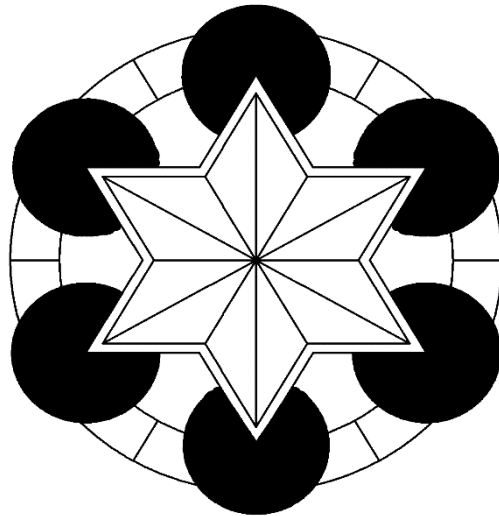


Proceedings of Scientific Papers

14th International Scientific Conference

HUMAN POTENTIAL DEVELOPMENT



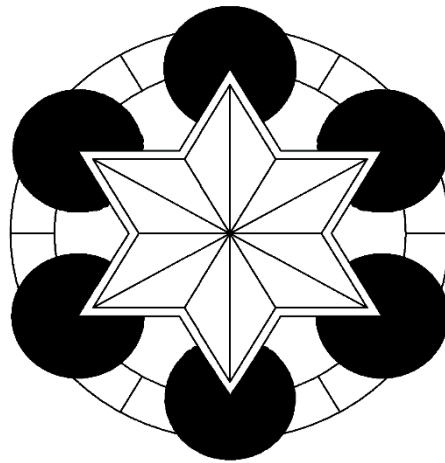
6–8 June, 2017

**Institute for Public Administration Prague
Benešov near Prague, Czech Republic**



14th International Scientific Conference

HUMAN POTENTIAL DEVELOPMENT



Conference is organized under the auspices of

Assoc. Prof. David Zámek, PhD.
Director of Institute for Public Administration Prague, Czech Republic

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Institute for Public Administration Prague, Benešov near Prague, Czech Republic

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Orientation of the Conference

- ❖ ***general issues of the human potential utilization and development*** (strategic management, international human resource management, human potential, social responsibility of business, ethics in the human potential development, higher education management, organizational culture, life-long learning and career, employer branding, work performance management, balance of the work and non-working life, flexible organization and flexible employment, personnel marketing, HR audit, HR controlling, modern forms of communication, the current ergonomics and environmental situation in organizations, safety at work);
- ❖ ***new challenges in the development of human potential and human resources management*** (confrontation of human potential and human capital, creating added value through people, the possibility of human potential measurement and appraisal, investment in human potential or capital, leadership, competence management, motivation of human potential, social media and information-communication technology in the human potential development, human potential and human resources in an era of recovering from global recession and social crisis);
- ❖ ***innovative models and practical approaches in area of human potential/human resource management and creativeness development*** (transfer of innovative models of human potential/resource management, culture of creativeness in the organization, wide approaches to talent management and creativeness development, age management, knowledge management, diversity management, value management, strategic workforce planning in regions, competencies of managers and employees in public administration, innovation in human potential development strategies, social innovations in human potential development and regional development).

Web Conference presentation: <http://frcatel.fri.uniza.sk/hrme/ConfHPM/index.html>

Conference quality assurance:

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TEACHING MATHEMATICS AT UNIVERSITY AND REMOVING MATHEMATICS ANXIETY: THEORETICAL AND EMPIRICAL EXAMINATION

RUDOLF BLAŠKO

Abstract

Paper focuses on teaching mathematics at universities and examines this theme from the perspective of both university teachers and students. Problems discussed include the mathematical anxiety, the quality of study resources, the objectivity of assessing students' knowledge, and the overall effort to increase the interest and motivation of students for study mathematics and perceive it as a beneficial discipline. Successful mastery of mathematics opens students the possibility to continue in their education and subsequent success in their future career. Theoretical part of the paper focuses on presenting the various authors' views on the desired profile of a teacher of mathematical subjects. It forms the basis for a methodological part which contains the results of a questionnaire survey carried out on a sample of 150 students of the University of Žilina. Survey was orientated on gaining students' opinions on the importance of 4 chosen aspects: the fear of study, the willingness of teachers and university staff to help students, the professional performance of teaching, and the capability of teachers to appropriately response to students' questions. Results processed confirm that the students (viewing university from the perspective of a great university) legitimately expect the education does not cause a fear and stress in them, teachers assist in their studies, all teaching is done on a professional level, and teachers are able to answer to their questions. Conclusion of the paper defines recommendations that have the potential to improve the teaching mathematics, from the point of view of teachers as well as students.

Key words: mathematics, teachers, students, anxiety, willingness, recommendations.

Classification JEL: M12 – Personnel Management.

1. Introduction

Teaching mathematics at universities often belongs to uneasy processes (*Klinger, 2009; Moder, 2016; Sbitneva et al., 2016; etc.*). So called 'mathematics anxiety' can be a key inhibitor for some students considering higher education (*O'Sullivan et al., 2017*). Students who have absolute (extraordinarily matured) mathematical skills usually prefer to study at mathematical-physical faculties, and only rarely choose other universities and faculties for their studies. However, regardless of the particular study program, there are also several study subjects related to mathematics (or algebra, mathematical analysis, etc.) at each university always. Successful completion of such subjects is essential for continuing the study.

If a university wants to establish itself as a progressive and guarantee a sufficiently high quality of study, it must devote attention to the teaching of mathematical subjects. According to Nelson, who is valued expert in the field of building perfect university, when creating a new kind of university, it would combine a redefined student body, a reinvented curriculum, rigorous academic standards, cutting-edge technology and an immersive global experience (*in Goral, 2014*). At present, it is no longer possible to teach mathematics despondently, without personal insert and close relation with the students. E.g. Arnold (*1997*) notes: „Attempts to create 'pure' deductive-axiomatic mathematics have led to the scheme: definition – theorem – proof. But it is impossible to understand an unmotivated definition.” Teachers must strive to explain mathematics at an acceptable tempo and with such educational techniques that take into account students' intellectual abilities also. Mathematics must not cause fear and dislike (as, unfortunately, we often deduce from students' expressions). Teachers should be prepared and willing to help students in mastering just such an amount and depth of the mathematics lessons they will need for their future (academic and practical) success. In addition, for mathematics to



be beneficial to students and help them in their future career, it should be taught at a high professional level: erudite and sufficiently attractive.

Aim of the paper is to analyze and generalize the various authors' opinions on the field of mathematical subject teaching and confirm the key attributes of modern mathematics teaching on the basis of questionnaire survey: to reduce fears from the study of mathematics; to help students in mastering mathematics; to teach professionally; to answer all students questions. Based on the results obtained, the conclusion of paper contains key recommendations, the application of which can shift the teaching of mathematics to a higher level, and thus contribute to the universities executives when building the great university.

2. University teachers and teaching mathematics

On the role of university teachers, it is necessary to look from the perspective of a highly qualified profession which is mostly understood as a mission: the teacher is the holder of education and the guardian of human and ethical values; s/he must cultivate the student as a multi-layer personality (*Slavík et al., 2012, p. 73*). According to Fenyvesiova, the university teacher is supposed to be empathic – to be able to feel empowered and understand the students s/he is educating and developing; accepting – to be supposed to accept students positive and be tolerant; congruent – to be an authentic personality, even be himself/herself, open, while students should know his or her expectations and demands (*2006*). Pasch et al. emphasize the importance of attending behavior. This means to apply a number of verbal and non-verbal responses that indicate to the students that the teacher listens to them and that his or her words (answers, deeds, skills) are considered important (*Pasch et al., 1998*).

This means that it is extremely important to adapt the teaching styles and techniques just to the student personality, because “students vary enormously in learning styles, i.e. in ways and speed of retrieving and processing information, forming knowledge and applying it under new circumstances,” (*Šimonová et al., 2010, p. 88*). In mathematics education, the Ontosemiotic Approach can be successfully utilized (*Sbitnetva et al., 2016*). This approach generally emphasizes the role of mathematical activity which is modeled in terms of systems of practices (oriented to problems solution) and configurations of primary objects and processes (*Godino, Batanero & Font, 2007*). Every teacher should construct new (or the more appropriate) methods or models of effective teaching according to the needs of students and particular objectives of the learning (*Shahmohammadi, 2015, p. 245*).

Attention should also be paid to the availability and quality of resources to be taken by students during the semester and when preparing for the exam. For studying mathematics, the students can now use a variety of learning materials and combine the different sources which they come from. In addition to the classical print resources and (notes from) lecturers' live lectures, electronic resources are also available. For example, Anastasakis, Robinson & Lerman (*2017*) consider with four types of study tools: digital/online, traditional, human and context. Students always combine resources and tools in order to support their learning; we can confirm the existence of blended learning (*Masie, 2006*).

The quality of learning resources that are publicly available to all interested parties remains a problem. Sometimes these resources are unlikely to be of high quality, often they are very simplified, or they explain the subject under discussion through questionable procedures, and the students who learn from them do not meet the demands or complexity of the questions asked and the examples defined. That is why the teacher and student's close cooperation is important, and the teacher's assistance is necessary in the orientation and selection of the appropriate study texts.

The ideal case is when a teacher has written his/her own *textbook* and teaches students based on this one on both lectures and seminars. This helps to eradicate student fears, and at the same time, mediates them the sense of 'supervision and help' from the part of teacher.



Moreover, if the textbook is reviewed by prominent and respected academics (from other universities), such textbook also gives students the feeling that their teacher is really a professional – s/he is a personality recognized by other distinguished authorities in the field of mathematics.

Exam is particularly complicated and sensitive issue, respectively *testing and assessing students' knowledge* during the semester and at the end of semester, after completing all the lectures and exercises. Teacher must keep an absolute objectivity and impartiality. Scriven (1991) describes evaluation or assessment as “the process, the duty of which is the systematic and objective determination of merit, worth, or value. Without such a process, there is no way to distinguish the worthwhile from the worthless,” (p. 4). Effective assessment activities should provide students with opportunities to demonstrate what they know and can do; as opposed to exclusively showing them how much they ignore and need to achieve (Ortega-Sanchez, 2016, p. 246). This means, the assessments plays a key role in university students' experiences (Hast & Healy, 2016, p. 11).

In last decades, discussion are led on the best formal organization structure and arrangement of mathematical departments on faculties or/versus universities. Discussed are two main possibilities: 1. The only one Institute of Mathematics exists at the university that provides the teaching mathematics for students of all faculties; 2. Departments of Mathematics exist at each of the faculties that provide the teaching mathematics only for the students of this faculty (in this case, there exist a such number of Departments of Math at the university as to how number of faculties exist at the overall university). For the first possibility, valuable aid in trying to reduce time exposure of teaching and testing the students on the side of university, and time exposure of learning on the side of students, is “implementation of online program and the use of multiple choice tests for grading the students,” (Moder, 2016, p. 9).

However, testing the student mathematic knowledge in the form of didactic tests performed on an electronic basis is very difficult, because a test in which students only choose one of the correct answers does not asses knowledge; this one will only determine the order of their score. The problem lies not in the creation of a test but in the form in which students give answers and in their subsequent (automated – but mostly manual) evaluation. One of the possibilities of such testing is, for example, AcroTeX, which can evaluate both numerical and symbolic calculations and even evaluate descriptive responses.

For the second possibility (Departments of Math operate at each faculty), teachers have lower number of the students for teaching, and because of this, teachers can approach more individually to them. In this case, the teachers can also utilize the didactic tests (written or electronical) but again these ones have to be precisely and responsibly worked out. Otherwise, it may disrupt the students' impression of the teacher's *non-stressing, human, professional and open/willing approach*. These four aspects of the great mathematics teacher at the university will be the subject of survey in the next part of paper.

3. Methods

Based on our complex aim: to continuously improve the overall course and results of the math education process, we try to consider the math teaching from a wider perspective. Because of this, in order to obtain students' statements on selected aspects of a great teacher, we decided to conduct a questionnaire survey on the Faculty of Management Science and Informatics, University of Žilina.

3.1. Characteristics of survey and respondents

In the survey, we used the questionnaire created by Prof. Ulewicz from University of Czestochowa, Poland (Ulewicz, 2014). The questionnaire consisted of 40 questions (20 questions about the desirable, expected attributes of a great university, and 20 questions



evaluating the current quality of the university based on the same attributes). Examined attributes were e.g. keeping the promises given, modernity of teaching equipment, availability of study texts, effectiveness of administrative services, etc. Survey was conducted in March – April 2017 and was attended by students of 2nd and 3rd year of bachelor study program Informatics.

Of the total of 150 responded students, there were 18 female and 132 male. Achieved ratio of female and male is enough to account for the proportion of girl-students and boy-students studying the information sciences. More specific student identifiers are contained in Table 1.

Table 1. Identification of students surveyed (own study)

	All students		Male			Female		
	Frequency	% of total	Frequency	% of total	% of boys	Frequency	% of total	% of girls
2nd year	128	85.33	114	76.00	86.36	14	9.33	77.78
3rd year	22	14.67	18	12.00	13.64	4	2.67	22.22
Total	150	100.00	132	88.00	100.00	18	12.00	100.00

3.2. Most important survey results

As mentioned above, we focused on the following four aspects of a great university and a great university teacher: a) not to raise students' concerns; b) willingness to assist students; c) professional level of teaching; d) preparedness to answers.

Mathematics anxiety

The first aspect, we paid attention to in our survey, was to find out the views of students on the statement that students of a great university *should not be concerned from their studies*. A worry-ness or even a fear of mathematics often stresses students unnecessarily and discourages them from the university studies. In recent years, also OECD devoted attention to the fear of mathematics, because: "Mathematics-anxiety ... impacts negatively on the professional development, employment opportunities, and even salary prospects of those students and future workers who suffer from it," (2013).

First statement („Student should not be afraid form their study”) was subsequently put in comparison with the next question/statement which examined the *real experience* of students in this area: "Students are not afraid of their study." Expressions of students are presented in Table 2. It flows from the Table that up to 68 (45.33%) of students gave the highest priority to the statement that students should not worry about their studying. Even up to 94.00% of students have been attributed above the average value to this fact. Only 9 students said they had no fear of studying, which is the difference between the experience and the expectations up to 59 students (almost 40%). If we consider the range 1, 2 to 7, then the average value is 4 and this value (4 and more) was expressed at least by 86 students (57.33%). Also, the differences between mean values and individual quartiles (upper, median, and lower) indicate that study concerns are greater than they should be, respectively could be.

In the following Table 3, unlike Table 2, the differences between the reality and the expectations of the individual students are summarized. Up to 116 students said their fears were greater than expectations (i.e. the real value for fear is lower than the value they should not have worried about) and only 11 students (7.33%) showed the opposite attitude. The arithmetic mean of these differences is -2.19 and the most common difference (modus) is -2 (31 students, 20.67%), the upper quartile is -1.00, the median is -2.00, and the lower quartile is -4.00. Even the difference of -4 and less was expressed by 41 students (27.34%) and difference -5 and less by 22 students (14.67%). This means the fear of learning is an important part of the study.



Table 2. Answers to the questions “Students should not be afraid of studying” (respondents’ expectations) and “Students are not afraid of learning” (the experiences of respondents) and the overall difference between experience and expectations (own study)

Value of importance	Expectations		Real experience		Difference expectations – experience	
	Frequency	% of total	Frequency	% of total	Frequency	% of total
Value ≤ 3 (1–3)	9	6.00	64	42.67	55	36.67
Value = 4	13	8.67	37	24.67	24	16.00
Value = 5	18	12.00	25	16.67	7	4.67
Value = 6	42	28.00	15	10.00	-27	-18.00
Value = 7	68	45.33	9	6.00	-59	-39.33
Value ≥ 6 (6–7)	110	73.33	24	16.00	-86	-57.33
Value ≥ 5 (5–7)	128	85.33	49	32.67	-79	-52.66
Value ≥ 4 (4–7)	141	94.00	86	57.33	-55	-36.67
Mean	5.97		3.78		-2.19	
Std. deviation	1.25		1.64		–	
Upper quartile	7.00		5.00		-2.00	
Median	6.00		4.00		-2.00	
Lower quartile	5.00		3.00		-2.00	

Table 3. Differences between the real experience and the expectation of students in the question: “Students have not/should not have the fear from studying” (own study)

	Frequency	% of total		Frequency	% of total
Difference ≤ -3	60	40.00	Difference < 0	116	77.33
Difference = -2	31	20.67	Difference = 0	23	15.33
Difference = -1	25	16.67	Difference > 0	11	7.33
Difference = 0	23	15.33	Difference < -1	91	60.67
Difference = 1	10	6.67	Difference = 0, ±1	58	38.67
Difference = 2	1	0.67	Difference > 1	1	0.67

Our results correspond partially with the survey results of Misra and McKean, performed on a sample of 249 students of Midwestern University: students experienced higher stress due to pressure and self-imposed stress as compared to changes, conflict, and frustration. Emotional and cognitive reactions to stressors occurred more frequently, and behavioral and physiological reactions to stressors were reported less often (2000).

Teachers’ readiness to help students

Axelrod (2008), when searching the characteristics of effective teacher and good teaching viewed by students, presents following qualities: accessibility and approachability; fairness; open-mindedness; mastery and delivery; enthusiasm; humor; and knowledge and inspiration imparted. We believe that *staff and teachers should be willing to help students* and try to see learning situations from a student perspective. For this reason, we asked students about this area too (Table 4), and again from the perspective of the importance for students versus their real experience.



With the willingness of teachers, it is slightly better than with the fear of learning. No of students has indicated the expectations below 4, the average expectation was 6.43 but the average experience was high too (5.36). In addition, up to 143 students (more than 95%) indicated the willingness of employees and teachers is at least 4, and up to 125 (83.33%) indicated this one above average. Only 7 (4.67%) students expressed the lower than average level (average score of 1 to 7 is 4).

Table 4. Answers to “Employees and teachers should be willing to help students” (respondents’ expectations) and “Employees and teachers helping students” (experiences of respondents) and total differences between experiences and expectations (own study)

Value of importance	Expectations		Real experience		Difference experience–expectations	
	Frequency	% of total	Frequency	% of total	Frequency	% of total
Value ≤ 3 (1–3)	0	0.00	7	4.67	7	4.67
Value = 4	4	2.67	18	12.00	14	9.33
Value = 5	16	10.67	52	34.67	36	24.00
Value = 6	42	28.00	57	38.00	15	10.00
Value = 7	88	58.67	16	10.67	-72	-48.00
Value ≥ 6 (6–7)	130	86.67	73	48.67	-57	-38.00
Value ≥ 5 (5–7)	146	97.33	125	83.33	-21	-14.00
Value ≥ 4 (4–7)	150	100.00	143	95.33	-7	-4.67
Mean	6.43		5.36		-1.07	
Std. deviation	0.79		1.05		–	
Upper quartile	7.00		6.00		-1.00	
Median	7.00		5.00		-2.00	
Lower quartile	6.00		5.00		-1.00	

When we compare the expectations and the experiences of individual students (Table 5), we see that less than two thirds of students expressed the experience less than the expectations. But only (up to) 15 students (10.00%) rated this difference 3 or more. For 38 students, which is approximately 25%, the level of expectation and experience on this issue is the same, although only 9 students said that their experience is higher than expected. The most common difference (modus) is -1 (54 times, 36.00%), arithmetic mean is -1.07, standard deviation is 1.24, upper quartile is 0.00, median is -1.00 and lower quartile is -2.00.

Table 5. Differences between the real experience and the expectation of students in the question: „Teachers help/should help the students” (own study)

	Frequency	% of total		Frequency	% of total
Difference ≤ -3	15	10.00	Difference < 0	103	68.67
Difference = -2	34	22.67	Difference = 0	38	25.33
Difference = -1	54	36.00	Difference > 0	9	6.00
Difference = 0	38	25.33	Difference < -1	49	32.67
Difference = 1	4	2.67	Difference = 0, ±1	96	64.00
Difference = 2	5	3.33	Difference > 1	5	3.33



When stress is perceived negatively or becomes excessive, students experience physical and psychological impairment (*Murphy & Archer, 1996*). Because of this, the teacher should always help students in their study or socialization and relational problems.

Professional level of teaching

Effective teaching of mathematics should be done at a *high professional level*. Nixon et al. (1997) point out the professionalism of teacher is focused on “the quality of practice in contexts that require radically altered relations of power and control” in a learning profession (*p. 12*). If a teacher wants to acquire and maintain a student’s esteem as a basis of respect for mathematics and an effort to achieve desirable academic results, s/he must behave as a professional: must be a great expert in the area s/he teaches. Teacher has to be strict and demanding not only for students but also for him/herself, and in conjunction with the appropriate demandingness, has to be progressive, knowledgeable, socially accessible, tolerant, and helpful too.

Table 6 shows the students’ statements about the importance they attribute to the professional level of teaching they receive from their teachers. Both the expectations and the experience are slightly lower than in the previous question but the differences are also lower. Lower quartiles are the same, meaning that at 75% these values are 5 or more, even when they are expected, even when they are experienced.

Table 6. Responses to “Teaching should be at a high professional level” (respondents’ expectations) and “Teaching is at a high professional level” (experience of respondents) and overall differences in experiences and expectations (own study)

Value of importance	Expectations		Real experience		Difference experience–expectations	
	Frequency	% of total	Frequency	% of total	Frequency	% of total
Value ≤ 3 (1–3)	2	1.33	5	3.33	3	2.00
Value = 4	14	9.33	27	18.00	13	8.67
Value = 5	36	24.00	59	39.33	23	15.33
Value = 6	41	27.33	44	29.33	3	2.00
Value = 7	57	38.00	15	10.00	-42	-28.00
Value ≥ 6 (6–7)	98	65.33	59	39.33	-39	-26.00
Value ≥ 5 (5–7)	134	89.33	118	78.67	-16	-10.66
Value ≥ 4 (4–7)	148	98.67	145	96.67	-3	-2.00
Mean	5.91		5.23		-0.68	
Std. deviation	1.05		1.01		–	
Upper quartile	7		6		-1.00	
Median	6		5		-1.00	
Lower quartile	5		5		0.00	

When comparing the answers for individual students (Table 7), then ‘only’ 80 (53.33%) of students expressed the lower experience than the expected. Mean was increased to -0.68 and the most common difference (modus) was -1 (41 times, 27.33%), standard deviation 1.39, upper quartile 0.00, median -1.00, and lower quartile -2.00.



Table 7. Differences between the real experience and the expectation of students in the question: „Teaching is/should be on the professional level” (own study)

	Frequency	% of total		Frequency	% of total
Difference ≤ -3	15	10.00	Difference < 0	80	53.33
Difference = -2	24	16.00	Difference = 0	40	26.67
Difference = -1	41	27.33	Difference > 0	30	20.00
Difference = 0	40	26.67	Difference < -1	39	26.00
Difference = 1	23	15.33	Difference = 0, ± 1	104	69.33
Difference = 2	7	4.67	Difference > 1	7	4.67

Ability to answer questions of students

Professional level of the teaching process is closely related to the ability of teachers to respond appropriately to student questions. Teacher should be mindful, should know connections and relationships not only within the subject and the area s/he teaches. In the mathematics, it is especially important. It is not enough when the teacher masters only the prescribed subject – s/he has to know much more; s/he must know connections and interfaces to other fields of mathematics, to other subjects taught (informatics, economics, etc.), but also to real use in practice. From this point of view, a further important question of our survey is: “Employees and teachers have the knowledge at a level that they are able to respond appropriately to student questions” (Table 8). From the Table, we see that only 7 (4.67%) of students evaluated their experience with a value of 3 or less, while up to 81 students (54%) rated their experience on the level 6 or 7.

Table 8. Answers to “Staff and teachers should have knowledge at a level they are able to respond appropriately to student questions” (respondents’ expectations) and “Employees and teachers have the knowledge...” (experience of respondents) and the differences between them (own study)

Value of importance	Expectations		Real experience		Difference experience–expectations	
	Frequency	% of total	Frequency	% of total	Frequency	% of total
Value ≤ 3 (1–3)	1	0.67	7	4.67	6	4.00
Value = 4	2	1.33	18	12.00	16	10.67
Value = 5	11	7.33	44	29.33	33	22.00
Value = 6	57	38.00	56	37.33	-1	-0.67
Value = 7	79	52.67	25	16.67	-54	-36.00
Value ≥ 6 (6–7)	136	90.67	81	54.00	-55	-36.67
Value ≥ 5 (5–7)	147	98.00	125	83.33	-22	-14.67
Value ≥ 4 (4–7)	149	99.33	143	95.33	-6	-4.00
Mean	6.40		5.48		-0.92	
Std. deviation	0.77		1.09		–	
Upper quartile	7.00		6.00		-1.00	
Median	7.00		6.00		-1.00	
Lower quartile	6.00		5.00		-1.00	

Comparing the differences among respondents (Table 9), we see that up to 95 students (63.33%) evaluated their experience worse than expectations, but only 14 students (9.33%) accepted the difference of 3 and more. The most frequent difference (modus) is -1 (51 times,



34.00%), arithmetic mean is -0.92, standard deviation 1.33, upper quartile 0.00, median -1.00, and lower quartile -2.00.

Table 9. Differences between the real experience and the expectation of students: „Staff and teachers have/should have knowledge at a level they are able to respond to student questions” (own study)

	Frequency	% of total		Frequency	% of total
Difference ≤ -3	14	9.33	Difference < 0	95	63.33
Difference = -2	30	20.00	Difference = 0	37	24.67
Difference = -1	51	34.00	Difference > 0	18	12.00
Difference = 0	37	24.67	Difference < -1	44	29.33
Difference = 1	15	10.00	Difference = 0, ± 1	103	68.67
Difference = 2	3	2.00	Difference > 1	3	2.00

This means, the teachers have to be reflexive and collaborative in developing themselves as teachers and critical professionals in higher education (*Walker, 2001, p. 19*).

4. Conclusion

Overall evaluation of the surveys shows that the real situation in teaching the mathematics is worse than the expectations of students. From this viewpoint, the content of paper can be seemed as very important and needed to solve.

Based on theoretical opinions and empirical examination, for achieve higher motivation of students for study mathematics responsibly and with greater willingness, teachers can apply following recommendations:

- Apply not only a summative assessment of the final student achievement in the subject, but also make a formative assessment. Formative assessment will give the student clear information throughout the semester about how s/he succeeds in individual learning units, and thus will improve the intensity of student effort leading to the successful passing of exam.
- Ask students for feedback on understanding each theme and, based on inspired insights, add and modify additional lectures and exercises (throughout the semester).
- Involve students directly into the topic of each subject (theme), discuss the possibilities of concrete use of each topic in practice and further study.
- Create practical examples for students to solve mathematical problems that will directly and continuously signal the teacher’s interest in students’ progress in the subject.
- Allow students (if they are interested) to generate more practical examples on exercises or seminars to deepen their skills and feel the satisfaction of their own self-development enthusiasm.
- Apply positive, friendly and highly professional behavior for strengthen student motivation to perceive mathematical subjects more positively, and thus eliminate the feeling of fear or dislike.
- In addition to perfectly prepared and desirably attractive lectures, to develop and make available to students a sufficient spectrum and quality of study texts (monographs, textbooks, exercise books, study guides, manuals, etc.).
- Prepare the final (summative) examinations of students from the math at a professional level, keeping the perfect objectivity of the exam, and concentrating the exam exclusively on those topics that were contained in the course curriculum.



To reinforce teachers' efforts to teach mathematical subjects in modern way, i.e. eruditely and with a prism of cultivation, the faculty deans should **reasonably motivate** the skilled teachers. Appropriate system of both financial and non-financial incentives can persuade other teachers to improve their professional and pedagogical skills and contribute to the positive perception of university and faculty not only in the eyes of students and their parents but also of the wider scientific and professional public.

Acknowledgements

The paper was conducted within the project KEGA 041ŽU-4/2017 Experimental Mathematics Accessible for All (granted by Ministry of Education).

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Positively reviewed by first reviewer: May 15, 2017
Positively reviewed by second reviewer: May 16, 2017
Accepted by Editorial Board of the Conference HPD 2017: May 20, 2017



MOTIVATION IN PRIVATE SECURITY SERVICES AS COMPLEMENTARY SECTOR OF PUBLIC SECURITY

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Abstract

Based on perfect function of public security institutions, an integral part of maintaining a sense of security of the entire population, i.e. production organizations, inhabitants, business owners, managers, and employees, are also private security services. In contrast to the state security institutions, private security services operate on a commercial basis. Therefore they need to protect their reputation and provide services to their clients on such a level that can protect the property, business, life, and health of clients. A key source of the success of private security services is (as in other sectors) an intrinsic motivation of their owners, managers, and employees. Analysis, comparison and generalization of knowledge about the functioning of organizations in the private security conclude that the spectrum of jobs or working positions in this sector is very heterogeneous. These positions require the managers and employees dispose by specific skills and competencies, while their performance is usually physically and also mentally extremely challenging. However, the low salary and constant sense of the responsibility and threats cause the motivation of employees and managers of private security is characterized by some contradictions, and, in comparison with the motivation of other organizations employees, struggles with certain problems. Emotionally problematic motivation sometimes leads to work dissatisfaction and turnover, and relatively low interest in this job. Inspired by mentioned tendencies, paper devotes an analytical attention to the content and the frequency of generated motivation programs in the private security. Methodological part of the paper presents selected results of the questionnaire survey carried out in an environment of private security organizations of the Slovak Republic. Based on the use of primary statistical techniques (means, medians, relative frequencies, upper and lower quartiles, etc.), we can deduce that most managers do not define individualized motivation programs for their employees. The result is a significant discrepancy in the assumed and real efficiency of the applied motivators. Above findings leads to a set of recommendations, the implementation of which can potentially improve the motivation of employees and managers in private security.

Key words: private security, motivation, employees, survey, recommendations.

Classification JEL: M12 – Personnel Management.

1. Introduction

Public security, i.e. safety of the entire country, is affected as a priority by public, state institutions. These ones consist mainly of the police, army, fire departments, rescue services, etc. Although perfect function of public security institutions, the safety of all countries and organizations in primary, secondary and tertiary sector is so much important, that executives of these organizations often depend on and utilize the services and performance of private security.

Private security services represent the unique type of business in each country. The intention is to provide professional services orientated to the protection of persons, property, and other values. In Slovak Republic, this one is realized under the umbrella of Act 473/2005 on providing services in the field of private security. Last actualization of this act was made in 2013 – Slovak legislation tried to be approximated with the European Union acts. Based on fact that private security services operate on a commercial basis, these ones have to carefully manage and protect their image and business reputation. They have to plan, prepare and provide services for their clients on a really high level and with a feel of absolute safety: clients' property, business, life, and health are fully protected.

The total security services includes and provides really wide spectrum of jobs, professions and services, structured into three groups: safeguard services (protection of the property and persons, order providing, providing raid warning, etc.); detective services (search for the



persons or property, retrieval of information as the proofs on court, etc.); expert training and advisement (education to performance of the safeguard and detective service, advisement in providing safeguard or security service), and cash-in-transit (professional cross-border transportation of euro cash by road), (*Act 473/2005, pp. 2–3*).

Alike as other types of the organizations, also the private security services meet with the remarkable number of various problems, namely relatively low level of motivation and high measure of fluctuations (*Blašková & Blaško, 2011*). These negatives cause e.g. low attractiveness of this employment, low wage, nonexistence of social communication between the employer and employee, none, resp. insufficient training, inconvenient qualification, and shortage of the employees (*Veľas, 2010, p. 805*). An explaining opinion of Zisner (*2011*) is important from the mentioned viewpoint: “Security cannot be looked at as a product, but has to be looked at as an experience because the standard of service varies from firm to firm.” It means, probably just the uniqueness of private security sector put on owners and managers even higher demands than are demands in other sectors.

On the basis of previous ideas, *the aim of paper* is to examine an employee motivation in the unique environment of private security and identify the most important factors which on the one hand distort the motivation in this sector, and on the other hand, gain inspiration on which motivational measures or instruments would be this motivation improved with. For that reason, methodology of the paper is based on following methods: analysis, synthesis, comparison and generalization of theoretical knowledge on motivation in private security; questionnaire survey on key factors (positively or negatively) acting on the employees’ motivation in private security; statistical processing of obtained data; induction and deduction. The final part of the paper summarizes the acquired known and complements the investigated area on recommendations proposition that have the potential to improve motivation in the sector of private security.

2. Motivation in general and motivation in private security

Behavior of every human is determined, explained, emphasized, and corrected by spectrum of *motives* that are characterized by and are owned and felt by this being. Motive can be considered as a crucial, origin and stemming phenomenon which creates inevitable, activating basis for every human being. “Motivated behavior results from a person being pushed and pulled toward some end-state,” (*Decker, 2016, p. 3*). Fiske (*2008*) points out the motive might be defined as a predisposition to behave in a directed fashion and operates via specific goals in specific situations (*p. 4*). Motive combines values and emotions; this one is desire for a goal or value (*Locke, 2000, p. 411*).

2.1. Motivation in general

In general, the set of human motives, as the set of accelerators, escalators or reducers of human behavior, is constant and unchangeable at the one hand, but at the other hand, is dynamical, flexible, and closely related to the conditions, demands, experiences, expectations, and imaginations in considered environs (varies and differs in concrete community or profession, develops in accordance with passing on time, etc.). According Maslow, we can take into account various type of motives/needs (*1967*). In the present, namely biological/physiological, psychological, social, growth, survival, altruistic, egoistic, etc., motives are important. It is a reason why “motivation of working activity is much more complex since different people have different needs and desires (i.e. motives) which means they are differently motivated,” (*Rosak-Szyrocka, 2014*). The idea-presumption of the growth motivation is key in the field of motives: “Humans are motivated to reach their full potential – physically, psychologically, and emotionally; they are strongly motivated to test and improve their capacities,” (*Petri & Govern, 2013, p. 17*).



From the viewpoint of psychological motives, referred to goals and intentions, these ones guide rather than impel action, and they are cognitive, particular, changeable and usually conscious (Hogan, 2012, p. 6). Although this paper is focused on the motivation in private security services, where the nature of jobs is very specific and connected often with the power-behavior (e.g. bodyguards, safeguards, etc.) – and we have to deal with the power motives (McClelland, 1987; Spangler & House, 1991) in a specific form, the social motives of security employees and managers are strongly experienced, and needed. In this area, the need for acceptance and belonging is a fundamental/core (Fiske, 2004; Leary & Cox, 2008; Bernstein et al., 2010; etc.). Baumeister & Leary (1995) even worked out the evidence of so called belongingness motivation. In addition, people are strongly forced also by achievement motives and are willing to devote intensive effort to accomplishing these objectives, because they have to show that they are capable of mastering challenging tasks (Atkinson, 1978).

When defining the *motivation*, Stýblo's opinion could be presented: "To motivate and event motivate effectively means to know basic motivational factors and master to apply them individually," (2008, p. 95). Motivation refers on one hand to conscious intents (to inner thoughts), and on the other hand, motivation refers to inferences about conscious intents that people make from observing behaviors (McClelland, 1987, p. 4). It is important to emphasize that, based on past experience, individual are capable of looking ahead and visualizing their future; this is a cognitive motivation and explains motivation as anticipation (Decker, 2016, pp. 4–5).

From the viewpoint of the employee's motivation, it is about his or her inner, own, self-imposed decision, why and with what approach will try to fulfill his/her task (Tršková, 2015, p. 17). From active managerial perspective, the improving of motivation, i.e. the motivating represents a complex process in which one should regard the diagnosis as a point of departure of individual needs of every person and taking diverse paces aiming at satisfying them (Igielski, 2015, p. 77); shortly: to motivate someone means provide (someone) with a reason for doing something (Soanes & Stevenson, 2003). Unfortunately, a person has his or her own reasons why he or she works in the company and the company often even does not exactly know these reasons (Tršková, 2015).

The idea is interesting that although most people seem to think that the most effective motivation comes from outside the person, self-motivation, rather than external motivation, is at the heart of creativity, responsibility, healthy behavior, and lasting change (Deci & Flaste, 1996, p. 10). Based on this, the thorough and meaningful harmonization of both the intrapersonal and the interpersonal motivation influence (i.e. process of motivating oneself, process of motivating others, including specific process of being motivated by/from others) should be permanently prepared, performed, and concluded. But, according Deci & Flaste (1996), only when the processes that initiate and regulate an action are *integrated* aspects of one's self would the behavior be autonomous and the person, authentic (p. 5). It means, when people are intrinsically motivated, their affect is positive but when they are ego-involved, positive affect is absent and there may even be feelings of pressure or tension (Gagné & Deci, 2014, p. 2). This is a little related to the regulatory focus theory which consider two basic motivational systems: prevention and/versus promotion.

2.2. Motivation in private security

According Scholer & Higgins (2012), people are prevention oriented (i.e. vigilant and security focused) versus promotion oriented (i.e. eager and accomplishment seeking); the latter are more interested in change and growth, and are oriented toward pursuing ideals. People are motivated to experience *regulatory fit* – behavior that is consistent with their prevention and promotion orientation. We can state that besides the others sectors, these motivational orientations strongly correspond especially with the motivation of managers and employees in



the sector of private security. And, using deductive way of thinking, a high level and positive results of the security employees' promotion motivation can cause/create a good platform for achieving satisfaction and good results of clients' prevention motivation (because of feeling of safety caused by good work of the security employees), and vice versa, prevention motivation of other sectors' employees enables the need of/for work of security employees and causes/creates a good platform for their high promotion motivation.

