A. Sznajder, Raport z I edycji barometru różnorodności, Publikacja przygotowana w ramach projektu „Diversity Index” współfinansowanego ze środków Unii Europejskiej w ramach Europejskiego Funduszu Społecznego, Warszawa 2013, p. 3, also: S. Gardener-Williams, *Diversity should never just be a "nice-to-have"*, "Personnel Today", 12 May 2009, p. 16.

non-financial tools (B1-B16) and intangible tools (C1-C25). The impact of each incentive tool was assessed with the Lickert's scale (scoring 1 to 5). Respondents from 28 countries participated in the empirical research. Respondents were divided into 4 groups: Domiciled in Poland, the USA and Canada, Europe (countries other than Poland) and "other countries" (Australia, New Zealand, the UAE, Singapore and Taiwan). In the scientific process took part 287 respondents (56%- female, 44%- male), in different age (from 18 to 25 years- 9%), (from 26 to 35 years- 32%), (from 36 to 45 years- 26%), (from 46 to 55 years- 19%), (more than 55 years- 13%). The level of education was as follows: "elementary"- 1%, "professional"- 4%, "secondary"- 14%, "university"- 48%, "Ph.d, doc., prof., MBA"- 34%. Most of them have been worked in state enterprises (53%), 39% in private enterprises, 8% in non-profit ones (6%- micro enterprises, 9%- small, 24%- medium, 60%- big enterprises). In the group of respondents 47% were specialists, 11%- low level managers, 26%- medium level managers, 7%- high level managers, 8%- worker position. The period of work "less than 5 years" matched 22% of respondents, "from 5 to 15 years"- 38% and "more than 15 years"- 40% of them. People taking part in the research worked in different branches (fifteen). The research sample considerably differentiated in terms of the assumed diversity categories, which seems of particular importance in the light of the theme of the research. The fact-based material collected in the research was analysed on the basis of **ANOVA Kruskal-Wallis test** to determine any statistical variance of dependencies between environment-related factors and the weight of each incentive in groups made for the purpose of the research. The significance level of $\alpha=0.05$ was assumed for the purpose of the research. It is assumed that:

- when $p < 0.05$, a statistically significant dependence occurs (marked with *);
- when $p < 0.01$, a highly significant dependence occurs (**);
- when $p < 0.001$, a very highly significant dependence occurs (**);

In the research, 10 research hypotheses in total were analysed in terms of different categories of diversity. This paper will present the results for 3 of them:

H₁: IT IS ASSUMED THAT AN EFFECTIVE MOTIVATION SYSTEM MODEL IS DIFFERENT FOR MEN AND FOR WOMEN

H₂ IT IS ASSUMED THAT THE AGE OF AN EMPLOYEE DETERMINES HOW EFFECTIVE THE IMPACT OF EACH MOTIVATION TOOL IS ON THE EMPLOYEE.

H₃: IT IS ASSUMED THAT CULTURAL DIVERSITY OF RESPONDENTS IS A SIGNIFICANT FACTOR AFFECTING EVALUATION OF EFFICIENCY OF EACH INCENTIVE.

3. PRESENTATION OF RESEARCH RESULTS

The first interesting research problem was to check whether employee's sex influenced the effectiveness of the impact that each incentive tool had on the employee. The hypothesis 1 assumed that incentive system models are different for men and for women. For test results, see Table 1.

Table 1. The kruskal-wallis' test results- sex and effectiveness of incentives

	H	p
Tangible financial tools		
A1 Basic salary	1,27	0,2584
A2 Monthly bonus	2,22	0,1359
A3 Yearly bonus	0,20	0,6541
A4 Cash reward	1,56	0,2112
A5 Stock, stock options	0,06	0,7937
A6 Promotion with a salary raise	0,01	0,9579
Tangible nonfinancial tools		
B1 Subsidised summer vacations	7,09	0,0077**
B2 Cinema, theatre tickets, gym & fitness	10,53	0,0012**
B3 Special assistance loans/benefits	8,29	0,0040**
B4 Low-interest loans	6,22	0,0126*
B5 Subsidised summer vacation camps for employees' children	3,17	0,0748
B6 Company car, also available for private use	2,17	0,1405
B7 Company laptop and cell phone, also for private use	4,90	0,0267*
B8 Subsidised meals/snack/beverages (cafeteria)	9,53	0,0020**
B9 Additional insurance available to employees and their family	4,44	0,0356*
B10 Private medical services for employees and their families	0,91	0,3375
B11 Financing creche or preschool	4,16	0,0413*
B12 Fully or partly financed training events and courses	4,80	0,0284*
B13 Financing or co-financing vocational learning, undergraduate, graduate and post- graduate studies, MBA, foreign language	8,01	0,0047**
B14 Scholarships and grants	6,50	0,0108*
B15 Financing membership fees in a local and international professional and business associations	1,51	0,2178
B16 Financing business trips (flights in business class and accommodation in 3-star or higher standard accommodation, entertainment allowance)	1,91	0,1670
Intangible tools		
C1 Job security	0,53	0,4412
C2 Company reputation and prestige	0,01	0,9764
C3 The fact that the company I work for is socially responsible (cares for employees' and its environment)	1,76	0,1845
C4 The fact that company manages variety and all employees are treated equally regardless of gender, age, education, sexual orientation and disability status, etc.	11,66	0,0006** *
C5 Friendly atmosphere at work	4,27	0,0386*
C6 Good relations with coworkers	1,91	0,1673
C7 Work with interesting people	5,60	0,0179*
C8 Clearly defined career path (clearly defined promotion criteria)	3,25	0,0713
C9 Promotion opportunities	0,30	0,5381

C10 Professional development opportunities (easy access to training courses, participation in congresses, trade fairs, etc.)	2,28	0,1307
C11 Self-fulfilment opportunities (achieving one's dreams, aspirations; job satisfaction)	4,74	0,0293*
C12 Opportunities to demonstrate one's initiative, creativity	5,97	0,0145*
C13 Prestige coming from the position occupied in the organisation	0,02	0,8794
C14 Work content (types of tasks/ responsibilities)	2,41	0,1200
C15 Flexi time	1,02	0,3116
C16 Recognised importance of the life-work balance (employee's time off work respected)	6,43	0,0112*
C17 Work safety and comfort (modern equipment, ergonomic work stations, comfort)	0,54	0,4603
C18 Well-organised work	1,39	0,2370
C19 Independent decision-making, independence in performance of	0,09	0,7563
C20 Participation in the process of managing an organisation, personal influence on matters of key importance for the organisation	2,65	0,1032
C21 Praise and recognition on the part of line manager/s	1,31	0,2526
C22 Excellent performance recognised in public	1,88	0,1696
C23 Good relations with the line manager	0,16	0,6891
C24 Swift and clear feedback from the line manager (clear instructions/orders and feedback on performance)	0,98	0,3222
C25 Showing interest in personal problems of employees, making the effort to solve them	0,70	0,4013

Source: own study

As regards **financial tools**, the test did not identify any material differences in motivating factors in reference to respondents' sex. Their perception is shared by men and women alike.

In case of **tangible non-financial tools**, the test found 11 dependencies. Male and female respondents have different perception of some incentives, including: "co-financed summer vacations" $p < \alpha$, ($p=0.0077$), „cinema and theatre tickets, gym & fitness, etc." $p < \alpha$, ($p=0.0012$), "special assistance loans/ benefits" $p < \alpha$, ($p=0.0040$), "low-interest loans" $p < \alpha$, ($p=0.0126$), "company notebook and mobile, also for private use" $p < \alpha$, ($p=0.0267$), "subsidised meals/ beverages/snack (cafeteria)" $p < \alpha$, ($p=0.0020$), "additional insurance for employees and their family members" $p < \alpha$, ($p=0.0356$), "financing of a crèche or preschool", $p < \alpha$, ($p=0.0413$), "financed or co-financed training events and courses" $p < \alpha$, ($p=0.0284$), "financed or co-financed vocational education, undergraduate, graduate and post-graduate studies, MBA" $p < \alpha$, ($p=0.0047$) and „scholarships and grants" $p < \alpha$, ($p=0.0108$). In all cases, the incentives scored higher with women than with men.