Shah & Gardner (2008) present the motivation regulation may warrant its own three R's: 1. Recursivity (it involves a dynamic process of feedback and adjustment as one progresses toward fulfilling a need through goal attainment); 2. Resources (personal, situational, and social resources are required for effective motivation regulation); 3. Resolutions (there exist many potential and subsequent conflicts or consequences of motivation regulation, e.g. between own needs and the needs of others, when defining what need to address, in how best to address the need, etc.). Based on understanding philosophy and content of three R's, also these approaches or principles might be successfully applied in the private security sector.

According to Kaye & Jordan-Evans (1999), what managers and owners of security companies don't understand is that although proper hourly wage is important, employees aren't solely motivated by their pay-check. The top three reasons employees stay at their job is: career growth with the opportunity to learn, exciting and challenging work, and feeling like they are doing meaningful work that makes a difference.

When searching motivation in the private security more deeply, a term that is in opposite to motivation, i.e. de-motivation has to be mentioned. "Demotivation is specific external forces that reduce or diminish the motivational basis of a behavioral intention or an ongoing action," (Dörnyei, 2001). A lot of factors can cause the demotivation. E.g. excessive control complains the force of creativity (Amabile, 1998) and perceived motivation. This may be a "control in decision making, control of the flow of information, and even control of loyalty systems which together put too much pressure on increasing the resulting motivation" (Sokól, 2015, p. 162). The strong disincentives or demotivation factors might include, for example, an aggressiveness (from clients, superiors, strikers, thieves, etc.), psychological terror in the workplace, congestion by an excessive number of tasks, or vice versa disregard and disrespect (most often from clients – owners of protected objects), contempt (from the policemen in investigating criminal events), insufficient communication, not-using the employees proposals, perceived danger or loneliness when protecting the large objects, and so on.

In the area of motivation versus demotivation, also a clash of dispositional effects versus positive and negative affect of the individuals plays an important role. According to Staw (2012), people vary in their sensitivity to positive and negative events in their environment. Positive individuals are more likely to remember good things about their job whereas negative individuals may tend to remember unpleasant or disturbing events in the work place (pp. 181, 183). This means that in addition to the typical demotivators or motivators (working with the same power on most individuals), it is important to know how the individuals assess the experienced situations, what consequences they draws from them for the future working (motivational) decision making and enthusiasm or conscious avoidance. The strongest and most active factor in this decision should be the superior of employee whose actions should focus just on effective (purposeful, efficient and economical), ethical and pro-society influence on the motivation, i.e. process of motivating oneself and others.

3. Methods

In order to enrich the knowledge on motivation and motivating in an unique environment of the private security, we decided to take advantage of our methodology created for the motivation investigation, that was previously oriented to explore motivation in the industry and the public sector (education, health, etc.), and target the survey now on private companies



providing security services in Slovakia. We assume that part of the problems and difficulties faced by other industries is also typical for the private security (different frequency of applied motivation tools, low frequency of motivation programs setting, etc.), but at the same time, we assume that in this sector the situation is even more complex, and more unfavorable.

We chose a method of sociological questioning, performed concretely through a technique of questionnaire. Questionnaires were developed in two versions: for employees (17 questions) and for managers (18 questions). Almost all of the questions were identical, only some of them explored the motivation area a little differently, from the viewpoint of managers versus viewpoint of employees.

3.1. Characteristics and results of the survey

The survey covered in total 50 respondents from various private security companies operating in Slovakia. Sample of respondents consisted of 28 employees (56% of all respondents) and 22 managers (44%). In the group of employees, there were 22 male (78.57% of employees) and 6 female (21.43%). In the group of managers, there were 19 male (83.36% of managers) and 3 female (13.64%). More concrete structure of respondents by age, gender and achieved qualification is contained in Table 1.

Table 1. Characteristics of respondents (own study)

	All respondents (N = 50)				
Sex/gender	Male			Female	
	41 [82.00%]			9 [18.00%]	
Age in years	20–25	26–35	36–45	46–55	56–65
	8 [16.00%]	5 [10.00%]	21 [42.00%]	9 [18.00%]	7 [14.00%]
Education	Secondary practical		Secondary		College
	11 [22.00%]		23 [46.00%]		16 [32.00%]
Practice in years	0–5	6–15	16–25	26–45	
	9 [18.00%]	17 [34.00%]	16 [32.00%]	8 [16.00%]	

Some imbalance of respondents' characteristics stems from the uniqueness of the private security sector which work much more men than women in.

3.2. The most important results

First of all we focus attention on the *motivational tools* that managers apply to their employees (in this view, we included also managers into the group of respondents, because they are motivated or unmotivated by their superiors too). Task of the respondents was to indicate which of the listed twelve motivators are applied to them. The frequency of these findings are in Table 2. Table shows that three the most frequently applied motivators include the following: verbalizing praise; showing interest in opinion and suggestions of employees; providing needed information.

However, compared with the results of the examination of motivation in other sectors performed in our two last surveys (2013, 2016), the frequency of application of threats and sanctions is significantly higher in the sector of private security (eighth place, i.e. 36%). Compared to this result, in our survey conducted in 2013 on a sample of 1,946 respondents (Blašková, Bízík & Jankal, 2015) and a survey conducted in 2016 on a sample of 2,626 respondents (Blaško & Stacho, 2016), the application of threat and sanctions was placed on last, twelfth place.



Table 2. Frequency of applied motivator (first number = the order of frequency; second number = the frequency of motivator; third number = the expressions in percent), (own study)

	All (50=100%)	Male (41=100%)	Female (9=100%)	Employees (28=100%)	Managers (22=100%)
Praise	1. 29 [58.00%]	3. 21 [51.22%]	1. 8 [88.89%]	3. 16 [57.14%]	2. – 3. 13 [59.09%]
Interest in employees opinion	2. 28 [56.00%]	1. – 2. 23 [56.10%]	3. – 4. 5 [55.56%]	4. – 5. 13 [46.43%]	1. 15 [68.18%]
Providing needed information	3. 27 [54.00%]	5. 20 [48.78%]	2. 7 [77.78%]	1. – 2. 17 [60.71%]	5. 10 [45.45%]
Personal charge and rewards	4. – 5. 26 [52.00%]	1. – 2. 23 [56.10%]	8. – 10. 3 [33.33%]	1. – 2. 17 [60.71%]	6. 9 [40.91%]
Providing autonomy in action	4. – 5. 26 [52.00%]	4. 21 [51.22%]	3. – 4. 5 [55.56%]	4. – 5. 13 [46.43%]	2. – 3. 13 [59.09%]
Correctness from superiors and company management	6. 20 [40.00%]	6. 17 [41.46%]	8. – 10. 3 [33.33%]	9. – 10. 8 [28.57%]	4. 12 [54.55%]
Criterion of work performance appraisal	7. 19 [38.00%]	7. – 9. 15 [36.59%]	5. – 7. 4 [44.44%]	7. – 8. 11 [39.29%]	7. 8 [36.36%]
Providing threats and sanctions	8. 18 [36.00%]	7. – 9. 15 [36.59%]	8. – 10. 3 [33.33%]	7. – 8. 11 [39.29%]	8. 7 [31.82%]
Building good relations and atmosphere	9. 17 [34.00%]	7. – 9. 15 [36.59%]	11. 2 [22.22%]	6. 12 [42.86%]	10. 5 [22.73%]
Participation in development and training	10. 14 [28.00%]	10. 10 [24.39%]	5. – 7. 4 [44.44%]	9. – 10. 8 [28.57%]	9. 6 [27.27%]
Career growth	11. – 12. 8 [16.00%]	11. 7 [17.07%]	12. 1 [11.11%]	11. – 12. 4 [14.29%]	11. – 12. 4 [18.18%]
Engaging into decision making	11. – 12. 8 [16.00%]	12. 4 [9.76%]	5. – 7. 4 [44.44%]	11. – 12. 4 [14.29%]	11. – 12. 4 [18.18%]

Subsequently, we investigated what is the perceived *effectiveness* of applied motivators. Role of the respondents were to assign a motivational force to each motivator at a scale of 1 (least efficient tool) to 10 (most effective tool). Table 3 shows that following three motivators obtained the highest efficiency: seriousness/correctness from superior (8.14), good relations (7.5) and space for autonomy (7.48).

If we consider the scale 1 – ineffective (i.e., 0% efficiency) to 10 – absolutely effective motivator (i.e. 100% efficiency), then the 1 point increase corresponds to the efficiency of $100/9 = 11.11\%$ and value 8.14 for the correctness of the superior corresponds to the efficiency $(8.14 - 1) \cdot 100/9 = 79.33\%$.

Good relationships reached the value 7.50, i.e. an efficiency of 72.22%, and an autonomy space of 7.48 shows an efficiency of 72.00%. The lowest efficiency (30.22%) with a value of 3.72 has been achieved by threats and sanctioning.



Table 3. Efficiency of applied motivators (own study)

	Correctness	Good relations	Autonomy	Interest
Mean	8.14	7.50	7.48	7.40
Standard deviation	2.27	2.51	2.45	2.14
Coeff. of variation	0.28	0.33	0.33	0.29
Upper quartile	10.00	10.00	10.00	10.00
Median	9.00	8.00	8.00	7.00
Lower quartile	8.00	6.00	5.00	6.00
Modus	10.00 (12 times)	10.00 (17 times)	10.00 (11 times)	7.00 (14 times)
	Information	Personal charge	Appraisal criteria	Career
Mean	7.32	7.20	6.72	6.50
Standard deviation	2.44	2.57	2.51	2.83
Coeff. of variation	0.33	0.36	0.37	0.44
Upper quartile	9.00	9.00	9.00	10.00
Median	8.00	8.00	7.00	6.00
Lower quartile	6.00	5.00	5.00	5.00
Modus	8.00 (14 times)	10.00 (11 times)	5.00 (14 times)	10.00 (13 times)
	Praise	Engagement	Development	Threats
Mean	6.54	5.68	5.48	3.72
Standard deviation	2.68	2.22	2.44	2.91
Coeff. of variation	0.41	0.39	0.45	0.78
Upper quartile	8.00	7.00	7.00	5.00
Median	7.00	5.50	5.00	3.00
Lower quartile	5.00	5.00	4.00	1.00
Modus	10.00 (12 times)	5.00 (15 times)	5.00 (15 times)	1.00 (13 times)

In the next question, we asked respondents to select three most important motivators among all twelve motivators (in order from most important). This question allowed us to sort out among the motivators with high efficiency just the most important tools that managers should apply as much as possible. The most important motivators are considered the following (Table 4): correctness from the superior (30 times; 60% of respondents ranked this motivator in the first trio); providing the personal charge or bonus (26 times; 52%); allowing career growth (19 times; 38.00%).

In order to have a clearer picture of the motivators importance, we have assigned them the weight – to the first (most important) we assigned the weight 3, the second obtained the weight 2 and the third was weighting by 1. After the recalculation, we were given a weighted order that corresponded to the previous order in the first three places, but this even highlighted the importance of these motivators (weights 66, 57, 44 in Table 4). Although female accounted for only 18% of all respondents, we can state that as the most important motivators, they stated the award of a personal charge and bonus (5 times, 55.56%), correctness by the superiors and company management (4 times, 44.44%), and interest in their opinion and suggestion (4 times; 44.44%). In a weighted order, results were as follows: expressing interest in opinions and suggestions (weight = 11), enabling career growth (weight = 8), correctness by the supervisor and management, and giving a personal surcharge (both obtained weight = 7). Notable, but not unpredictable, is the fact that *none of the respondents ranked threats and sanctions among their*



three most important motivators (because of this, threats and sanctions are not presented in Table 4). All other motivators have been tagged at least three times.

Table 4. Frequency (number of respondents' expressions) of 3 most important motivators (own study)

	All (N = 50)		Male (N = 41)		Female (N = 9)	
	Unweighted value	Weighted value	Unweighted value	Weighted value	Unweighted value	Weighted value
Correctness from superior	30	66	26	59	4	7
Personal charge	26	57	21	50	5	7
Career growth	19	44	16	36	3	8
Good relations	15	23	12	18	3	5
Interest in opinion	15	31	11	20	4	11
Autonomy in action	13	24	11	21	2	3
Providing information	10	16	9	14	1	2
Praise	8	16	5	10	3	6
Criterion of work appraisal	7	9	6	7	1	2
Engaging into decision	4	6	4	6		
Development and training	3	8	2	5	1	3

Attention was also focused on the comparison of motivators in terms of *perceived effectiveness viewed from the side of employees* (as the value of efficiency we considered the value of mean) *versus real frequency of their application* (from the side of managers). From the comparison an interesting fact came out (Table 5): the two most effective and most frequently used motivators are the same (correctness from the superior and praise/interest in opinions). This, compared to our other surveys, is a rare and scarce consensus.

Table 5. Perceived efficiency of motivators versus frequency of motivators application (own study)

	Employees (efficiency of motivators)			Managers (application of motivators)		
	Mean	Efficiency		Frequency	% of N = 22	
Personal charge	3.	7.75	75.00%	6.	12	54.55%
Praise	8.	7.00	66.67%	2.	17	77.27%
Interest on employees opinion	1.	8.04	78.22%	2.	17	77.27%
Career growth	7.	7.11	67.89%	9.	7	31.82%
Development and training	11.	5.79	53.22%	11.	4	18.18%
Engaging into decision making	10.	6.00	55.56%	8.	8	36.36%
Providing information	4.	7.71	74.56%	6.	12	54.55%
Good relations and atmosphere	6.	7.61	73.44%	4.	16	72.73%
Autonomy in action	4.	7.71	74.56%	5.	15	68.18%
Seriousness of superior	2.	7.93	77.00%	1.	18	81.82%
Criterion of work appraisal	9.	6.61	62.335	10.	5	22.73%
Threats and sanctions	12.	3.89	32.11%	11.	4	18.18%



However, motivation tools order of effectiveness and frequency of application are just the opposite. Of course, as we have guessed, in other places the views of both sides are a bit different. The three most effective tools for *employees* are: express an interest in opinions of employees (2nd place in the frequency of application by managers), correctness from the superior (1st place in the frequency of application) and personal surcharge (6th place in the frequency of application), but the most frequently used tools from *managers* are: correctness by the supervisor and management (2nd highest efficiency perceived by employees), expressing interest in opinions and suggestions (highest efficiency), and praising (8th efficiency). In Table 3, these efficiencies were presented from the point of view of all respondents (including managers) while Table 5 presents the efficiency only from employee point of view vs. their superior's viewpoint.

The last of surveyed areas was the creating/setting of *motivation programs*. Respondents were asked to choose one of the following three statements: (1) The manager creates an individual motivation program for me; (2) The manager creates the motivation program even with my participation; (3) The manager does not create a motivational program for me. On the contrary, managers were asked whether and how they create motivation programs for their employees. The results are included in Table 6. It is evident that the motivation programs are not created for up to 53.57% of respondents (employees) while up to 68.19% of managers (superiors of responded employees) expressed that they worked out motivation programs for their employees. This again confirms the existing discrepancy between the employees' and managers' feelings, perspectives, and convictions.

Table 6. Creating the motivation programs for employees (own study)

	Employees (N = 28)		Managers (N = 22)	
Yes	12	42.86%	11	50.00%
Yes, even in participation with employees	1	3.57%	4	18.18%
No	15	53.57%	7	31.82%

Table 7. Motivation to quality of work and increase of knowledge and expertise (own study)

	Motivation to quality of work						Motivation to improve knowledge and expertise					
	All (n = 50)		Male (n = 41)		Female (n = 9)		All (n = 50)		Male (n = 41)		Female (n = 9)	
High	28	56.00%	23	56.10%	5	55.56%	14	28.00%	11	26.83%	3	33.33%
Rather high	17	34.00%	15	36.58%	2	22.22%	26	52.00%	23	56.10%	3	33.33%
Average	4	8.00%	2	4.88%	2	22.22%	8	16.00%	5	12.20%	3	33.33%
Rather low							2	4.00%	2	4.88%		
Low	1	2.00%	1	2.44%								
(Mostly) high	45	90.00%	38	93.68%	10	77.78%	40	80.00%	34	82.93%	6	66.67%
Average	4	8.00%	2	4.88%	2	22.22%	8	16.00%	5	12.20%	3	33.33%
(Mostly) low	1	1.00%	1	2.44%			2	4.00%	2	4.88%		
Mean	4.42		4.44		4.33		4.04		4.05		4.00	
Upper q.	5		5		5		5.00		5.00		5.00	
Median	5		5		5		4.00		4.00		4.00	
Lower q.	4		4		3.5		4.00		4.00		3.00	



Results presented in Table 7 have shown a particularly interesting fact: despite the low number of motivation programs created, the motivation in the private security sector (results of the research on the motivation for quality of work and motivation for the improvement of one's own skills seems very high.

Up to 90% of respondents feel high and rather high motivation for their quality work (56% of them marked even the high level) and 80% of respondents feel high and rather high (28% of them marked the high level) motivation to improve their own skills. For female, these values are a little lower but this can also be due to the number of samples.

Of course, to achieve an absolute level of motivation is probably unrealistic, but compared with an average of motivation in industry and education identified in our previous survey (2013), the situation is much better: high motivation was marked by 19.95% and rather high motivation was marked by 51.13% of all respondents (*Blašková, Bízík & Jankal, 2015*).

3.3. Discussion

Zisner (2011), based on interviews with USA security companies owners, supervisors and employees, pointed out four basic problems in private security: 1. Lack of state mandated security guard training (e.g. in California only 36 hours of training are required for qualification to carry a firearm, baton, mace and handcuffs in comparison with Police Officers who have to be trained 340 hours); 2. High expectations of the client paying low security hourly rates; 3. Insufficient motivation and ethics in providing quality service (aside from the obvious low wages, not being mentored by a supervisor, being promised promotions, not being paid on time, inadequate training to properly do the job, and being kept out of the circle of information); 4. The high turnover rate of a mercenary 'like' force quitting jobs, often without notice. We can say that mentioned problems are very similar to the problems in Slovak private security.

In accordance with terror management theory (TMT), Kesebir & Pyszczynski (2012) presented that the dynamic driver of most behavior is *anxiety reduction*. TMT argues that one's personal goals and cultural activities are mainly focused on self-esteem maintenance, with in turn serves as a buffer from awareness of mortality (*Ryan, 2012, p. 7*). Because of our survey documents the treats and sanction are applied in public security too often (in a case of 36% of all respondents), anxiety or fear reduction should be preferred or utilized motivator also in Slovakia.

4. Conclusion

Analysis of theoretical knowledge, along with the results of our survey and statements of experts – representatives of the Chamber of Private Security, indicate that the private security sector compared to other sectors of industry or public administration is characterized by certain *common features*. These can consist for example of: the effort (often unsuccessful in all sectors) pay some attention to the motivation of employees and managers; the tendency to apply standard motivational tools (while there exists a little discrepancy between the motivators that are actually applied in practice versus motivators that respondents prefer as realistic and effective); the effort on motivation programs definition and application (however, the rate of setting these programs is not absolute in any sector), etc.

On the other hand, private security services have certain *specific features* which distinguish this sector from the other sectors and lay greater demands on the motivation of employees and managers. These include in particular the following:

- Employees carry a gun but they are not members of the public armed forces (their jurisdiction is limited).
- Motivation of employees and managers is higher on average than in other sectors.
- Average gross wage for the most common job in private security – protection of persons and property – is much lower than the wage for jobs in other sectors: 540 € versus 858 €



(Statistical Office of the Slovak Republic, 2016).

- Application of threats and sanctions is more frequent.
- Psychic pressure and feeling for responsibility (for the entrusted property or lives of clients) are enormous.
- Motivation is reduced by the feeling of isolation, and in particular the fear of failure in a confrontational situation, etc.

These differences have a significant *negative accent* and must be therefore systematically corrected or eliminated; executives of private security services have to focus on strengthening, proper orientating, and harmonizing the motivations of employees and managers. We especially recommend the following measures:

- Act on motivation with a stronger intention, better target and higher precision; perceive motivation as a basis for the employees' and managers' satisfaction, and the basis of profit for the security company owners.
- Elaborate motivation programs for employees and apply motivators with the highest perceived effectiveness; engage employees in the process of motivating as the equal partners and the creators of motivation.
- Pay attention to a higher psychical comfort and psychological support, and possibly also mentoring by supervisors or specialized consultants; analyze any traumatic event in the terms of motivation.
- Request more objective price for providing the security services from the clients, and fairly distribute the resulting funds between owners and employees.
- Search the satisfaction, feelings (anger, frustration, helplessness versus joy, enthusiasm and success in helping others), inspirations, opinions, demands and expectations of employees versus clients, and harmonize them.

In addition to these basic, primary measures in strengthening and connecting the motivation of all participators acting in the private security processes, it is necessary to create sustained, coherent mechanisms which not only performance will be improved through, but also the capability and even the loyalty of employees and their efforts to do their job really seriously and in best possible way, with full energy.

Acknowledgements

The paper was conducted within the scientific project VEGA No 1/0064/15 Optimization of Competences in Correlations with Specificities of Type Position in Private Security.

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Positively reviewed by first reviewer: April 29, 2017
Positively reviewed by second reviewer: April 29, 2017
Accepted by Editorial Board of the Conference HPD 2017: May 2, 2017



QUALITY OF LIFE AS A DETERMINANT OF PRO-HEALTHY INVESTMENTS IN HEALTH CARE

BENEDYKT BOBER, RENATA RASIŃSKA

Abstract

The aim of this article is to present the quality of life as a determinant of the effective functioning of the general public without which it can not use other skills. At birth, each person receives a specific health fund that is constantly depreciating. It is important that not only personal characteristics (genetic), but also the environment and the process of education contribute to the construction and growth of human capital. The paper also presents the level of health protection in Poland against selected European Union countries in the years 2013–2016. Finally, an attempt was made to assess the viability of investments in health care expenditures (the network of public hospitals). It is in the public interest that the quality of life (the level of health) is satisfactory to the general public so that they can use their intellectual potential – intellectual capital – and develop it for the benefit of all.

Key words: quality of life, investments, health care.

Classification JEL: M12 – Personnel Management.

1. Introduction

The process of socio-economic transformation in Poland running from 1989, has led to visible changes towards understanding of the quality of life. The quality of life (the state of health) is an important factor for every person, which requires special attention not only from each individual but also by the government-appointed entities. According to Plato's assertion health is the *'first good'*, possession of which allows to use all abilities, rights and freedoms.

Health, according to the Constitution of the World Health Organization dated 1946, is *"a state of complete physical, mental and social well-being and not merely the absence of disease or infirmity"* (*Constitution of World ...*). In medical terminology health is defined as the state of homeostasis what means: *"the ability to maintain a stable internal environment despite a changing external environment"* (Traczyk, 2007, p. 21).

In recent years, health is also understood through the prism of the quality of human life and the ability to use the possessed economic goods. It is also a fundamental right in the catalogue of human rights. According to the Polish Constitution (*Article 68*), everyone has the right to health protection regardless of the financial situation of a person, the authorities are to ensure equal access to health care for every citizen (*Constitution of the Republic of Poland...*).

The purpose of this paper is to present the quality of life as a determinant of the effective functioning of the general public, without which it is unable to use other skills. The level of health protection in Poland will also be presented in comparison to selected countries of the European Union in the years 2013–2016. Finally, an attempt was made to assess the viability of investments in health care expenditures (the network of public hospitals).

2. Investment in human capital

To properly understand the topic of health investments, it is essential to appropriately present and define the term *'human capital'*. There are many definitions of human capital. A number of authors also indicate that the development of human capital can take place through investment in people, knowledge and skills (Olkiewicz, 2015a, p. 402) and the preservation and improvement of health and vital energy (Piotrowski, 2009). This definition shows that owned skills or health are genetically predetermined. No external factors influence the human capital level.



In turn, J. Grodzicki defines human capital by distinguishing between *sensu stricto* and *sensu largo*. The first of which points to the value of the sum of the expenditure on education, which in turn constitute the educational potential of society. The later definition, in broader sense, indicates human capital as a total value of a human, which results from the process of environmental adaptation as well as from own characteristics and the process of education (Grodzicki 2003, p. 50). This definition point out that not only personal characteristics (genetic) but also the environment and the process of education contribute to the construction and growth of human capital.

According to G. Łukasiewicz human capital is the source of knowledge, skills, abilities, qualities, attitudes, motivation and health, which is the basis of future earnings and professional satisfaction as well as has its defined value, is renewable and constantly growing during the human life through subsequent expenditures on the human capital (2009, p. 20). Regardless the moment (birth, genetic traits), process (education) or place (environment) of its creation, the authors agree on what human capital is (skills, abilities, health, etc.).

Expenditures on human capital should be considered as an investment because with the increase of expenditures initial capital increases as well. With regard to human capital the possibility of growth is practically unlimited. Activities undertaken to increase human capital can be defined as investments in human capital. Therefore, according to G. Łukasiewicz (2009, p. 23) the expenditure at macroeconomic level can be divided into:

- Health care determining life's expectancy, strength and efficiency;
- Education at all levels of education;
- Training during professional work;
- The process of seeking information on the economic situation of market players and professional perspectives;
- Labour migration;
- Research.

It can be concluded from the information above that there is no universally accepted definition of human capital. There is also no consensus about its components. But regardless of conceptual differences, the majority of authors agree that human capital is the most valuable asset of the organization.

3. Health as an element of human capital

Improvement of the quality of human labour is regarded as the basis for economic development of a country, which is a basic factor of economic growth. Competitiveness and efficiency depend solely on the stock of technical and organizational knowledge (Olkiewicz 2015, pp. 63–72). Therefore, the level of education and creativity of human capital affects the creation of new technologies, products and services that directly translate into the competitiveness of market players. However, these skills could not be used without the health potential of human capital (Korporowicz 2003, p. 288).

The literature on the subject shows that at the time of birth every person receives a specific health capital that is constantly depreciating. Developing own health capital is not just about investing in own health through the use of medical services, spending the right amount of time on physical activity and improving living conditions but also taking action for others. It is therefore important to formulate adequate principles for health policy by the government (Bober, 2016, p. 67) through governmental administration (Rabiega, 2009, p. 82). Progressive demographic and epidemiological changes, which are different in specific countries, provide the basis for adjusting the increase in the expenditures on health to socio-economic conditions.

Health is the determinant of human well-being and indirectly the whole economy. In addition to the increase in financial expenditures it is important to take measures to improve the

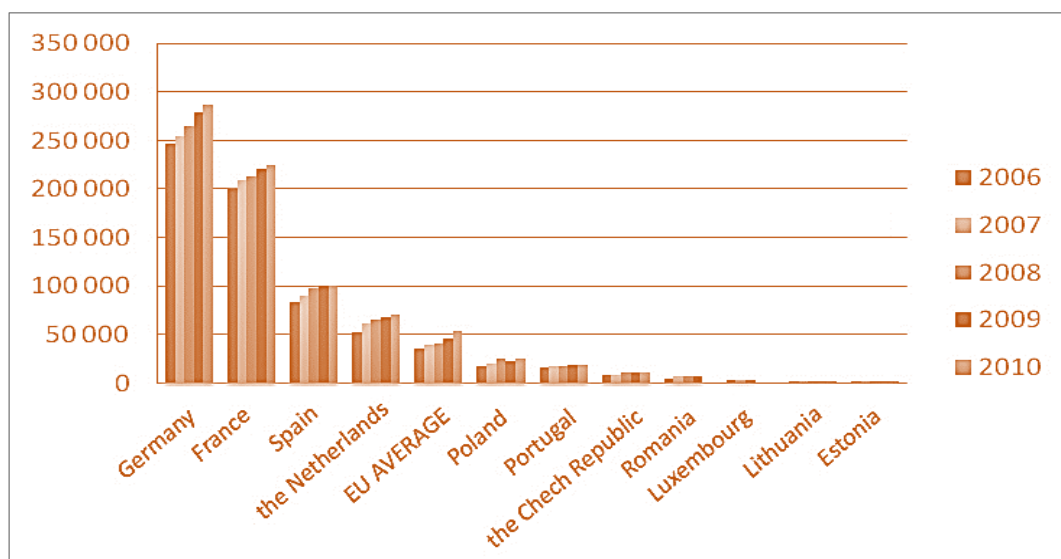


efficiency of their use - treating health care and the resources dedicated on it as an investment (Bober, 2010, p. 67).

The literature on the subject shows a problem at the macroeconomic level, which is to calculate the return on investment in health care. There are difficulties in estimating the health benefits achieved, combining them with specific expenditures and the risk of double counting, on one hand investment in the discovery and development of new technologies and the other the parallel financing of specific health services (Czech, 2007, p. 9; Bober, 2012, p. 87; Olkiewicz & Bober, 2015, pp. 41–53).

4. Health care in Poland in comparison to other EU countries

In order to fully assess the state of health care in Poland, apart from analysing the selected indicator at national level, it is important to evaluate trends in other EU countries. The period during which the following measures were analysed are years 2013–2016.



* The EU average does not include data from Greece, Ireland, Malta, the United Kingdom and Italy

Figure 1. Health care expenditure in millions of euros
(source: own study based on Eurostat data)

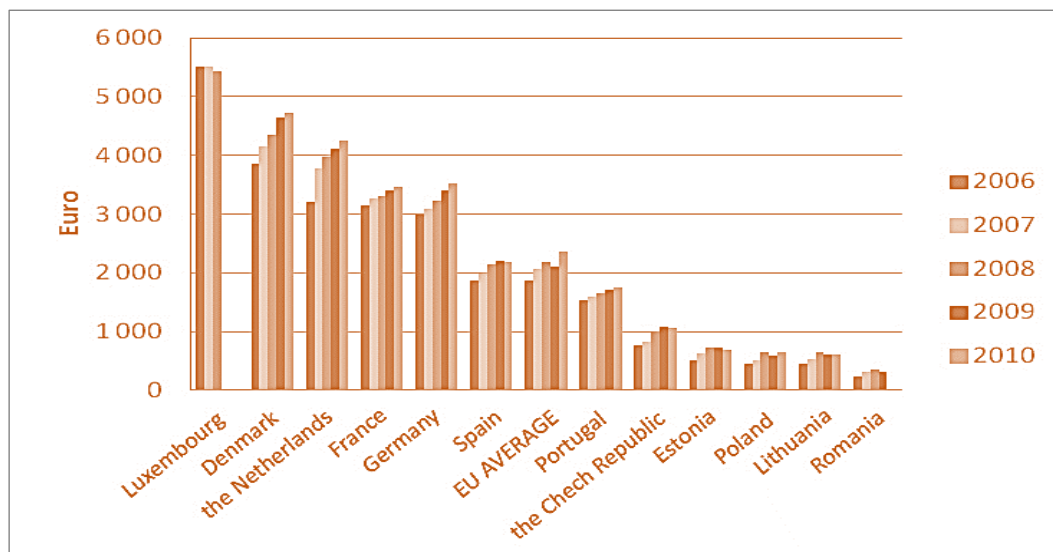
Expenditure on health care in countries of the European Union (Figure 1) is at a very varying levels. From nearly 300 billion in France to less than 1 billion in Estonia. Naturally the impact on the level of expenditure is reflected in the number of population and the income of the countries. Nevertheless, it can be observed that there is a growing trend in all 'old' EU countries that are above the EU average. On the other hand, it can be noticed that for countries that have joined the EU, including Poland, in the past decade, there is a much lower spending on healthcare and a slowdown in growth trend to be seen in favour of keeping expenditure at a constant level or even a slight decrease. Realistically speaking, expenditure on health care will be declining. In Poland, between 2013 and 2016, there was an increase in health care spending by about PLN 8 billion per year. However, the year 2013 brought a slight decrease¹, maintained in subsequent years reduced the real expenditure on health care and deterioration of the quality of provided medical services.

¹ GUS data, which indicate that only in 2013 brought a drop in expenditure. Eurostat data, on the basis of which the graph was drawn, indicate a smaller amount of expenditure. Discrepancies may result from time and foreign exchange differences, after which further volumes are converted.



The reason for the increase in health care spending is the aging of the population and access to new and increasingly expensive methods and techniques of providing medical services (Lukasiewicz, 2009, p. 25).

Expenditures on health care per capita (Figure 2) are more reliable in relation to the actual state of health care. While the total amount of expenditure shows in what direction changes in health expenditures are occurring, the specific value converted per capita indicates the proper amounts aimed at health care of a unit. Luxembourg, placing at the end of the list, with minimal total expenditure on health care, proved to be a leader in per capita spending. The smaller Denmark and the Netherlands do not give in to Germany that is being still well above the average.



* The EU average does not include data from Greece, Ireland, Malta, the United Kingdom and Italy

Figure 2. Health care expenditure per capita
(source: own study based on Eurostat data)

On the other hand, Estonia, which is at the end of the total health spending table, places in a relatively good position. Unfortunately, even here Poland is behind the rest of Europe, and similarly to general spending, expenses on per capita also fluctuate around one value. From the initial value of PLN 1723 in 2006 in the following years, a constant increase in per capita expenditure of PLN 250 per year can be observed.

However, the year 2013 brought a slowdown of this growing trend and an increase in expenditures by only PLN 30², which, with a few percent inflation, does not bring real growth and by continuing to keep this downward trend, the real decrease in per capita health spending.

The average life expectancy since birth (Figure 3) varies widely across the EU. A country where the average life expectancy reaches new records for both sexes is Italy – already over 82 years. The country with the shortest life expectancy is Lithuania, where the number reaches 73. It is almost 10 years difference. The positive aspect is the continual prolongation of life expectancy in all EU countries. Among the ‘old’ EU countries this is a sustainable rate, on average about 0.2 yearly. Against this backdrop Germany stands out, where the pace is smaller. On the other hand, among the new member states of EU, this growth is more dynamic, with an

² GUS data, which indicate continuous growth in per capita expenditure. Eurostat data, on the basis of which the graph was drawn, indicate a smaller amount of expenditure. Discrepancies may result from time and foreign exchange differences, after which further volumes are converted.



average of about 0.5 each year. The most prominent are Lithuania and Estonia with life expectancy of one year in each of the following years 2007–2009.

Poland is below the EU average and despite a steady increase in life expectancy does not approach the EU average as it is growing at the same pace.

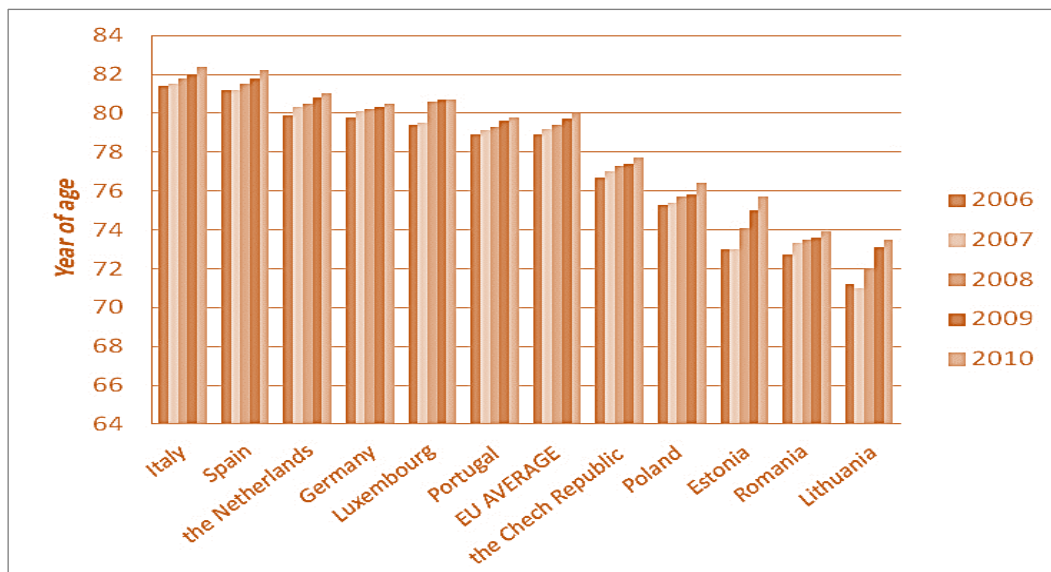


Figure 3. Life expectancy in the EU
(source: own study based on Eurostat data)

The average of the European Union in the number of years spend in good health (Figure 4) shows a constant value, which can be interpreted in two ways. On the one hand, this is obviously a good sign because there is lack of the downward trend but on the other hand, given the continuous increase of spending on the health care and the prolonged life of the population, this value can cause anxiety. As people live longer and the average number of years in a healthy life remains constant, this means a prolonged amount of years lived in illness or disability.