In case of **intangible tools**, 6 dependencies were identified. Sex correlates with the following intangible incentives: "the fact that company manages variety and all employees are rated equally" $p < \alpha$, ($p=0.0006$), "friendly atmosphere at work" $p < \alpha$, ($p=0,0386$), „opportunity to work with interesting people" $p < \alpha$, ($p=0,0179$), "self-fulfilment opportunity" $p < \alpha$, ($p=0,0293$), a possibility to demonstrate one's initiative and creativity" $p < \alpha$, ($p=0,0145$) and "care to maintain the life-work balance" $p < \alpha$, ($p=0,0112$).

In all categories, women indicated higher effectiveness of analysed intangible tools.

The analysis of the correlation between the sex criterion and effectiveness of each parameter of the incentive system (H1 hypothesis) confirms the hypothesis. In case of 17 incentives, a discrepancy was reported in the assessment of the motivating effect by men and women. The discrepancy in assessment of tangible financial tools is not significant. Women are best motivated by “good relations with co-workers” – C6 while men place “job security” – C1 at the top of the ranking. Fig. 1 and fig. 2 present rankings of the incentives (tangible financial incentives in red, tangible non-financial incentives in blue, intangible incentives in green) by sex.

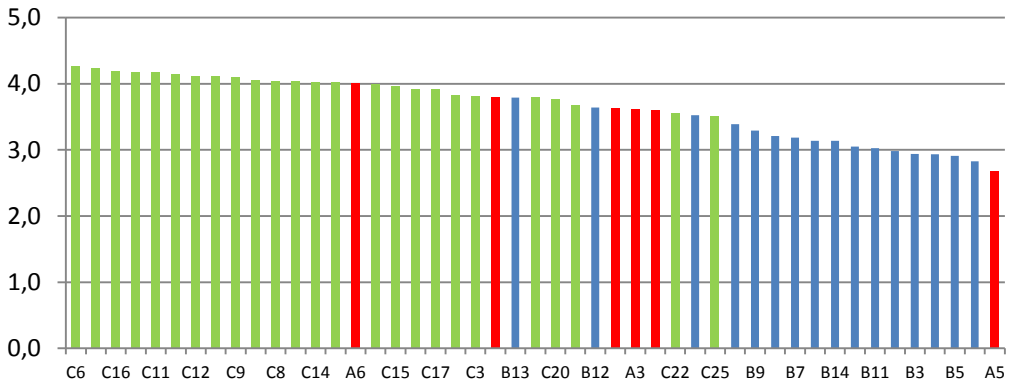


Fig. 1 Women’s ranking of incentives
 Source: own study

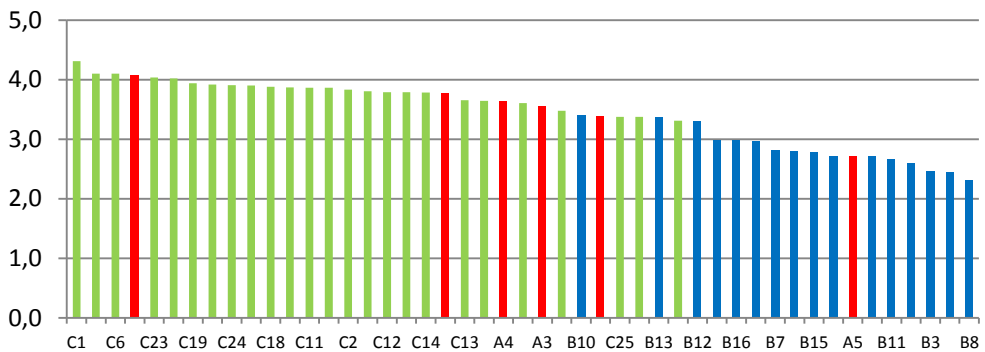


Fig. 2. Men’s ranking of incentives
 Source: own study

An interesting observation can be made from the analysis of Fig. 1 and Fig. 2 is that intangible tools are the most effective incentives. Salary did not come to the top of the

ranking contrary to the popular belief that we are best motivated by pay. In addition, note that non-financial tangible tools were equally unappreciated by respondents which could be important news to employers.

Nowadays, the importance of age management-related issues is growing. In the research, an attempt was made to identify motivation tools of particular importance to employees from different age groups (hypothesis H2). The Kruskal-Wallis test results of the research are presented in the Table 2.

Table 2. The kruskal-wallis' test results- age and effectiveness of incentives

	H	p
Tangible financial tools		
A1 Basic salary	3,10	0,5406
A2 Monthly bonus	7,04	0,1337
A3 Yearly bonus	4,01	0,4044
A4 Cash reward	3,64	0,4567
A5 Stock, stock options	3,47	0,4820
A6 Promotion with a salary raise	2,74	0,6012
Tangible nonfinancial tools		
B1 Subsidised summer vacations	5,90	0,2063
B2 Cinema, theatre tickets, gym & fitness	8,71	0,0685
B3 Special assistance loans/benefits	5,47	0,2422
B4 Low-interest loans	22,29	0,0002**
B5 Subsidised summer vacation camps for employees' children	23,48	0,0001**
B6 Company car, also available for private use	8,37	0,0787
B7 Company laptop and cell phone, also for private use	2,89	0,5707
B8 Subsidised meals/snack/beverages (cafeteria)	2,03	0,7292
B9 Additional insurance available to employees and their family	3,66	0,4527
B10 Private medical services for employees and their families	1,15	0,8862
B11 Financing creche or preschool	18,95	0,0008**
B12 Fully or partly financed training events and courses	3,87	0,4235
B13 Financing or co-financing vocational learning, undergraduate, graduate and post- graduate studies, MBA, foreign language courses	8,08	0,0883
B14 Scholarships and grants	3,37	0,4968
B15 Financing membership fees in a local and international professional and business associations	1,99	0,7375
B16 Financing business trips (flights in business class and accommodation in 3-star or higher standard accommodation, entertainment allowance)	0,42	0,9805
Intangible tools		
C1 Job security	10,43	0,0337*
C2 Company reputation and prestige	3,93	0,4142
C3 The fact that the company I work for is socially responsible (cares for employees' and its environment)	6,57	0,1601

C4 The fact that company manages variety and all employees are treated equally regardless of gender, age, education, sexual orientation and disability status, etc.	1,99	0,7370
C5 Friendly atmosphere at work	2,83	0,5855
C6 Good relations with coworkers	5,55	0,2349
C7 Work with interesting people	3,43	0,4885
C8 Clearly defined career path (clearly defined promotion criteria)	8,35	0,0795
C9 Promotion opportunities	7,44	0,1124
C10 Professional development opportunities (easy access to training courses, participation in congresses, trade fairs, etc.)	2,85	0,5817
C11 Self-fulfilment opportunities (achieving one's dreams, aspirations; job satisfaction)	0,37	0,9846
C12 Opportunities to demonstrate one's initiative, creativity	0,63	0,9529
C13 Prestige coming from the position occupied in the organisation	8,04	0,0900
C14 Work content (types of tasks/ responsibilities)	4,61	0,3301
C15 Flexi time	6,39	0,1716
C16 Recognised importance of the life-work balance (employee's time off work respected)	5,67	0,5254
C17 Work safety and comfort (modern equipment, ergonomic work stations, comfort)	9,75	0,0447*
C18 Well-organised work	4,96	0,2905
C19 Independent decision-making, independence in performance of	9,28	0,0543
C20 Participation in the process of managing an organisation, personal influence on matters of key importance for the organisation	8,39	0,0781
C21 Praise and recognition on the part of line manager/s	1,28	0,8641
C22 Excellent performance recognised in public	3,13	0,5394
C23 Good relations with the line manager	2,46	0,6501
C24 Swift and clear feedback from the line manager (clear instructions/orders and feedback on performance)	5,47	0,2420
C25 Showing interest in personal problems of employees, making the effort to solve them	3,71	0,4465

Source: own study

As regards **tangible financial tools**, the test did not identify any material differences in motivating factors in reference to respondent's age.