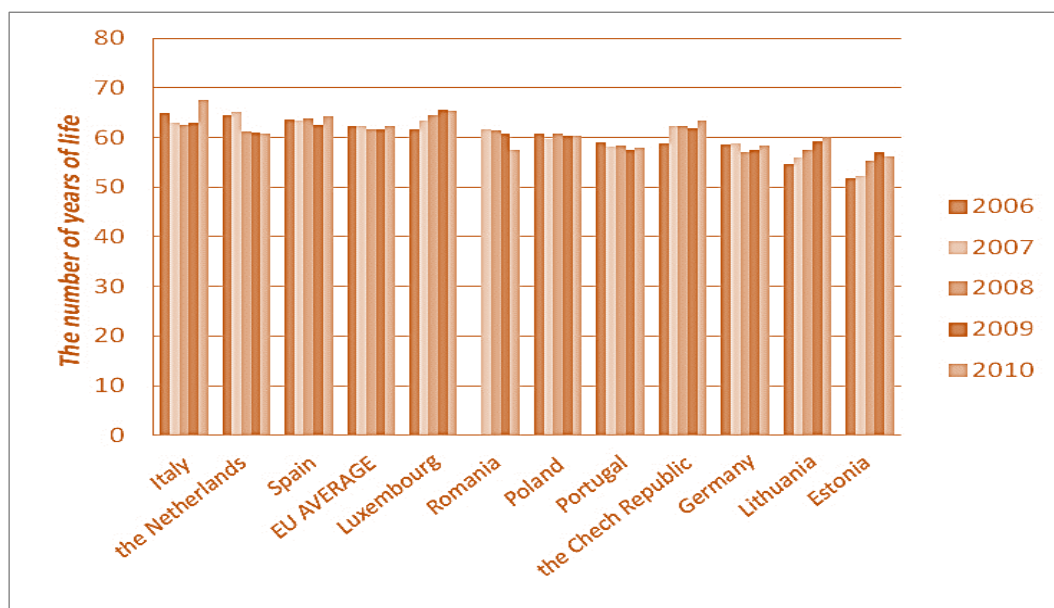
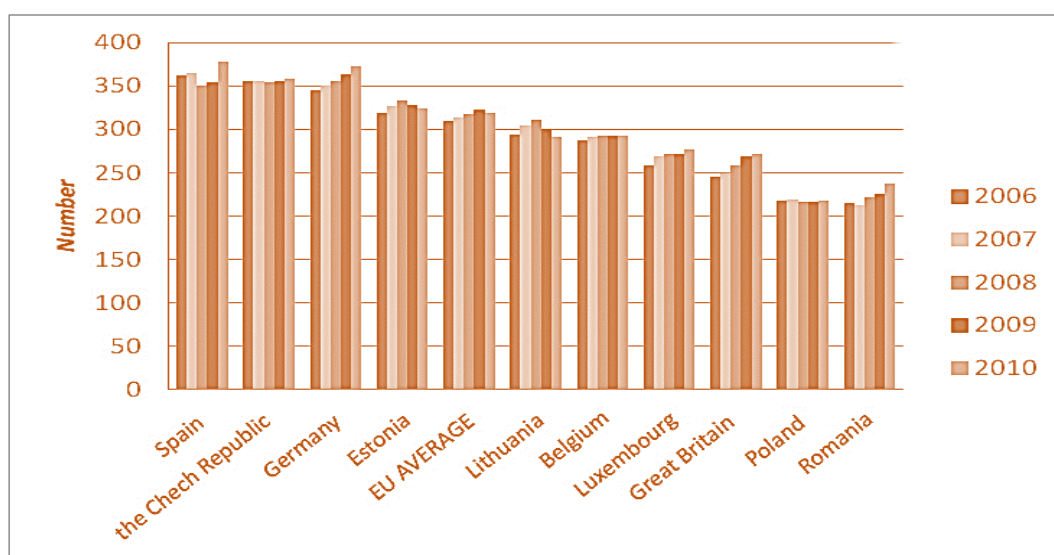


Figure 4. Number of years spend in good health
(source: own study based on Eurostat data)



However, not all countries have a permanent tendency (Spain, Poland) or, worse still, declining (Holland, Romania). The ‘losses’ generated by these countries are cumulated by the societies of countries where the number of years spend in good health is prolonged. They are mostly Central and Eastern European countries such as the Czech Republic, Lithuania and Estonia. There is a noticeable increase in the average number of years spend in good health. In Poland it is difficult to estimate the unambiguous trend in the number of years spend in good health. In addition to minor anomalies in particular years, this value is at a comparable level of 62 years for men and 58 years for men³.

The number of doctor practitioners (Figure 5) is a value characterised by different tendencies in various Member States. This is the first indicator in which there is no division between the ‘old’ and ‘new’ Union. The upward trend is characteristic for countries such as Germany, Great Britain or Romania, a downward trend for Estonia or Lithuania and maintaining a constant level for countries like Poland, Belgium and the Czech Republic. The average for the European Union is more than 300 doctors per 100,000 inhabitants but after a period of growth between 2006 and 2009 there had been a decline in 2010.



* EU average counted excluding some countries (on average from around 20 in 27 Member States) due to lack of data

Figure 5. Number of practicing doctors per 100 000 inhabitants
(source: own study based on Eurostat data)

The increasing number of doctors in some countries is not able to compensate for their constant number in others as well as the decreases in other countries, which indicates nothing good for the state of health care in the future. The decreasing number of physicians in aging societies (and the majority of societies in the Member States of the Union fall under this category) should result in a decline in the quality of services provided and an even longer waiting time when visiting specialist doctors.

It is encouraging for Poland that there is an increase in the number of nurses during the period considered. This seems to be a good thing because older people often need care due to their lower efficiency or chronic illnesses from which they are suffering from. The role of the nurse in such a situation is invaluable and it often depends on the quality of life of the patient determined by the time devoted to the service (Bober, 2013).

³ Own study based on GUS data for 2013–2016.



The number of deaths per 100 000 inhabitants (Figure 6) is characterised by very large discrepancies. Lithuania is the country where mortality is highest with a death toll of more than 1,000 in 2006. The country with the lowest mortality is Italy with the death rate of around 500 people. The difference in death rate between the two countries is 500 people, which is twice the value of the country with lower mortality compared to the country with the highest rate. An encouraging factor is a steady decrease in the death rate among all member states. However, the decline is more dynamic in the countries of Central and Eastern Europe - Lithuania, Estonia or Romania. Among the 'old' countries of the Union, this drop is less dynamic and even stable (Luxemburg).

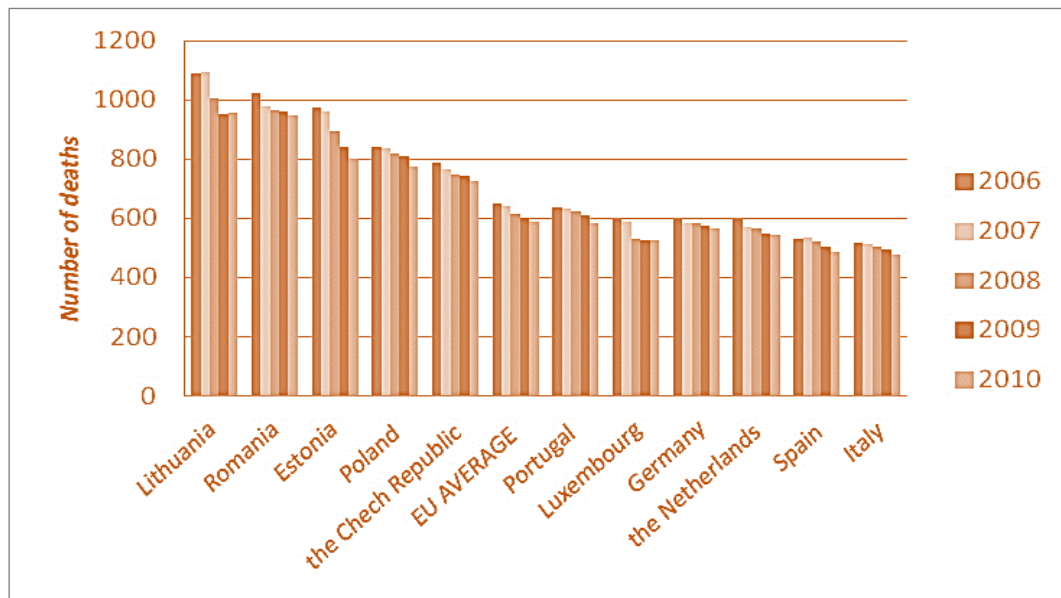


Figure 6. Mortality in EU per 100 000 inhabitants
(source: own study based on Eurostat data)

Poland is still above the EU average but the death toll occurs slightly faster than the EU average. A positive aspect is observed in the mortality of the Polish population, consisting in a continuous decrease in the number of deaths in the observed period. Starting from 2006 in which the number of deaths was reaching about 841 per 100,000 Inhabitants to 794 in 2013. Undoubtedly, the reasons for the drop in mentioned rate is due to decreasing neonatal mortality, cancer or cardiovascular diseases. This, however, affects better health care, larger number of performed surgical procedures and earlier disease detection and prevention.

5. Profitability of pro-health investments in human capital in health care

The concept of efficiency is an extremely often used concept by economists. Resource constrains on the one hand and increasing productivity on the other boils down to the fact that the aim becomes not so much the continuous, unlimited increase of health care spending but while limited to increase the efficiency of every zloty spent

$$\text{Efficiency} = \frac{\text{effects}}{\text{outlay}}$$

The higher the value the better. This means that for every unit of outlay there is a greater number of effects. While in companies it is not difficult to measure the effectiveness of a new



products or services by confronting them with the expenses necessary to produce them (costs) as well as achieved effects (sales), it is difficult, however, to do so in the sphere of health care.

On the one hand, we have, identified by number and amount, outlays incurred by the government and household on health care, but on the other hand – effects, which are very difficult and even impossible to express in terms of monetary units. Expenditure on health care should be considered as an investment from which society and individuals benefit. The benefits of investing in human capital in the area of health include (*Łukasiewicz 2009, p. 26*):

- Increase in life expectancy;
- Greater productivity of working population;
- Lower costs from sickness absence of staff;
- Fewer working people being on sick leave;
- Fewer people on pensions;
- Higher earnings due to less staff absenteeism;
- GDP growth;
- Increase in the number of so-called 'healthy time', which can be spent on the pursuit of interests i.e. entertainment, culture, etc.

With great simplification and rounding-off it is possible to measure the effectiveness of health care expenditures in sphere of population mortality. The downward trend of this indicator is constantly noticeable, which might be considered to be a very positive effect. Every year, the number of deaths per 100,000 inhabitants decreased by about 15. Among them are new-borns, whose survival rate indicates a considerable growth dynamics, the elderly people as well as people of working age.

Deaths of working age people (20–64 years) account for 11% of all deaths of the entire population⁴. Assuming that the same percentage constitute people of age allowing for them to work – the number amounts to 660 people who, due to lower mortality rate, survive and remain in society. By further assuming that all these people are employed, one can estimate the amount of additional GDP generated by said people. GDP per capita amounted to 15,300 PLN in 2013–2016⁵.

All working-age people who, due to the drop in mortality, contributed to GDP growth of more than PLN 10 million in a given year. However, these effects are still estimated on the basis of numerous assumptions and simplifications. It is difficult to indicate the amount of expenditure that has been incurred by the government as expenditure that directly or indirectly contributed to the decrease in mortality. This will certainly be outlays on better hospital equipment, new medical equipment, research into new treatments or doctor training.

Another attempt to measure effectiveness in health care can be an indicator of life expectancy at birth. During the period considered this value increased by one year for both sexes. In this situation it is difficult to estimate both effects and expenditures.

The increase in life expectancy has risen from 79 to 80 for women and from 71 to 72 for men, both of which are already outside employment. They do not contribute to GDP (assuming none of them are gainfully employed) but they are still subject to VAT. The level of outlays that directly and indirectly contribute to the increase in life expectancy will be similar to those in mortality, i.e. the quality of medical equipment, new treatments or the level of education of medical staff.

6. Conclusion

The quality of life (the level of health) is a value for society as a whole. Unhealthy society does not bring added value and generate costs. Poland is not one of the European leaders in

⁴ Own study based on GUS data for 2013–2016.

⁵ Gross domestic product at market prices.



terms of both the amount of resources spent on health care and life expectancy in health. It is important that the analysed macroeconomic indicators in the area of health care are improving.

In the period considered, there is an increase in per capita health spending, an increase in life expectancy and a decrease in mortality. Their dynamics, however, is comparable to the dynamics of GDP growth, so they are not changes that outweigh the natural increase of expenditures as income grows.

In such situation the effectiveness of undertaken actions is essential. Unfortunately, there are also frequent problems with an adequate assessment of the effectiveness in the sphere of health care, which is difficult to quantify. While the amount of money spent on specific medical services, the purchase of new medical equipment, the study of new medicines is known, it is difficult to measure the direct effects of these activities.

The issue of measuring efficiency in this area is a difficult and controversial issue to express in units of measure that would satisfy stakeholders. Increasing health care expenditure raises the quality of life (the level of health) and thus increases productivity and competitiveness.

In the opinion of the authors of this paper it is in the social interest to ensure that the quality of life (the level of health) is satisfactory to the general public so that they can use their intellectual potential - intellectual capital and develop it for the benefit of all.

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Positively reviewed by first reviewer: May 15, 2017
Positively reviewed by second reviewer: May 16, 2017
Accepted by Editorial Board of the Conference HPD 2017: May 17, 2017



FAKTORY PRACOVNÍHO PROSTŘEDÍ OVLIVŇUJÍCÍ VÝKONNOST ORGANIZACE

FACTORS OF THE WORKING ENVIRONMENT AFFECTING THE PERFORMANCE OF ORGANIZATION

MAREK ČANDÍK, PETR JEDINÁK

Abstract

In this paper the authors are trying to show how important is for employee of organizations have comfortable environment where they will have everything you need to accomplish their tasks. The worker then achieves higher performance, which is ultimately reflected in the overall organization. For this reason, the organization should constantly improve working conditions for its employees. One way to determine the factors is that work environment positively and negatively affects the regular gathering information on the issue of employees, e.g. in the form of surveys. It is possible to use as example the outputs of the research on this issue, which was implemented in early 2017. The respondents were students of the combined study at the Police Academy of the Czech Republic in Prague.

Key words: working environment, efficiency, working conditions, survey, research, statistics.

Classification JEL: M12 – Personnel Management.

1. Úvod

Tvorba pracovního prostředí v organizaci je úzce spjata s nastavenou kulturou organizace. Ta je odrazem lidských dispozic, myšlení a chování lidí v organizaci. Je produktem minulých činností a současně omezujícím faktorem činností budoucích. Kultura organizace je extrémně setrvačná, a proto se velice těžko a dlouhodobě mění. Je sdílená, ne dohadovaná, to znamená, že její změnu nelze nařídít nebo se o ní dohodnout (*Veber, a kol., 2006, s. 633*). Firemní kultura patří mezi důležité faktory, které silně ovlivňují výkonnost organizace. Představuje soustavu hodnot, norem, přesvědčení, postojů a domněnek, které formují způsoby chování a jednání lidí a způsoby vykonávané práce (*Armstrong, 2007, s. 199*).

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

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

Podniková kultura má řadu funkcí, které mohou sloužit ke zlepšení výkonnosti organizace. K těm hlavním patří redukce konfliktů uvnitř organizace, usnadnění koordinace a kontroly



– zajištění kontinuity, redukce nejistoty zaměstnanců, zvyšování jejich pracovní spokojenosti a emocionální pohody. Je také důležitým zdrojem motivace k práci. Proto silná a obsahově relevantní firemní kultura je významnou konkurenční výhodou. K důležitým faktorům organizační kultury, které mají vliv na efektivnost dané organizace, patří:

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

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

2. Vliv manažera na pracovní prostředí

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

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

To co manažeři dělají, se mění v závislostech, ve kterých pracují. Role manažerů budou záviset na jejich funkci, úrovni, organizaci (typ, struktura, kultura, velikost) a všeobecně na jejich pracovním prostředí (míra, v jakém je turbulentní, předvídatelné, ustálené, vystavené tlakům, stabilní). Jednotliví manažeři se budou těmito okolnostem přizpůsobovat různým způsobem a budou v nich více nebo méně úspěšně fungovat podle toho, jaké budou mít představy o chování, jaké se od nich očekává, jaké budou mít zkušenosti s tím, co fungovalo nebo nefungovalo v minulosti, a jaké budou jejich osobní či osobnostní charakteristiky (*Armstrong & Stephens, 2008, s. 42*).

3. Výstupy z provedeného výzkumu

V následujícím textu prezentovány výstupy z provedeného výzkumu. Výzkum navazoval na provedený výzkum realizovaný v roce 2015 (*Čandík & Jedinák, 2016, s. 18*). Byl realizován začátkem roku 2017 a respondenti byli studenti kombinovaného studia bakalářských a magisterských studijních programů. Takto získaná data poskytují relevantní data k dalšímu zpracování a vyhodnocování (studenti jsou ve služebním nebo pracovním poměru). Dotazníkový formulář byl administrovaný ve vytištěné (papírové) podobě (1list A4, oboustranně). Dotazníkový formulář byl komponovaný do tří částí.

První část obsahovala identifikační znaky respondentů (pohlaví, pracovní zařazení, počet let praxe, zařazení ve vedoucí funkci).



Druhá část dotazníkového formuláře byla tvořena tabulkou znázorňující způsob vyplňování dotazníku: (4 – bodová škála; od respondenta se požaduje, aby vyjádřil stupeň souhlasu či nesouhlasu s různými výroky, které se týkají určitého postoje).

Tab. 1. Použitá škála dotazníkového šetření (vlastní výzkum)

4 Souhlasím	3 Částečně souhlasím	2 Částečně nesouhlasím	1 Nesouhlasím
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Třetí část dotazníkového formuláře představovala zjišťovací část dotazníkového šetření. Zjišťovací část se skládala třinácti otázek:

- Atmosféra na pracovišti z hlediska mezilidských vztahů je dobrá.
- Vztah mezi nadřízenými a podřízenými na pracovišti je profesionální.
- Intriky a pomluvy na pracovišti nemají zásadní vliv na výkon práce.
- Každý zaměstnanec má možnost svobodně vyjádřit svůj názor bez případného postihu.
- Při řešení úkolů je na pracovišti podpora od kolegů.
- Při řešení úkolů je na pracovišti podpora od nadřízených.
- Mám možnost ovlivnit průběh vykonávání úkolů na pracovišti.
- Na pracovišti je dobrá vzájemná spolupráce.
- Na pracovišti vládou spravedlivá a průhledná opatření a postupy.
- Na pracovišti jsem se nesetkal s projevy diskriminace.
- S pracovními podmínkami na svém pracovišti jsem spokojen.
- Moje práce mě naplňuje (baví).
- Kdybych měl přijít o práci, nebo z ní odejít, bylo by pro mě lehké najít si jinou práci.

V rámci dotazníkového šetření byl proveden výběr na základě dostupnosti. Skupinu respondentů tvořili státní zaměstnanci, kteří studují na PA ČR. Z celkového počtu 1100 respondentů, kterým byl dotazník administrován, bylo obdrženo 930 vyplněných dotazníků (zbytek tvořily neúplně vyplněné dotazníky) ke statistickému vyhodnocení. *Návratnost dotazníků byla 84,5 %, použitá metoda výzkumu: dotazníkové šetření, s následným matematicko-statistickým vyhodnocením.*

Pro statistické zpracování byla data získaná z dotazníkového šetření vložena v numerické podobě do programu MS Excel 2016 a byly vytvořené základní deskriptivní statistické ukazatele, včetně příslušných grafů. Základní demografické údaje byly analyzovány standardními nástroji deskriptivní statistiky. Data byla následně importována do softwarového prostředí Statistica v.10, a následně byla vytěžovaná použitím zvolených statistických metod. Ke zpracování dat byly využity adekvátní matematicko-statistické procedury, jež jsou obsahem tohoto softwarového prostředí.

Respondenti

Dotazníkového šetření se účastnilo celkem 930 respondentů. Z hlediska pohlaví jej tvořilo 614 mužů (cca 66% respondentů) a 316 žen (cca 34% respondentů).

Z hlediska věku se dotazníkového šetření zúčastnili respondenti od 22 do 50 let, průměrný věk respondentů byl přibližně 34 let, mediánová hodnota věku byla 34 let. Nejčetnější skupinou respondentů z hlediska věku byli 37-letí (hodnota modusu). Přehled popisných charakteristik respondentů z hlediska věku ukazuje tab. 2.

Z hlediska celkové délky praxe průměrná hodnota počtu odpracovaných let u respondentů činila přibližně 13 let, mediánová hodnota počtu odpracovaných let byla 13 let, nejčetnější skupinu v rámci výzkumu tvořili úředníci s dvouletou praxí (hodnota modusu), minimální délka

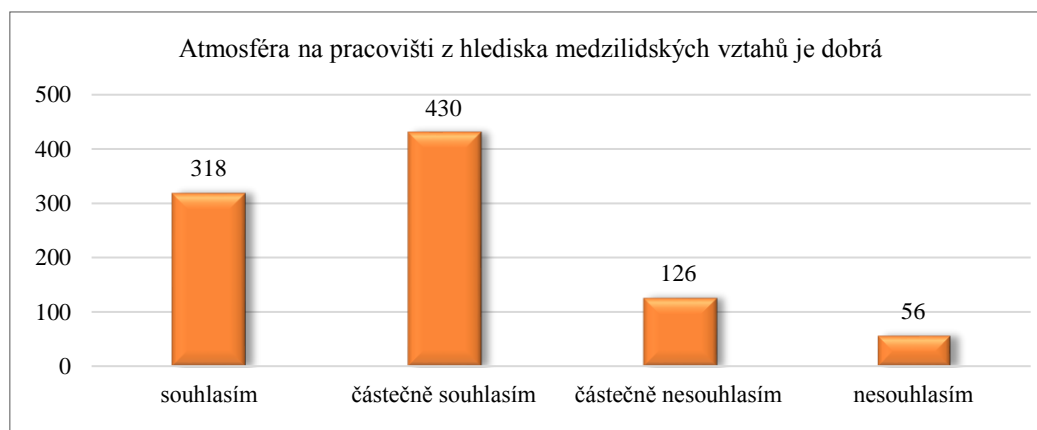


praxe u respondentů byla 1 rok, maximální délka praxe činila 36 let. Uvedené hodnoty jsou názorně uvedené v tab. 2.

Tab. 2. Popisné charakteristiky respondentů z hlediska věku a celkové délky praxe (vlastní výzkum)

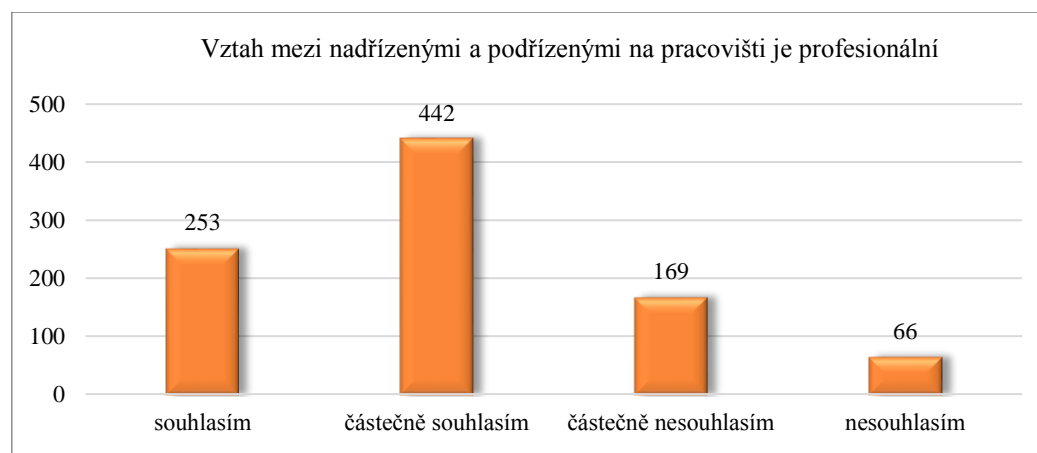
	Věk (v letech)	Délka praxe (v letech)
minimum	19	1
maximum	56	36
průměr	33,50	12,92
směrodatná odchylka	7,94	8,02
medián	34	13
modus	37	2

Atmosféru na pracovišti z hlediska mezilidských vztahů pozitivně hodnotí 748 respondentů (80%), obr. 1.



Obr. 1. Atmosféra na pracovišti – celkově (vlastní výzkum)

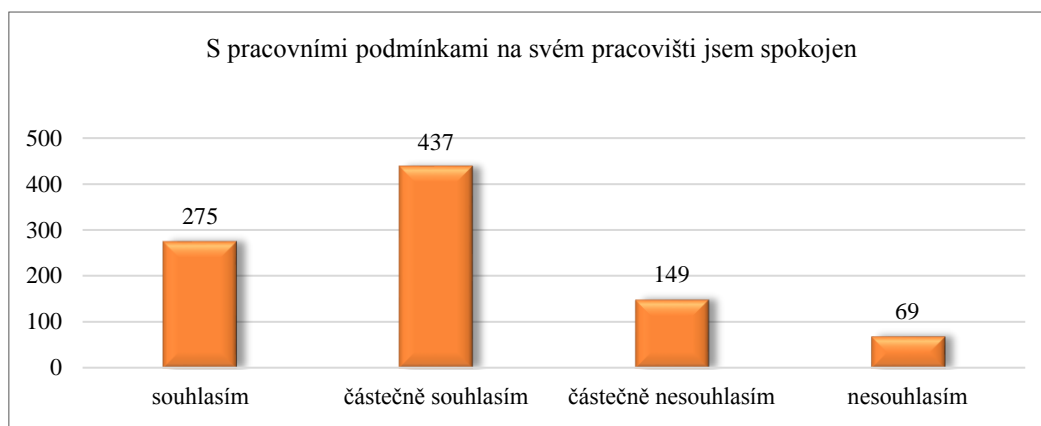
Vztah mezi nadřízenými a podřízenými na pracovišti (obr. 2) hodnotí jako profesionální 695 respondentů (cca 75%).



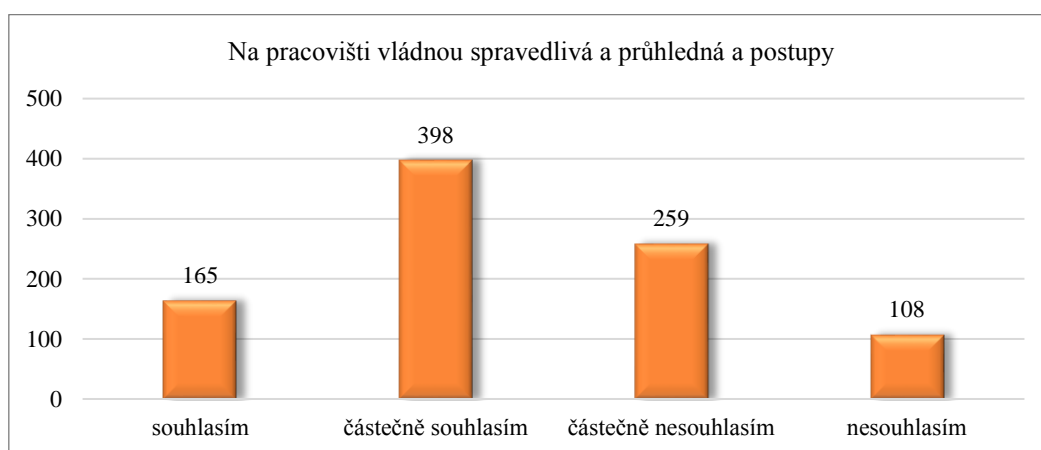
Obr. 2. Vztah mezi nadřízenými a podřízenými – celkově (vlastní výzkum)



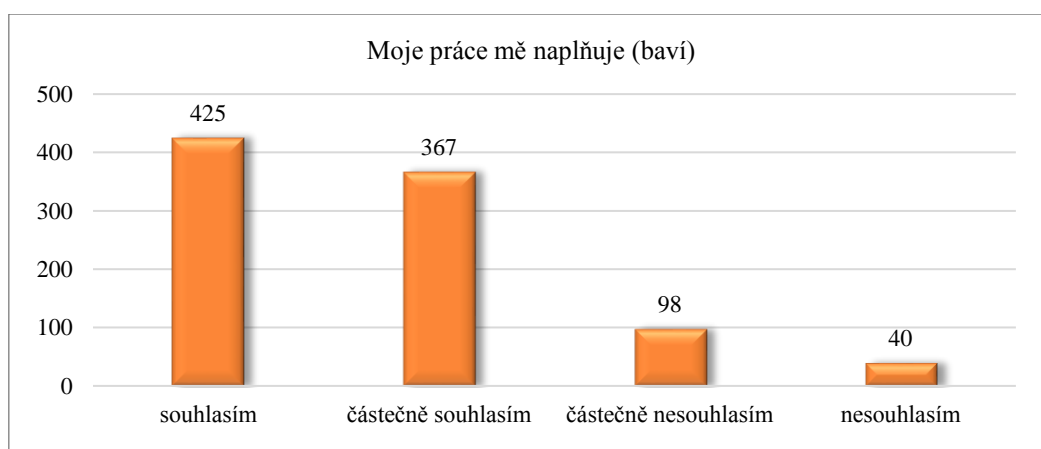
Spokojenost s podmínkami na pracovišti deklaruje 712 respondentů (cca 77%), obr. 3. Opatření a používané postupy na pracovišti hodnotí jako spravedlivá a průhledná 563 respondentů (cca 61%), obr. 4. Celkovou naplněnost s prací deklaruje 792 respondentů (85%), obr. 5.



Obr. 3. Spokojenost s pracovními podmínkami – celkově (vlastní výzkum)



Obr. 4. Atmosféra na pracovišti – celkově (vlastní výzkum)



Obr. 5. Vztah ke své práci – celkově (vlastní výzkum)



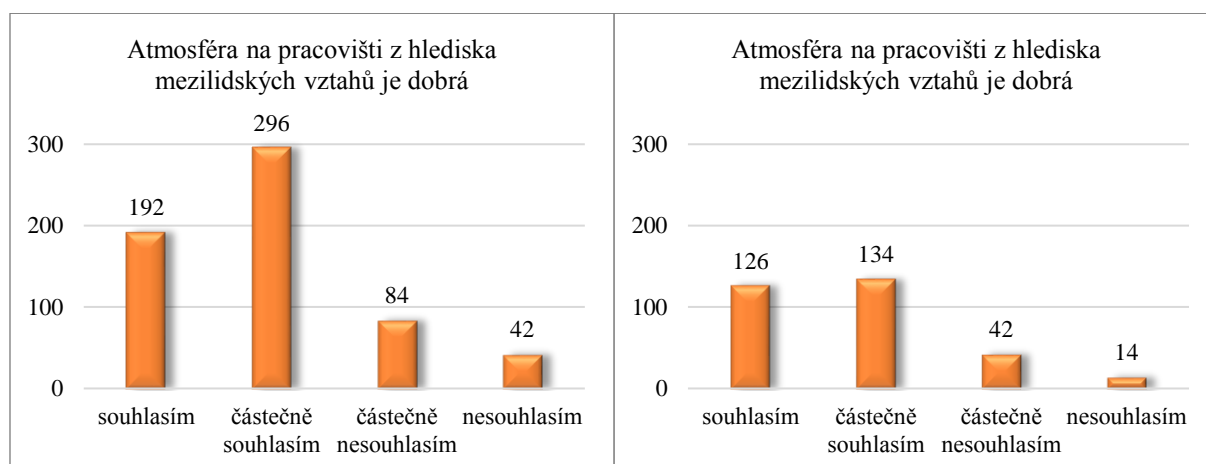
Z hlediska pohlaví lze respondenty rozdělit na dvě skupiny se základními popisnými charakteristikami (tab. 3).

Tab. 3. Základní statistické údaje sledovaných skupin respondentů dle pohlaví (vlastní výzkum)

	Věk		Praxe	
	Respondenti (muži)	Respondentky (ženy)	Respondenti (muži)	Respondentky (ženy)
Počet	614	316	614	316
Minimum	19	19	1	1
Maximum	53	56	35	36
Průměr	34,54	31,47	14	10,81
Směrodatná odchylka	7,33	8,68	7,44	8,66
Medián	36	30	15	9
Modus	37	24	2	1

Skupinu mužů, kteří participovali na dotazníkovém šetření, tvořilo 614 respondentů. Jejich věk se pohyboval v rozmezí 19 let (minimum) až 53 let (maximum), jejich průměrný věk byl přibližně 35 let, mediánová hodnota věku byla 36 let, nejčetnější skupinou mužů (respondentů) z hlediska věku tvořili 37mi letí respondenti. Délka praxe uvedené skupiny mužů, kteří participovali na dotazníkovém šetření, se pohybovala v intervalu 1rok (minimum) až 35 let (maximum), průměrná délka praxe mužů (respondentů) byla 14 let, mediánová hodnota délky praxe byla 15 let, nejčetnější skupinou mužů – respondentů z hlediska délky praxe tvořili muži – respondenti s dvacetiletou praxí.

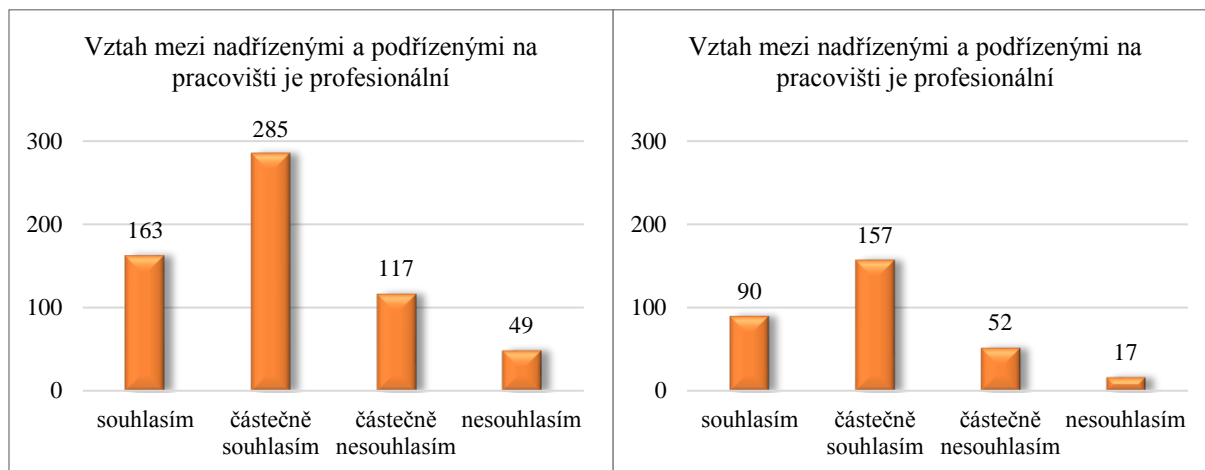
Skupinu žen, které participovaly na dotazníkovém šetření, tvořilo 316 respondentek. Jejich věk se pohyboval v rozmezí 19 let (minimum) až 56 let (maximum), jejich průměrný věk byl přibližně 31 rok, mediánová hodnota věku byla 30 let, nejčetnější skupinou žen (respondentek) z hlediska věku tvořili 24 leté respondentky. Délka praxe uvedené skupiny žen, které participovaly na dotazníkovém šetření, se pohybovala v intervalu 1rok (minimum) až 36 let (maximum), průměrná délka praxe žen (respondentek) byla přibližně 11 let, mediánová hodnota délky praxe byla 9 let, nejčetnější skupinou žen – respondentek z hlediska délky praxe tvořily ženy – respondentky s praxí jednoho roku.



Obr. 6 – 7. Postoje respondentů k atmosféře na pracovišti (muži – nalevo, ženy – napravo), (vlastní výzkum)

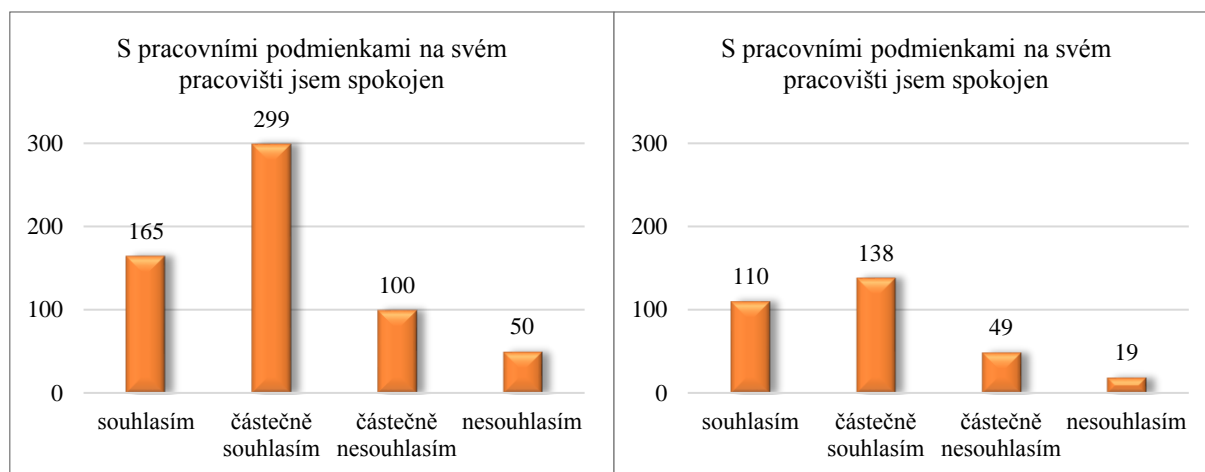


Atmosféru na pracovišti z hlediska mezilidských vztahů pozitivně hodnotí 488 respondentů (79% mužů) a 260 žen (82% žen). Ženy vnímají atmosféru na pracovišti z hlediska mezilidských vztahů mírně lépe, než muži, rozdíl je ale nepatrný (obr. 6 a 7).



Obr. 8 – 9. Postoje respondentů ke vztahu mezi nadřízenými a podřízenými na pracovišti (muži – nalevo, ženy – napravo), (vlastní výzkum)

Vztah mezi nadřízenými a podřízenými na pracovišti kladně hodnotilo 448 mužů (73% mužů) a 247 žen (78% žen). Ženy hodnotí profesionalitu vztahu mezi nadřízenými a podřízenými na pracovišti mírně lépe než muži, rozdíl v postojích je ale minimální (obr. 8 a 9).