In case of **tangible non-financial tools**, the test found 3 dependencies. Respondents from different age groups have a different perception of incentives including: "availability of low-interest loans" $p < \alpha$, ($p=0.0002$), "co-financed summer vacation camps for employees' children" $p < \alpha$ ($p=0.0001$) and „financed crèche or preschool" $p < \alpha$ ($p=0.0008$). 2 dependencies were identified in case of intangible tools. "Job security" $p < \alpha$ ($p=0.0337$) and "work comfort and safety" $p < \alpha$ ($p=0.0447$) correlate with the "age" category. Graphs 3-7 show incentives ranked for each age category.

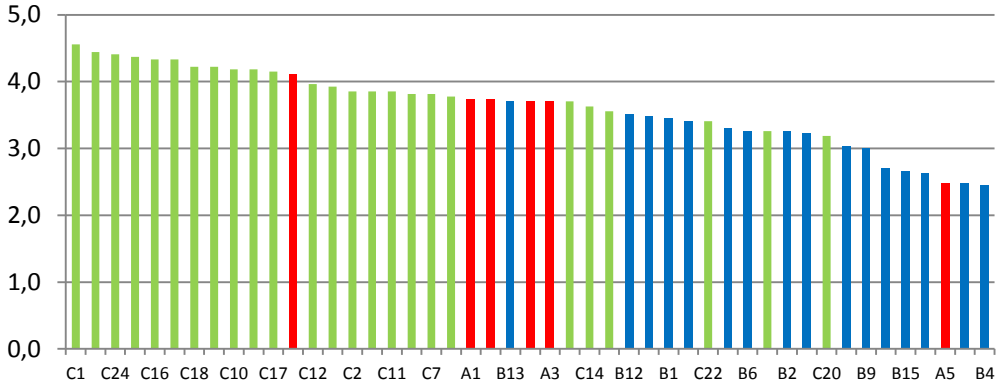


Fig. 3. Incentives ranked by respondents aged 18 -25
Source: own study

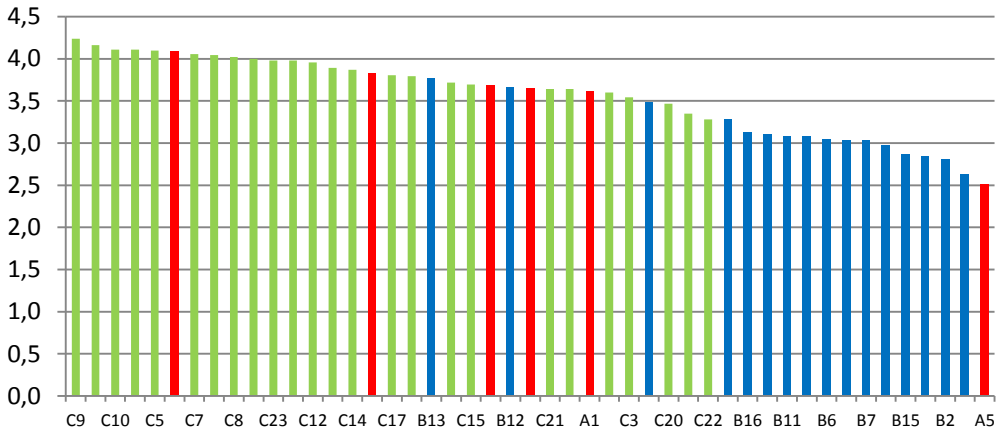


Fig. 4. Incentives ranked by respondents aged 26 - 35
Source: own study

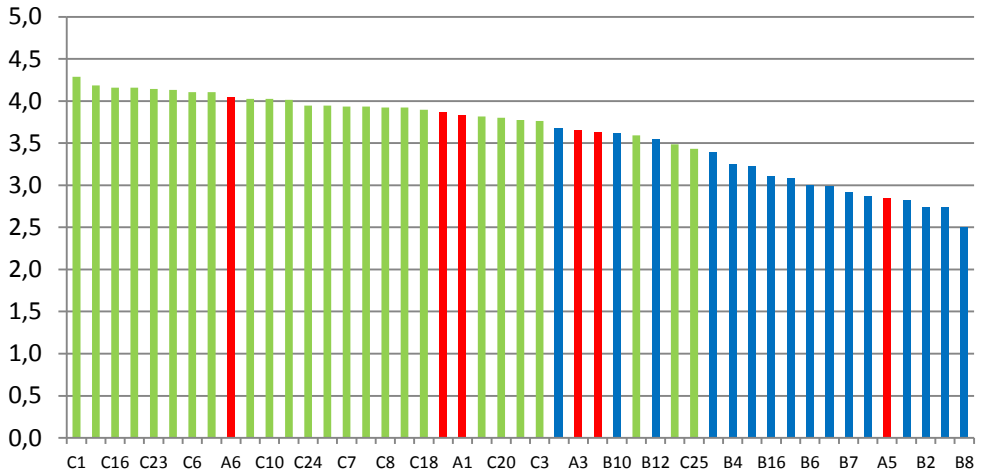


Fig. 5. Incentives ranked by respondents aged 36 - 45
Source: own study

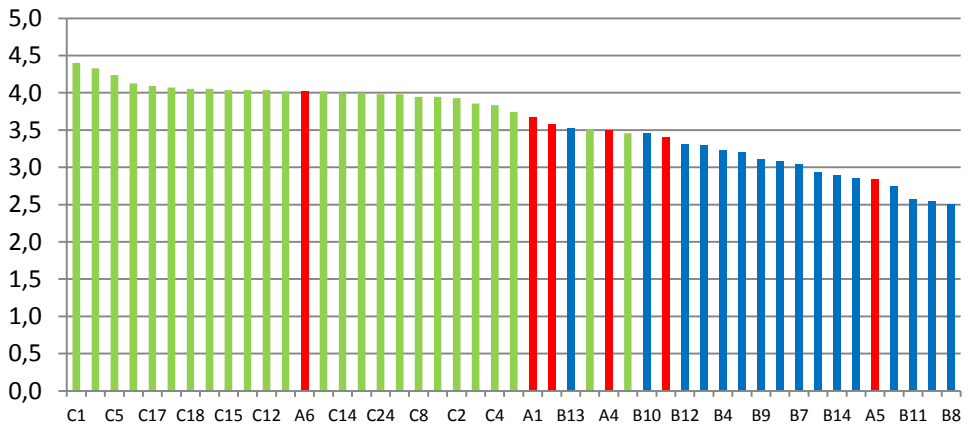


Fig. 6. Incentives ranked by respondents aged 46 - 55
Source: own study

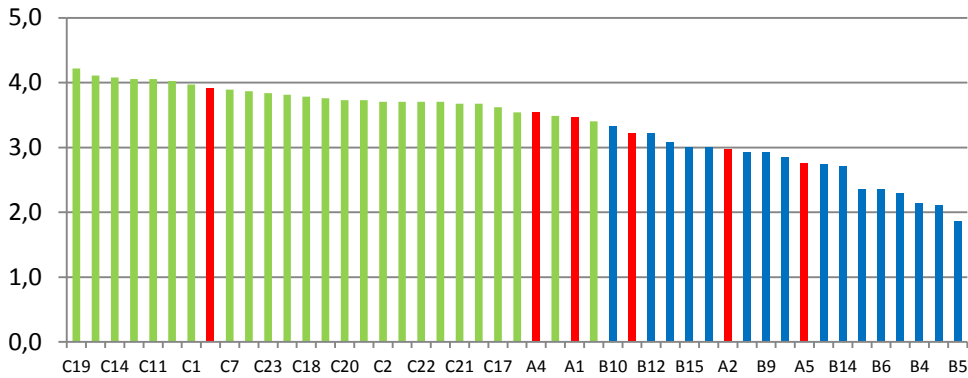


Fig. 7. Incentives ranked by respondents aged 55+
 Source: own study

The analysis of the correlation between the age criterion and effectiveness of parameters of the motivation system (hypothesis H2) confirms the hypothesis; however, differences are significantly smaller than differences found in case of other categories of diversity. Only in the case of 5 incentives, a significant discrepancy was found in the assessment of its motivating impact on respondents of different age and the effectiveness of the impact. The discrepancy does not apply to tangible financial tools. “Job security” – C1 proved the most effective incentive in 3 age groups (18 – 25), (36-45), (46 – 55). “Promotion opportunities” – C9 – received the top scoring in the age group (26 – 35) while respondents 55+ appreciated “independent decision-making, independence in performance of work tasks” – C19. It is interesting that it is the group of the youngest and not the oldest respondents that attaches the highest importance to security of employment. The research results go against a popular belief that young people entering the labour market are more interested in challenges than in stability of employment. On the other hand, more experienced employees think more about independence and autonomy than about preserving the status quo.

The large diversity of the research sample allowed also to revise H3 hypothesis. Multicultural character of business has become a fact. It is not unusual to manage multicultural teams. It is recommended that employers were aware of their employees’ preferences in the context of their cultural identity. The Kruskal-Wallis test results for this diversity category are presented in table 3.

Table 3. Kruskal-wallis' test - cultural diversity and effectiveness of incentives

	H	p
Tangible financial tools		
A1 Basic salary	17,55	0,0005
A2 Monthly bonus	39,68	0,0000
A3 Yearly bonus	15,94	0,0012
A4 Cash reward	7,38	0,0606
A5 Stock, stock options	4,66	0,1984
A6 Promotion with a salary raise	9,88	0,0195
Tangible nonfinancial tools		
B1 Subsidised summer vacations	20,27	0,0001
B2 Cinema, theatre tickets, gym & fitness	5,54	0,1354
B3 Special assistance loans/benefits	13,66	0,0034
B4 Low-interest loans	29,88	0,0000
B5 Subsidised summer vacation camps for employees' children	36,61	0,0000
B6 Company car, also available for private use	5,83	0,1200
B7 Company laptop and cell phone, also for private use	2,90	0,4065
B8 Subsidised meals/snack/beverages (cafeteria)	4,83	0,1846
B9 Additional insurance available to employees and their family	1,88	0,5970
B10 Private medical services for employees and their families	4,71	0,1939
B11 Financing creche or preschool	9,57	0,0225
B12 Fully or partly financed training events and courses	9,48	0,0235
B13 Financing or co-financing vocational learning, undergraduate, graduate and post- graduate studies, MBA, foreign language courses	6,71	0,0816
B14 Scholarships and grants	3,22	0,3580
B15 Financing membership fees in a local and international professional and business associations	22,86	0,0000 ***
B16 Financing business trips (flights in business class and accommodation in 3-star or higher standard accommodation, enter-	7,09	0,6890
Intangible tools		
C1 Job security	27,50	0,0000
C2 Company reputation and prestige	6,52	0,0888
C3 The fact that the company I work for is socially responsible (cares for employees' and its environment)	2,02	0,5670
C4 The fact that company manages variety and all employees are treated equally regardless of gender, age, education, sexual orientation and disability status, etc.	1,08	0,7815
C5 Friendly atmosphere at work	4,45	0,1985
C6 Good relations with coworkers	3,19	0,3628
C7 Work with interesting people	4,88	0,1801
C8 Clearly defined career path (clearly defined promotion criteria)	9,15	0,0273
C9 Promotion opportunities	8,19	0,0432
C10 Professional development opportunities (easy access to training courses, participation in congresses, trade fairs, etc.)	5,03	0,1693
C11 Self-fulfilment opportunities (achieving one's dreams, aspirations; job satisfaction)	8,48	0,0370 *

C12 Opportunities to demonstrate one’s initiative, creativity	6,55	0,0875
C13 Prestige coming from the position occupied in the organisation	1,49	0,0684
C14 Work content (types of tasks/ responsibilities)	19,86	0,0002
C15 Flexi time	19,02	0,0003
C16 Recognised importance of the life-work balance (employee’s time off work respected)	1,55	0,6695
C17 Work safety and comfort (modern equipment, ergonomic work stations, comfort)	4,63	0,2002
C18 Well-organised work	9,57	0,0226
C19 Independent decision-making, independence in performance of	7,63	0,0542
C20 Participation in the process of managing an organisation, personal influence on matters of key importance for the organisation	9,97	0,0188 *
C21 Praise and recognition on the part of line manager/s	1,09	0,7771
C22 Excellent performance recognised in public	8,35	0,0393
C23 Good relations with the line manager	6,79	0,0788
C24 Swift and clear feedback from the line manager (clear instructions/orders and feedback on performance)	13,58	0,0035 **
C25 Showing interest in personal problems of employees, making the effort to solve them	3,97	0,2537

Source: own study

As regards **financial tools**, the test identified 5 material differences in motivating factors in reference to the place of residence. The place of residence affects the efficiency of: “basic salary” $p < \alpha$, ($p=0.0005$), “monthly bonus” $p < \alpha$, ($p=0.0000$), „yearly bonus” $p < \alpha$, ($p=0.0012$), “cash reward” $p < \alpha$, ($p=0.0606$) and “promotion with a salary raise” $p < \alpha$, ($p=0.0195$).

In case of **tangible non-financial tools**, the test showed 7 dependencies. Respondents from different countries have different perception of the importance of the following incentives: “subsidized summer vacations” $p < \alpha$, ($p=0.0001$), “special assistance loans and benefits” $p < \alpha$, ($p=0,0034$) “low-interest loans” $p < \alpha$, ($p=0.0000$), “subsidised summer vacation camps for employees’ children” $p < \alpha$ ($p=0.0000$), “crèche or preschool financing” $p < \alpha$ ($p=0.0225$), “financed or partly financed training & courses” $p < \alpha$, ($p=0.0235$) and “financing membership fees” $p < \alpha$, ($p=0.0000$).

As regards **intangible tools**, the test identified 10 dependencies with respect to the place of residence. The country of origin affects the opinion on the effectiveness of: “job security” $p < \alpha$, ($p=0.0000$), “clearly defined career path” $p < \alpha$, ($p=0.0273$), “promotion opportunities” $p < \alpha$, ($p=0.0432$), “self-fulfilment opportunities” $p < \alpha$, ($p=0.0370$), “work content” $p < \alpha$, ($p=0.0002$), “flexitime” $p < \alpha$, ($p=0.0003$), “well-organised work” $p < \alpha$, ($p=0.0226$), “participation in the management process” $p < \alpha$, ($p=0.0188$), “excellent performance recognised in public” $p < \alpha$, ($p=0.0393$), “swift and clear feedback from the line manager” $p < \alpha$, ($p=0.0035$). In the context of the research theme, it was crucial to ascertain the importance of cultural variety of employees as a factor influencing the effectiveness of incentives reviewed in the exercise. The research process led to identification of 22 parameters in total; respondents from different countries have a different perception of their weight (table 3), which clearly indicates high importance of the analysed factor. Effectiveness assessment data is presented in fig. 8-11.