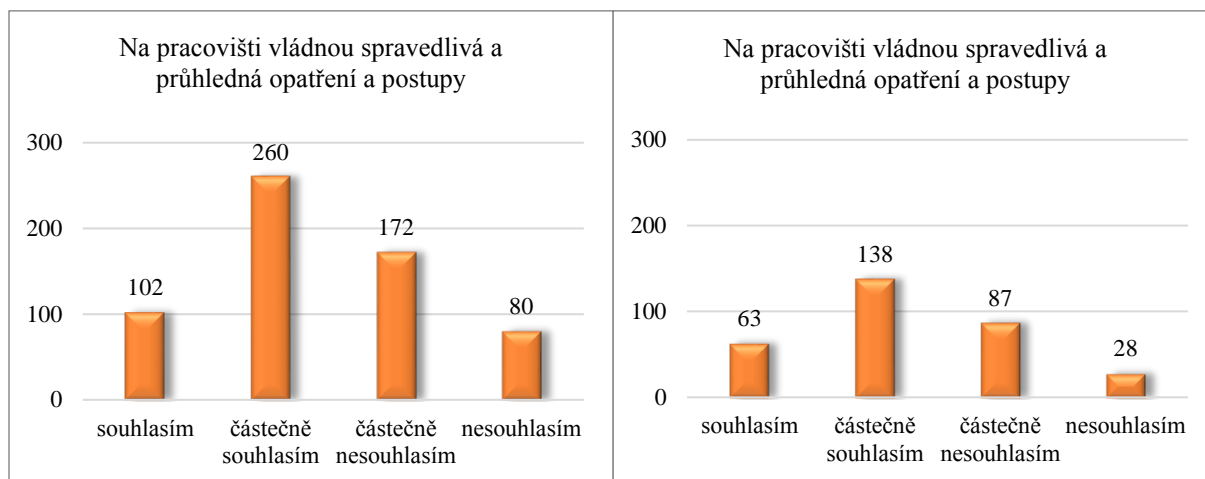


Obr. 10 – 11. Postoje respondentů ke spokojenosti na pracovišti (muži – nalevo, ženy – napravo), (vlastní výzkum)

Spokojenost s pracovními podmínkami na svém pracovišti deklarovalo 464 mužů (76% mužů) a 248 žen (78% žen). Ženy deklarují mírně vyšší spokojenost s pracovními podmínkami na pracovišti, než muži, difference postojů je malá (obr. 10 a 11).

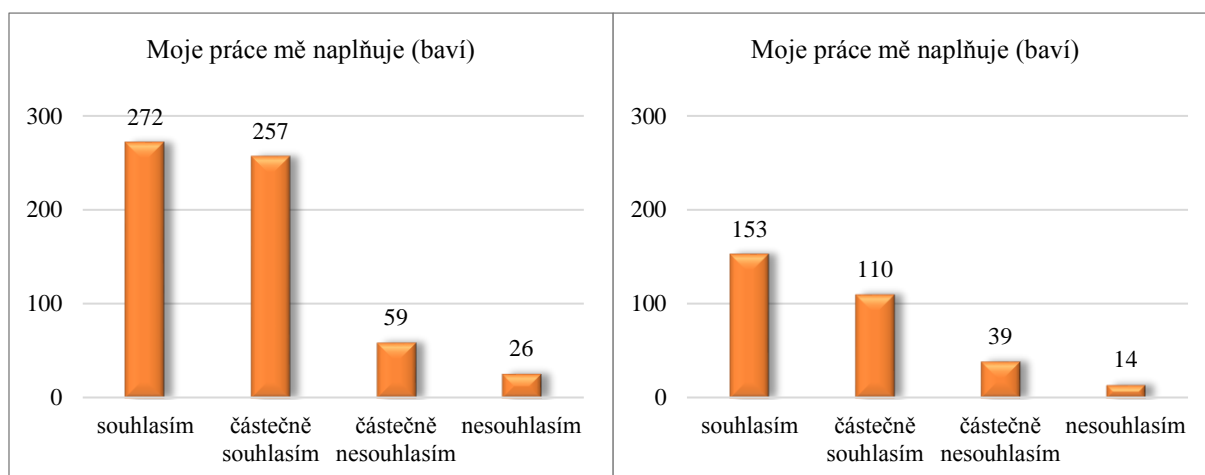


Používaná opatření a postupy na pracovišti (obr. 12 a 13) považuje za průhledná a spravedlivá 362 mužů (59% mužů) a 201 žen (64% žen). Postoje žen jsou více pozitivní, než postoje mužů, rozdíl ale není velký. Pohledem z druhé strany postojové škály je ale důležité konstatovat, že 41% mužů a 36% žen nepovažuje používaná opatření a postupy na pracovišti za spravedlivá a průhledná(!).



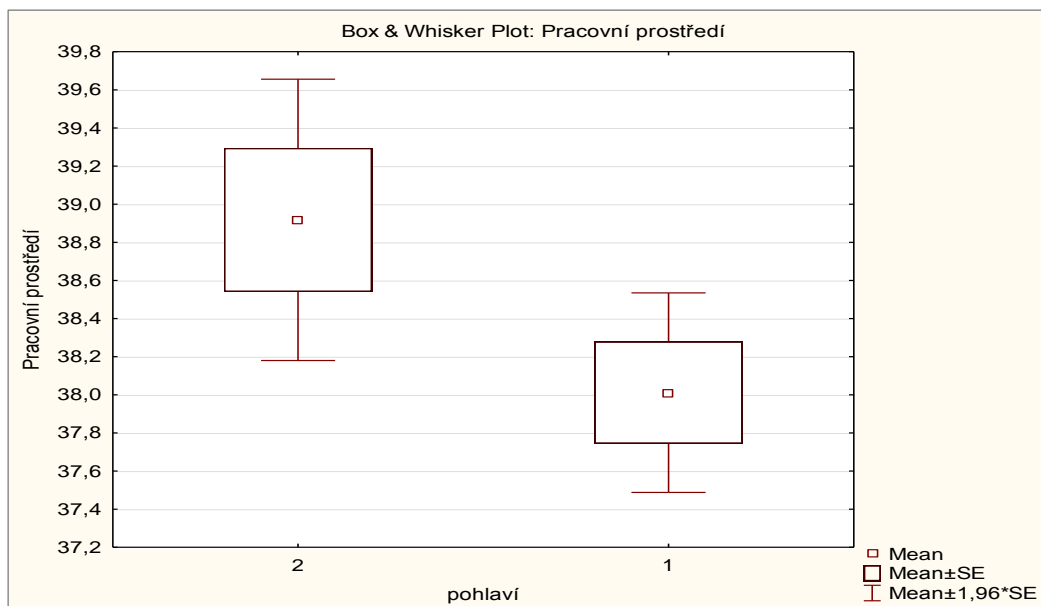
Obr. 12 – 13. Postoje respondentů k používaným opatřením a postupům na pracovišti (muži – nalevo, ženy – napravo), (vlastní výzkum)

529 mužů (86% mužů) a 263 žen (83% žen) nachází ve své práci oblibu (obr. 14 a 15), u mužů je práce mírně oblíbenější, než u žen. Celkový postoj respondentů k pracovnímu prostředí vyobrazuje následující obr. 16.



Obr. 14 – 15. Postoje respondentů k oblibě své práce (muži – nalevo, ženy – napravo), (vlastní výzkum)

Z obr. 16 je patrné, že ženy (boxplot na pravé straně) hodnotí kvalitu pracovního prostředí lépe, než muži (boxplot na levé straně).



Obr. 17. Srovnání postojů respondentů z hlediska pohlaví (vlastní výzkum; 2 – žena, 1 – muž)

K ověření statistické významnosti tohoto rozdílu byly otestované předpoklady statistického testování (tab. 4). Na základě obdržených výsledků byl pro testování rozdílů použitý neparametrický Mann-Whitneyův U-test (tab. 5).

Tab. 4. Ověření základních předpokladů pro statistické testování (vlastní výzkum)

Ověření předpokladů (rozdíly v závislosti na pohlaví)					
Normalita			W = 0,986	P = 0,000	zamítnuta
Shoda rozptylů (homoskedasticita)	Rozptyl (muži) 6,618	Rozptyl (ženy) 6,693	F = 1,023	p = 0,811	přijata

Tab. 5. Test statistických rozdílů v závislosti na pohlaví

Postoje k pracovnímu prostředí (statistické rozdíly – pohlaví)			
Shoda středních hodnot	U = 90066	p = 0,0734	přijata

Výsledky statistického testu prokázaly, že vnímání postojů k pracovnímu prostředí v závislosti na pohlaví je u sledovaných skupin rozdílné (tento rozdíl je na 5-ti procentní hladině statisticky nevýznamný).



4. Závěr

V příspěvku se snaží autoři poukázat na to, jak je pro zaměstnance organizace důležité mít pro výkon svého zaměstnání takové prostředí, kde se budou cítit dobře a kde budou mít vše potřebné k plnění svých úkolů. Pracovník pak dosahuje vyšší výkonnosti, což se ve svém důsledku projeví i v celkovém hodnocení organizace. Z tohoto důvodu by měla organizace neustále zlepšovat podmínky k práci svých zaměstnanců. Jak uvádí M. Blašková – lidský potenciál je jedinou živou veličinou, schopnou přinášet nové hodnoty, objevy, ideje, úlevy, satisfakce apod., ale současně je i veličinou, která je schopná svým působením přinášet i zklamání, nespokojenost, frustraci a stres (Blašková, 2011, s. 3).

Jak uvádí prof. Koubek: „Význam pracovních vztahů pro personální práci v organizaci je mimořádný. Pracovní vztahy, jejich kvalita vytvářejí rámec významně ovlivňující dosahování cílů organizace i pracovních a životních cílů jednotlivých pracovníků. Korektní, harmonické, uspokojivé pracovní a mezilidské vztahy vytvářejí produktivní klima, které má velmi pozitivní vliv na individuální, kolektivní i celkový výkon organizace,“ (Koubek, 2007, s. 305)

Jedním ze způsobů, jak zjistit faktory, které pracovního prostředí pozitivně i negativně ovlivňují, je pravidelné získávání informací k problematice od zaměstnanců, např. formou dotazníkových šetření. Jako možný příklad zařazeny výstupy z provedeného výzkumu k této problematice, který byl realizován začátkem roku 2017. Respondenti byli studenti kombinované formy studia na Policejní akademii České republiky v Praze. Na základě výstupů z provedeného výzkumu navrženy možné kroky vedoucí ke zkvalitnění některých činností, které by se měli v budoucnosti pozitivně projevit ve výkonnosti organizace. I když výzkum proběhl se zaměstnanci státních organizací, zajisté by některé návrhy bylo možno využít i v jiných organizacích.

Na základě získaných dat lze vyvodit některé doporučení, které by bylo vhodné zrealizovat v rámci rozvoje pozitivně vnímané kultury ve státních organizacích:

- Prioritně by vrcholové vedení mělo nastavit takové kritéria výběru do manažerských pozic, aby tito budoucí manažeři na té nejnižší úrovni (řídící řadové pracovníky) měli požadované kompetence nejen po stránce odborné, ale i sociální, etické a výkonnostní.
- V rámci pravidelných porad nejnižších organizačních článků organizace (oddělení, útvary apod.) bylo vždy zařazeno téma ke spokojenosti zaměstnanců s pracovními podmínkami na pracovišti.
- Manažer by si měl alespoň jedenkrát za měsíc udělat čas na konzultaci s každým jim podřízeným pracovníkem a diskutovat o jeho pracovních úkolech. V rámci těchto rozhovorů musí manažer s pracovníkem jednat jako s rovnocenným partnerem a dát mu možnost, aby mohl své vyjádřit své názory.
- V rámci řízení uplatňovat týmovou práci.
- Využívat nové formy uplatňované v řízení lidských zdrojů (jako např. práce z domova, pružná pracovní doba, stanovování krátkodobých úkolů vedoucí k rozvoji zaměstnance).
- Stmelovat kolektiv pracovníků společnými mimopracovními aktivitami (sportovní, kulturní a jiné akce).

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Positively reviewed by first reviewer: April 11, 2017
Positively reviewed by second reviewer: April 20, 2017
Accepted by Editorial Board of the Conference HPD 2017: May 2, 2017



VÝZNAM VZTAHŮ MANAŽERŮ K PRACOVNÍKŮM V ORGANIZACI

IMPORTANCE OF RELATIONS OF MANAGERS TO WORKERS IN THE ORGANIZATION

PETR JEDINÁK, MAREK ČANDÍK

Abstract

In this paper the authors are trying to show how important it is to have professional setting relationships among all employees in organization. The priority in terms of implementation of tasks have relations between line managers and executives. These aspects set creates a culture in the organization. A worker who feels good in their jobs, achieves better performance. Organizations should by line managers to keep track of those workers and facilitate their professional development. Classified outputs of the research on this issue, which was implemented in early 2017. The respondents were students of the combined study at the Police Academy of the Czech Republic in Prague.

Key words: manager in the organization, research task, human resource management.

Classification JEL: M12 – Personnel Management.

1. Úvod

Lidské zdroje patří k těm nejcennějším zdrojům, které organizace má k dispozici ke splnění dané strategie, a záleží pouze na jejím vrcholovém managementu, jak tyto zdroje (pracovníky) bude vést, řídit, vzdělávat a rozvíjet, a to jak ku prospěchu vlastní organizace, tak ku prospěchu každého pracovníka v rámci jeho kariérního růstu. Nejnovější koncepce v procesu řízení pracovního výkonu pracovníků přesouvají zodpovědnost za jeho úspěšnost v rámci organizace na nejnižší manažery (vedoucí pracovníky), kteří jsou s v přímém, každodenním kontaktu s podřízenými pracovníky (*Jedinák, 2016, s. 7*). Z tohoto důvodu je velmi důležité, aby vztahy mezi těmito liniovými manažery a pracovníky byly co nejlepší (tzn. na bázi profesionality). Manažer by se měl zajímat o spolupracovníky, nad kterými má personální pravomoc, a tyto zaměstnance v rámci jejich vedení dále rozvíjet a společně hledat cesty jejich dalšího rozvoje v organizaci. Tyto aktivity by měly vycházet a být v souladu se stanovenou politikou využívání a rozvoje lidského potenciálu v organizaci, která představuje systém zásad a opatření, pomocí kterých manažeři a personální odborníci postupují při usměrňování a motivování svých zaměstnanců a to takovým způsobem, aby na jedné straně efektivně naplňovali cíle organizace a na druhé straně i cíle samotných zaměstnanců (*Blašková, 2011, s. 61*).

2. Role manažera v rámci manažerských funkcí vedení lidí a řízení lidských zdrojů

Manažer v organizaci má řadu úkolů, na které můžeme nahlížet s různých úhlů pohledu. V rámci koncepce základního vymezení managementu v organizaci je to naplňování manažerských funkcí a zastávání manažerských rolí. Stále více získává na významu práce s lidmi v organizaci – komunikování, motivování, vzdělávání, řízení kariéry atd. Manažer stále více musí naplňovat roli vůdce, při uplatňování vlivu by se neměl opírat o formální aspekty, ale o odborný vliv, charisma, dovednosti a měl by přesvědčovat, zmocňovat, umět zaujmout. Manažeři jsou a i v budoucnu zůstanou osobou zodpovědnou za úspěšný chod útvaru, týmu nebo i celé organizace, kterou řídí. Ve své činnosti musí být zaměřeni do budoucna, být vizionáři, umět koncepčně myslet, ovládat techniky strategického řízení a zároveň být otevření vůči změnám a všemu novému (*Veber, a kol., 2006, s. 254*).



V rámci manažerské funkce vedení lidí je to umět zvolit nejlepší styl vedení – řízení. Je to způsob, jakým manažer vytyčuje cíle, jakým rozhoduje a jakým řídí své podřízené. V rámci vědeckého pohledu na management organizace bylo definováno mnoho teorií a přístupů, jak vést podřízené pracovníky a dobrý manažer by měl tyto teorie znát a při vedení svých spolupracovníků umět aplikovat ten nevhodnější. Základní styly vedení:

- McGregova teorie „X“ a „Y“.
- Teorie velkých osobností.
- Teorie osobnostních rysů.
- Kontingenční teorie.
- Situační teorie.
- Behaviorální teorie:
 - *teorie rolí,*
 - *teorie manažerské mřížky.*
- Participativní teorie:
 - *autokratický,*
 - *demokratický, participativní,*
 - *liberální,*
 - *Likertova typologie (systém I–IV).*
- Transakční teorie.
- Transformační teorie.

Nejúspěšnější manažeři dokážou styl řízení přizpůsobit konkrétní situaci, závažnosti rozhodnutí, které dělají, postoji svých podřízených. Styl práce konkrétního manažera je velmi těžké napodobit, protože vychází z osobnosti, zkušeností a mentálních vzorců daného člověka (*Mládková, Jedinák a kol., 2011, s. 74*).

V rámci naplňování manažerské funkce řízení lidských zdrojů hledají a zkoušejí teoretici i praktici nové a efektivnější přístupy k řízení lidí. Stále častěji je v odborné literatuře pojem lidské zdroje nahrazován pojmem lidský kapitál, je zdůrazňován respekt k individualitě každého člověka, jeho osobnosti. Řízení lidí je stále více nahrazováno jejich vedením. Je zřejmé, že personální práce v současnosti klade zvláštní důraz na motivační nástroje k dosažení maximálního výkonu organizace a poukazuje na potřebu kooperativního partnerství mezi zaměstnancem a zaměstnavatelem. Personální práce přestává být záležitostí odborných personalistů, ale stává se součástí každodenní práce všech vedoucích pracovníků. Vedoucím pracovníkům je v současnosti svěřována obrovská zodpovědnost. Očekává se od nich, že budou nejen plnit svěřené úkoly, řídit pracovní výkon, přepracovávat zastaralé organizační postupy, ale i vytvářet čerstvé přístupy k motivaci, rozvíjet talent a schopnosti podřízených pracovníků s ohledem na zrychlující se vývoj moderní společnosti (*Koubek, 2007*). Manažer v souvislosti s naplňováním úkolů spadající pod celkové řízení a dohled nad jemu podřízenými pracovníky by měl (*přednáška J. Koubka, PA ČR v Praze 2009*):

- Soustavně propojovat a sladit individuální zájmy pracovníků se zájmy organizace, soustavně usilovat o to, aby pracovníci spojovali své perspektivní individuální životní a pracovní cíle s organizací, ve které pracují.
- Hledat a objevovat dosud třeba skryté či nepřiliš zřetelné schopnosti u všech podřízených pracovníků.
- Věnovat stálou pozornost svým podřízeným pracovníkům ve vztahu – znát jejich potřeby, znalosti, schopnosti a dovednosti pro výkon pracovních činností.
- Zabezpečovat a nabízet vzdělávání pracovníkům, kteří mají předpoklady, že tyto nové znalosti využijí v zastávaných pracovních pozicích.



- Budovat efektivní vztahy s lidmi v jejich pracovních pozicích a zvyšovat a udržovat spokojenost s prací a pracovištěm (kvalita pracovního života), s cílem dosáhnout toho, aby lidé byli oddáni své práci a organizaci.
- Naučit se rozpoznávat silné a slabé stránky ve vztahu k požadovanému pracovnímu výkonu u každého podřízeného pracovníka.
- Průběžně hodnotit pracovní výkon každého pracovníka a následně o něm s pracovníkem hovořit a hledat cesty jeho zlepšování.
- Vyžadovat zpětnou vazbu (umět naslouchat) – jak své pracovní úkoly chápou jejich podřízení pracovníci.
- Umět volit vhodné stimuly vedoucí k motivování podřízených pracovníků k rozvíjení a zdokonalování jejich pracovního výkonu.
- Mít přehled o pracovních pozicích spadající pod jeho úsek řízení v organizaci a hledat taková řešení organizační struktury v okruhu svých pravomocí, která by zefektivnila chod organizace.

Mezi důležité úkoly pro manažery řadíme též to, aby upřednostňovali týmovou práci (efekt synergie), vhodný efektivní styl vedení lidí a upevňovali zdravé mezilidské vztahy v organizaci a utvářeli tak dobrou zaměstnavatelskou pověst. V neposlední řadě musí dbát na personální a sociální rozvoj pracovníků organizace a důsledně dbát, aby byly dodržovány zákony v oblasti práce (nejdůležitější je zákoník práce – z. č. 262/2006 Sb.) a zaměstnávání lidí za respektování lidských práv. Mezi prioritní oblasti dnes řadíme utváření zdravých pracovních vztahů na jednotlivých pracovištích organizace, což by se mělo potažmo projevit v celé organizaci. Jedním ze způsobů, jak zjistit současnou podobu vztahů na pracovištích organizace, je získání zpětné vazby od samotných zaměstnanců. Velmi používaným nástrojem získání těchto cenných informací je např. dotazníkové šetření. Ukázka, jak lze získaná data z dotazníků k dané problematice uvedena v následující kapitole.

3. Výstupy z provedeného výzkumu

V následujícím textu prezentovány výstupy z provedeného výzkumu. Byl realizován začátkem roku 2017 a respondenti byli studenti kombinovaného studia bakalářských a magisterských studijních programů. Takto získaná data poskytují relevantní data k dalšímu zpracování a vyhodnocování (studenti jsou ve služebním nebo pracovním poměru).

Dotazníkový formulář byl administrovaný ve vytištěné (papírové) podobě (1list A4, oboustranně). Dotazníkový formulář byl komponovaný do tří částí. První část obsahovala identifikační znaky respondentů (pohlaví, pracovní zařazení, počet let praxe, zařazení ve vedoucí funkci).

Druhá část dotazníkového formuláře byla tvořena tabulkou znázorňující způsob vyplňování dotazníku (4-bodová škála; od respondenta se požaduje, aby vyjádřil stupeň souhlasu či nesouhlasu s různými výroky, které se týkají určitého postoje).

Tab. 1. Použitá škála dotazníkového šetření (vlastní výzkum)

4 Souhlasím	3 Částečně souhlasím	2 Částečně nesouhlasím	1 Nesouhlasím
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Třetí část dotazníkového formuláře představovala zjišťovací část dotazníkového šetření. Zjišťovací část se skládala z 26-ti otázek.

V rámci dotazníkového šetření byl proveden výběr na základě dostupnosti. Skupinu respondentů tvořili studenti kombinované formy studia, kteří studují na PA ČR. Z celkového počtu 1100 studentů, kterým byl dotazník administrován, bylo obdrženo 930 vyplněných dotazníků (zbytek tvořily neúplně vyplněné dotazníky) ke statistickému vyhodnocení.



Návratnost dotazníků byla 84,5 %, použitá metoda výzkumu: Dotazníkové šetření, s následným matematicko-statistickým vyhodnocením.

Pro statistické zpracování byla data získaná z dotazníkového šetření vložena v numerické podobě do programu MS Excel 2016 a byly vytvořené základní deskriptivní statistické ukazatele, včetně příslušných grafů. Základní demografické údaje byly analyzovány standardními nástroji deskriptivní statistiky. Data byla následně importována do softwarového prostředí Statistica v.10, a následně byla vytěžovaná použitím zvolených statistických metod. Ke zpracování dat byly využity adekvátní matematicko-statistické procedury, jež jsou obsahem tohoto softwarového prostředí.

Respondenti

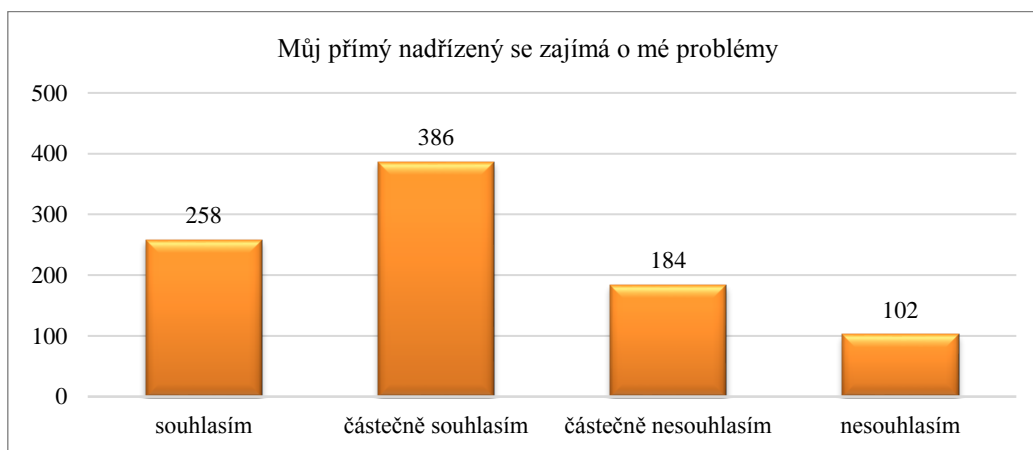
Dotazníkového šetření se účastnilo celkem 930 respondentů. Z hlediska pohlaví jej tvořilo 614 mužů (cca 66% respondentů) a 316 žen (cca 34% respondentů).

Z hlediska věku se dotazníkového šetření zúčastnili respondenti od 22 do 50 let, průměrný věk respondentů byl přibližně 34 let, mediánová hodnota věku byla 34 let. Nejčetnější skupinou respondentů byli 37-letí úředníci (hodnota modusu). Přehled popisných charakteristik respondentů z hlediska věku ukazuje následující tab. 2.

Tab. 2. Popisné charakteristiky respondentů z hlediska věku a celkové délky praxe (vlastní výzkum)

	Věk (v letech)	Délka praxe (v letech)
minimum	19	1
maximum	56	36
průměr	33,50	12,92
směrodatná odchylka	7,94	8,02
medián	34	13
modus	37	2

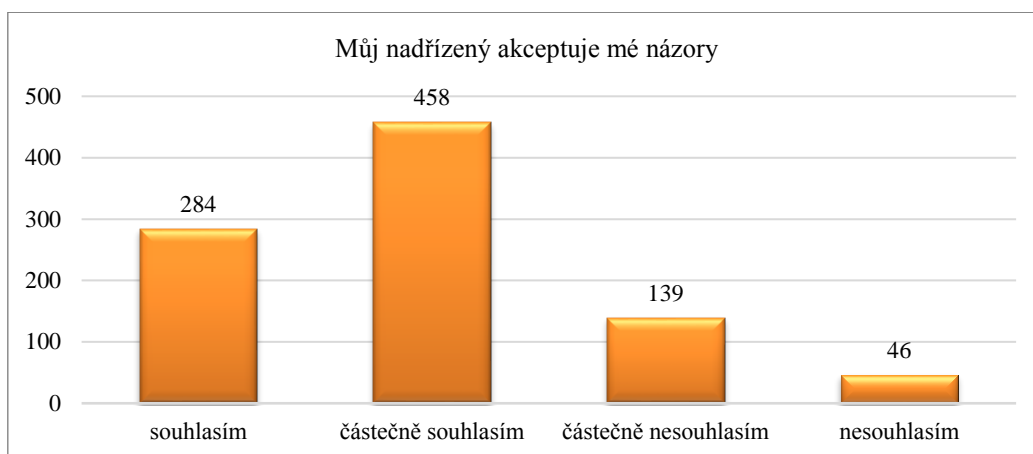
Z hlediska celkové délky praxe průměrná hodnota počtu odpracovaných let u respondentů činila přibližně 13 let, mediánová hodnota počtu odpracovaných let byla 13 let, nejčetnější skupinu v rámci výzkumu tvořili úředníci s dvouletou praxí (hodnota modusu), minimální délka praxe u respondentů byla 1 rok, maximální délka praxe činila 36 let. Uvedené hodnoty jsou názorně uvedené v následující tabulce (tab. 2).



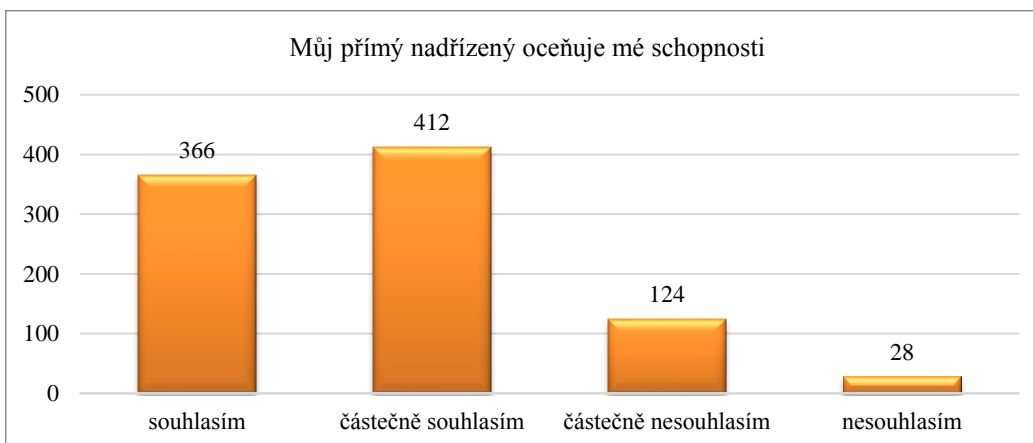
Obr. 1. Zájem nadřízeného o mé problémy – celkově (vlastní výzkum)



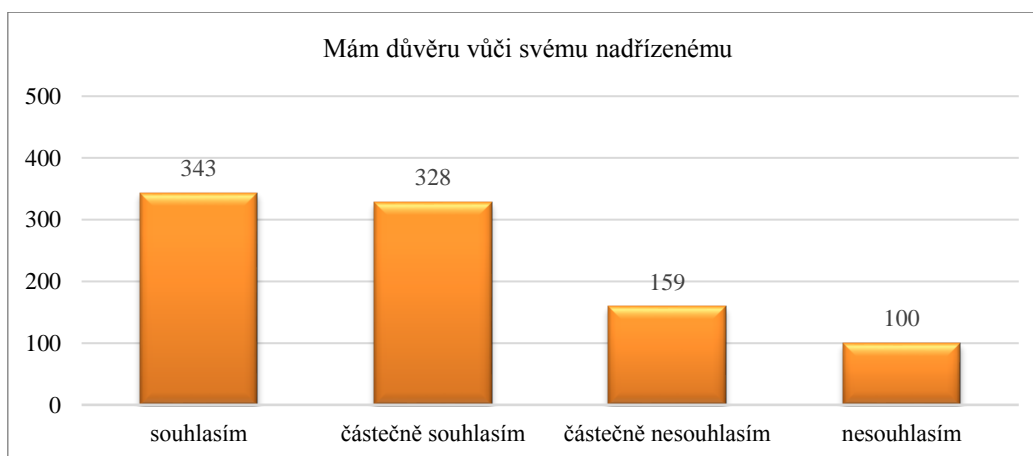
644 respondentů (69% respondentů) vyjadřuje souhlasné stanovisko se zájmem svého nadřízeného o jeho problémy (obr. 1). 745 respondentů (80% respondentů) uvádí akceptování svých názorů na pracovišti svým nadřízeným (obr. 2).



Obr. 2. Nadřízený akceptuje mé názory – celkově (vlastní výzkum)



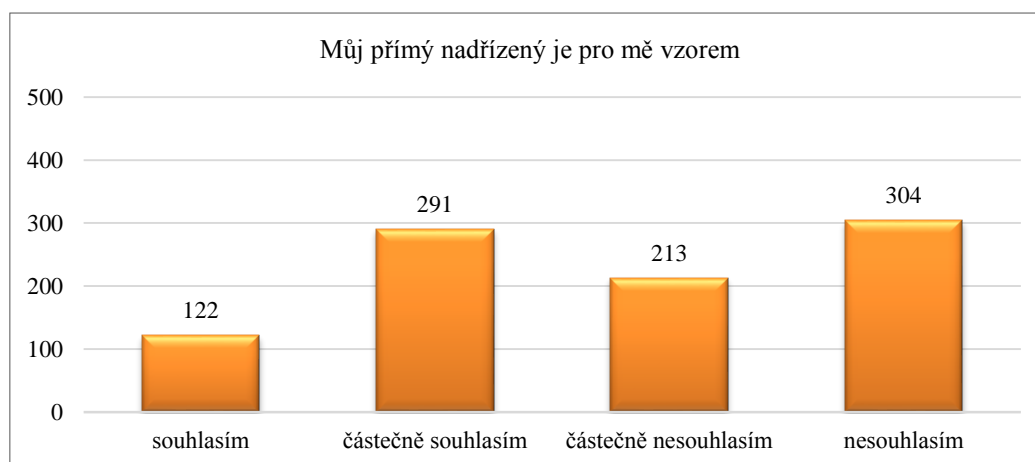
Obr. 3. Nadřízený oceňuje mé schopnosti – celkově (vlastní výzkum)



Obr. 4. Mám důvěru vůči svému nadřízenému – celkově (vlastní výzkum)



778 respondentů (84% respondentů) potvrzuje oceňování svých schopností na pracovišti ze strany svého nadřízeného (obr. 3). 671 respondentů (72% respondentů) deklaruje důvěru vůči svému nadřízenému na pracovišti (obr. 4). 413 respondentů (44% respondentů) vnímá svého nadřízeného jako svůj vzor (obr. 5). Získaný výsledek není příliš pozitivní.



Obr. 5. Nadřízený je pro mě vzorem – celkově (vlastní výzkum)

Z hlediska pohlaví lze respondenty rozdělit na dvě skupiny s následujícími základními popisnými charakteristikami (tab. 3). Skupinu mužů, kteří participovali na dotazníkovém šetření, tvořilo 614 respondentů. Jejich věk se pohyboval v rozmezí 19 let (minimum) až 53 let (maximum), jejich průměrný věk byl přibližně 35 let, mediánová hodnota věku byla 36 let, nejčetnější skupinou mužů (respondentů) z hlediska věku tvořili 37mi letí respondenti. Délka praxe uvedené skupiny mužů, kteří participovali na dotazníkovém šetření, se pohybovala v intervalu 1rok (minimum) až 35 let (maximum), průměrná délka praxe mužů (respondentů) byla 14 let, mediánová hodnota délky praxe byla 15 let, nejčetnější skupinou mužů – respondentů z hlediska délky praxe tvořili muži – respondenti s dvacetiletou praxí.

Tab. 3. Základní statistické údaje sledovaných skupin respondentů dle pohlaví (vlastní výzkum)

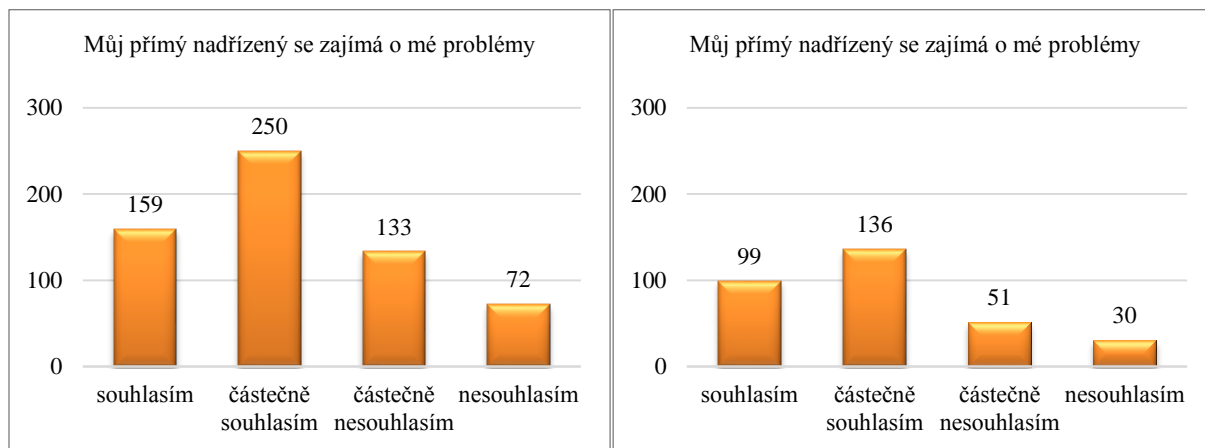
	Věk		Praxe	
	Respondenti (muži)	Respondentky (ženy)	Respondenti (muži)	Respondentky (ženy)
Počet	614	316	614	316
Minimum	19	19	1	1
Maximum	53	56	35	36
Průměr	34,54	31,47	14	10,81
Směrodatná odchylka	7,33	8,68	7,44	8,66
Medián	36	30	15	9
Modus	37	24	2	1

Skupinu žen, které participovaly na dotazníkovém šetření, tvořilo 316 respondentek. Jejich věk se pohyboval v rozmezí 19 let (minimum) až 56 let (maximum), jejich průměrný věk byl přibližně 31 rok, mediánová hodnota věku byla 30 let, nejčetnější skupinou žen (respondentek) z hlediska věku tvořili 24-leté respondentky. Délka praxe uvedené skupiny žen, které participovaly na dotazníkovém šetření, se pohybovala v intervalu 1rok (minimum) až 36 let (maximum), průměrná délka praxe žen (respondentek) byla přibližně 11 let, mediánová hodnota



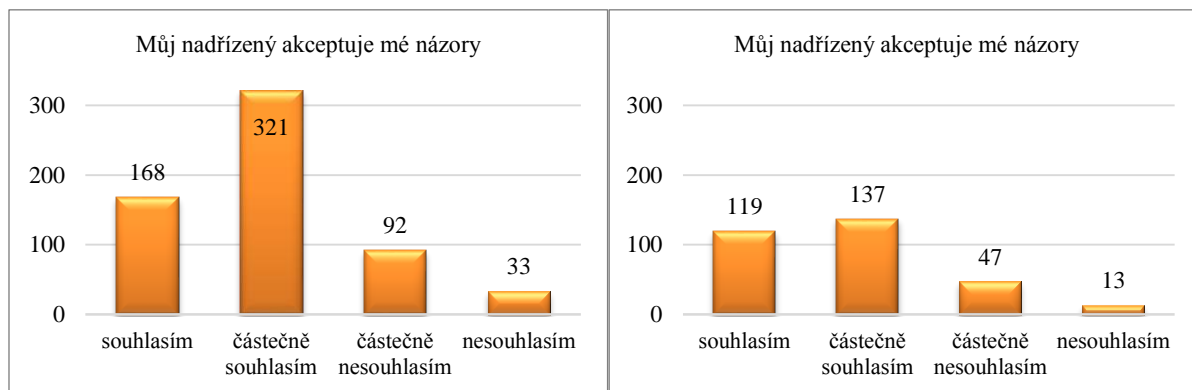
délky praxe byla 9 let, nejčetnější skupinou žen – respondentek z hlediska délky praxe tvořily ženy – respondentky s praxí jednoho roku.

Zájem nadřízených o problémy svých podřízených na pracovišti (obr. 6 a 7) deklaruje 409 mužů (67% mužů) a 235 žen (74% žen). Ženy svými postoji převažují nad postoji mužů o přibližně 7%.



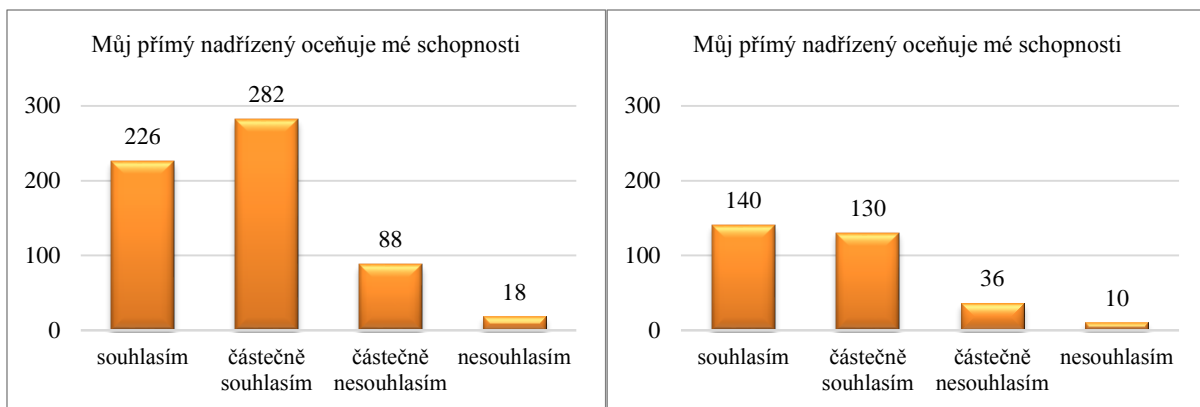
Obr. 6 – 7. Postoje respondentů ke vztahům nadřízených a podřízených na pracovišti (muži – nalevo, ženy – napravo), (vlastní výzkum)

S akceptováním názorů podřízených svými nadřízenými se ztotožňuje 489 mužů (79% mužů) a 256 žen (81% žen). Rozdíly v názorech mužů a žen jsou zanedbatelné – ženy deklarují ve větší míře akceptování svých názorů na pracovišti, než muži (obr. 8 a 9).



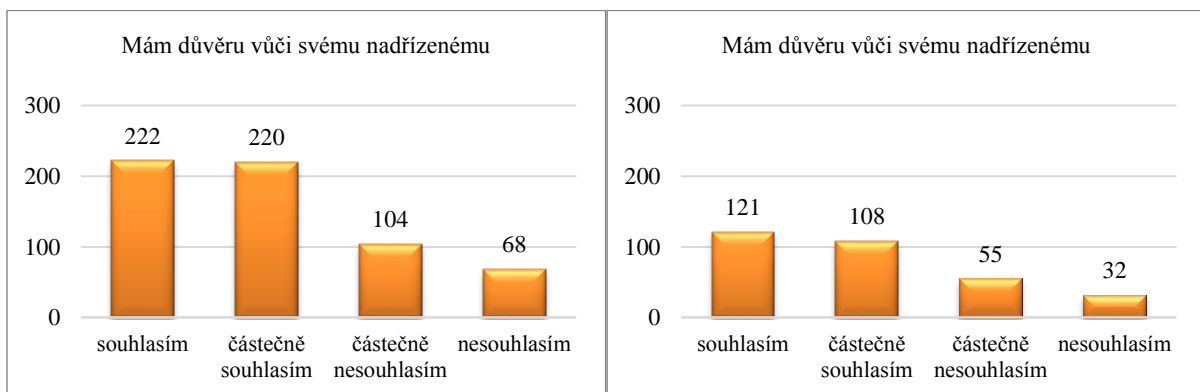
Obr. 8 – 9. Postoje respondentů ke vztahům nadřízených a podřízených na pracovišti (muži – nalevo, ženy – napravo), (vlastní výzkum)

508 mužů (83% mužů) a 270 žen (85% žen) uvádí ocenění svých schopností u nadřízených. Ženy vnímají ocenění v mírně větším rozsahu, než muži, rozdíl je ale zanedbatelný. Dokazují to obr. 10 a 11.



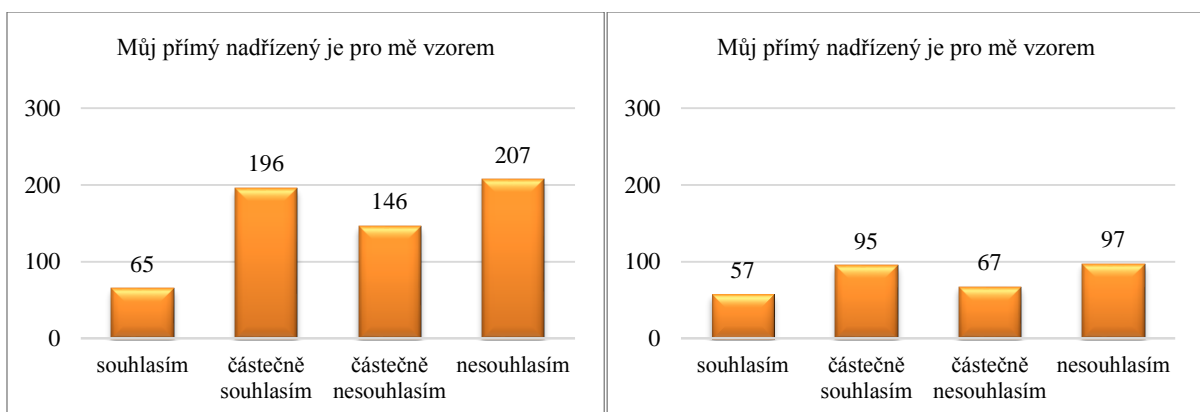
Obr. 10 – 11. Postoje respondentů ke vztahům nadřízených a podřízených na pracovišti (muži – nalevo, ženy – napravo), (vlastní výzkum)

Důvěru vůči svému nadřízenému deklaruje 442 mužů (72% mužů) a 229 žen (72% žen). Rozdíly ve vnímání důvěry vůči svému nadřízenému nebyly z hlediska pohlaví indikovány (obr. 12 a 13).



Obr. 12 – 13. Postoje respondentů ke vztahům nadřízených a podřízených na pracovišti (muži – nalevo, ženy – napravo), (vlastní výzkum)

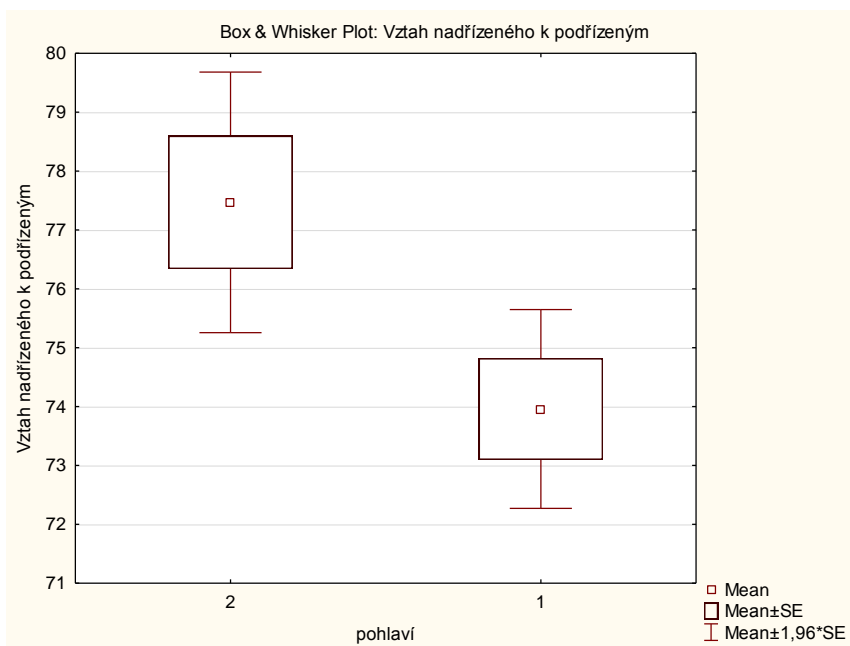
Svého nadřízeného jako vzor vidí 261 mužů (43% mužů) a 152 žen (48% žen). Je vidět, že muži jsou vůči svým nadřízeným více kritičtí, než ženy (obr. 14 a 15).



Obr. 14 – 15. Postoje respondentů ke vztahům nadřízených a podřízených na pracovišti (muži – nalevo, ženy – napravo), (vlastní výzkum)



Celkový postoj respondentů ke vztahu nadřízeného k podřízeným vyobrazuje následující obr. 16.



Obr. 16. Srovnání postojů respondentů z hlediska pohlaví (2 – žena, 1 – muž), (vlastní výzkum)

Z obr. 17 je patrné, že ženy (boxplot na pravé straně) hodnotí vztah nadřízeného k podřízeným lépe, než muži (boxplot na levé straně). K ověření statistické významnosti tohoto rozdílu byly otestované předpoklady statistického testování (tab. 4).

Na základě obdržených výsledků byl pro testování rozdílů v kvalitě policejních informačních systémů použitý neparametrický Mannův-Whitneyův U-test (tab. 5).

Tab. 4. Ověření základních předpokladů pro statistické testování (vlastní výzkum)

Ověření předpokladů (rozdíly v závislosti na pohlaví)					
Normalita			W = 0,986	P = 0,000	zamítnuta
Shoda rozptylů (homoskedasticita)	Rozptyl (muži) 73,959	Rozptyl (ženy) 77,469	F = 1,064	p = 0,602	přijata

Tab. 5. Test statistických rozdílů v závislosti na pohlaví

Postoje ke vztahu nadřízeného k podřízeným (statistické rozdíly – pohlaví)			
Shoda středních hodnot	U = 41987	p = 0,0142	zamítnuta



Výsledky statistického testu prokázaly, že vnímání postojů ke vztahu nadřízeného k podřízeným na pracovišti v závislosti na pohlaví je u sledovaných skupin odlišné, tento rozdíl se na 5-ti procentní hladině ukázán jako statisticky významný. Ženy hodnotí kvalitu vztahu nadřízeného k podřízeným na svém pracovišti lépe, než muži.

4. Závěr

V příspěvku se snaží autoři poukázat, jak je důležité mít v organizaci profesionálně nastavené vztahy mezi všemi zaměstnanci. Prioritní z pohledu plnění úkolů jsou vztahy mezi liniovými manažery a výkonnými pracovníky. Tyto aspekty dotváří nastavenou kulturu v organizaci. Prioritní postavení zde zastává nadřízený pracovníků – manažer. Toho by měli podřízení chápat jako odborníka, autoritu, pracovníka, který jim pomáhá v rámci svého rozvoje a v neposlední řadě vytváří co nejlepší podmínky pro výkon jejich činností. Pracovník, který se cítí dobře ve svém zaměstnání, dosahuje lepší výkonnosti. Organizace mu měla prostřednictvím liniových manažerů mít přehled o všech pracovnících a těm umožňovat jejich profesní rozvoj. Zařazeny výstupy z provedeného výzkumu k této problematice, který byl realizován začátkem roku 2017. Respondenti byli studenti kombinované formy studia na Policejní akademii České republiky v Praze. Výstupy z výzkumu potvrzují, že organizace v těchto klíčových oblastech vztahů na pracovišti mají ještě značné rezervy.

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Positively reviewed by first reviewer: April 19, 2017
Positively reviewed by second reviewer: April 24, 2017
Accepted by Editorial Board of the Conference HPD 2017: May 2, 2017



AKO POUŽÍVAŤ MYŠLIENKOVÉ MAPY PRE ROZVOJ TVORIVOSTI JEDNOTLIVCA

HOW TO USE THE MIND MAPS FOR THE DEVELOPMENT OF CREATIVITY AND METACOGNITION OF THE INDIVIDUAL

LÝDIA KONTROVÁ

Abstract

Development of a creative person and formation of his/her personality is a complicated process which takes place in the unity of external and internal conditions. This article discusses the issue of the mind mapping application for development of creativity and metacognition of the individual. The mind maps can be helpful with problem solving, for exploration, memorizing, concentration, motivation, organization, for improving memory. A pedagogical experiment, whose results are stated in this article, was realized during the academic year 2014/2015 and 2015/2016 on the Faculty of Special Engineering, University of Žilina. It consisted in the inclusion of mind maps in teaching of the students of study program Crisis management, observation of their influence on metacognitive learning strategies' and development of creativity, formation enhancement of the teaching process efficiency.

Key words: mind mapping, creative person, the metacognitive strategies, method SQ4R, pedagogical experiment.

Classification JEL: M12 – Personnel Management.

1. Úvod

Súčasná, rýchlo sa rozvíjajúca informačná spoločnosť, zásadným spôsobom ovplyvňuje spôsoby vzdelávania sa každého jedinca. Dnes už nemusíme kupovať knihy, aby sme mohli študovať. Dostaneme sa bez problému k obrovskému množstvu poznatkov a informácií, stačí otvoriť Internet. Problém začína v momente, keď sa snažíme zorientovať v tomto mori informácií, keď ich chceme spracovať, selektovať a klasifikovať. V nadväznosti na vyššie spomenuté, registrujeme potrebu podrobiť vlastné učebné postupy analýze, odhaliť a definovať nové, optimálne spôsoby učenia sa, ktoré reflektujú potreby modernej spoločnosti.

Jasne si uvedomujeme, že iba kontinuálne vzdelávanie je cestou k plnému rozvoju ľudského potenciálu. Realitou je, že dnešný maturant bude v pracovnom procese ešte aj za 50 rokov...Ak sa za posledných 30 rokov tak zásadne zmenil náš život (mobily, počítače, internat...), ako to asi bude vyzeráť za 50 rokov? Vystačí si absolvent vysokej školy s vedomosťami, ktoré zika dnes? Ako vysokoškolský učiteľia si nástojčivo uvedomujeme potrebu odovzdať študentom nielen istý súbor vedomostí, ale predovšetkým ďalšie kompetencie ako sú: *naučiť sa učiť, naučiť sa pracovať s informáciami, pestovať a rozvíjať schopnosť kreatívne, multilaterálne a holisticky myslieť*. Pozícia učiteľa sa zásadne zmenila: už tu nie je len nato, aby obovzdával informácie a poznatky, je tu predovšetkým preto, aby rozvíjal schopnosť kreatívne schopnosti a metakogníciu študenta.

V článku zdôvodňujeme a naznačujeme možnosti formovania metakognitívnych stratégií učenia pomocou využitia Mind mappingu, t. j. implementovaním myšlienkových, pojmových kognitívnych máp do procesu vyučovania, ako súčasť stratégie SQ4R.

2. Vzdelávanie po novom

Susan Greenfieldová, profesorka psychológie na Royal Institution of Great Britain napísala: *“Všetci dnes žijeme dlhšie a zdravšie životy, ale občas zabúdame, že to stráca zmysel, pokiaľ neudržíme v kondícii aj našu myseľ. Mať zdravý mozog znamená mať ho aktívny – môcť*



pristupovať k spomienkam, myslieť efektívne a byť kreatívny – hlavne preto – aby sme mohli dosiahnuť svoj maximálny potenciál, ktorý bol v minulosti predurčený vo veľkej miere len podľa toho, do akej bohatej rodiny ste sa narodili, jednoducho, ľudia mali a žili svoj osud”. Dnes je náš osud najmä v našich rukách, na našich rozhodnutiach, môžeme si položiť a aktívne odpovedať na otázku: Ako môžem zväčšiť svoj ľudský a intelektuálny potenciál?

Keď sa pozrieme na vzdelávanie v minulosti a dnes vidíme zásadný rozdiel. Kedysi učiteľ predovšetkým odovzdával študentom informácie, poznatky, vedomosti. Dnes je poslaním učiteľa predovšetkým naučiť študenta pracovať so svojimi mentálnymi schopnosťami, rozvinúť jeho kreatívny potenciál. Každý učiteľ, bez ohľadu nato, akej vednej oblasti sa venuje, musí byť predovšetkým *koučom*. Koučom, ktorý vie poradiť, ako selektovať, usporadúvať, analyzovať, rozvíjať, implementovať do existujúcich poznatkových štruktúr prichádzajúce informácie, ako ich zdieľať s druhými ľuďmi. A práve tu sa dostávame do priestoru Mind mappingu. Tento spája obrazovú, zvukovú a pojmovú formu odovzdávaných informácií, oslovuje najskôr logickú a následne mechanickú pamäť. Vytvára vzťahy medzi senzoricou, krátkodobou a dlhodobou pamäťou. Týmto všetkým významne posilňuje rýchlosť, kvalitu a stálosť odovzdávania danej koncepcie či riešenia a okrem toho nás inšpiruje. (Buzan, 2012).

Často sme svedkami, že vysokoškolskí študenti nemajú adekvátne študijné návyky – *nevedia sa učiť*, absentuje u nich schopnosť cieľavedome a konštruktívne riadiť svoje vlastné učenie sa. Osvojovanie si vedomostí realizujú často chaoticky, nesystematicky, chýba im premyslené, uvedomelé, organizované sledovanie študijných cieľov.

3. Metakognícia a Mind Mapping: vzájomné súvislosti

Metakognícia je komponent psychiky človeka, označovaný aj ako *poznávanie vlastného poznávania*. Metakognícia sa podieľa na kontrole, riadení a regulovaní kognitívnych procesov. Človek, ktorý má rozvinuté metakognitívne zručnosti učenia sa, odbúrava mechanické učenie a využíva aktívne metódy učenia sa (napríklad učenie sa riešením problémov).

Metakognitívne učebné stratégie ponúkajú pomoc tým, ktorí majú problém analyzovať, aplikovať, zapamätať a opätovne si vybavovať získané informácie. Je dobré poznať niekoľko učebných stratégií, aby si človek vybral tú, ktorá mu najlepšie vyhovuje. Aktivity ako: plánovanie postupu riešenia úlohy, monitoring porozumenia učivu, evalvačné a autoevalvačné procesy po ukončení úlohy sú metakognitívne vo svojej podstate (Blaško, 2010).

Podľa J. Flavella metakognícia pozostáva z metakognitívnych poznatkov, metakognitívnych skúseností a regulácií (Flavell, 1979). Metakognitívnu stratégiou rozumieme schopnosť podrobiť svoje vlastné učebné postupy analýze, poznávať ich a hľadať optimálne spôsoby ich organizácie a riadenia. Ak sú metakognitívne záujmy podporované, vyvíjajú sa u študentov učebné kompetencie, t. j. spôsobilosť vedieť si pri učení poradiť, vedieť ako sa učiť. Takéto kompetencie majú perspektívne využitie pre celý život jedinca. V dnešnej rýchlo sa rozvíjajúcej dobe je neoceniteľnou devízou, keď dokážeme neustále, aj po skončení vzdelávania sa v rámci určitej štruktúry, samostatne, systematicky a efektívne pracovať na svojom vlastnom ďalšom formovaní. Dá sa povedať, že je to pre náš ďalší rast absolútnou nevyhnutnosťou.

Uvedieme jednu z najznámejších metakognitívnych stratégií učenia, autormi ktorej sú E. J. Thomas a F. P. Robinson, známu pod akronymom SQ4R. Ako ukázal náš pedagogický experiment, implementovanie Mind mapping spolu s realizáciou stratégie SQ4R pri vyučovaní, je cestou k zvyšovaniu efektivity učenia a súčasne pozitívne ovplyvňuje rast kreatívneho potenciálu študentov. Vysvetlíme teraz jednotlivé kroky SQ4R stratégie.

S – znamená *survey* (zorientuj sa, preskúmaj). Prvým krokom pri učení sa je rýchly a predbežný prehľad v základnom usporiadaní učebného materiálu. Učiaci sa musí zorientovať v celkovej výstavbe učebného materiálu. Má si urobiť hrubú predstavu, ako sa v preberanej problematike postupuje, od čoho k čomu sa smeruje, ako sa téma rozvíja. Perfektným nástrojom



na realizáciu tohto kroku je pojmová mapa zameraná na úvodnú prezentáciu kľúčových slov (pojmov) a ich vzájomných súvislostí.

Q – znamená *questions* (pýtaj sa). Učiaci si položí otázku, čo o danej téme (problematike) už vie a ako to súvisí s novými poznatkami. Sleduje tri základné línie: Čo? Ako? Prečo? Často je nevyhnutné pripomenúť študentom fakty a informácie, ktoré súvisia s preberanou problematikou, a ktorých vybavenie si v pamäti je nevyhnutné pre pochopenie nového učiva. Aj v tejto fáze sme aplikovali niekoľko “rekapitulujúcich” pojmových máp, ktoré pripomínajú študentom poznatky získané na nižšom vzdelávacom stupni. Ukazuje sa, že v súčasnosti sú vedomosti študentov menej trvácne, a osvieženie pamäte študenta vhodnou myšlienkovou mapkou je veľmi prospešné.

4R – znamená:

- **Read** (čítaj); učiaci sa premyslene číta učebný materiál, priebežne si robí poznámky a registruje problémy, na ktoré narazil. V tejto fáze učenia sa povzbudzujeme študentov lineárny študijný materiál prepísať do formy pojmovej mapy, ktorá umožní synergické, divergentné myslenie a lepšie zapamätanie si informácií.
- **Reflect** (reflektuj, zvažuj); učiaci si premyslí študovaný materiál tak, aby si ho dal do kontextu s jemu už známymi skutočnosťami, vyčlení kľúčové pojmy a princípy, ktoré vníma ako relevantné pre tému.
- **Recite** (opakuj, hovor); ak učiaci sa materiál pochopil a prijal poznatky za svoje, musí si ich následne vhodným spôsobom uložiť do pamäte.
- **Review** (rekapitulujúci prehľad); učiaci sa dokáže výstižne zhrnúť to, čo sa naučil (v zmysle *Flavell, 1979*).

Pri pozornom vnímaní jednotlivých fáz uvedenej stratégie učenia registrujeme hneď niekoľko možností začlenenia pojmových máp do učebného procesu. Naš mozog totiž nemyslí lineárne ani sekvenčne ako počítač. Myslí multilaterálne, mnohými smermi. Ak študijný materiál zapíšeme formou pojmovej mapy, sú myšlienky v ňom obsiahnuté navzájom prepojené a pomáhajú nášmu mozgu, vďaka asociáciám, chápať veci lepšie, respektíve vymyslieť niečo nové. Lineárne, monotónne a jednofarebné poznámky stále “vládnu svetu” a zapájajú do procesu myslenia a učenia sa len nebezpečne malú časť nášho mozgu: ukrývajú kľúčové slová, spôsobujú, že sa nám všetko horšie pamätá, nestimulujú mozog (už z princípu bránia mozgu, aby si vytváral asociácie a využíval súhrn kreativity a pamäte), (*Buzan, T. 2012*).

Pojmové mapy sme preto, veľmi premyslene začlenili do vyučovania na všetkých úrovniach, v snahe zvýšiť kreativitu a produktivitu myslenia študentov.

4. Myšlienková mapa – vizuálny nástroj pre holistické myslenie

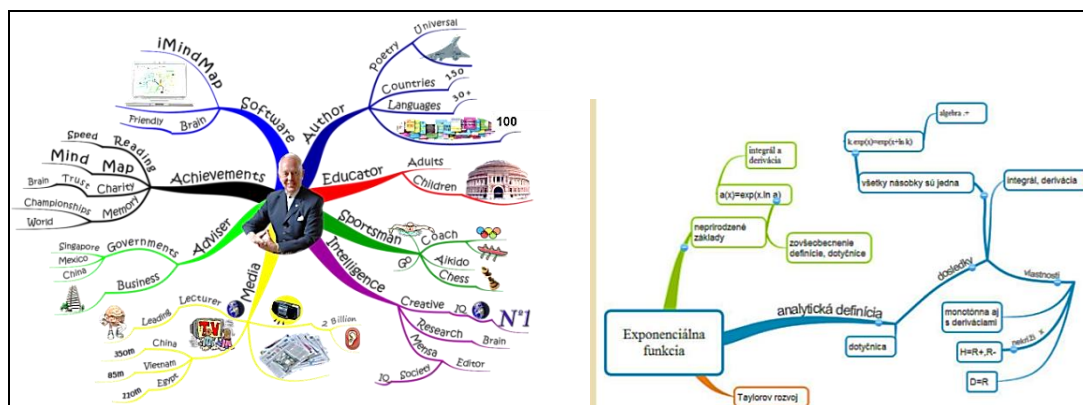
Začiatky Mind Mappingu sú spojené s menom Tonyho Buzana, ktorý koncom 70. rokov 20. storočia navrhol pojmové mapy ako nový, efektívnejší spôsob písania poznámok. Mind Mapping je tiež, podľa Fishera, označením pre *všetky postupy, ktoré vizualizujú naše myslenie nejakým spôsobom* (*Fisher, 2004*). Ide o vizuálne znázornenie pozostávajúce zo slov, pojmov, myšlienok, informácií a poznámok do celkovej zmysluplnej štruktúry, ktorá potenciuje schopnosť vytvárať asociácie v našej myslí, ktoré by inak nemuseli vôbec vzniknúť. Podobne ako kartografická mapa, je to dobrý spôsob, ako myslenie zviditeľniť (*Majovská, 2009*).

Myšlienková mapa je dobrou prevenciou proti chaotickému, neusporiadanému mysleniu, ktoré neposúva človeka ďalej. Núti nás premýšľať o podstate, zmysle a celi toho, čo študujeme, plánujeme, zamýšľame. Pomáha nám určiť kľúčové pojmy, čo je v množstve informácií podstatné, a čo zanedbateľné, ukazuje na vzájomné súvislosti prvkov a fáz, z ktorých sa skladá riešenie problému. Myšlienková mapa nielenže robí v našom mozgu poriadok, ale prináša inšpiráciu a posilňuje našu kreativitu. A čo je asi najdôležitejšie, umožňuje nám vidieť danú problematiku z *vtáče* perspektívy, v celej svojej celistvosti, štruktúrovanosti.



Myšlienková mapa je vizuálny nástroj pre holistické, teda celostné myslenie, ktoré podporuje všetky funkcie mozgu – predovšetkým pamäť, kreativitu, učenie a celkovo premýšľanie ako také. Podstatnými znakmi myšlienkového mapy sú:

- Obrázok v strede papiera zachytáva hlavný pojem (objekt) nášho záujmu.
- Zo stredu vychádzajú viaceré vetvy (čiary). Tieto vyznačujú najskôr hlavné témy (pojmy), ktoré priamo súvisia s centrálnym pojmom, následne sa rozvetvujú na ďalšie vzdialenejšie motívy (pojmy).
- Každá vetva mapy je vhodne označená (popísaná) kľúčovým slovom, respektíve obrázkom.



Obrázok 1. Príklady myšlienkových máp

5. Myšlienková mapa – nástroj pre tvorivé myslenie

Podľa Rudolfa Flescha *Kreatívne myslieť znamená jednoducho uvedomiť si, že nie je žiadnou cnosťou robiť veci presne tak, ako sa robia vždy*.

Pojem tvorivosť patrí k najmnohoznačnejším pojmom v oblasti psychológie. Tvorivosť je dôležitá už len preto, že napomáha zlepšovať kvalitu riešenia každodenných problémov jedinca. Pozícia tvorivosti ako globálneho cieľa vzdelávania je nespochybniteľná. Je preto prekvapujúce, ako často sa vo vzdelávacích programoch na tento cieľ zabúda.

V psychologickú literatúru sa za nevyhnutný (základný) predpoklad kreatívneho myslenia jedinca považuje flexibilita myslenia. Ďalšími faktormi sú predovšetkým:

- Schopnosť vytvárať nové asociácie z predložených myšlienok.
- Odvážne a novátorské kombinovanie a združovanie zvyčajných prvkov.
- Pre skladanie a nové spájanie už existujúcich nápadov.
- Prehodnocovanie starých myšlienok a odvaha otočiť štandardné vnímanie faktov *hore nohami*.

Myšlienkové mapy, začleňované do procesu učenia sa, sú vhodným spúšťacím mechanizmom pre *odmoknutie* tvorivých schopností jedinca. Keď kreslíme myšlienkovú mapu, nechávame voľne plynúť tvorivú duševnú energiu, ktorá by inak zostala niekde na periférii našej mysle.

6. Pedagogický experiment

V tejto kapitole stručne popíšeme priebeh a výsledku pedagogického experimentu, realizovaného v akademickom roku 2014/2015 a 2015/2016 na Fakulte špeciálneho inžinierstva Žilinskej univerzity v Žiline. Výskumnú vzorku tvorili študenti študijného programu Krízový manažment. Cieľom experimentu bolo overiť, či implementovanie myšlienkových máp do vzdelávacieho procesu v období dvoch rokov bude mať pozitívny vplyv na rozvoj tvorivého potenciálu našich študentov. Práve pri študentoch tohto odboru je veľmi



dôležité, aby na naučili rozvíjať svoje tvorivý potenciál, aby dokázali reagovať rýchlo, flexibilne, kreatívne pri riešení problémov v praxi. Stanovili sme hypotézu:

H₀: Vďaka implementovaniu myšlienkových máp do procesu učenia sa a vyučovania počas dvoch rokov, preukazujú študenti na konci experimentálneho obdobia vyššie skóre tvorivého potenciálu zisťovaného Urbanovým testom tvorivosti ako študenti, ktorí myšlienkové mapy nevyužívali.

Na zisťovanie a porovnanie tvorivého potenciálu študentov sme zaradili experimentálny plán s pretestom a retestom, ktorým sme zisťovali vlastnosti subjektov pred experimentálnym pôsobením a po ňom. Pracovali sme s experimentálnou a kontrolnou skupinou študentov, pričom obe tvorilo 35 probandov.

Na verifikáciu hypotézy *H₀* sme po konzultácii s odborníkmi z oblasti psychológie zvolili štandardný *Figurálny Urbanov test tvorivého myslenia (TSD-Z)*. Je to skrútingový nástroj, ktorý poskytuje relevantný pohľad na tvorivý potenciál jedinca. Spĺňa podmienky jednoduchého administrovania a vyhodnocovania. Na testovacom hárku sú predložené 4 fragmenty, ktoré treba dokresliť. Výsledný produkt kreslenia sa hodnotí na základe presne stanovených kritérií. Danému hárku priradíme isté skóre, ktoré odzrkadľuje úroveň tvorivého potenciálu jedinca.

Table 1. Výsledky experimentálnej skupiny spracované programom MS Excel (vlastné spracovanie)

t-Test: Paired Two Sample for Means		
	<i>Variable 1</i>	<i>Variable 2</i>
Mean	31,45714286	28,51428571
Variance	103,3142857	92,1394958
Observations	35	35
Pearson Correlation	0,945585605	
df	34	
t Stat	5,264267060	
P (T ≤ t) one-tail	0,000003898	
t Critical one-tail	1,690924255	
P (T ≤ t) two-tail	0,000007796	
t Critical two-tail	2,032244509	

Table 2. Výsledky kontrolnej skupiny spracované programom MS Excel (vlastné spracovanie)

t-Test: Paired Two Sample for Means		
	<i>Variable 1</i>	<i>Variable 2</i>
Mean	31,45714286	31,42857143
Variance	103,3142857	99,48739496
Observations	35	35
Pearson Correlation	0,994235057	
df	34	
t Stat	0,153980201	
P (T ≤ t) one-tail	0,439267851	
t Critical one-tail	1,690924255	
P (T ≤ t) two-tail	0,878535701	
t Critical two-tail	2,032244509	



Počas dvoch rokov boli študenti pri absolvovaní viacerých predmetov usmerňovaní tvoriť a využívať myšlienkové mapy pri samostatnom štúdiu, prezentovaní problematiky, alebo tiež pri riešení problémov. Po ukončení experimentálneho pôsobenia sme mali o každom študentovi k dispozícii dva relevantné údaje (počet bodov získaných po vyplnení testovacieho hárku v preteste a reteste). Na spracovanie a vyhodnotenie získaných výsledkov sme použili *Dvojvýberový párový t-test*. Výsledky oboch testovaných skupín s potrebnými štatistickými charakteristikami sú uvedené v tabuľke 1 a 2.

7. Záver

V kontrolnej skupine je vypočítaná hodnota testovacieho kritéria $t = 0,1539$ a príslušné kritické hodnoty pre jednostranný test $t_{0,05}(35) = 1,6909$ a kritické hodnoty pre dvojstranný test $t_{0,05}(35) = 2,0322$. Nakoľko platí $t < t_{krit1}$ a zároveň $t < t_{krit2}$ konštatujeme, že *rozdiel medzi výsledkami v preteste a reteste v kontrolnej skupine nebol štatisticky významný*.

V experimentálnej skupine je hodnota testovacieho kritéria $t = 5,2642$ a príslušné kritické hodnoty pre jednostranný test $t_{0,05}(35) = 1,6909$ a kritické hodnoty pre dvojstranný test $t_{0,05}(35) = 2,0322$. Nakoľko platí $t > t_{krit1}$ a zároveň $t > t_{krit2}$ konštatujeme, že *rozdiel bodov získaný v TSD-Z preteste a reteste v experimentálnej skupine je štatisticky významný a potvrdil sa pozitívny vplyv implementácie mind mappingu na rozvoj tvorivého potenciálu jedincov pri našej vzorke*.

Všeobecnosť záverov nášho výskumu je však obmedzená veľkosťou vzorky a predmetu výskumu. Bolo by vhodné urobiť ďalšie výskumy na väčších vzorkách. Tiež treba testovať vplyv mind mappingu na rozvoj kreativity jedinca globálnejšie; t. j. v rôznych skupinách študentov (probandov), pri rôznych študijných programoch.

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Positively reviewed by first reviewer: May 1, 2017

Positively reviewed by second reviewer: May 8, 2017

Accepted by Editorial Board of the Conference HPD 2017: May 12, 2017



КОМПЕТЕНЦИИ СОТРУДНИКОВ, ОТВЕТСТВЕННЫХ ЗА ПРОЦЕСС РАСТОРЖЕНИЯ ТРУДОВОГО ДОГОВОРА, ПО МНЕНИЮ МОЛОДЫХ РАБОТНИКОВ – РЕЗУЛЬТАТЫ ИССЛЕДОВАНИЯ

COMPETENCES OF COWORKERS RESPONSIBLE FOR DECRUITMENT, VIEWED FROM THE PERSPECTIVE OF YOUNG EMPLOYEES – SURVEY RESULTS

ANNA KRASNOVA

Abstract

Each company, sooner or later, faces the need for a derecruitment – the process to reduce the staff. Regardless of who initiates this process (employee or employer), this process is one of the most difficult in the field of human resource management. That is why, the employer should pay due attention to the selection of a specialist who will assume the responsibility for carrying out the process of layoffs. The article presents the results of a qualitative research conducted among the students – future specialists in the field of human resources management – on the topic of competences that, in their opinion, employee, responsible for the process of layoffs, must have has.

Key words: derecruitment, layoffs, dismissal, competence, human resource management.

Classification JEL: M12 – Personnel Management.

1. Введение

В последнее время на рынке труда многих стран наблюдаются интенсивные изменения, главным из которых является смена «главы» рынка. С «рынка работодателя» на «рынок соискателя» изменились уже рынки труда в большинстве стран Европейского Союза. Все чаще можно услышать о так называемом кризисе талантов, проблемах с рекрутингом на специализированные должности, дефиците персонала. Несмотря на это, большинство компаний все чаще сталкивается с необходимостью проведения дерекрутинга – процесса по сокращению численности персонала.

Способствует этому не только снижение продолжительности работы специалиста на одном месте, вызванное желанием (и возможностью) найти рабочее место, которое будет лучше и в результате чего – увольнение по собственному желанию. Все больше сотрудников входят в пенсионный возраст, отказываясь при этом от трудоустройства. Кроме этого, компании продолжают оптимизацию бизнес-процессов и реорганизуют производства, что часто приводит к необходимости сокращения рабочих мест (*Rocznik Statystyczny Pracy, 2016*).

В то же время, все работники компании, независимо от того, являются ли они, по-прежнему связаны с ней, или уже зачислены в ряды бывших сотрудников, оказывают непосредственное влияние на имидж компании (employer branding), (*Stevens, 2013; Jonze & East, 2016*). А неправильно проведенный процесс дерекрутинга может не только навсегда испортить мнение сотрудников о фирме, как работодателя, но и негативно отразиться на марке компании в целом.

Обычно, процессом дерекрутинга занимаются как специалисты од управления человеческими ресурсами (представители отделов HR), так и руководители. В некоторых случаях, для реализации отдельных действий предпринимаемых в процессе расторжения трудового договора, компании нанимают специализированный персонал. Специалисты, занимающиеся в компаниях процессом дерекрутинга, часто становятся последним



звеном в отношениях, на линии сотрудник-работодатель, а значит от того, как себя поведут, и насколько хорошо выполнят свои служебные обязанности, будет зависеть то, какое впечатление останется у сотрудника о работодателе после расставания с ним.

Именно поэтому, не смотря на то, кто именно является ответственным за реализацию этого сложного, а одновременно очень важного процесса, ключевую роль в достижении успеха или провала играют компетенции человека, реализующего данный процесс.