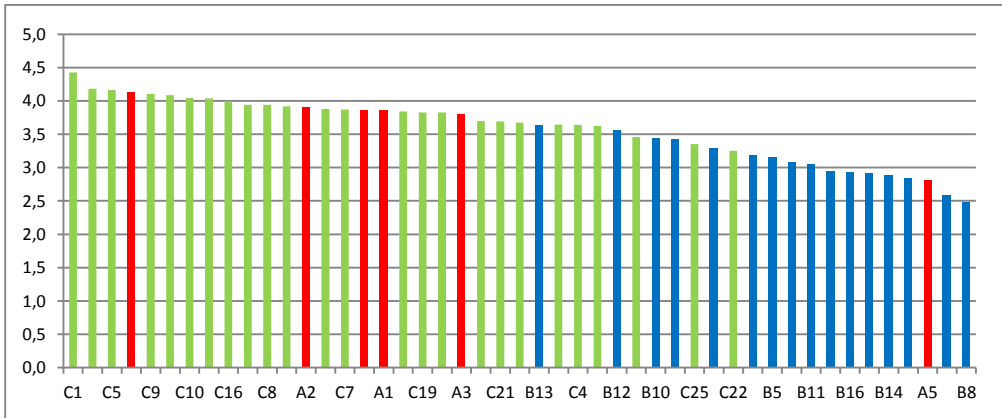


Fig. 8. Incentives ranked by respondents from Poland
 Source: own study

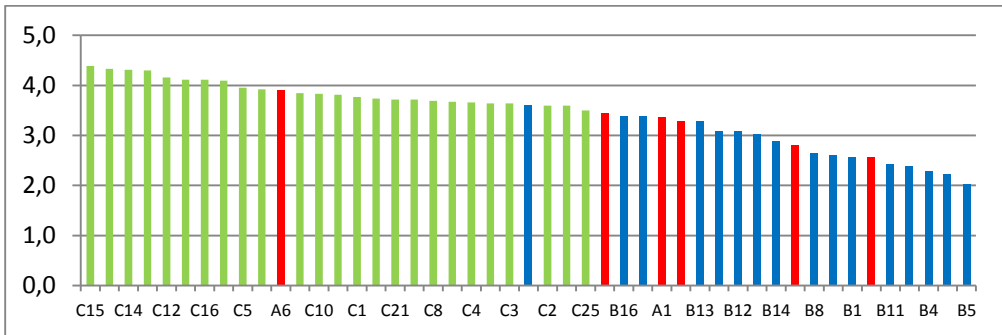


Fig. 9. Incentives ranked by residents of the USA and Canada
 Source: own study

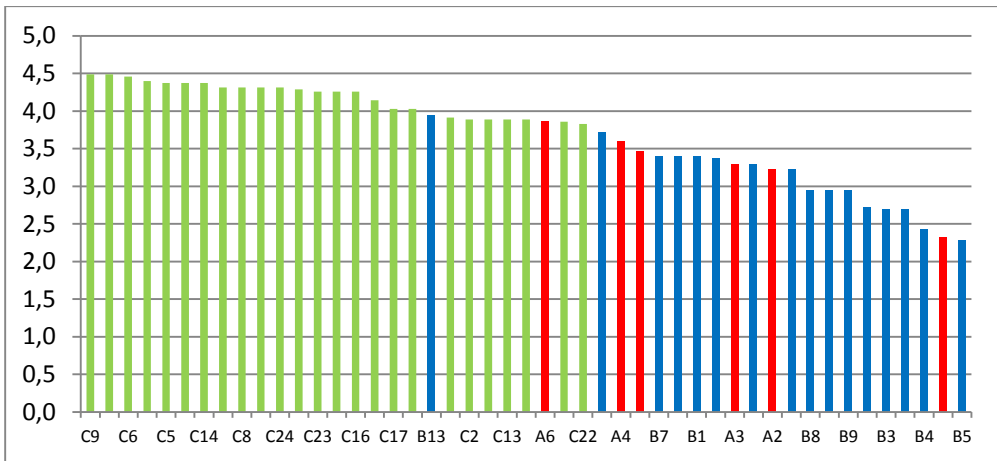


Fig. 10. Incentives ranked by residents of Europe (except for the Poles)
 Source: own study

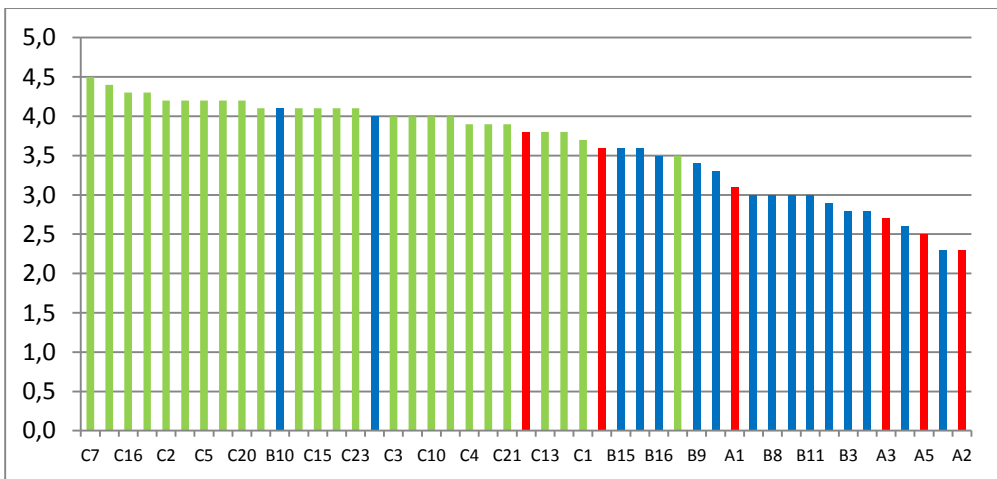


Fig. 11. Incentives ranked by residents of countries classified to “Other”
 Source: own study

The data presented in fig. 8-11 shows that representatives of different cultures, people from different countries attach the highest importance to intangible tools motivating people to perform. The Poles find “job security” – C1 – the most effective parameter, while Americans appreciate “flexitime” – C15. The Europeans who live outside Poland, “promotion opportunity” – C9 is the most effective incentive while people who live outside Europe and America appreciate “the opportunity to work with interesting people” – C7 – the most. It is very interesting to find that the research clearly undermined the importance of a salary (as well as other financial tangible incentives) in the process of motivating employees.

4. CONCLUSIONS

The empiric research involving respondents from 28 countries of the world delivered many interesting conclusions picturing needs of contemporary employees. The conclusions allowed for revising the truth of formulated research assumptions as well as achieving the purpose of the paper. As it seems, it was proven that the employment diversity represents the key factors that should be considered when endeavouring to reach effective implementation of the motivating function. Employees' expectations vary, which implies the need to identify them in consideration of available diversity criteria. Fulfilment of the above-specified condition will allow for modelling motivation systems with a higher probability of generating intended outcomes. The research results lead to the conclusion that the personnel is a group of many "individuals" with their own views, aspirations and expectations. Individualised human needs (their variety) necessitates fine-tuning of management tools, including motivation. It is an important task which determines the effectiveness of the process to manage an organisation as a whole. Appreciation, understanding and application of solutions which recognise employment diversity in organisations is a task which requires particular competences and deep understanding. It will certainly bring more damage than benefit when the process of introducing the concept is chaotic and unprofessional. In this context, a question arises whether, nowadays, employees have both the right tools and competences allowing for effective management of the diversity discussed in this paper. One of the leading objectives of the paper was to attempt at reducing the gap and showing academics and, in particular, practitioners the main directions for optimising the process of motivating diverse employees. However, the analysis leaves many questions unanswered, which, undoubtedly, inspires researches to continuing deliberations over the issues covered by the paper.

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ROLA ZARZĄDZANIA RÓŻNORODNOŚCIĄ W PROCESIE DOSKONALENIA UMIEJĘTNOŚCI MOTYWOWANIA PRACOWNIKÓW

Zarządzanie różnorodnością jest strategią, której jak dotychczas poświęcono uwagę głównie w amerykańskiej i zachodnioeuropejskiej literaturze przedmiotu. Stała się ona sposobem redukcji nieprzyjaznych zachowań wobec pracowników, drogą do ograniczenia lub wręcz likwidacji różnych patologii w miejscu pracy (mobbing, dyskryminacja). Pierwotny zamysł eliminacji niekorzystnych zjawisk pozwolił na bardziej dogłębną analizę istoty i znaczenia różnorodności we współczesnym świecie biznesu. Bogaty dorobek literaturowy z dziedziny zarządzania kapitałem ludzkim w organizacji jest pełen informacji o cechach różniących pracowników, a ważnych w miejscu pracy. Różnorodności upatruje się najczęściej w posiadanych przez ludzi kwalifikacjach, wiedzy, umiejętnościach, posiadanych certyfikatach, ich osobowości i charakterze. Pewien niedosyt budzi natomiast brak rzetelnej wiedzy na temat analiz oraz wniosków z nich płynących, dotyczących wpływu innych kategorii decydujących o różnorodności pracowników (płeć, wiek, wykształcenie, rasa, kultura, religia, niepełnosprawność, itp.) na skuteczność procesów zarządzania. Problematyka ta jest na tyle ważna we współczesnym świecie biznesu, że znalazła swoje eksponowane miejsce w kluczowych przepisach prawnych wielu państw. Ich następstwem stało się uruchomienie różnych programów, stanowiących próbę praktycznego zmierzenia się z teoretycznymi zapisami. Możliwość pochwalenia się tzw. dobrymi praktykami to jednak nie wszystko. Zarządzanie różnorodnością to droga do czegoś więcej...Celem niniejszego artykułu jest zaprezentowanie wyników badań wskazujących na to, że zarządzanie różnorodnością to także cenne narzędzie optymalizacji skuteczności procesu motywowania pracowników we współczesnych organizacjach. Zrozumienie tego, że pracownicy są różni implikuje potrzebę rzeczywistej identyfikacji ich potrzeb, a następnie właściwy dobór narzędzi motywowania tym potrzebom odpowiadający.

Słowa kluczowe: różnorodność, zarządzanie, motywacja, system

DOI: 10.7862/rz.2014.mmr.41

Tekst złożono w redakcji: wrzesień 2014

Przyjęto do druku: wrzesień 2014

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MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES FOR WORKING CAPITAL IN A TOURISM COMPANY

The goal of the article was to present a strategy for working capital management in tourism companies. At the outset the tourism company was defined. The targets for tourism companies that are crucial for the effectiveness of the organization were presented. Then the distribution criteria and classification of tourism companies were discussed. In the next part of the paper net working capital as well as individual classical management strategies were defined. The impact of various elements influencing the level of working capital at the various strategies was described in detail. The influence of various elements on the level of working capital in the aggressive and conservative strategy was discussed. Due to the different changes of the individual components of current assets in tourism companies, the attempts to modify the classic strategy of working capital management were made. Then there were conducted six studies of tourism companies operating in Poland. The studies involved individual elements forming working capital. The study period was 2010-2012. The research was carried out on the basis of the financial statements. In the studies the selected financial ratios were applied. The study showed which companies use modified working capital management strategies and how various strategies affect the security of companies functioning in the market.

Keywords: working capital, management, tourism company

1. INTRODUCTION

In recent years, in the industry associated with the tourism market there have been observed some spectacular bankruptcies. The bankruptcies were due to the inability to cover current liabilities, i.e. they were related to the loss of liquidity. In any industry the risk of payment gridlock occurs, and one needs to keep it in mind that this is the first step towards the company collapse. Managers, however, are able to use a number of tools that should work out a buffer that protects the unit against the loss of liquidity. Managers should implement appropriate management strategies that could protect the company from bankruptcy. Working capital is a very important area of financial management associated with security. Working capital management is very difficult as it requires matching appropriate policies in particular areas affecting its level. Suitable control of individual elements forming the working capital leads to the optimization, which has a positive impact on financial performance of companies and their liquidity. The selection of appropriate management strategies in tourism companies is difficult. This is due to the specifics of

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tourism companies whose activities are mainly based on the sales of services. This type of activity causes the formation of completely different individual components compared to manufacturing or commercial companies.

2. TOURISM COMPANY

The basic definition of a tourism company emphasizes that it is a business entity which conducts an activity aiming at satisfying the social needs and that its objective is to generate income through the provision of tourist services and the production of goods for tourists³. The first, such perceived tourist businesses started to emerge in the first half of the nineteenth century when widespread industrialization and urbanization initiated social change and related with them new consumer needs, including tourism ones. The need for recreation and tourism emerged, and consequently the need for a comprehensive service of travellers and tourists. The first company offering travel services was founded in 1941 and it was the Thomas Cook travel agency.

A more comprehensive definition says that the tourism company is a separate group of people performing activities to meet the needs of tourists and taking strategic decisions and tactical conclusions about the effectiveness of the action. In addition, this unit is equipped with material and financial resources and it is a subordinate of a specific internal organization⁴.

Each company is aimed at achieving specific goals that depend on both the interests of particular social groups as well as external factors. In the first case it is important to keep in mind that each of the groups (owners, managers, employees) have a distinct purpose in the functioning of the company.

In turn, considering external factors, namely the company environment, one needs to take into account such factors as the character of the market and the cultural heritage of the nation⁵.

The objectives of the company are crucial for the effective work of the organization and to fulfill many tasks. Setting targets is particularly important from the point of view of management as it promotes good planning and it can also be an effective tool to motivate employees. Generally, the purposes of tourism company can be divided into quantitative and qualitative ones. The quantitative objectives include: profit maximization, increase in size (value) of sales of services, expansion of the recipients of a tourism offer, increase in labor productivity, development of physical facilities (e.g. the number of beds and rooms), improvement of service capacity of the facilities and equipment. In turn, the quality objectives are: improvement of the quality of service, improvement in the standard of facilities and equipment, introduction of innovation in the company product, improvement of the system of distribution and promotion, increase of confidence in the company and trademark, improvement of the working conditions of the staff, desire to maintain good relations with the environment and strengthening of market position⁶.

³ B. Gołębiewska, *Wybrane zagadnienia z ekonomiki przedsiębiorstw turystycznych*, Wydawnictwo SGGW, Warszawa 2009, p. 8.

⁴ M. Bednarska, G. Gołębski, E. Markiewicz, M. Olszewski, *Przedsiębiorstwo turystyczne. Ujęcie statyczne i dynamiczne*, PWE, Warszawa 2007, p. 22.

⁵ B. Gołębiewska, *op. cit.*, p. 10.

⁶ *Przedsiębiorstwo turystyczne w gospodarce rynkowej*, ed. A. Rapacz, Wydawnictwo Akademii Ekonomicznej we Wrocławiu, Wrocław 2001, p. 29.

The proper implementation of the objectives determine the functions performed by a company. In the tourism company the functions can be divided into three groups:

- Basic – conditioning the achievements and their objectives (e.g. creation and sales of the tourism product)
- Auxiliary – of service function in relation to the basic ones (e.g. keeping in readiness material basis for strengthening the tourism product)
- Regulatory - consisting in the orientation of the company and keeping it in constantly changing environments

Considering the features of a tourism company one can also refer to the classical definition of the company. Then the company functions are associated with the functions of the entrepreneurs who, as owners perform the following functions:

- Functions of the overall organization, management and control
- Functions of current company management,
- Earnings function (the owners distribute the earnings by themselves)

The criteria for the distribution and tourism business environment

In the tourism market there are many specialized tourism companies. The main criteria for the specialization of companies providing services for tourists, include:

- Type of services provided
- Type of purchasers of those services
- Range of spatial operations
- Type of the performed function

In fact, we rather deal with a combination of criteria. This is mainly due to the specific character and characteristics of the demand of tourists, as well as the need to use an economic calculation in the conditions of market economy⁷. The most common division criteria in the literature of the subject are: subjective, objective, the size, area of operation, quality of service and ownership⁸.