Согласно определению, компетенция – это диапазон знаний, навыков и опыта (*Słownik PWN; Ober, 2015, с. 372*), способностей, эффективности предпринятых действий, поведения, характеристики достижений, результатов работы (*Bugdol, 2006, с. 144*) и готовность действовать (*Wiatrak, 2007, с. 423*). Следовательно, все то, что сотрудник использует либо может использовать при реализации служебных обязанностей.

Компетенции бывают твердые (профессиональные) и мягкие (социальные). Под твердыми компетенциями авторы подразумевают измеримые, необходимые для выполнения работы компетенции, такие как, например, знание иностранных языков, умение использовать компьютерные программы, специализированные знания, конкретно полученное образование.

Мягкие компетенции (социальные) – это межличностные навыки: способность устанавливать и поддерживать отношения, коммуникационные навыки (*Markowska, 2012, с. 15*), презентационные навыки, умение справляться со стрессом и быть настойчивым (*Циолковский, 2014, с. 5; Matczak, 2001, с. 7*), умение работать в команде (*Батурина, 2003; Шипилова, 2005; Власов, 2008; Одегов, 2010; Чуланова, 2014*), способность вести переговоры, дискретность и этика (*Bruce, 2006*), открытость и толерантность по отношению к другим людям (*Ulrich, 1998*), способность разрешать конфликты (*Bruce, 2006; Ушева, 2013, с. 19*). Значение социальных компетенций при выполнении служебных обязанностей, подчеркивается многими авторами (*Deming, с. 9; Батурина, 2003; Шипилова, 2005; Власов, 2008; Одегов, 2010; Чуланова, 2014*). Особенно важны они, однако, становятся в таких профессиях, которые требуют постоянного контакта с другими людьми, в том числе в работе специалистов по управлению человеческими ресурсами (*Gierybo-Paprotka, 2014, HR-ca portret własny, 2016; Leszczuk, 2016, с. 18–22; Raport o kompetencjach pracowników HR 2013*).

Целью статьи является представление характеристики сотрудников, ответственных за процесс расторжения трудового договора (их компетенций, личностных качеств, умений, знаний и поступков), по мнению молодых сотрудников, входящих на рынок труда, а одновременно являющихся потенциальными исполнителями роли дерекрутера.

2. Процесс расторжения трудового договора

Рассторжение трудового договора является одним из элементов дерекрутинга (*Schwan & Seipel, 1997; Zbiegień-Maciąg, 1996, с. 163; Poczowski, 1998; Sochacka, 2011*) – наиболее болезненным и трудным для компании моментом, в результате которого работодатель вынужден окончательно расстаться с сотрудником. Определение процесса расторжения трудового договора в русскоязычной литературе чаще всего носит название реструктуризации персонала либо увольнения. В ранних публикациях (*Krasnova, 2016, с. 133*) автор статьи, приняла определение процесса реструктуризации персонала. Это определение, использует так же в данной статье: *реструктуризация персонала это сокращение числа сотрудников организации в результате расторжения либо не продления трудового договора по инициативе сотрудника, увольнения работника работодателем, а также освобождение от занимаемой должности по причинам, не зависящим непосредственно от работодателя и работника.*



Согласно данному определению, процесс расторжения трудового договора относится не только к ситуации в которой работодатель принимает решение о его расторжении (активный дерекрутинг), но и ситуации в которых данная инициатива исходит от самого сотрудника (пассивный дерекрутинг), а также тогда, когда основания о расторжении трудового договора не зависят ни от работодателя, ни от сотрудника (пассивный дерекрутинг), например, выход сотрудника на пенсию. Однако независимо от того, что стало причиной расторжения трудового договора и кто является инициатором данного процесса, работодатель вынужден будет предпринять определенные действия (Алифанов, 2011; Ragan 2011; Riemer, 2016; Lachiewicz, 2011), которые позволят «правильно» завершить сотрудничество с работником.

Таблица 1. Этапы действий, предпринимаемые работодателем, в процессе дерекрутинга (собственная работа на основании: UCSF Layoff Process and Procedures 2011; Layoff Process Overview, Layoff Process, Layoff and reduction, Sullivan J., 2001-2009, Guerin L., Barreiro S., 2016 и другие)

Этап дерекрутинга	Активный дерекрутинг	Пассивный дерекрутинг
1	Анализ человеческих ресурсов в компании	Предотвращение возможных причин увольнения сотрудников по собственному желанию
2	Выбор рабочих мест (и работников), охваченных дерекрутингом	Проведение предварительного собеседования при увольнении с уходящим работником (выявление причин принятого решения)
3	Подготовка документации, необходимой для проведения дерекрутинга персонала, на конкретной должности	Разработка и реализация мер, направленных на изменение решения, принятого работником
4	Проведение предварительного собеседования при увольнении	Проведение углубленного собеседования при увольнении (employee experience management)
5	Предоставление работнику возможности обжаловать решение об увольнении или сокращении	Оказание помощи и поддержки сотруднику покидающему компанию (в зависимости от возможностей компании)
6	Принятие окончательного решения об увольнении или сокращении. Проведение углубленного собеседования при увольнении	Проведение бесед с остальными сотрудниками, объясняющие причины и следствия появившейся ситуации
7	Ознакомление сотрудника с решением работодателя о расторжении трудового договора и о сроках прекращения трудовых отношений	Завершение формальностей, связанных с расставанием с сотрудником
8	Реализация запланированных действий (например, аутплейсмент)	Разработка корректирующих действий (если это возможно)



Какие именно это будут действия, зависит, прежде всего, от того, кто был инициатором расставания и, что послужило тому причиной. К тому же, предпринятые работодателем действия и меры будут продиктованы финансовым положением компании, ситуацией на рынке труда, а так же стратегией развития фирмы.

Чаще всего, процесс расторжения трудового договора включает в себя определенные действия работодателя. Это – принятие решения об увольнении, ознакомление сотрудника с решением работодателя, ознакомление работодателя с решением сотрудника, о расторжения трудового договора, формальное урегулирование вопросов, связанных с расторжением трудового договора, в некоторых случаях, приготовление «пакета поддержки» (аутплейсмент), проведение собеседования при увольнении (exit interview).

Комплексный подход к процессу расторжения трудового договора базируется на конкретных этапах предпринимаемых работодателем действий, выстроенных в определенном порядке, зависящих друг от друга и определяющих дальнейшие действия.

Этапы действий, предпринимаемых работодателем, в процессе дерекрутинга представлены в таблице 1.

Можно заметить, что все действия, предпринимаемые работодателем в процессе дерекрутинга, направлены не только непосредственно на тех сотрудников, с которыми работодатель расстается, но и к другим стейкхолдерам (рисунок 1).

В связи с тем, что работодатель, вынужден, будет предпринять определенные действия при каждом расторжении трудового договора, становится необходимым подготовка специалистов, которые займутся реализацией данных действий от лица работодателя и примут во внимание всех участников этого процесса.



Рисунок 1. Стейкхолдеры действий предпринимаемых работодателем в процессе дерекрутинга, (собственная работа на основании: Schwan, Seipel., 1997, с. 237–241)

3. Методология исследования

Для достижения сформулированной во введении цели, автор статьи хотела найти ответы на представленные ниже вопросы:

- Какими умениями и навыками должен обладать сотрудник, занимающийся в компании процессом расторжения трудового договора?
- Какие знания (в какой области) он должен иметь?
- Какие черты характера и личностные качества могли бы пригодиться при исполнении таких служебных обязанностей, как реализация процесса расторжения трудового договора?



- Что должен и чего не должен делать, сотрудник, отвечающий за процесс расторжения трудового договора?

Наиболее подходящим методом исследования, по мнению автора, является исследовательское интервью (частично структурированный опрос), позволяющее исследователю познать мнение респондентов об исследуемом явлении (*Процесс, виды, стратегии, методы и объекты управленческих исследований...*, с. 45; Корженевский, 2010, с. 140; Poczowski, 2000, с. 25; Lutyński, с. 13–14). В традиционной форме частично структурированный опрос можно провести во время непосредственной встречи исследователя с респондентом, через телефон либо с использованием другого канала коммуникации, дающего возможность задать вопрос и выслушать ответ участника исследования в режиме реального времени (*Процесс, виды, стратегии, методы и объекты управленческих исследований...*, с. 47). Автор статьи решила однако использовать данный метод, давая одновременно респондентам возможность уделения ответов на поставленные вопросы в удобное для них время. Такую возможность удалось получить путем подачи вопросов (относящихся к интересующему автора явлению) респондентам в формуляре опроса, высланном потенциальным участникам исследования через интернет. Каждый из участников исследований мог выслать ответы на поставленные вопросы (выполненный формуляр) по электронной почте в течение, 2 недель со дня ознакомления с ними.

Необходимо заметить, что участники исследования были проинформированы об анонимности проводимого исследования, а так же о том, что «размер» ответа не ограничен, т.к. исследуемое явление имеет обширный характер. В формуляре с вопросами автор статьи обратился к респондентам с просьбой обосновать свой ответ, на фактах и конкретных примерах. Благодаря этому анализу и интерпретации подверглись не только количественные, но и качественные данные, полученные в процессе опроса.

Исследование было проведено в ноябре и декабре 2016 года, а также в январе 2017 года. В нем приняли участие студенты факультета менеджмента Лодзинского Университета, обучающиеся на бакалавриате второго года обучения, по направлению, «Управление человеческими ресурсами» (очное и заочное отделение). Отбор пробы респондентов был целенаправленным. Автор исследования хотела, чтобы в нем участвовали студенты, обучающиеся управлению человеческими ресурсами, т.е. те, кто в будущем, могут заниматься в различных компаниях процессом расторжения трудового договора. В результате проведенного опроса, автору удалось получить 99 выполненных формуляров из 109 отправленных. Согласно анонимному характеру исследования не представляется возможным описать структуру респондентов исследования. Однако, по мнению автора, приняв во внимание то, что в исследовании участвовало больше 90% всех студентов обучающихся на втором курсе бакалавриата на выбранном направлении, можно представить структуру всех приглашенных к участию в исследовании студентов, что поможет лучше понять и правильно интерпретировать результаты проведенного опроса. Возраст большинства студентов (около 75%) не превышал 22 лет.

Проведенное исследование охватило несколько исследовательских проблем относящихся к процессу расставания работодателя с сотрудником (дерекрутинг), в связи с чем, в формуляре находилось 6 вопросов. Согласно названию статьи, представленные в ней результаты исследования, концентрируются исключительно на компетенциях сотрудников ответственных за процесс расторжения трудового договора. Числа в скобках указывают на порядковый номер письменного ответа, в котором были опубликованы используемые в статье цитаты.

Компетенции сотрудников ответственных за процесс расторжения трудового договора – результаты исследования



Анализ полученного исследовательского материала автор статьи начала от общего ознакомления с ответами респондентов, что позволило опеределить, какие именно слова и словосочетания (описывающие навыки, умения, знания, поведение, конкретные компетенции и квалификации) могут быть взяты во внимание в общем анализе.

В результате общего ознакомления с содержанием ответов респондентов в первую очередь во внимание взяты такие компетенции как: умение сопереживать, специализированные (профессиональные) знания и навыки, ассертивность, навыки эффективной коммуникации, устойчивость к стрессу, способность управлять эмоциями, интерперсональные способности и навыки, личностная характеристика (черты характера), психологическая устойчивость, профессионализм, а также личностная культура. Каждая, из представленных выше компетенций является совокупностью элементов (того, чем должен характеризоваться специалист) описываемых участниками исследования. Элементы, изложенных выше компетенций, представлены в таблице 2.

Таким способом удалось выявить, что 84 опрошенных студента, считают, что сотрудник, ответственный в компании за процесс расторжения трудового договора, должен иметь обширные знания в области психологии. В том числе, респонденты подчеркивают, необходимость использования психологических знаний, при проведении собеседования. Так как, при увольнении *«знание о человеческом поведении»* (2) и *«умение вести разговор с увольняемым, потому что каждый реагирует по-разному»* (4) может помочь специалисту, ответственному за процесс расторжения трудового договора в нетипичной ситуации, он будет *«знать, как не привести к вспышке агрессии или нервному срыву»* (17) у увольняемого сотрудника. Кроме того, психологические знания, по мнению опрошенных, пригодятся в ситуации, в которой увольняемый сотрудник *«начинает давить, говоря «за что он сможет прокормить семью» или же начинает ругаться»* (17) позволяя дерекрутеру *«смягчить последствия увольнения»* (17).

Помимо знаний в области психологии, опрошенные считают немаловажным, знания в области *«рынка труда»* (1), *«управления человеческими ресурсами»* (14), *«кодекса труда»* (13), реализации процесса дерекрутинга (2, 9, 14, 17), а также в области программы Outplacement (2). Респонденты считают, что такие знания, просто необходимы, для того, чтобы правильно и безболезненно попрощаться с сотрудником.

Немаловажную роль для сотрудников, ответственных за процесс расторжения трудового договора, по мнению некорыторых участников исследования, должно играть специализированное образование. Более 10% респондентов (11 опрошенных студентов), считают, что перед началом работы над процессом дерекрутинга, сотрудник должен пройти *«специализированный подготовительный курс»* (28, 31, 98). Еще лучше, если такой сотрудник имеет высшее образование в области *«межличностных отношений»* (33), либо *«психологии»* (23).

Следует подчеркнуть, что специализированные знания и навыки, причисляемые к твердым компетенциям, были упомянуты опрашиваемыми гораздо реже, нежели, так называемые, мягкие компетенции (102 раза по отношению к 440 представленным в таблице 1). Результаты исследования показали, что наиболее важной «мягкой» компетенцией являются навыки эффективной коммуникации – в разной форме об этой компетенции вспомнило 49 респондентов. Особое внимание в процессе коммуникации, специалист должен уделить умению *«слушать»* (4, 7, 11, 13) и *«аргументировать»* (12, 17, 26, 33, 35). Аргументы, в процессе дерекрутинга, которые использует представитель работодателя *«должны быть понятны всем и обоснованы»* (12). Кроме того, необходимо также уметь *«слушать аргументы сотрудника и уметь на них отвечать»* (35). Согласно ответам опрошенных, большое значение имеет умение правильно, доступно и понятно изложить аргументы увольнения. Необходимо *«ясно и доходчиво представить»*



сотрудником поводы увольнения» (13), «принятое решение» (11) и «будущие возможности» (15).

Таблица 2: Компетенции, необходимые специалисту, ответственному за процесс расторжения трудового договора, (собственная работа)

Компетенция	Элементы компетенции (Что? Какие навыки/знания?)	Количество ответов	Сумма ответов
Умение сопереживать	Способность оказывать сострадание, чувствительность к нуждам других людей, способность поставить себя на место другого человека	42	42
Специализированные знания и навыки (профессиональные)	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Знание психологии• Образование• Курсы/тренинги• Интеллектуальные навыки• Навыки ведения переговоров	84 11 3 1 3	102
Ассертивность	Умение свободно и корректно выражать свое мнение, независимо от мнения других	26	26
Навыки эффективной коммуникации	Умение слушать, объяснять, отстаивать свою точку зрения, апеллировать фактами, убеждать	49	49
Устойчивость к стрессу	Умение управлять своим потенциалом в стрессовых ситуациях	24	24
Способность управлять эмоциями	Эмоциональный интеллект, умение скрывать эмоции, читать эмоции и использовать в своих целях	48	48
Интерперсональные способности и навыки	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Умение установить отношения• Уважение к другим• Открытость по отношению к другим• Умение поддержать• Умение работать в группе	2 8 6 9 3	28
Личностная характеристика (черты характера)	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Неприклонность• Уверенность в себе• Последовательность• Сильный характер• Умение расположить к себе, довериться• Целеустремленность• Внешний вид	14 11 17 5 3 19 2	71
Психологическая устойчивость	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Спокойный• Сдержанный• Терпеливый• Ментально сильный	14 55 25 3	97
Профессионализм	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Серьезный• Компетентный• Ответственный• Опытный• Заслуживающий доверия	3 5 3 14 4	29
Личностная культура	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Учтивый• Честный• Умеет найти индивидуальный подход к людям• Наличие надлежащей личной культуры	4 6 4 12	26



Легенда: без цвета – мягкие компетенции; с цветом – твердые компетенции

Большое значение для процесса дерекрутинга имеют эмоциональная устойчивость и эмоциональная интеллигентность специалиста, занимающегося этим процессом. Практически, половина участников исследования считают, что способность управлять эмоциями является одной из выжнейших компетенций сотрудника, ответственного за процесс расторжения трудового договора. «Умение обуздать эмоции и ни в коем случае их не показывать» (5), «не впадая в крайности» (14) и «ограничивая свои эмоции» (47) может помочь дерекрутеру в проведении процесса менее болезненно. Кроме того, необходимо уметь «безошибочно одчитывать эмоции других» (23), «почувствовать эмоции других людей» (51) и «быстро реагировать на эмоции других» (62).

Отдельное место в интерпретации результатов исследования необходимо отвести умению сопереживать. Для 42 респондентов эта компетенция является одной из самых важных. Способность оказывать сострадание, чувствительность к нуждам других людей, способность поставить себя на место другого человека делают, по мнению опрошенных, этот трудный момент расставания работодателя с сотрудником немного легче.

Кроме описанных выше компетенций, респонденты отмечали большое значение интерперсональных способностей и навыков, устойчивость к стрессу, личностную культуру и личностную характеристику (черты характера), а также профессионализм сотрудников отвечающих в компаниях за процессы расставания с сотрудниками. Под понятием «профессионализм» чаще всего опрашиваемые подразумевали серьезный подход к служебным обязанностям, компетентность (знание, что и как нужно делать), ответственность, и умение вызывать доверие. Особого внимания заслуживает опыт, который некоторые респонденты, считают просто необходимым при реализации такого сложного задания. Специалисты должны иметь «опыт работы» (98) «опыт работы в какой-либо фирме» (58), «опыт работы в группе» (10), «опыт работы в реализации дерекрутинга» (19, 35, 89), а также в «проведении собеседования при увольнении» (71, 93).

Для многих опрошенных важной компетенцией в процессе дерекрутинга является умение свободно и корректно выражать собственное мнение, в том числе тогда, когда оно не схоже с мнением окружающих. А так же, умение отказывать другому человеку, при этом, правильно аргументируя принятое решение. Такую компетенцию часто называют ассертивность. Более $\frac{1}{4}$ респондентов считают, что специалист занимающийся процессом расторжения трудового договора должен быть ассертивным.

Кроме психологических знаний, по мнению опрошенных, дерекрутер должен быть психологически устойчивым. Вот элементы данной компетенции, умение сохранять спокойствие и выдержку, терпение к окружающим, ментальную силу, об этом в своих ответах написали 97 студентов. «Специалист должен также быть психически сильным» (4, 27), «иметь сильный характер» (29), «должен быть человеком выдержанным» (3, 8), «спокойным» (12, 13, 16) и «характеризироваться умением быть терпеливым» (15).

4. Выводы

Процесс расторжения трудового договора, рано или поздно, становится неотъемлемым элементом трудовых отношений. Это наиболее трудный процесс в управлении человеческими ресурсами, не только с психологической и социальной, но и с финансовой точки зрения. В связи с этим, на специалиста, ответственного за организацию и реализацию процесса дерекрутинга в компании, возложена большая ответственность – не только качественно и успешно завершить трудовые отношения с уходящим либо увольняемым сотрудником, но и прежде всего, помочь ему в адаптации к новой ситуации.



Подводя итоги исследования, можно сказать, что респонденты считают, что специалист, отвечающий в компании за процесс расторжения трудового договора, должен быть не только терпеливым, психически устойчивым и толерантным, прежде всего, он должен быть понимающим, уметь правильным способом представить положение собеседнику, иметь специализированные знания и быть последовательным в своих действиях и принятых решениях. Большое значение в том, как будет проведен процесс дерекрутинга, имеют компетентность и профессионализм специалиста, представляющего работодателя. Кроме того, участники исследования подчеркивали, что от того, каков будет дерекрутер – представитель работодателя, с которым уходящий сотрудник входит в контакт – во многом зависит, какое мнение останется у работника о фирме. *«Работник должен чувствовать, что, несмотря на то, что он потерял работу, работодатель не потерял интерес к нему. Это принесет пользу в будущем, так как позволит снизить риск негативных комментариев по поводу компании»* (39).

Специалист от дерекрутинга *«должен быть в состоянии адаптироваться в ситуации. Например, успокоить плачущего сотрудника или справиться с агрессивным»* (1). Важно, чтобы он умел дипломатически подойти к каждой, пусть даже, нетипичной, не комфортной ситуации, умело адаптируя используемые методы, к потребностям и ожиданиям уходящего из компании сотрудника. Именно поэтому сотрудник компании, занимающийся процессом дерекрутинга, должен быть разносторонней и интеллектуально развитой личностью с широко развитыми коммуникационными и социальными навыками.

По мнению автора статьи, результаты проведенного исследования, могут послужить стимулом для проведения дальнейших углубленных исследований на тему компетенций дерекрутеров (например, среди людей, которые принимали активное участие в процессе дерекрутинга). Кроме того, интересны были бы результаты исследований, проведенных с представителями специалистов, занимающихся процессом расторжения трудового договора профессионально при использовании психологических тестов, позволяющих определить, насколько та или иная компетенция развита и действительно ли, по их мнению, конкретные компетенции могут помочь в реализации такого трудного профессионального задания.

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Positively reviewed by first reviewer: April 30, 2017

Positively reviewed by second reviewer: May 10, 2017

Accepted by Editorial Board of the Conference HPD 2017: May 12, 2017



SHAPING THE EMPLOYERS BRANDING OF ENTITIES IN PUBLIC HOSPITALS NETWORK AND STAKEHOLDERS QUALITY OF LIFE

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Abstract

Changes in health care in Poland since the early 1990s have made healthcare providers, especially the public ones, adapt their modern methods and management tools to their current activity. Bearing in mind the strategic importance of human capital management in health care units and the dangers resulting from the unfavorable trends in the labor market, and primarily the shortage of medical staff, the aim of paper is to try to adapt the concept of employer branding to network conditions in public hospitals. A good brand, adequate reputation and the level of involvement of the medical community, the networking organization is considered a desirable public employer. In addition, it allows to attract and retain desirable talents. It also enables to gain competitive advantage and through the repetitive quality of its medical services, to achieve relatively high levels of satisfaction of clients and financial results. Based on this fact, the paper tries to adapt the branding process to the conditions of medical service providers within the networking organization. This attempt is preceded by discussion of issues such as the substance of the BMP concept (business process management) and the need to implement its principles in public units.

Key words: employer branding, human resources management, network organization, public hospital network, medical staff.

Classification JEL: M12 – Personnel Management.

1. Introduction

Recent years have significantly altered the reality of public health providers in Poland. As a result of these changes, the management of these units began to see the need for the implementation of modern methods and management tools, while reaping the postulates of the new public management concept.

Building the image of the employer becomes a strategic challenge for the units operating within the network of public hospitals. A positive image inspires stakeholder trust. It is a factor of their development, it allows to acquire from the market resources of special importance, i.e. medical staff with key competences and abilities. Building on mentioned ideas, the *aim of paper* consists in trying to adapt the concept of employer branding to network conditions in public hospitals and adapt the branding process to the real conditions of medical service providers within the networking organization.

2. The signs of increasing importance the employer's brand in public service providers

Contemporary market realities encourage employers of public entities providing medical services to undertake targeted actions to bring the highest potential and qualified medical personnel and to retain them in the long-term. The possession of a strong brand plays an important role.

Based on the literature review of the subject, it was found that the factors determine the process of forming the employer's brand. These include:

- The increasing importance of the service sector in the economy and the development of the knowledge economy and the resulting shortage of intellectual resources;
- Demographic change in developed countries;
- Competitive battle for talented personnel;



- Dependence of the efficiency of subjects on the quality of intellectual *capital* (Buchelt, 2008a; Jończyk, 2011; Kunecka, 2012b).

In addition, the problem of shortages of qualified medical personnel, including the medical and nursing staff (Bober, 2013), is also an important circumstance. Data analysis shows that the number of doctors per 100 000 inhabitants is 351.7 in Poland, in Germany it is 536.9, and in Italy 614.1 (*Licensed physicians per 100 000 inhabitants, 2016*).

The analysis of the Polish medical sector shows a dangerously increasing trend for both doctors and nurses, with highly qualified medical personnel leaving the EU every year. In 2016, 9026 certificates of professional qualifications were issued, which accounted for 7.07% of the total number of doctors performing the profession (*number of certificates issued, NIL 2016*). It has also been found that the number of migrant doctors is systematically increasing, which in the future will affect the situation in the process of acquiring and maintaining higher medical staff. The reasons for the shortage of nursing staff include: dysfunction of the education system and emigration of nursing staff. In addition, changes in the education *process* (*adapting to EU requirements*) have resulted in an increase in professional and competence status. The profession of a nurse is perceived as a professional who renders nursing services. Thus, there has been an increase of independence in the execution of tasks at this position. The above mentioned factors have forced the process of economic emigration (Bober, 2014). Increasing life expectancy:

- Women and men live longer, 80/75 years of age (*Population Projections 2003–2030, 2016*);
- The 2013 natural growth forecast is approximately (-) 21.000, determines the growth in demand for medical services and qualified medical staff.

By defining the concept of employer branding for the network of public hospitals, it is possible to assume that these are “all the actions that an organization is taking to address current and potential employees in order to build on its image as an attractive employer, as well as actions supporting its strategic business goals” (Kozłowski, 2012, p. 13). In conclusion, employer branding can be defined as a long-term strategy for engaging and retaining the most talented, valued medical staff in public medical institutions. That is why it is important to have a good working atmosphere. It is the result of many factors related to the organizational culture, the values of network organization, the sense of identification and the involvement of its staff. The atmosphere is also the added value that influences brand perception of the organization as a public employer.

3. The employer branding process

Creating a friendly workplace as a marketing objective is in the interest of both public and private employers. The concept of the public employer brand is important because, as Baruk stated (2006); Experience marketing and branding activities are a conscious process of creating not only public brands.

The literature review of the subject – the employer branding process – has shown that it dates back to 2000. In 2005, Personnel Today published a study showing its usefulness (Willock, 2005, p. 4). It was defined as a long-term strategy for managing awareness and perception of the organization’s image by employees and stakeholders (Sullivan, 2004). In another definition, (Backhaus & Tikko, 2004, p. 502), it is the process of building a unique image of an employer and its brand both within and outside the organization. The BMP concept was created on the basis of five main theoretical concepts (Table 1), namely:

- Resource management approach to company management;
- External marketing;
- Internal marketing;
- Psychological contract;



- Brand equity.

Table 1. Theoretical foundations of BMP assumptions (source: own study based on Backhaus, K. & Tikoo S. 2004. *Conceptualizing and Researching Employer Branding. Career Development International*, 4)

Name of the theoretical conceptual constructing the BMP	Brief description of the theoretical concept
Resource based view	The resource based view assumes, among other things, that human resources, thanks to their characteristics, can provide a source of competitive advantage. By referring to the resource based view to a company's branding concept, employers assume that human resources create value for the organization, and therefore investments in human capital can increase company's effectiveness.
External Marketing	When using external marketing tools to create Employer branding one assumes that the company is perceived as the best employer and therefore will be chosen by the best candidates as a potential employer. Additionally, it is assumed that when the employer's brand becomes attractive for job applicants, they will themselves create a set of employment assumptions of the company that they will implement when actually employed by the firm, which in turn will strengthen the company's value and strengthen their engagement.
Internal Marketing	Internal marketing tools allow employers to create human capital difficult to imitate by the competition by systematically informing employees of the values that are important to the organization. In this way, an organizational culture is created that is focused on the organization's strategic goals.
Psychological contract	In the context of changes related to forms and terms of employment, that is, a change in the psychological contract, employer branding activities allow you to display the employer's employment benefits such as training or career options.
Brand equity	In marketing, 'brand equity' refers to a set of assets and liabilities attributed to a brand that add or subtract the value of a product or service of a given form in the eyes of its customers. In the context of the BMP concept, employer brand equity should influence potential or current employees of the company. Thus, the high brand value of the employer should result in more job applications from potential employees and a reduction in employee liquidity. Employer brand equity is the result of branding efforts by the employer.

Analyzing the literature of the subject, we can find many important suggestions for organization of the branding process of the employer, from those with few stages to multi-step ones (Table 2). In model terms, employer branding involves two interrelated sets of activities. The first concerns the identification of the status quo of the human resources management system and its improvement.



Table 2. Examples of BMP process solutions, (source: own study based on: Sullivan, 2004; Eisenberg, 2001; Froom, 2001; Herman & Gioia, 2001; Sartin, 2006)

Three-element BMP process by: Sullivan (2004); Eisenberg (2001); Froom (2001)	The eight-element process of BMP Sartin (2006)	Ten-element BMP process Herman, Gioia (2001)
<p>(1) Developing value propositions that will accompany the employer's brand;</p> <p>(2) External marketing, that is, the distribution of information about the brand value proposition of the employer to the target audience, such as, for example, potential employees or recruitment agencies;</p> <p>(3) Internal marketing, i.e. distribution of information about the employer's brand value proposition to the employees already employed; This stage is particularly important for employer branding, as it relates to the implementation of the value proposition that was distributed externally to potential employees; the goal of this stage is to create an organizational culture based on the values and strategic goals of the organization.</p>	<p>(1) The discovery of the strength of the employer's brand;</p> <p>(2) The engagement in employer branding;</p> <p>(3) Diagnosing the current brand image of the employer;</p> <p>(4) Creating a team to build employer brand;</p> <p>(5) Creating the concept of the brand as an employer;</p> <p>(6) Implementing the brand using all available tools that build relationships between employees and the employer;</p> <p>(7) Distributing and shaping employer brand information to employees;</p> <p>(8) Taking action to update the employer's brand.</p>	<p>(1) Specifying the company profile;</p> <p>(2) Ensuring a reputation on the labor market;</p> <p>(3) Creating and maintaining a unique organizational culture;</p> <p>(4) Encouraging to have fun at work and out of work;</p> <p>(5) Creating a strong internal support structure;</p> <p>(6) Providing IT support;</p> <p>(7) Eliminating barriers related to status;</p> <p>(8) Building a culture of 'success';</p> <p>(9) Ensuring the effectiveness of the communication system;</p> <p>(10) Providing effective leadership.</p>

The second set of activities includes the promotion of good human resource management practices implemented by the organization as a result of the improvement of the HRM system (Bober, 2012).

4. Adaptation of the concept of BMP in the units operating within the network of public hospitals

Contemporary prosumers are becoming more and more aware of the medical services they are receiving and are increasingly interested in the way medical personnel is treated by public institutions. This is related to the increase in their awareness and contributes to the growing demands for ethical behavior in various aspects.

Employer branding – the employer brand of public units, is one of the possible responses to the challenges of a changing labor market, where medical staff is gaining its importance. Branding determines the effectiveness of recruitment processes, affects the level of retention of the medical staff, increases their engagement, and consequently leads to the provision of medical services of the same quality.



The implication of the BMP concept for health care providers forces competitive solutions compared to the systems implemented by other employers (especially private ones) who come with their job offer to this labor market (*Buchelt, 2008b, p. 63*). In addition, as demonstrated by the literature on the subject matter (*Herman & Gidia, 2001, pp. 4–6; Dąbrowska, 2014*), the advantages of BMP are also:

- The ability to acquire talents;
- Increasing attractiveness not only for potential employees, but also for customers acquiring products and services;
- Reducing the costs of staffing processes;
- Optimizing the efficiency of the work process;
- Increased competence, qualification skills of job applicants;
- Reduced staff turnover and increased loyalty.

Taking into consideration the specificity of the network of public hospitals (health care) and the presented circumstances for the implementation of the BMP concept, the first step should include thorough analysis, diagnosis and evaluation of the current brand. Evaluation of the efficiency of the human resources management system determines the implementation processes of the BMP concept.

In addition, when analyzing (Table 3) providers of medical services within a networking organization, attention should be paid to:

- Labor market – internal and external;
- Conditions for the performance of the personnel function ;
- Management system of human resources ;
- Virtual environment (Internet activity) and the environment outside the network.

Although the Internet has quickly adopted many employer branding activities, it is still not possible to abandon offline tools, because they have valuable interaction experience between both parties (*Siwka, 2012, p. 23*).

Table 3. Conditions for recruited staff on medical providers in a networking organization (source: own study)

Conditionality concerns	Objective
Current brand of the given unit	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Opinion of staff and future human resources; • Identification of the possessed attributes of the medical personnel.
Tools and research methods	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Determining strengths and weaknesses.
Key resources (possessed talents)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Segmentation of the market for medical services; • Attributes of certain medical units.
Key factors that determine the brand's management processes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Risk management; • Financial resources; • Costs of medical services; • Undertaken marketing activities.

Social media (social media)¹ are defined as a platform for the activity and exchange of information and content between users based on interaction and expressing opinions and comments. This form of communication is unusual, because it imposes necessary and almost immediate interaction between the two parties (e.g. the employer of public units and the

¹ There are also terms such as social networking, new media. In this study, these terms will be used interchangeably.



candidates, the medical staff and the patients). It also determines the professional development of users and their employment, e.g. in public hospitals. The advantages of social media are primarily: the wealth of information and content and the effectiveness of this promotion tool, both among public employers and medical candidates.

One should also agree with the opinion (*Lisiński, 2004*) that the process of diagnosing the condition of the indicated factors should be carried out by scores of internal factors. The final stage, which is subject to the diagnosis of the first stage of the BMP implementation process in units providing services within a networking organization, is the HRM system. Its purpose is to identify the strengths and weaknesses of the system as a brand foundation for the employer (Table 4).

The second step in the branding process for employers in medical service providers is to define the value of the brand. It should be a set of values as a determinant of the working conditions of a given employer. They should be identical to those of their medical staff. It is also the basis for corrective and preventive actions.

Table 4. Diagnostic areas of the BMS system of BMP implementation in units functioning within the network of public hospitals – health care (source: own study)

Strategy and processes of HRM	Organizational aspect of HRM
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Design of HRM strategy – goal, plan, processes for monitoring effects;• Procedures, instructions and standards of HRM;• The actual implementation of personnel processes, such as: acquisition, adaptation, periodic evaluation and remuneration processes.	<p>Roles and tasks performed by individual human resource units in the network of public hospitals:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• The director of the unit;• Medical Director;• The chief nurse;• Heads of hospital wards;• Departmental nurses;• Other line managers;• Staff and their trade unions;• Units of human resources specialists;• External advisors.

The next step is the marketing of the brand of the employer of the medical entity within the networking organization. The final step in the process is to evaluate the brand of the employer in question. The implementation of the BMP principles is based on an effective monitoring system allowing for ongoing evaluation of the effectiveness of undertaken actions. Corporate Social Responsibility (*CSR*) is also a factor that undoubtedly has a big impact on the employer's image. *CSR* activities can have a positive impact on an employer's image of a public service provider if the public's activity is adequate to their profile and is consistent with their vision and mission. In addition, „Employer branding is the sum of all signals sent by the organization (through actions directed at current and potential employees) and is the result of the decoding of these signals by employees” (*Szczepański 2013, p. 166*). It is built on key values, norms and beliefs shared by employees (*Urbanek 2011, p. 42*), where organizational culture plays a key role in formulating the value of individual entities. Appropriate communication with staff and building the true image of a public employer in their eyes is as important to the brand as the use of social media.

5. Conclusions

As mentioned earlier, the medical labor market has changed significantly over the last few years. The turbulences in the environment of medical service providers within the networking



organization determines access to the basic success factor: the source of competitive advantage – the human capital at the disposal of the medical personnel.

What drove the author to take up the subject of this publication was a big problem with shortage of medical staff. Its primary objective was to attempt to implement the concept of BMP into the functioning of medical service providers within the networking organization. The basic assumptions behind the implementation of the concept of BMP have been discussed in the practice of medical services in the networking organization and their substance and significance. In the main part, solutions have been proposed that can be applied in networking organizations selected for analysis.

In summary, the following points should be noted:

Firstly, the implementation of the BMP concept should be carried out with the involvement of the medical personnel. Worker participation determines the processes of implementing changes. Secondly, providers of medical services within a networking organization should make their structures more flexible. According to the authors, this allows for more effective adaptation to changes in the medical services market and the integration of staff. On the one hand, the implementation of the BMP concept improves the efficiency of the communication system and on the other hand, reduces information asymmetry.

What has impact on this phenomenon are both external factors, changing labor market conditions and the development of communication tools. One of the most important external determinants of the employer's branding of public service providers was the intensification of the battle for the best medical staff (outstanding talent units). An important internal factor is the process of shaping the relationship between the employer and the medical personnel.

In addition, the process of building the employer brand of public entities within the networking organization is linked to building internal relationships; internal and personal marketing, networking organization culture) and external (mission, CSR) as well as the need to ensure a coherent and credible image of the employer. The success of the network of public hospitals is largely linked to such elements as commitment, satisfaction and satisfaction of the medical staff. These elements are the result of, among other things, the possibility of self-realization within a positive culture and effective leadership. It is not use imitating the image of a network organization in the area of employer branding (*Kaminska 2017, p. 1*).

In conclusion, units with a positive employer's image may attract the most talented employees, often with lower employment costs. More and more employers are becoming aware of this fact and are beginning to invest in their image by preparing employer branding strategies with HR, PR and marketing, or by working with external consultants (*Raczyńska et al., 2012, p. 69*).

Moreover, in terms of Polish health care (public hospitals) employer branding can be considered as an important success factor. It determines the satisfactory level of service of the prosuments and increases the value of units within the networking organization.

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Positively reviewed by first reviewer: May 15, 2017

Positively reviewed by second reviewer: May 18, 2017

Accepted by Editorial Board of the Conference HPD 2017: May 20, 2017



IMPACTS OF SERVICE AUTOMATION IN THE BUSINESS SERVICE CENTERS

ROBERT MARCINIAK

Abstract

The paper reveals a research that aimed to explore the main impacts of service automation in the business service centers. The research paper focuses on the business service sector and its human resources problems then explored the framework of service automation and introduced the differences among the automation technologies. As the most current and popular one is the RPA, which was presented by the paper from all sides. The paper presents what is the role of RPA in business services, then characterizes the three main impact groups of RPA on the business service sector. The main groups of impacts are human labor issues, changing global sourcing methods and service delivery infrastructure trends. The paper introduces them in details. The paper explains how RPA helps to change mindsets of business service centers, solve human resource problems and transform service delivery models. The research presented in this paper was conducted at the end of 2016 and use interview series with managers of service delivery centers in CEE, HR agencies, and management consulting firms. The research paper argues that RPA has many significant impacts on the business service market in CEE region and fortunately does not aggravate the problems but alleviate some of them.

Key words: robotic process automation, RPA, business service centers, service automation, shared services, business service sector, outsourcing, BPM, business process, service delivery models.

Classification JEL: M15 – IT Management; M16 – International Business Administration; M50 – General; M51 – Firm Employment Decisions, Promotions; M59 – Other.

1. Introduction

Automation is not a new phenomenon but it is rebounding the organizational operation in the private and public sector over and over again. There are many studies nowadays on this topic which focus mostly on its impacts on the employment rate and the future structure of labor market. According to researchers at the University of Oxford, 47% of jobs in the US could be at risk due to digitization. A rough ratio would be projected in Europe as well. The clerical works are in areas such as accounting, bookkeeping and auditing can be up to 98% automated in the future (*Benedict & Osborne, 2016*). However, research by the OECD based on data from 21 OECD countries studied that only 6–12% and an average of 9% of all jobs can be automated (*Arntz, Gregory & Zierahn, 2016*). The UN reports that automation will primarily affect developing and poor countries, where up to two-thirds of all jobs can take over by robots (*Kozul-Wright, 2016*). According to research by the McKinsey, 110–140 million full-time automated will take over by automation tools and software solutions by 2020 globally. It will not only affect the low-level clerical jobs, but 20% of the work of CEOs will be also carried out by software solutions (*Chui, Manyika & Miremadi, 2015*).

As all of the new technologies, automation also influences firstly the private sector organizations. Headway of automation and digitalization in the service industry is part of “Industrie 4.0” concept which will totally alter the current way of organizational processes and activities. Automation has more preconditions that make it feasible. These preconditions are typically common for organizations operating in business service center environment. The business service centers usually include those service organizations that use outsourcing or shared services provisioning for other organizations or organizational units. Business service sector has a significant economic importance in the Central-Eastern European region with its headcount, FDI or other cumulative impacts (like office renting, back-office technologies, other office supplier, etc.). In more CEE countries (like Slovak Republic, Hungary, Czech Republic)



business service sector players such as outsourcing providers, shared service centers or centers of excellence have growing human resource problems.

Independently from the type of business service center, these organizations typically employ young, higher educated, more foreign language-speaker workforce who has the willingness to work in a business service center. It means the main resource for the successful operation. But in some countries, these workforce is less and less and for today it becomes a bottleneck for business service centers. The progress of a business center and the whole service segment is based on the success of recruitment and retention of suitable labor. In this segment, there is quite high attrition rate (it is somewhere between 15%–20%) but new recruits need to replace not only the labor left but it needs to support the expansion of the center as well. The expansion usually means higher volume with the current service portfolio or migration of new services into the service centers. The former one means a more smoother recruitment action but the latter one means a big boom in this process and could cause human labor demand problems. The migration of services and activities is a continuous activity of business service centers and means also losing services (migrate out to another center or to an outsourcing company), not only winning services (migrate into the business center).

The research aims to answer how automation technologies influence the business service sector and what is the impact of them on the human resource problems in this sector. The research explores the framework of automation technologies and introduce the main human resource problems in the business service sector in CEE countries.

The research method was an interview series that aimed to explore the automation technologies used within the business service market and to identify the labor market problems. There were nine interviewees from different business service companies, HR firms and management consulting companies but one interviewee comes from a non-profit agency of the sector. All interviews were conducted personal and used a semi-structured question list. The results obtained here were able to set up new hypotheses, which will be validated in the second part of the research in the next months. It will involve only business service centers with an online questionnaire.

2. Human labor problems in CEE business service sector

As it was mentioned earlier human labor is the main resource for the business service sector. In more CEE countries, the business service sector has more human resource problems. These problems go back to the attracting and retaining talent workforce. Problems are not new but its extent is too big now to handle it easily. In CEE countries, business service companies employ higher educated workforce because they could speak more foreign languages and learn new technologies and work methods quickly. It was an enforced track but it did not cause a problem for a long time. There was high attrition rate but service centers could substitute the workforce left. Then in more CEE countries shortage of available and appropriate workforce evolved. Firstly, it means a problem at a bigger boom of recruiting but later the substitution of labor left could become also problematic.

Based on my research results, the main reason for high attrition rate is not only the unsatisfied labor but the better promotion opportunity in another sector. In this kind of business service centers, employees need to work mostly repetitive, high volume and trained jobs that become monotonous and boring after a certain time. These organizations are also lean, so there are not so much promotion opportunity. However nowadays in more and more service center, there are programs to rotate workforce among different jobs within the organization. But many times it is not enough for the workforce, they want more complex, higher value-added jobs (Marciniak, 2014).

In the CEE business service market, there was a silent change in the service portfolio in the last decade. At the beginning these centers were one-function support service centers with



mostly low-cost Full-Time-Equivalents (FTEs), so the investor companies chose offshore or nearshore locations to reach labor arbitrage. They used the lift-and-shift method to cut cost on back-office functions as quick as it possible. Later they started to extend service portfolio with completion the former service provision with newer and newer services that have bigger complexity and higher value-addition. It was a change from the lift and shift to fix and mix strategy. On one hand, it was a quality change from low-value added service to higher value-added service. It had a positive effect on the employees but the low-cost, low-level jobs need to do similarly. On another hand, it means rather a service portfolio extension when service delivery centers had to recruit a new workforce to solve the demand as well. However, this extension could not continue immenseness because of workforce shortage.

The workforce shortage hinders the projected development of the service companies and altogether the whole sector. Based on the sector statistics there was about 10% growth in every year and it could be expectedly similar growth could happen in the next few years. However, this progress is based on the available and appropriate workforce. If the human labor is missing, the investments could be canceled (*HOA, 2016*).

The workforce shortage also easily led to wage-inflation in this sector because service centers started to attract talent from each other and service workers also demand a higher salary for remain in the same position. Of course, the growing wage level is very popular for the employees but it is very harmful to the service companies and goes against the competitiveness of the whole sector.

3. Service automation technologies

There are many types of automation which developed one after another but nowadays exist in parallel. The first type of automation has reached companies for more than a decade. This usually meant uniquely developed, basic automation, which is reported in various macros, scripts using in the office software environment. These scripts are usually carried out an activity in a row within a software or collected and structured data according to the rules. These software solutions could use only with structured data, while their processes and outputs are always deterministic.

The second wave of these technological progress was the Robotic Process Automation (RPA), which compared to the basic automation is now able to manage much more complex processes and work with multi-user and multi-server environments, are rule-based, able to communicate through the user-interface (UI) level of the software, but also always use a more structured or even semi-structured data. The outcome of the process in each case is deterministic. Currently, this is the most widely used automation technology that went through a tremendous progress in terms of clerical works over the past few years. It is worth to apply it for repetitive, high-volume transactions primarily that is why so popular it is in business service areas. The repetitive tasks could as well be automated, measured and optimized. This, in turn, helps in streamlining the operational functioning of companies. Through the automation, human labor needs only to be dealt with the exceptions of the processes and the development of and automated processes, those that actually require a customer-oriented and human interaction.

The third type of automation technologies are the smart or intelligent automation solutions that are used different cognitive capabilities. This is still the least mature, but it also means that it is standing in front of the biggest growth opportunities in the near future. The cognitive tools build a process-based knowledge base and combining a group of business rules or patterns to automate these processes. They can be used in case of IT and business processes. The cognitive tools are able to manage unstructured data. They may include machine learning and interference motor, which instead of rules intervenes in a next step as it is necessary, that means they are probability-based solutions, but also can be made deterministic (*Hall, 2016*).

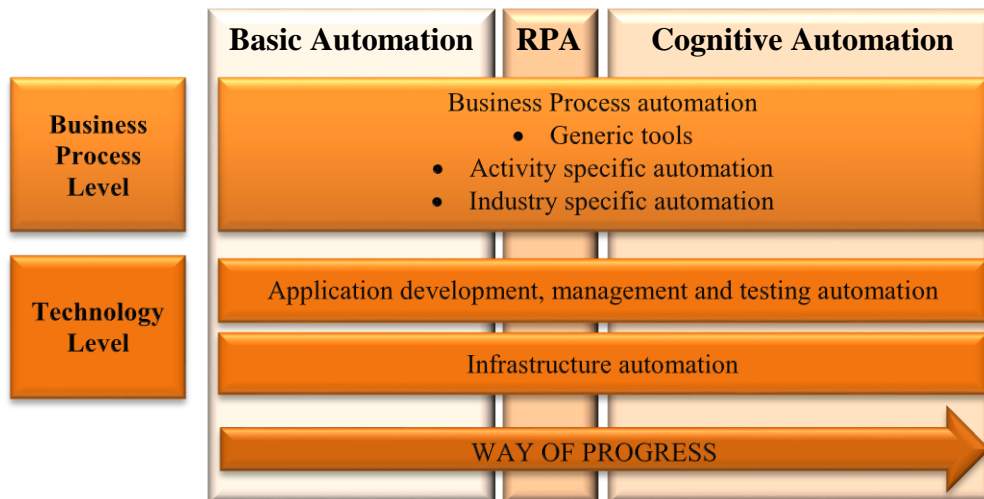


Figure 1. Automation architecture (source: own edited based on Burnett & Kotari, *Robotic Process Automation*, 2016)

Machine learning is often used in cognitive automation. It gives you the ability to experientially learn and expand your knowledge base. The software with cognitive machine learning capability could use the business rules to automate the processes, the predictive tools to intervene in some operating decisions, the big data to recognize the patterns and natural language capabilities. These types of solutions make it possible to intervene appropriately in the management of situations that do not always match the pre-defined rules (Burnett, 2016).

These three types of automation actually provide the subgroups of the Service Delivery Automation (SDA). This study focuses primarily on the RPA technology, as this is currently the strongest trend and seen most of the development here.

4. Robotic Process Automation

The digitization and automation are now key driving forces of the business process management (BPM). The RPA is an unattended automation approach, providing high-value creation opportunities (significant cost savings, improved service delivery, and manageability, and faster value creation with lower risk because it is non-invasive and easier to renew), (Simonson & Chandrashekar, 2015).

The robotics and business processes could be connected in a new and exciting ways to robotic process automation (RPA). The RPA is basically an automation that manages rule-based and repetitive activities without human intervention being non-monitored (Simonson & Chandrashekar, 2015). These activities have typically been carried out by humans. Before the RPA these processes were either outsourced or offshore to low-cost areas. Often these solutions integrate many systems, require decision-making levels and involve input from a variety of sources. The RPA means an automation where interactions take place through supporting the process of software user interface. It always uses structured data in the pre-defined rule-based way. So this is a substitute for human activity in repetitive tasks (Tucci & Bouza, 2015; Burnett & Kotari, 2016). In this type of automation the result is always known since it is rule-based and deterministic. The integration type of the user interface is sometimes referred to as 'non-invasive'. In other words, in the concerned software, there is no need for a deeper software and data integration to import or export data. This is a very important advantage for outsourcing providers who do not need to change the customer's IT system. The RPA is a subgroup of automation technology. The following figure shows the position of the RPA in the hierarchy (Burnett, 2016).



According to Everest Group Research, the use of RPA-based solutions are the most common in the following areas (*Tucci & Bouza, 2015*):

- Processing transactions;
- Data input with enormous volume, in repetitive and IT-centric processes;
- System-upgrade scenarios, duplicated and concurrent data input in legacy and new systems in software-changing terms.

As it has been already mentioned, the RPA is a solution within the SDA. The following are the main features of the RPA. Firstly the RPA is (*Marciniak & Berend, 2017*):

- Working with functionally trained software robots (bots) like virtual workers;
- Process agnostic: doesn't matter what processes are automated – as long as they are definable, repeatable and not requiring human judgment;
- Industry-independent: in any industry that has highly rules-based processes with volume enough;
- Rules-based and deterministic: outcomes are always known;
- Non-invasive: data is entered/extracted through the UI of the software with no need;
- For deeper software or data integration;
- Processing structured and semi-structured data: could not structure data as cognitive tools;
- Supported by IT but trained by business users.

But RPA is not (*Marciniak & Berend, 2017*):

- An 'off the shelf' solution for any particular function or vertical, but customized for every client's pain-points – very quick and very affordable;
- Suitable for any processes and not entirely replace humans;
- Integrating complex system because it interacts with individual systems.

Here are the most important benefits using RPA solution:

- Cost reduction, higher competitiveness: these are the most important benefits of RPA;
- Additional scalability & flexibility: RPA could fit the current demands;
- Better manageability of business processes (governance, security, business continuity);
- Improved service delivery (speed & quality) that eliminates human errors;
- Quick time to value realization (short implementation time);
- Short time to investment recovery: 6–9 months recovery based on pilot stories;
- Non-invasive nature: it does not need deeper data integration, it could communicate through the user interface of software;
- Higher compliance and security in data treatment;
- Easily integrating and managing: it does not need constant IT support, business users could manage it;
- Working 24/7: it could work without any stop;
- Improved employee morale: the employees could free up from the monotonous and frustrating low-level part of their job.

Of course, there are some challenges about the adaptation of RPA technologies. They are the followings (*Marciniak & Berend, 2017*):

- Hidden costs: some hidden costs can emerge related to implementation and maintenance;
- Lack of real-time visibility: it is a back-office technology, and the user could not follow and monitor each step of the process;
- Resistance from client's IT team: there could be resistance because of new and not-known technology;



- Not significance itself as standalone technology: that could lessen the strategic impact of the technology within the company;
- Resistance from service workers: there could be resistance because of losing jobs;
- Few implementation experiences: there are many success stories about RPA but these stories are not well-known and the RPA is still in piloting mode generally.

Based on Robotic Workforce Research in 2016, more than half of the UK and US corporate decision-makers seize the opportunity of robotization and 94% of them are open to their use in the future. 32% of them expect rapid growth and have a plan for this matter. The IT is the most supporting areas to the RPA and the AI, by the manufacturing/services and finance. Nearly half of the respondents believe that 10–30% of the business activities can be automated. According to respondents, the most important effect of the RPA business will be as follows: increased productivity (62%), an increase in availability (61%), termination of repetitive tasks (58%), and improvement in work-life balance (49%). Half of the respondents think that the RPA has a significant impact on the market of outsourcing projects and it is worth to hold RPA in-house or use a specialist. According to the Global Service Development study, 22% of companies in the automation had top priority in 2016 (*Simonson, Dani & Garg, 2016*).

5. RPA in business services

Business service area is a very popular segment within service sector and has been developed as the most important driver for the quick progress of service sector in the last decades. In the Central-Eastern European (CEE) countries it was the main source of the dynamic growth in the Foreign Direct Investments (FDI). This segment includes shared service centers which are internal organizational units to provision service mostly internally, and sometimes externally as well. The other very important organization type is the outsourcing provider which deliver service market-based for another organization (*IRPA, 2016*).

The RPA is often used to automate as a kind of routine administrative functions, typically requiring human interaction with many systems. That was the reason why business process outsourcing (BPO) providers began to use it in many service delivery areas from the first beginning of the technology. However, the significance of RPA is increasing more in the very sophisticated corporate process automation area, rather than office levels. In the past two years, the RPA was adapted many BPO providers, and by the growing number of end-user organizations, the technology will deploy virtual workforce in these companies (*Sowinski, 2016*).

According to business service center leaders, there are three main trends in the business service market. These trends are related to the “Industrie 4.0” concept that includes digitalization in business services, disruptive innovation models, and disciplined governance. The first trend means building digital shared services processes which are characterized by paperless operation and extended process workflow. The second trend is using disruptive innovation which means building innovation framework and agile methodologies to renew the organizational operation. Accordingly, the organization needs to focus on three vital areas to promote disruptive innovation. These areas are the simplification of processes, automation efforts, and advanced analytics. They could help service organization to streamline itself. The third trend is the disciplined governance that includes precise stakeholder mapping, regular stakeholder meeting and ongoing cadence for metrics (SLAs) developed (*Cherukumilli, 2016; Bendor-Samuel, 2014*).

On one hand, RPA carries a cost reduction opportunity for service organizations, on the other hand, it retains the often promised but seldom observed promise of process transformation. The early RPA adaptation of business service providers made them possible to provide a cost advantage for companies against holding functions primarily within the company, as long as the increasing corporate adaptation of RPA eliminates this advantage. As



a result, business service provider organizations must be prepared to provide higher value in areas such as consulting, reporting, supporting change management and process improvement in order to remain attractive to companies (*Bornet, 2017*).

In the 1990s and 2000s, many companies chose the Business Process Outsourcing (BPO) and offshoring for routine, but the fundamental processes to reduce costs. The main object of BPO service providers was to provide these services from offshore locations and handed over the cost savings to customers. This approach certainly brought savings for the companies, but as the wage gap between local and offshore location began to narrow, the advantages of the approach also started to decrease. The BPO service providers gave two answers, on the one hand, they searched for additional opportunities to reduce costs and on the other hand offered a greater added value to customers with participation in the development process. Most important key drivers of RPA adaptation are the buyers of outsourcing providers, especially in the finance and accounting outsourcing area (FAO). The expecting main consequences of RPA on the business service market are the following (*Simonson & Chandrashekhar, 2015; Bögel, 2016; Drótos, 1995, 2010*):

- RPA market is in its pioneering stage, growing will further accelerate to impact 30-40% of Business Process Management (BPM) spend in the long term. RPA will be one of the most significant drivers in the business services in the following years (Burnett, 2014);
- Big investment wave in the RPA technology market. Expectedly the RPA technology will be very popular at the following times, and there will be more technology vendors and new RPA tools as well. More and more service company will choose the technology that will start investment waves on the market;
- Consolidation in the RPA market. As RPA technology will be more and more popular, so as big enterprise software vendors will discover the market as investment target.;
- BPM providers will develop their automation capabilities for higher competitiveness. As RPA market is developing, so as the BPM integrators will build technologic expertise in this area;
- Enterprise software will be more intelligent and integrate automation functions in the long term. Enterprise software providers may also build their own solutions
- RPA market will emerge continuously, but cognitive tool market will undertake it in the medium term. RPA means only an interim stages toward the cognitive tools.

6. Main impacts of RPA on the CEE business service market

According to Everest Group (2015) research, EMEA is the second most important area for RPA buyers. Within the EMEA region, CEE countries have big potential because in the last 15 years there was a big progress in this region in the business service market. CEE region has a big business service market with more hundreds of service providers and more hundred thousand of employees. It was one of the fastest growing sectors in CEE countries in the last 15 years. The characteristics of service delivery in this business service sector make the players appropriate to explore the benefits of the RPA technology (*Simonson & Chandrashekhar, 2015*).

The progress of RPA market has many impacts on the CEE countries. These impacts could be grouped into different parts. The RPA could drive the shift of delivery models in business services from low-cost FTE-based model to more complex and higher value-added service delivery model. RPA could radically decrease the necessary headcount of the certain processes. It is a sensitive topic for most of the companies but not in the business service sector. Here it could solve human labor problems. Using RPA means fewer FTE required that helps recruitment problems and drive jobs up on the value-chain that helps to retain workforce because jobs will be more interesting (*Hodge, 2016*).



The first group has impacts on the human resources issues (*Haak, 2016*):

- Reduce direct and indirect cost related to recruiting, retention, treatment of employment turnover, ensuring of appropriate office environment for employees. This impact is very vital because one of the most important cost factors of business service centers is the labor cost. As the salaries of service workers and the fluctuation of headcount emerge because of high turnover rate and the shortage of available labor, so as their cost does. The working environment is also a key issue in attracting and retaining the talents. If service centers does not need to recruit new employees, than it does not need to rent more high-level office space for working.
- Change FTE-based or pay-per-transaction model for outcome-based model. In the traditional service delivery model, the service centers bind their service pricing to the FTE and typically use FTE-based or pay-per-transaction pricing model. If the role of FTE decrease in the cost structure, it could ensure the opportunity to change for outcome-based pricing model. It means a more transparent cooperation between the service provider and service clients. The client pays only for the outcome and not for input. It could explain as a movement toward a more market-like operation.
- Solve the most important HR problem – small human labor pool (bottleneck for further market or organizational growth). Shortage of workforce will not cause a recruiting problem if the service company use RPA. It could drive further the growth of service providers and the sector as well.
- Reduce or even terminate the human role in most of the highly standardized, mundane, repetitive, high volume actions (that are boring, frustrating or stressing for employers). Although as the service providers extend their service delivery portfolio, so as more complex and higher value-added services emerge at the providers but still a very big proportion of service portfolio includes standardized and repetitive work actions. If RPA will spread among the business service centers, these boring and frustrating jobs will not need more human interaction.
- Drive the sector up on the value chain that could mean higher value-added jobs for human labor. The first-settled, traditional service centers delivered mostly low-cost and low value-added transactional services with high volume. The early times makes negative echo about the service providers and the whole sector. Nowadays service centers became multi-functional and there is a mix of services based on their value-added. This value-positioning of business service providers is not only a marketing action but a guarantee for the future. As the wage-level emerges in the CEE countries, the services based on the low-cost delivery model will move to cheaper, far-eastern locations. If service centers could change for higher value-added service delivery, it means a longer existence and stay on the current operational venue.
- Improve the life-work balance of service workers. As there are more and more Y and Z generation young employees in the business service centers, so as the characteristics of work methods change. Nowadays the fresh graduates require a better work-life balance at the job, so it could make an employer more attractive for them. RPA also could help to reach it.
- Reduce the turnover rate. If business service centers use RPA technologies, the employees could change from mundane and repetitive works for higher value-added jobs that are more complex, more client-centric and interesting for them.
- Improve job satisfaction indicators. The most important reason why business service workers leave service delivery centers is the routine work. These young employees want to work where the work is more challenging. Employees will be more satisfied with their current job if it is more complex and need their decision-making, problem-solving interactions.



The second group of the RPA impacts is on the sourcing market. The most important impacts here are the following (*Richter & Brühl, 2016*):

- RPA reinforces onshore and nearshores activity of global sourcing investments. About location selection, there were many shoring models in the business service investment market. The first wave was the offshoring movement that began in the 80's when US and Western-European companies migrate some services to Far-East. Then in the 90's the nearshore locations (like CEE countries) became more fashionable. Then finally the right shore or hub-and-spoke model emerged. This model use location mix to get an optimal shoring structure globally. There are more service delivery locations and migrated services fit the certain location characteristics. Within this model offshoring locations serve low value-added service delivery, nearshore locations do it with medium value-added and finally, onshore locations do the same with the highest value-added services. Using RPA make it possible to remain services onshore or nearshore and it does not need to migrate it to cheaper locations because it could work anywhere on quite the same cost level.
- Boost back showing and reshoring movement from offshore locations to CEE region and Western-Europe. There are many experiences that offshore location is not a one size fits all solution. Many times the quality factors of the service delivery do not reach the necessary service level. In such cases, migrated services will take back. This is reshoring movement that targets mostly nearshoring locations like CEE countries but sometimes onshoring locations as well (*Roach, 2003*).
- Revenue and margin will increase in BPM organizations. BPM integrators will get new businesses related to the increasing demand of RPA implementations.

The third group of the impacts is on the service delivery infrastructure which is the following:

- Smaller or the same size office with more transactions, smaller ecological footprint. If RPA technologies could substitute human labor, business service companies could rend smaller office buildings even with higher service volume.
- Increasing demand for data server fitting to automation services, moving to servers (security issues about data storage). The first RPA implementations could be characterized by on-the-premise server solutions but in the future, it will move into the cloud as well. According to the everything-as-a-service (XaaS), bots-as-a-service solutions is expected soon (*Bendor-Samuel, 2016*).

The three different impact groups represented above proves that such a technology like Robotic Process Automation could significantly influence business service market in the near future. Fortunately most of these effects will effect positively on the service providers and on the whole business service market as well.

7. Conclusion

Due to the Industrie 4.0, for today there is no doubt that RPA is one of the most exciting technologic trends in the business service delivery that could basically turn up the operational strategies of companies. The pilot adaptations were successful, so the trend will speed up in the near future and more and more company will begin their own implementation project. As the cost of implementation will decrease, RPA technology will be a common solution for not only enterprises but mid-sized and small companies as well. In the long term, the public sector also could win by using it. Nowadays the BPM integrators also learn these technologies but it will change the BPM market as well.

RPA has huge impacts on business service market. These impacts could be grouped as human resource issues, global sourcing issues, and service delivery infrastructure issues. The paper introduces all of these impacts.



It is sure that nowadays the RPA is a good solution for companies to streamline their operations and cut costs, but in the future cognitive automation technologies will emerge and take over RPA. But it will need some time and before it, RPA will be the key driver to rearrange the business service sector.

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Positively reviewed by first reviewer: May 24, 2017
Positively reviewed by second reviewer: May 24, 2017
Accepted by Editorial Board of the Conference HPD 2017: May 25, 2017



HUMAN RESOURCES AS AN AREA OF IMPROVING STANDARDIZED MANAGEMENT SYSTEMS

MARCIN OLKIEWICZ

Abstract

The aim of this work is to show that human resources determine the shaping of quality within an organization and, therefore, are one of the main directions for the improvement of standardized management systems. The attempt was to present that the effectiveness of pro-quality activities undertaken by the organization, which are in accordance with the strategy, result from the approval and commitment of employees to proposed changes. The results obtained from the experience of 500 organizations operating in the former Central Pomeranian province and the literature on the subject confirm the necessity of improving and appreciating human resources as a "motor" for implementing qualitative changes in organizations.

Key words: quality, improvement, standardized management systems, human resources.

Classification JEL: M12 – Personnel Management.

1. Introduction

The second decade of the 21st century indicates an increase in the market competition, giving new challenges to organizations, where quality is an important factor. This is a result of progressive globalization, innovation, computerization, etc. resulting from the need to provide high quality products and services that meet the expectations and requirements of the stakeholders (*Wang & Sengupta, 2016; Ferrón, Darnall, Aragón & Juan, 2017; Brummette & Zoch, 2016*). Such rapid progressing of socio-organizational-ecological and economic development results in many opportunities as well as threats to the functioning and development of many organizations on the market. Organizations must, therefore, be more flexible in their actions, make decisions quicker and more accurately, use knowledge more effectively and adapt to the variable needs of the stakeholders (*Duane & Sharp, 2002; Eoyang & Oakden, 2016; Nudurupati, Bhattacharya & Caton, 2015*).

This means that there is a shift in strategic thinking – from productive to customer orientation and knowledge management, distinguished by the need to undertake pro-quality activities. One of such measures is the implementation of standardized management systems, which are to become a platform of obtained benefits resulting from joint optimized areas: production (inter alia through the implementation of new technologies), labour organization, expenses etc. This way of managing the organization is conducive to the creation of a value chain that enhances the attractiveness, competitiveness of the organization as well as the effectiveness of standardized management systems.

Quality management within a standardized management system requires organizations to act in accordance with the requirements of a specific standard, such as quality management (ISO 9000 series), environmental management (ISO 14000 series), information security (ISO 27000 series), health and safety management (PN-N 18001), etc. These organizations must bear in mind that all activities implemented in the area of the organization's functioning and development will be subordinated to specific management standards. However, it should be remembered that human resources are a key factor in improving quality within the framework of standardized management systems and the functioning of organizations.

Human resources shaped in a proper manner can be one of the most important success factors for the development of an organization. This is why the *purpose of this paper* is to demonstrate that human resources determine the quality of the organization and have a direct impact on the effectiveness of the implementation of standardized management systems. The



study is of a theoretical-empirical type. Research methods used for the purpose of this work include: literature analysis of the subject, analysis of own research results conducted in 500 organizations operating in the former Central Pomeranian province as well as the basis of statistical analysis. The research questions are: (P1) Are the effective implementation of an integrated management system dependent on the organization's employees? (P2) Are employees a significant part of the organization's quality improvement?

2. Literature review

Development, competitiveness, ability to respond quickly to customer needs, etc. are a result of sound management, based on the latest trends in strategic management. Therefore, the development of organization management (*Garavan, Watson, Carbery & O'Brien, 2016; Gagnon, 2016*), by transition of various stages from production to orientation, production control, etc., is now focused on both satisfying the needs and expectations of stakeholders and knowledge management.

Both stakeholder demands and expectations as well as knowledge management are key factors in building organization's quality and normalized management systems are becoming a pro-active instrument. It is worth mentioning that all standardized management systems require continuous improvement, which initiates the need for development activities.

This means that organizations have identified quality as a determinant of their success on the market, thus striving to best meet the expectations and needs of all stakeholders interested in the quality of the product/service or its manufacturing / delivery process (*Hamrol, 2007; Bober & Olkiewicz, 2016*).

Both customer orientation (stakeholders), as one of the core elements of quality management (*Denton & Maatgi, 2016; PN-EN ISO 9000, 2006*) and knowledge management affect effective quality management in the organization. High efficiency can be the result of the appropriate use of knowledge (possessed, generated and disseminated) in planning, control, assurance or quality improvement.

Taking into account the processes of quality improvement we can additionally distinguish the involvement (*Bugdol, 2008*):

- Normative – occurring when employees engage in creating and maintaining procedures and instruction manuals;
- Enforced – existing when employees for fear of the consequences of behaviour incompatible with, for example, norms, work under the pressure of punishments;
- Ideological – occurring when one works for ideas, systems of values, overarching goals;
- Emotional – positive and negative, expressing our attitude towards pro-quality activities;
- Sinusoidal – variable, depending on, inter alia, seniority (i.e. new employees or those entrusted with new tasks may first work enthusiastically and then become discouraged);
- Push and pull – it is the involvement of employees, which occurs under the influence of observation and evaluation of conduct by the leaders;
- Value-based – it is the engagement resulting from the impact of identified and accepted organizational values (this engagement is stronger than economic engagement, calculation based on material exchange);
- Direct and indirect – direct engagement is related to the quality improvement processes (i.e. use of quality instruments), indirect ones are i.e. active participation in training.

The trend of pro-quality activities is the basis for improvements that directly relate to the main resources of an organization (human, material, financial and information) and management. Improving the quality of organization resources, and in particular human resources, must be closely linked to the adopted strategy (human resources development



(*Eskildsen & Dahlgard, 2000; Rowley, Bae, Horak & Bacouel-Jentjens, 2017*) and intellectual potential (*Cassol, Gonçalo & Ruas, 2016; Bîrcă, 2015*) of the employees.

It should be borne in mind that human resources are valuable means of achieving the goals of the organization, the source of knowledge (*Cambra-Fierro, Centeno, Olavarria & Vazquez, 2017; Li & Herd, 2017; Olkiewicz, 2015*), skills and experience (*Olkiewicz, 2015a; Flynn & Saladin, 2001; Armstrong, 2011*).

The ability to engage employees in the process to improve quality increases the credibility and reliability of adopted solutions, which also has a motivating effect on the workforce. This may mean that organizations, which are focused on: openness of the employees, new trends, technologies, ideas, innovation, are more proficient in shaping the knowledge management process as well as becoming more competitive on the market. Therefore, for organizations, important elements of pro-quality human resource management include:

- Team-building, activating initiatives;
- Creative system thinking (supporting the implementation of ideas);
- Providing the necessary labour resources;
- Establishing an appraisal and reward system;
- Ongoing employee training;
- Establishing appropriate work system to increase stakeholder satisfaction.

In view of the above considerations, it seems appropriate to continually maintain the quality of human resources, which depends on the personality and style of the manager or owner of the organization. It is also important that the process of improvement, within the framework of quality development (*Shehabi, 2016; Robokou-Karagianni & Kokkinou, 2016*), can be shaped, inter alia, in interpersonal relations, production processes, interactions between organizational culture and the employees, technology and the work environment as well as the fulfilment of tasks and the communication or decision-making process.

This may mean that the direction of quality improvement (standardized management systems) on knowledge management (overt and covert) stems from the following indicators (*Ejdys, 2011*):

- Requirements of the standards constituting the basis for certification, treating knowledge as one of the organization's resources, do not take into account the systemic approach to knowledge management processes;
- Recommendations included in the ISO 9004 indicate the necessity to build an overt and covert knowledge management system to improve the organization;
- Identification of directions for improvement of standardized management systems, which require the appropriate involvement of knowledge resources in the organization and directing sources of knowledge to the organization's environment.

Due to the importance of pro-quality activities undertaken with the cooperation of human resources (*Serna, Bachiller & Serna, 2017; Suseno & Pinnington, 2017*), within the framework of standardized management and knowledge management systems, they are aimed at:

- Close cooperation of employees with the highest level of management within the organization;
- Bottom-up initiated, pro-development activities, guidelines, etc.;
- Active participation in the acquisition of knowledge from specific thematic areas;
- Creating support programmes;
- Implementing strategies and organizational changes.

This approach emphasizes the organization's focus on quality improvement as an operationalization of the development strategy. Hence, the importance of the role of human resources in the effective implementation of quality improvement strategies within an organization (*Gherman, Brad & Dincu, 2016; Corina, 2015*).



Standardized management systems are very effective in building appropriate relationships with stakeholders, confirming both the high quality of the product (product or service) as well as provision of added-value services. Having a quality certificate raises the trust of stakeholders to the level of reliability and security of the products being offered and the organization's awareness of the need to maintain ongoing quality improvement, including standardized management systems.

3. Research results

The subject of the empirical research conducted in 2014, with the use of author's questionnaire survey, was an attempt to assess the impact of human resources on quality development in organizations. The respondents were production and service organizations (all segments of industry), operating in the former Central Pomeranian province. The core determinant when selecting organizations was to have an ISO standard management system.

As a result of the analysis it can be concluded that organizations, which are targeting potential internal benefits, improve quality by implementing quality initiatives (e.g. implementation of standardized management systems) and focus on production processes. The effect of these activities is to significantly improve the quality of products or services (55%), as shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Internal indicators for process improvement in an organization (own study)

Indicators	Percentage of respondents
Achieving unit objectives	6.60
Improving activity of a whole unit	24.20
Improving operational activity	7.20
Improving product/service quality	55.00
Compliance with the legal provisions	7.00

However, it should be recognized that any implementation change within an organization requires acceptance from the employees. Bearing in mind that quality improvement is a process of ongoing multi-faceted and multi-stage changes, organizations should make every effort to support workforce in their activities.

In some organizations, the implementation of standardized management systems requires significant changes in various areas of the organization's functioning, in order to standardize operations and to adapt them to the requirements of the standard and the applicable law.

The results presented in Tables 2–4 indicate the respondent's perception, having high awareness (57.80%) of the need to take pro-quality actions, resulting from the quality improvement process.

Table 2. Employees' attitude towards the implementation of a standardized quality management system (own study)

Employees' attitude	Percentage of respondents
Very positive	6.40
Positive	51.40
Indifferent	36.20
Negative	5.80
Very negative	0.20



Table 3. Determinants related with quality improvement within the framework of standardized management systems (own study)

Indicators	Percentage of respondents
Necessity of ongoing improvement	25.40
System approach to management	22.60
Use of appropriate instruments and quality techniques	33.80
Setting strategic objectives	11.00
Involvement of the senior management	7.20

Table 4. Attitudes towards quality improvement within the framework of standardized management systems (own study)

Indicators	Percentage of respondents
Lack of directorate involvement	3.20
Incomprehension that quality management equals zero defects	8.00
Expectation of immediate results	24.40
The belief in a loss of held privileges and authority	3.20
The belief that quality management system will significantly increase the cost of operation	14.80
The belief that quality arises in another department (most often production or sales) and not in own	5.80
Understanding the assignment of responsibility for quality	11.80
Change in the manner of labour (in accordance to the procedure)	28.80

Table 5. Concerns related to the effectiveness of implementing a standardized management system (own study)

Indicators	Percentage of respondents
Lack of faith in success	13.40
Over-interpretation of the standard by consultants	10.20
Ignorance of the standard by the proxy	1.40
Ignorance of the standard by the employees	53.00
Excessive duration of the implementation (more than 6 months)	22.00

Table 6. Concerns related to quality improvement resulting from occupational safety (own study)

Indicators	Percentage of respondents
Necessity of adjusting the infrastructure	19.40
Time constraints of the employees	31.80
Limits on the financial resources	23.60
Restricted knowledge and lack of experience (in specific area)	25.00

When analysing the information from the above tables we can conclude that employees are aware of the need to undertake development activities (related, inter alia, to ownership of a standardized management system) needed to improve quality and are very sceptical (42.20%)



of the proposed changes. These concerns result from a number of indicators that have a significant impact on the effectiveness of undertaken development activities, as presented in Table 5–6.

By conducting a multilevel analysis of variables (dependent and independent) it can be stated that the organization's high probability of success might occur when human resources become the weakest determinant of quality improvement within the framework of standardized management systems. In order to achieve this, organizations suggest various support measures, i.e. quality oriented training for the employees (Table 7) and the support of managers (95%) during the implementation of pro-activity measures (Table 8).