The proper functioning of a tourism company largely depends on the environment, which is the primary source of information used in the conduct of business and management process of that activity. It is the environment that verifies the tasks and the objectives of tourism operators. While analyzing the issue of environment, it is necessary to distinguish between the proximal and distal environment. Closer - microeconomic, is also called sector branch or competitive environment, and it generally consists of the entities that, by transactional and competitive linking, affect directly or indirectly the condition and the effects of business activity of a company⁹.

⁷ *Ibidem*, p. 35.

⁸ E. Szymańska, *Innowacyjność przedsiębiorstw turystycznych w Polsce*, Oficyna Wydawnicza Politechniki Białostockiej, Białystok 2009.

⁹ J. Pindakiewicz, *Podstawy marketingu*, SGH, Warszawa 1997, p. 26.

In turn, the further environment, external – macro-environment, these are all the external factors that affect or may affect the company operations, i.e. goals, size, structure, methods of operation and achieved results¹⁰.

In case of microenvironment, the basic criteria for distinguishing this kind of environment are the relations between the company and other elements. First of all, there are any transaction ties, as well as other horizontal impacts formally independent which equal participants in the market¹¹. The main components of microenvironment include: purchasers, suppliers, intermediaries, competitors, financial institutions, research institutions and advertising agencies. But one needs to keep in mind that the relations between entities in microenvironment are not homogeneous. They look different in case of contacts with intermediaries and suppliers, or in relations with purchasers and they are completely different while dealing with competitors.

However, macro-environment is formed by a number of variables, actually independent of the company. These factors create a set of conditions of the company functioning, arising from its activities in a certain region of the country, a particular climate zone, configuration system, legal or political system. On the one hand this situation creates defined market opportunities for the company, on the other one, it represents certain risks and warrants its functioning¹². The basic elements of the macro-environment include: natural, economic, social-demographic, technological, institutional-legal, cultural and foreign environment.

The result of proper management of tourism company should be customer satisfaction. For this purpose the company can benefit both from its own resources as well as external ones. The basic potential of a company includes human, material, financial and information resources. The quality and value of the final product which will be offered to the tourism market depend on skillful and effective combination and use of tourism company resources. The specificity of the activities of tourism companies leads to minimizing of the inventory levels. In the tourism companies, whose the main goal is the provision of tourism services, the inventory level is very low or very often is zero. This fact makes in the case of the selection of working capital management strategy, the omission of this element during the implementation of the chosen strategy.

3. WORKING CAPITAL IN A TOURISM COMPANY

Working capital can be best defined as the difference between current assets and current liabilities¹³. It can, therefore, be positive, negative, and zero in theory. From the point of view of a company, in order to keep the liquidity it should have a positive working capital. It means the situation in which constant capital finances both current assets as well as part of the fixed assets. This situation is shown in the figure below:

¹⁰ J. Altkorn, *Podstawy marketingu*, Instytut Marketingu, Kraków 2001, p. 51.

¹¹ E. Kirejczyk, J. Sarnowski, *Zarządzanie przedsiębiorstwem turystycznym*, AlmaMer, Wyższa Szkoła Ekonomiczna, Warszawa 2007, p. 47.

¹² M. Bednarska, G. Golebski, E. Markiewicz, M. Olszewski, *op. cit.*, p. 66.

¹³ J.S. Sagner, *Essentials of working capital management*, Wiley, New Jersey 2011, p. 1.

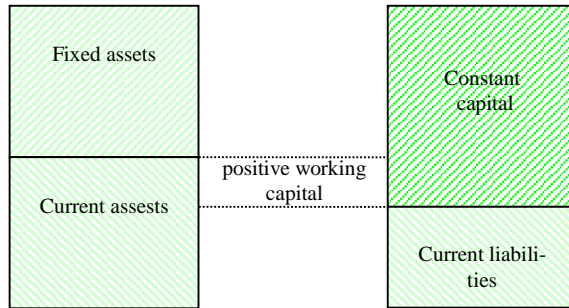


Figure 1. Positive working capital
 Source: own research

Positive working capital means company security. Current assets are financed by short-term liabilities and through the constant capital. And this part of the constant capital which finances the assets is called a positive net working capital. In addition, positive capital increases the chances of attracting new foreign sources of financing, as the size of the working capital is a measure of financial risk for the banks. Its possession is crucial for the company.

Working capital management is related to the management in four areas:

- Inventory
- Current receivables
- The cash means
- Current liabilities

In the tourism companies working capital management is difficult in terms of keeping liquidity because in this type of companies there are practically no inventories. Inventories are the elements which managers have the greatest impact on. By using classical and modern methods of inventory control managers can regulate their level, which makes it very easy to keep safe operation in the market. In the tourism companies the greatest attention must be paid to keeping reasonable levels between receivables and payables. The level of receivables can often be very similar as liabilities because the sales of tourism services is often in cash. Very often the deposits for tourism services are paid by companies.

All this leads to a situation when, in case of working capital management, short-term investments are the priorities. This is a completely different situation compared to commercial or production companies where short-term investments represent a small percentage of current assets. This change in the area of working capital management requires modification of the classical strategy of working capital management. Previous assumptions about capital management strategy are presented in the table below:

Table 1: Characteristics of the classical strategies of working capital management

Strategy	Characteristics
Conservative	Conservative strategy is to keep the current assets at a high level and short-term liabilities at a relatively low level. Companies pursuing such strategies maintain a high level of cash and inventories. In comparison to the above-mentioned the companies maintain lower levels of receivables. This type of strategy requires to keep low levels of short-term liabilities. To sum up the conservative strategy is a safe strategy for a business and it is related with high level of liquidity.
Aggressive	Aggressive strategy aims at keeping current assets at a low level compared to current liabilities where the level is significantly higher. Managers will, however, try to keep the faint edge of current assets over current liabilities. This strategy minimizes the most liquid assets, i.e. cash, it also seeks to minimize inventories and it tries to keep liabilities at a relatively high level. It is a very risky strategy.
Moderate	Moderate strategy consists in minimizing the weaknesses of previous strategies and optimization of their benefits ¹⁴ .

Source: own research

The application of the above mentioned strategies in tourism companies requires some modifications. In the conservative strategy inventories are minimized, cash is maintained at a very high level as well as receivables and liabilities. While applying these assumptions, the company is able to control the regulations of current liabilities and keep liquidity. In the aggressive strategy as in the conservative one the inventories are minimized. They are at a very low level of current assets. Cash and cash equivalents are reduced which is reflected in the increase of receivables. The company runs the risk and offers a trade credit, there is less cash sales. The payment of current liabilities is being dragged over time, their level increases there are more of them than receivables. This strategy is risky but its main objectives is to increase sales and to gain new customers. The assumptions in moderate strategy for tourism companies remain unchanged compared to the classical strategy.

¹⁴ *Finanse firmy. Jak zarządzać kapitałem*, ed. W. Szczyński, C.H. Beck, Warszawa 2007, s. 213.

4. AN ANALYSIS OF WORKING CAPITAL MANAGEMENT IN TOURISM COMPANIES

The study involved four tourism companies offering mainly accommodation services and tours. The study period was 2010-2012. The surveyed companies are the leaders in our market, their income in the years in question exceeded 100 million zł. Two smaller units with revenues of 15-20 million zł were also surveyed. They are marked as K and H. The studies were carried out on the basis of data from the financial statements submitted by the selected companies in the NCR

The first analyzed element was the level of net working capital. In the surveyed companies this level is positive. Three of the six companies reached a very high level of working capital. These companies will not have problems with maintaining liquidity. The details are presented in Table 2.

Table 2. Level of net working capital in the surveyed companies

Company / Working capital	2012	2011	2010
I	Positive – very high	Positive – very high	Positive – very high
T	Positive	Positive	Positive -high
R	Positive – very high	Positive	Positive -high
A	Positive -high	Positive	Positive
K	Positive	Positive	Positive
H	Positive – very high	Positive – very high	Positive -high

Source: own research based upon financial statements

Companies I, R, H have a very high level of working capital, and it is influenced by a very high level of assets in the tested units. Studies have shown that the ratio of working capital to total assets in these companies is between 0.7% -0.88%

The results presented in Table 3 on the financial liquidity confirm the information from the Table 2. Three companies during the given period have high or very high liquidity. It can be argued that it is over-liquidity, which may harm the finances of the company. Unnecessary freezing of money in current assets generates costs. High current assets mean high costs. The company security is maintained but at what cost? At the expense of reduced profits and the decline of profitability ratios.

Table 3. Current financial liquidity in the surveyed companies

Strategies / Financial liquidity	2012	2011	2010
I	8,4	4,4	3
T	1,2	1,1	1,3
R	7	1,2	1,3
A	1,3	1,2	1,2
K	1,1	1,8	1,8
H	7	10	15

Source: own research based upon financial statements

In the surveyed companies inventories in relation to the current assets are up to 1%. Inventories were regarded as irrelevant because they were omitted in further research. Then, a comparison of short-term liabilities to current receivables was done. The results are shown in Table 4.

Table 4. Relative ratio of current liabilities to current receivables.

Strategies / liabilities to receivables	2012	2011	2010
I	1,7	1,4	3,2
T	1,1	1,2	3
R	0,2	1,1	0,8
A	1,9	1,8	2,4
K	0,9	0,7	1,5
H	1,6	1,9	1,6

Source: own research based upon financial statements

While analyzing the individual results one important trend can be observed. Companies are trying to reduce the advantage of liabilities in relation to receivables. These actions can be seen as an attempt to increase the security of the company by increasing receivables and reducing liabilities. This is reflected in a higher level of financial liquidity. The detailed analysis of individual companies shows unequivocally that Company A uses the aggressive strategy. It keeps a very high level of liabilities. Company R, in turn, has a very conservative approach.

The last ratio that we analyzed was the ratio of cash to accounts receivables. Table 5 shows in detail the different values in different years

Table 5. Relative ratio of cash to accounts receivables

Strategies / cash to accounts receivables	2012	2011	2010
I	3	2,5	4,2
T	0,8	0,5	3,1
R	0,3	0,2	0,1
A	0,4	0,6	1,4
K	0,01	0,18	1,4
H	12	18,6	24,1

Source: own research based upon financial statements

Two surveyed companies have a huge advantage of cash over receivables. Having the most liquid current assets in such a large advantage in relation to short-term receivables proves very prudent capital management policy. It indicates a conservative strategy of working capital management. Company K minimizes cash, a high share of receivables indicates the aggressive policy of working capital management.

5. CONCLUSIONS

An analysis of working capital management in six tourism companies confirmed that for this industry the classical strategies of working capital management should be verified. This includes conservative and aggressive strategies. It is mainly associated with the minimization of inventory for both strategies and exposing the role of cash for working capital level in the various strategies. In the conservative strategy the level of short-term investments is very high which is often several times greater than its short-term receivables. This type of working capital management is characterized by a predominance of liabilities over receivables. Sales in tourism companies is by cash which causes low levels of receivables and high short-term investments. In turn, the aggressive strategy is a low share of cash in relation to receivables. This type of management is preferred by T, A, K companies in the years 2012-2011. Liabilities exceed the level of receivables. However, their advantage is not high. The aggressive strategy is, therefore, based mainly on the management of the two elements, liabilities and receivables. Companies do not protect their financial liquidity with cash and inventory which makes liabilities management extremely important. Mistakes made in this area of management is an automatic loss of liabilities regulation. In case of not meeting the payment terms, the problems for tourists and an immediate bankruptcy of the company occur. A very good and very safe strategy of working capital management in the tourism industry is a conservative strategy. Low level of inventory, a very high level of cash, no great advantage of receivables over liabilities make an effective working capital management policy, which is characterized by high liquidity and what is important, it is mainly generated by the most liquid components forming working capital, namely cash. Undoubtedly, such modified conservative capital management strategy is a guarantee to keep financial liquidity which enables companies to protect themselves from bankruptcy.

STRATEGIE ZARZĄDZANIA KAPITAŁEM OBROTOWYM W PRZEDSIĘBIORSTWIE TURYSTYCZNYM

Celem artykułu było przedstawienie strategii zarządzania kapitałem obrotowym w przedsiębiorstwach turystycznych. Na wstępie zdefiniowano przedsiębiorstwo turystyczne.

Przedstawiono cele ilościowe i jakościowe przedsiębiorstw turystycznych, które mają kluczowe znaczenie dla skuteczności organizacji. Następnie zaprezentowano funkcje warunkujące realizację celów. Funkcje przeanalizowano również w odniesieniu do klasycznej definicji przedsiębiorstwa, czyli wiążąc je z funkcjami przedsiębiorcy jako właściciela majątku. W dalszej części artykułu scharakteryzowano kryteria podziału i klasyfikacje przedsiębiorstw turystycznych. Opisano również makrootoczenie i mikrootoczenie przedsiębiorstwa, jako czynniki wpływające na właściwe funkcjonowanie i weryfikujące zadania. Ponadto zwrócono uwagę na rolę zasobów własnych i zewnętrznych przedsiębiorstw turystycznych w kształtowaniu i wytwarzaniu ostatecznego produktu, który zostanie zaoferowany na rynku turystycznym.

W kolejnej części artykułu zdefiniowano kapitał obrotowy netto. Zdefiniowano poszczególne klasyczne strategie zarządzania nimi. Szczegółowo przeanalizowano wpływ poszczególnych elementów kształtujących poziom kapitału obrotowego w poszczególnych strategiach. Omówiono wpływ poszczególnych elementów na poziom kapitału obrotowego w strategii agresywnej i konserwatywnej. Ze względu na odmienne kształtowanie się poszczególnych składników aktywów obrotowych w przedsiębiorstwach turystycznych doko-

nano próby modyfikacji klasycznych strategii zarządzania kapitałem obrotowym. Następnie przeprowadzona badania sześciu przedsiębiorstw turystycznych działających w Polsce. Badaniom poddano poszczególne elementy kształtujące kapitał obrotowy. Okres badań to lata 2010-2012. Zostały one przeprowadzone na podstawie sprawozdań finansowych. Do badań wykorzystano wybrany wskaźniki finansowe. Przeprowadzone badania wykazały które przedsiębiorstwa stosują zmodyfikowane strategie zarządzania kapitałem obrotowym i jak poszczególne strategie wpływają na bezpieczeństwo funkcjonowania przedsiębiorstw na rynku.

Słowa kluczowe: kapitał obrotowy, zarządzanie, przedsiębiorstwo turystyczne

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DOI: 10.7862/rz.2014.mmr.42

Tekst złożono w redakcji: czerwiec 2014

Przyjęto do druku: wrzesień 2014

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Circulation 130 copies. Publisher's sheet 16,76. Printer's sheet 12,25. Offset paper 80g B1.

Manuscript completed in October 2014, Printed in October 2014.

Printing Publishing House, 12 Powstańców Warszawy Ave., 35-959 Rzeszów

Order no. 120/14