Table 7. Operating range of training (own study)

Range	Percentage of respondents
Customer Service	18.40
Production department	8.20
Lack of training	9.20
Individual employees from all departments	26.00
All employees	30.00
Management of the organization with functional employees (i.e. directors, managers, etc.)	8.20

Table 8. Activity of management support related to quality improvement within the framework of standardized management systems (own study)

Attitude	Percentage of respondents
Not active	5.00
Active	89.20
<i>Moderately active</i>	5.80

Table 9. Employees' attitude to quality improvement within the framework of a standardized management system (own study)

Employees' attitude	Sum
Very positive	2.60
Negative	3.20
Indifferent	41.40
Positive	52.80

By assessing the above information a conclusion can be made that organizations are determined in terms of education and human resources development and in particular the competences and skills necessary for an effective process of quality improvement as well as increasing awareness for responsibility of its level. It is worth discussing here whether the creation and carrying out activities by the management positively influences employees to implement pro-quality changes within the framework of standardized management systems? The answer is not clear, as is shown in Table 8. The analysis of the data presented in Table 9 indicates that undertaken by the organization supporting activities, which shape awareness and generate knowledge among employees in terms of quality, have eliminated the 'very negative'



(0.2%) attitude of the employees and reduced the 'negative' (5.8%) increasing the 'positive' (51.4%) attitude (see Table 2).

4. Conclusions

In the literature on the subject there is a view that confirms the results of conducted empirical research stating that human resources are an important factor in creating quality within the framework of organization's development. Widely understood human resource management is essential in the organization management process within the framework of the adopted strategy and in particular – when planning the process of improving standardized management systems.

The results of carried out studies clearly point out that employees are a priority area in an organization that requires the individual approach needed to effectively improve quality within a standardized management system. This is due to the fact that human capital (employees) can be a source of competitive advantage of the organization as well as its weakness. Therefore, any strategic action aimed at improving the organization, including quality, must be directed towards:

- Shaping employee attitudes;
- Adaptation of the training system;
- Increasing the role of the incentive system and employee evaluation;
- Interactive creation of the future (organization, mega trends, etc.) and teamwork;
- Increasing the importance of communication;
- Shaping appropriate labour conditions.

The factors presented above determine the basic direction of the organization's activities necessary to take, when human resources are concerned, in terms of quality improvement with the use of standardized management systems. However, it must be borne in mind that the factors intersect, which increases the likelihood of success in improving product quality (products or services) and increasing the efficiency of all processes. This, however, requires acceptance, commitment and responsible collaboration between the employees in the pro-quality activities undertaken by the organization.

Literary analysis indicates that the number of entities with standardized management systems is increasing, which creates a significant correlation between the needs and expectations of stakeholders and the perception of the importance of the quality of the organization, shaped through i.e. by the appropriate management of human resources. Management standards, consistent with the requirements of the norms, allow organizations to create personalized process improvement instruments that increasingly focus on activities within the framework of personal strategies.

The analysis of the empirical research results can unambiguously provide an answer for the research questions with a conclusion that *the effective implementation of the integrated management system depends on the employees of the organisation, who constitute a significant part of the quality improvement within an organizations*. In other words, the purpose of the study was to demonstrate the importance of human resources in shaping the organization's quality within the framework of standardized management systems.

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Positively reviewed by first reviewer: May 10, 2017
Positively reviewed by second reviewer: May 14, 2017
Accepted by Editorial Board of the Conference HPD 2017: May 20, 2017



RELATIONSHIP OF KEY PROCESSES AND MOTIVATE HUMAN POTENTIAL

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Abstract

Organization can no longer view every process in its internal environment as a self-sustaining process. At present, there is more and more pointed to the mutual influences of all processes. This paper specifically focuses on demonstrating the importance of linking the process of motivation and other processes in the organization (especially processes of management and development of human potential). If managers want to make the most effective decisions (especially in decisions related to people – employees), they must learn to perceive these interactions between processes and of course they need to be able to manage them efficiently. The methodological part of the paper is dedicated to the confirmation that there is a dependence and connection between the motivation process and selected human potential development processes (creative leadership, appraisal of complex work performance, and communication). This dependence was found through a questionnaire survey which 553 employees from medium and large organizations in Slovakia were involved in. To confirm the dependence, we used chi-square test. Very high dependence between selected processes is confirmed in this calculation. Based on this finding, it is possible to recommend to business managers, to look at all processes in the organization complexly, and to learn how changes in one process affect other processes and how to effectively work with this knowledge.

Key words: motivation, motivating, employee, process, organization.

Classification JEL: M12 – Personnel Management.

1. Introduction

Individuals, who have extraordinary ability to act in different situations, are becoming more important in employers' eyes, mainly because of their abilities, education, talent, experiences and social values (*Domański, 1993; Marciniak, 2002; Grodzicki, 2003; Tyrańska, 2007; Przybyszewski, 2007*). In this rapidly changing world, the most in the last few years, in modern industry fields, which require bigger sets of employees' skills and knowledge, employers may hardly use the employees for maximum performance without offering them various advantages and benefits.

Employees in today's global environment can very easily find out what employee benefits and motivational programs are offered by particular organizations and so huge competition is emerging in the direction of managing and development of human potential. Employers need to understand this new reality of mega-turbulence and globalization and pay increased attention to employee care in order to maintain competitiveness, attract interest, and maintain key talents. Only few individuals in this world sacrifice their working life for only one organization if they are aware they can gain more in another place in which it is space for expressing and using creativity and interest in work, appropriate financial rewarding, working environment, scope of work, career progression, etc.

2. Motivation

Motivation is the management basement of human potential and addresses most of the staff development roles that are committed to achieving and realizing the organization objects while respecting employees' interest. Aligning these interests is precisely the task of manager's motivational strategy. Several authors agree that motivation is the willingness to invest considerable effort to achieve the organization's goals, conditioned by the individual's needs meeting at the same time (*Robbins & Coulter, 2004; Mallaya, 2007; Gelens et al., 2014*).



Therefore it is important for each organization to think about why employees make what they make, why they act like they act a how can be these acts positively influenced. If this is the area where organization succeeds, it also will learn to manage, direct and enforce the employees' motivation. As Luecke states, a person can understand objectives and reasons and why are they important but the most important thing is to be motivated to achieve them (2016).

Due to many other authors it is necessary for managers to learn and understand how to effectively direct their employees' motivation because for future success it is essential for an organization to have all of its employees being motivated (Bowen, Radhakrishna, 1991; Amabile, 1993; Linder, 1998; Ramlall, 2008; Stachová & Stacho, 2013). If managers want to effectively direct employee motivation, they have to understand also the relationship and close connection of motivation and other processes of human potential management and development. If managers gain this complex view on motivation and understand all of these relations and influences between them, they will be able to effectively develop motivation of all their employees.

3. Relation of motivation and other human potential management and development processes

The more influences have to be considered in motivation itself, the more the decision-making about its content becomes more difficult for managers. Following section of this paper focuses on strong and bilateral ties to motivation and motivate. This bond is described mainly in relation to processes of management and development of human potential (strategic management and development of human potential, planning of employees, work analysis, employees acquisition and profiling, employees selection, recruitment, orientation and deployment, communication, appraisal of complex work performance, creative leadership, and development and training of employees), but as we can see in the next text, we can also take into account other organizational processes like financial, production, marketing, development and so on.

Motivate and strategic management and development of human potential

In the strategic management and development of human potential, in the first phase of the internal and external environment analysis, the internal analysis must also analyze the level of motivation in organization. In the second phase of setting strategic goals, it is also necessary to incorporate the objectives of motivating employees to count them throughout the whole life of the organization and not only in the short term which would cause the ineffectiveness of motivation process. Feedback of the motivation process should in turn become the basis for planning future strategies in the organization.

Motivate and planning the employees

The aim of planning is to have at the right time in the right place enough capable, perspective and willing people (Hroník, 1999). This means that the planning is not only about the number of employees needed but also about their skills, abilities and knowledge. This is related to the planning of their motivation and also of the motivation process (deciding about the motivation environment creating, programs and approaches, necessary tools and measures, etc.). Each motivation process needs to be adapted to the new employee's individuality, so it is necessary to count with this aspect even when deciding about the numbers, structure and competencies of employees, which ensure flexibility and fluent change in motivation process.

Motivate and work analysis

Work analysis examines what change occurs after changing the way of motivating and motivation the employees and managers; whether selected motivation form is right; whether



the process of influencing motivation (i.e. process of motivating) is sufficiently effective and properly targeted. It also analyzes the ability to motivate co-workers, what tools and measures are used to motivate, what are the goals and needs of employees (*Blašková, 2011*). This means that all the information obtained from the work analysis (regarding the employee specification, job position specifications and standards) serves as a basis for correct decision-making on the content of the motivation process and creation of an effective motivational program.

Motivate and acquisition and profiling of employees

The importance of employee acquisition and profiling and their qualifications structure is one of the most important tasks of personnel management and has a great impact on the successful development of the organization (*Synek, Kislinger et al., 2010*). It is important for an organization to get key employees, with exceptional potential, high internal motivation, because these employees are the organization's success. Having this kind of employees in organization affects also overall motivational system, because these employees have specific needs and objectives. Motivational process has to be in place even during the acquisition and profiling the employees to gain this type of employees so they will not favor other competitive organization.

Motivate and employee selection

Through the selection process, an organization gains new employees, for whom it will be necessary to create appropriate motivational programs in order to sustain permanently high-performance and, of course, content at their job. Again, the motivational process must be in place during the employee selection process, in order to get the best employees suitable for a free work position.

Motivate and recruitment, orientation and placement

A newly-recruited employee undergoes a key change in the environment: there are new faces everywhere, new spaces, new colleagues and superiors, new tools, devices, not to mention a new system of operation. On the other hand, quick adaption of employee is very important for an organization, so s/he is able begin to work adequately for position which s/he has been admitted. It is needed to be aware of the importance of these first steps, because with right 'start-up' of the new employee can get a lot both sides (<http://www.rayaconsulting.eu>, online). Such start-up can be successful for both parts only in case that whole process of recruitment and orientation is carried out with motivational accent, as the newly-hired employee is much more sensitive to the negative facts in organization and since s/he is not yet tied to the organization as employees working there longer time, here s/he can find his or her way out quickly. This means that the motivation process must go hand in hand with the process of recruitment, orientation and placement, respectively to the motivation process must be incorporated all the requirements that result from these processes.

Motivate and communication

Calhoun and Lederer found out that lack of communication of top management goals could be responsible for the problems posed by planning strategic objectives (*1990*). Communication is one of the dynamic processes without which strategic management and the development of human potential could not work. Communication is a process that is found throughout the whole organization. In order for an organization to function and develop as a comprehensive system, all employees and managers, work teams, departments (divisions) and the organization itself must be involved in open communication. For motivating it is also very important for motivator to use communication skills, tools, and techniques, and conversely, all communication techniques must continue with a motivational accent.



Motivate and performance appraisal

Appraisal of employees' performance is carried out in order to motivate them for future performance. Assessment of complex work performance should have motivational character (even in case of insufficient work performance) what means that in this case the appraisal becomes one of the motivational tools. For employees and managers must be created motivational environment, must be used motivational tools, motivational programs and approaches for achieving required performance. The employees are motivated by organization to achieve not only desired performance but also performance above average and still shift and develop their skills. This means that the appraisal of complex work performance must be also flexible in this respect and must be adapted to the employee motivation.

Motivate and creative leadership

Knowledge of the needs of employees forms the basis for choosing the right approach for effective and successful leadership (*Kropivšek, 2007; Jelačić et al., 2007*) and, of course, for successful and effective motivation. People working for charismatic leaders are motivated to make their own efforts because they respect and love their leader and express greater satisfaction (*Robbins & Judge, 2013*). Effective and creative leadership shows employees how to do their job better and the consequence is that employees work harder and perform their work in ways that benefit the organization (*Kvaloy & Schottner, 2015*). Kachaňáková and Nachtmannová (*2007*) consider what knowledge, habits and behavior the manager must have in order to manage and develop the potential of his/her subordinate employees and thus motivate them successfully. Creative leadership and its results are conditioned not only by the functions and characteristics of creative leaders (creative human potential) but also by the environment in which these leaders and their followers work (*Burke & Litwin, 1992; Schneider et al., 1996; Amabile et al., 1996; ; Kuenzi & Schminke, 2009; Sokół, 2015*). Fairweather (*2009*) even strongly argues that there is no point in motivating employees but building a creative environment which they motivate themselves in.

Motivate and development and training of employees

The key to effective adult education is the internal motivation (*Colvin, 2010; Knight, 2011*). That is, if it is intended to develop the skills, experiences and knowledge of individuals through different educational programs, there must be found their internal motivation and through motivation to motivate their will and the desire to develop their skills for their own good and also for the good and the benefit of organization. Development and training programs and courses, of course, become one of the choices of selecting motivation tools in the motivation process. So if an organization needs to develop some skills in an employee, s/he is needed to be motivated for successful completion of the training program proposed by organization, and if the employee's important motive is self-development, self-education, etc., a training course or program can take advantage of as a motivating tool for the employee.

Motivate and other processes of organization

Motivation has an impact and, at the same time, is influenced not only by the processes of human potential management and development but also with other expert processes ongoing in an organization (production process, financial process, logistics process, development process, marketing process, quality improvement process). Changes in particular processes invoke a lot of the necessary adjustments and, on their basis, cause many and far-reaching changes in the motivation process. Motivated employees are encouraged to better performance which will boost efficiency of *production process*. *Financial process* ensures redistribution of resources including the motivation process which needs to be adapted to the available financial resources.



New trends and innovations do not only concern machines, manufacturing processes and techniques but also, for example, management and development of human potential system. Even in this system new trends of motivation, rewarding or evaluation are emerging. Therefore, these trends need to be captured, making sure that they are suitable for the organization and its employees and then apply them. If the motivation process would have been implemented by obsolete methods, which are in many cases ineffective, there could be a reduction in competitiveness especially on the labor market.

The marketing process and the motivation process are very close to each other, since the marketing process is the customer's motivation to buy and loyalty to the brand/product/organization, so it is suitable to link and interconnect these motivation programs, as the unmotivated employee will only have a hard time to motivate the customer. In terms of *quality improvement*, the motivated employees are behind their continuous and constant improvement.

4. Methods

For this paper, a questionnaire survey was conducted from which we have selected questions about links and connections between motivating and the remaining human potential management and development processes. For closer examination the processes like creative leadership, appraisal of complex work performance and communication have been selected.

The target group in this survey are employees of the Slovak Republic which currently reach 2.42 mil. of employed people. While selecting the sample size, the statistical approach was used, mainly because of the accuracy of the evaluated results. Selected sample size n and error tolerance E are calculated from the following relationships available as an online calculation at Raosoft.com:

$$x = Z \left(\frac{c}{100} \right)^2 r(100 - r), \quad n = \frac{Nx}{((N - 1)E^2 + x)}, \quad E = \sqrt{\frac{(N - n)x}{n(N - 1)}}$$

In this relation N is the basic file, r is the share of answers interested for us and $Z(c/100)$ is the critical value for reliability level C . The selected complex which is created by employees of medium-sized, consist in 385 respondents due to calculations of this software, in error estimation of 5%. In our survey, we were able to query up to 553 respondents, thus estimating error was even reduced to 4.17%.

Table 1. Identification of employees surveyed (own study)

Sector	Quantity	Sector	Quantity	Sector	Quantity
IKT	93	Education	45	Industrial production	72
Finance and Insurance	60	Public administration and security	58	Art and Fun	3
Construction	10	Agriculture	2	Supply of energy and water	15
Accommodation and boarding	27	Health Service	9	Other	113
Transport and storage	16	Wholesale/Retail	30	Total	553

Based on respondents' characteristics, we can designate this sample as a random selection of 340 women and 213 men whose average age is 34 years (exactly 34.26). These are respondents with moderate prevalence of secondary education, while 302 respondents were



secondary educated, and 251 respondents were higher educated. Another characteristic with which we can identify respondents, is the sector in which their employer/organization operates. This layout is shown in the Table 1.

Based on the identification of respondents through the basic characteristics, we can conclude that this is a multidimensional sample, because the selected sample of employees has a different distribution of individual characteristics.

To determine the relationship between motivation and chosen processes a chi-square test is calculated that tells about the dependence between these processes. For the mutual comparison we had a question determined on a motivational programs creation, because just these programs are an indispensable part of motivational process with a question on a management style where we can consider with the creative leadership (participative leadership style where the manager creates space for self-realization, decision-making, responsibility and employee motivation), next with a question oriented on appraisal of complex work performance, where we asked employees if they are evaluated objectively and fairly, and with an issue of openness of communication from supervisor's part. Table 2 shows the calculation of dependence between motivation and selected processes separately at the significance level of 0.05%. At the first calculation (motivation versus leadership), we compared the calculated value at degree of freedom 4 with the table which is 9.488. Since the calculated chi-square value is significantly higher (24.101), we can talk about the strong dependence between these factors. Since the calculated chi-square value is significantly higher (24.101), we can talk about the strong dependence between these factors. For the second calculation, motivation versus evaluation, we compared the calculated value at degree of freedom 8 with a table that is 15.507. Again, the calculated value (66.465) is significantly higher than the table value which again reiterates the significant dependence between the selected processes. In the third calculation, we focused on motivating versus communication and compared the calculated value (73.966) to the degree of freedom 8 with the table. Dependence between the selected processes was confirmed.

Table 2. Chi-square test for motivation and the other three processes of management and development of human potential (own study)

	Value			df			Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)		
	Leadership	Appraisal	Communication	L	E	C	L	E	C
Pearson Chi Square	34.101 ^a	66.465 ^a	73.966 ^a	4	8	8	0.000	0.000	0.000
Likelihood Ratio	34.871	77.461	87.315	4	8	8	0.000	0.000	0.000
Linear-by-Linear Assoc.	17.624	49.242	55.591	1	1	1	0.000	0.000	0.000
N of Valid Cases	553								

Based on this calculation, we can claim that we have confirmed our statement that motivation and other processes of management and development of human potential interact and are inextricably linked and interconnected. Even with this calculation, we can see the strongest dependency: motivational process is mostly influenced by communicating and work performance appraisal.

Table 3 represents a cross-table where the details can be seen of the confirmed dependence between the selected processes. In the process of creative leadership, it can be seen that the implementation of participative style of leadership enhances the motivation process and motivation programs. As far as the appraisal of complex work performance is concerned, we



can see here that also the correct application of objective and fair appraisal enhances the correct application of motivation process. In the case of communication, which is an integral part of motivation, it can be seen that without an open and friendly communication, the motivation process can even not work.

Table 3. The frequency of characters between motivation and the other three processes of management and development of human potential (own study)

		Leadership					
		Participative	Neutral	Authoritative	Total		
Motivate	Yes	123	66	25	214		
	Yes, with participation	42	1	5	57		
	No	107	122	53	282		
	Total	272	198	83	553		

		Appraisal						
		Yes	Rather yes	Average	Rather no	No	Total	
Motivate	Yes	79	99	34	2	0	214	
	Yes, with participation	26	27	4	0	0	57	
	No	50	124	66	36	6	282	
	Total	155	250	104	38	6	553	

		Communication						
		Yes	Rather yes	Average	Rather no	No	Total	
Motivate	Yes	98	76	39	1	0	214	
	Yes, with participation	28	25	4	0	0	57	
	No	58	111	73	33	7	282	
	Total	184	212	116	34	7	553	

Also on the basis of these results, we can recommend to managers that particular processes of management and development of human potential should not be seen as separate processes with their tools, methods, and approaches. These processes need to be approached with a comprehensive view and it is necessary to perceive synergies between these processes. It is necessary for managers to learn how a change in one of the processes will affect the course of other processes and learn to make these changes and influences effectively exploited and managed. Without such a comprehensive view of the processes of human potential management and development, managers cannot effectively motivate their employees.

5. Conclusion

By comprehensive view of all organization processes in relation to motivation can be argued that for organizational success, it is necessary for all processes in the organization to be performed with motivational accent, so the motivation process runs concurrently with all other processes, and these processes are constantly influenced and overcome. On the contrary, each well-executed organizational process becomes a motivation tool in the motivation process. If employees see that an organization cares to ensure that every process goes well and honestly, they will be doing so too.

If the employee feels s/he is fairly valued, even when compared with employees of competing organizations, as long as his or her work is perceived as interesting and meaningful, supported by good managerial methods, s/he has good relations with his or her immediate



superior, s/he feels support from top management and is provided with sufficient space to development and growth, then s/he is not interested in any other organization's attractive offer, where s/he cannot be sure of such good working conditions (Branham, 2004; Majerčáková, 2015). In this situation, we can claim that s/he is motivated enough to be loyal to the organization and brings to it added value through a constantly high performance.

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Positively reviewed by first reviewer: May 17, 2017
Positively reviewed by second reviewer: May 17, 2017
Accepted by Editorial Board of the Conference HPD 2017: May 20, 2017



ZBIOROWY KAPITAŁ SPOŁECZNY DETERMINANTĄ ROZWOJU SEKTORÓW KREATYWNYCH NA PRZYKŁADZIE MIASTA SZCZECINA

THE COLLECTIVE SOCIAL CAPITAL AS A DETERMINANT OF THE CREATIVE SECTORS' DEVELOPMENT ON THE EXAMPLE OF SZCZECIN

ANETA SOKÓŁ

Abstract

In the last few years there has been a fundamental change in the approach to creativity in the economics and more and more often it is said that the era of creative economy began. It is now claimed that no matter how much knowledge is available, it is important how it is creatively processed and used. This function is performed by certain business entities referred to in the literature as the creative sector's entities. Both theorists and practitioners agree on its role as a source of competitive advantage in the micro and macroeconomic spheres. This statement is particularly relevant to the ability to acquire and develop unique capabilities, including rapid and appropriate response to change. The aim of the article is cognitive, theoretical and methodological considerations on the determinants of the development of the collective social capital and its influence on the creative sector in Szczecin. Methods of document examination, analog and heuristic as well as interviews and surveys were used in the process of analysis. The condition of the socio-economic development of the region presented broadly in the subject literature allowed to point out the influence of social differences favoring or inhibiting the development of the presented sector as a key resource of creative cities.

Key words: creativity, sector creative, social capital, human capital.

Classification JEL: M12 – Personnel Management.

1. Wstęp

W gospodarce rynkowej następuje wzrost znaczenia zasobów niematerialnych, do których zaliczamy kapitał społeczny w wymiarze indywidualnym i zbiorowym. W niniejszym artykule zaprezentowano kapitał społeczny o charakterze kolektywnym. Jego znaczenie dla rozwoju, w tym przestrzeni miejskiej, jest wciąż badane na różne sposoby a uzyskiwane wyniki wciąż pozostawiają pole do dalszych analiz. Jest on ważną determinantą rozwoju miast kreatywnych, w tym sektorów kreatywnych, co wiąże się ze zmianą paradygmatu wzrostu gospodarczego dokonującą się od wielu już lat. Stąd też, by pokazać pewien obszar naukowy i poddać go analizie, w niniejszym artykule wyróżniono dwa nurty. Pierwszy, mający charakter poznawczy, skoncentrowany jest na analizie literatury przedmiotu. Studia te obejmowały literaturę zagraniczną i polską, która pozwoliła dokonać krytycznej analizy i ukształtowała ramy badawcze. Dotyczyły one pojęć związanych z koncepcjami miasta kreatywnego oraz zbiorowego kapitału społecznego. Dokonano również analizy komparatywnej rozumienia kapitału społecznego i ludzkiego, w tym klasy kreatywnej. Drugi nurt, studialny, koncentruje się na prowadzonych badaniach w formie kwestionariuszowej i zogniskowanych wywiadów grupowych na temat pozytywnego wpływu zbiorowego kapitału społecznego na rozwój sektorów kreatywnych na przykładzie miasta Szczecin. Badania prowadzono na grupie podmiotów funkcjonujących w przestrzeni sektora kreatywnego, zaś jako grupę kontrolną przyjęto podmioty spoza tej sfery działalności. W wywiadach brali udział studenci Wydziału Zarządzania i Ekonomiki Usług Uniwersytetu Szczecińskiego. Pierwszą grupę stanowili



studenci stacjonarni, drugą zaś niestacjonarni. W ten sposób uzyskane opinie pozwoliły na weryfikację założonych hipotez i osiągnięcie celu badawczego.

2. Kreatywne miasta – podstawowe ustalenia terminologiczne, inspiracje teoretyczne

W ciągu ostatnich kilkudziesięciu lat wielu badaczy koncentrowało swoją uwagę na zagadnieniu rozwoju miast. Ich wysiłki prowadziły do wielu wniosków, w tym takich, że są one miejscami, w których następuje znaczny wzrost gospodarczy. Zgodnie z tym stwierdzeniem poszukuje się odpowiedzi na pytanie od czego zależy i na co należy zwrócić szczególną uwagę, by stawały się one takimi miejscami. Takie konkluzje można odnaleźć już w literaturze przedmiotu. Przykładowo, Harvey (1989) twierdził, że wizerunek i atmosfera miasta powinny przyciągać kapitał „zamożnych i wpływowych“ ludzi. Clark i in. (2002) uważali, że szczególną rolę odgrywa opinia publiczna i udogodnienia w stylu życia w miastach w celu nagradzania wysoko wykwalifikowanych pracowników. Według Storpera z kolei (1997) miasto jest jednostką strukturalną, w której koordynowane są działania ludzkie, bowiem tylko koordynacja czynników produkcji pobudza wzrost gospodarczy.

Miasta od zarania dziejów są kolebką oraz obszarami koncentracji działalności kreatywnej, która stała się współczesnym remedium na kryzys miast występujący w latach 80-tych. Wzrastająca ranga kreatywności jako czynnika rozwoju społeczno-ekonomicznego staje się współcześnie jednym z ważniejszych wyzwań gospodarki. Rosnąca rola przemysłów kreatywnych przyczynia się do budowania potencjału gospodarczego miast, regionów i krajów. Rozwój cywilizacyjny i jego współczesny poziom był od zawsze źródłem działalności kreatywnej jednostki, przy czym na przestrzeni lat zróżnicowaniu uległ sposób wykorzystania tego potencjału człowieka.

W erze przemysłowej istotna była kreatywność inżynierów i naukowców, którzy wykorzystywali ją do rozwiązywania skomplikowanych problemów mając do dyspozycji niewiele informacji. Z kolei w XXI w. potrzeba zupełnie innej kreatywności, ponieważ wiemy więcej, ale rozumiemy mniej. Potrzebujemy kreatywności do syntezy i lepszego zrozumienia zachodzących przemian (Rogowska, 2012). Ta potrzeba legła u podstaw opracowania nowych koncepcji, w tym tzw. miasta kreatywnego. Pierwszymi autorami prac w tym zakresie byli R. Florida (2002), Ch. Landry (2008), a także J. Howkins (2001). Syntetyzując można powiedzieć, że kreatywne miasto to takie, które wykorzystuje szeroko rozumianą kreatywność do budowania przewagi konkurencyjnej. Aczkolwiek warte zauważenie jest to, że różnym cechom miasta można nadać pierwiastek kreatywności, mianowicie, kreatywne mogą być: zasoby, w tym zasoby ludzkie, środowisko czy rodzaj aktywności gospodarczej (Namyślak, 2013).

Współcześnie cechy, które mogą określać kreatywne miasto, to: ramy polityczne zachęcające do kreatywnych postaw; unikatowość, zróżnicowanie; otwartość i tolerancja; przedsiębiorczość i innowacyjność; strategiczne przywództwo i wizja; krajobraz sprzyjający uczeniu się i rozwojowi talentów (w tym odpowiednia infrastruktura); komunikacja, łatwość dostępu, sieciowość; odpowiednia jakość życia (również wysoka, jakość usług publicznych); profesjonalizm i efektywność (Rogowska, 2012).

Analiza literatury przedmiotu pozwala wskazać, że do czynników kształtujących przestrzeń kreatywnego miasta należy zaliczyć kapitał ludzki, kapitał społeczny i kapitał kulturowy, stąd podjęto rozważania tematyczne w niniejszym artykule. To stanowisko prezentuje Landry' y (2000). P. Hall (2000) uważa, że przestrzeń miasta kreatywnego wymaga istnienia odpowiedniego klimatu społecznego, który pobudza ludzką kreatywność. Natomiast D. F. Batten (1995) wskazuje, że różnorodność umożliwia rozwój kreatywnego miasta. G. J. Haspers (2003) prezentuje stanowisko, zgodnie z którym trzy czynniki warunkują rozwój kreatywności w miastach: koncentracja, różnorodność i niestabilność.



3. Etiologia i typologia kapitału społecznego – przegląd literatury

Idea kapitału społecznego od dawnych czasów była obecna w dziełach filozofów, którzy zakładali, że relacje międzyludzkie oraz świadomość wzajemnych zobowiązań i wartości tj. zaufanie są konieczne do tego, by społeczeństwa mogły rozwijać się prawidłowo. Te wątki przejawiały się już w dziełach Arystotelesa i innych myślicieli, aż po współczesne nam czasy. Korzenie rozważań dotyczących istoty kapitału społecznego odnaleźć można także w czasach rewolucji przemysłowej, kiedy to zauważano, że największym problemem cywilizacji, w tym przemysłu, są właśnie ludzie. Stąd też w tamtych czasach ważną kwestią było przystosowanie człowieka w sensie psychofizycznym do zmian technologicznych.

3.1. Etiologia kapitału społecznego

Pojęcie kapitału społecznego zostało użyte po raz pierwszy w 1916 roku przez socjologa amatora L. H. Hanifera, której uwaga koncentrowała się na rozważaniach z zakresu pobudzania mobilności lokalnej ludności do działań wspólnotowych nakierowanych na doskonalenie poziomu nauczania (*Hanifer, 1916*). Dlatego twierdzi się, że pojęcie kapitału społecznego pojawiło się w pracach naukowych na początku XX stulecia. Nie ulega jednak wątpliwości, że intensyfikację badań w tej dziedzinie przyniosła (dopiero) ostatnia dekada ubiegłego wieku (*Kostro, 2005*). Biorąc pod uwagę analogię historyczną, jedną z pierwszych koncepcji kapitału społecznego zaproponował P. Bourdieu w opracowaniu pt. *Notatki* (*Bourdieu, 1980*). W ówczesnych swoich rozważaniach utożsamiał on kapitał społeczny z narzędziem służącym do budowania przez ludzi relacji, które będą użyteczne do uzyskiwania osobistej korzyści. Prawie w tym samym czasie impulsem do rozwoju tej teorii stały się badania M. S. Granovettera (*1974*), który wyróżnił dwa rodzaje powiązań społecznych: mocne więzi (*strong links*), charakteryzujące się silnym nacechowaniem emocjonalnym (np. kontakty rodzinne, przyjacielskie czy sąsiedzkie) oraz luźne więzi (*weak links*), które są bardziej sporadyczne i beznamienne. Podobne wnioski prezentował w swoich pracach R. S. Burt (*1992*), zaś na gruncie polskim tę hipotezę testowali K. M. Słomczyński i I. Tomescu-Dubrow (*2005*). Za klasyczne ujęcia omawianej koncepcji należy uznać także prace J. Colemana (*1988, 1990*) i R. Putnama (*Putnam, Leonardi & Nanetti 1995; Putnam, 2008*).

Syntetyzując uwarunkowania historyczne, które przyczyniły się do rozwoju koncepcji kapitału społecznego, nie sposób nie wspomnieć o pracach J. Colemana, który opisywał społeczność Żydów z Nowego Yorku sprzedających diamenty. Zwrócił on szczególną uwagę na fakt, że powodzenie i sukces wynikają z wartości i norm charakterystycznych dla tego typu społeczności. Jego zdaniem wiarygodność i zaufanie przyczyniają się do tego, iż w istocie ta społeczność funkcjonuje bardzo dobrze i stwarza szanse rozwoju (*Coleman, 1988*). Prawie dekadę później do tych samych wniosków doszedł B. Richman, który badał tę samą społeczność żydowską. Według niego to zaufanie jest fundamentem do zachowania reputacji, co z kolei sprzyja rozwojowi społeczeństwa (*Sztompke, 2006*).

Podsumowując należy zauważyć, że koncepcja kapitału społecznego wywodzi się z socjologii. Współcześnie pojęcie to wykorzystywane jest w innych dziedzinach naukowych tj. politologii, historii oraz ekonomii. Stwarza to szanse na rozwój koncepcji, ale również prowadzi do wielu nieporozumień i wątpliwości zarówno w zakresie definicyjnym, jak i klasyfikacyjnym. Różne mogą być także poziomy jego analizy, bowiem są prowadzone badania odwołujące się zarówno do jednostkowego, jak i zbiorowego kapitału społecznego.

3.2. Kapitał społeczny – definicja i jego rodzaje

Definicje kapitału społecznego zasadniczo koncentrują się wokół sieci i relacji społecznych, chociaż w przeciwieństwie do sieci społecznych, istnieją jednak koncepcje kapitału społecznego, które w dużym stopniu implikują potencjalną pomoc i zasoby, których można by używać w razie konieczności (*Coleman, 1988, 1990; Lin, 1999, za: Ra, 2011*). Choć



naukowcy różnią się specyficznymi konceptualizacjami kapitału społecznego, to R. Bourdieu i J. Coleman definiują ten termin odnosząc się do badań edukacyjnych. Definicja kapitału społecznego R. Bourdieu składa się z dwóch elementów: stosunków społecznych i zasobów, które istnieją w relacjach (*Bourdieu, 1986; Portes, 1998, za: Ra, 2011*). J. Coleman (1988) definiując kapitał społeczny podkreśla, że jednostki nie istnieją niezależnie od siebie, tylko wchodzą we wzajemne relacje.

Kontrowersje dotyczące kapitału społecznego dotyczą także kwestii, w których poruszane są problemy dotyczące tego, czy silne sieci społeczne czy słabsze więzi (tj. kontakty zawodowe charakteryzujące się mniejszą intymnością i krótszym czasem trwania) powodują wzrost tego kapitału. Chociaż J. Coleman (1988) sądzi, że rozwój kapitału społecznego następuje w sytuacji zamknięcia sieci społecznych, to inni badacze (np. *Burt, 1992, 2000; Granovetter, 1973, 1983, za: Ra, 2011*) prezentują odmienne podejście, zgodnie z którym słabe więzi wpływają na tworzenie się kapitału społecznego. Niektórzy badacze twierdzą zaś, że sam kapitał społeczny powinien być odróżniony od zasobów w ramach niego nabytych (*Portes, 1998, za: Ra, 2011*). Warte uwagi jest to, że J. Coleman (1988) niewyraźnie odróżnia mechanizmy, które kształtują kapitał społeczny (np. obowiązki i normy społeczne) od konsekwencji kapitału społecznego (np. informacji uzyskanych z kapitału społecznego). Ponadto ten sam autor (1990) zwrócił uwagę na funkcjonalny aspekt kapitału społecznego. W tym sensie może on ułatwiać wspólne działania albo przyczyniać się do obniżenia ich kosztów. Według tego autora, kapitał społeczny jest dobrem publicznym (*Ra, 2011*).

W literaturze przedmiotu wyróżnia się także podział na indywidualny i kolektywny (zbiorowy) kapitał społeczny. Jako pierwsze pojawiały się koncepcje dotyczące indywidualnych zasobów ekonomicznych i ludzkich, a także możliwości ich lepszego wykorzystania dzięki sieciom powiązań społecznych. Te koncepcje były rozwijane przez kolejnych badaczy i współcześnie w literaturze odnajdujemy wiele koncepcji indywidualnego i zbiorowego kapitału społecznego, a ich twórcy omawiają coraz to nowsze zagadnienia ubogacając wiedzę w tym zakresie. Obie te formy kapitału w realnym życiu wzajemnie się zazębiają i przenikają. Dostrzeżenie tych zbieżności prowadzi niektórych autorów do sformułowania dwustronnego ujęcia kapitału społecznego. Przykładowo ten rodzaj definicji prezentuje G. Ritzer w swojej encyklopedii teorii socjologicznej.

Zbiorowy wymiar kapitału społecznego zaprezentował Putnam, który badając włoskie regiony zauważył dodatnią zależność pomiędzy sprawnością instytucjonalną a rozwojem gospodarczym. Swoje wnioski przedstawił w pracach *Demokracja w działaniu* (Putnam, *Leonardi & Nanetti, 1995, oryg. wyd. 1993, za: Działek, 2011*) i *Samotna gra w kręgle* (2008, *oryg. wyd. 2000, za: Działek, 2011*). W pierwszej z przywołanej publikacji Putnam częściej posługiwał się terminem obywatelskości (*civiness*) niż kapitału społecznego (*Działek, 2011*).

W literaturze przedmiotu funkcjonuje także pojęcie normatywnego kapitału społecznego, którą to koncepcję rozwinął w swoich pracach F. Fukuyama (1999). Zwrócił on uwagę na to, że kapitał społeczny mógłby być odnoszony do promieni zaufania (*radius of trust*), którymi określił krągi osób. Wśród tych grup obowiązują normy ufności, wzajemności i współpracy. Jego zdaniem nowoczesne społeczeństwo można postrzegać jako wiele nakładających się promieni zaufania.

Zbiorowy charakter kapitału społecznego ma charakter ponadjednostkowy. Odnosi się do grupy, w której wyznacza jakość interakcji społecznych, a w głównej mierze zdolność do podejmowania działań grupy oraz działań w ramach grupy. Wspólne działania grupy uwidaczniają znaczenie poszczególnych czynników społecznych, pozwalają na powiązanie w jedną całość zbioru motywacji i ról, a także wpływają na wspólną komunikację (*Calvert, 1995, za: Gajowiak, 2010*). Umożliwia on wzajemną współpracę wpływając na jej jakość, przy czym te jakości mają charakter kolektywny, ponieważ powstają zbiorowo i wynikają



z wzajemnych interakcji. Zrozumienie tych interakcji i powstających w ten sposób korzyści wymaga kompleksowego spojrzenia na grupę społeczną.

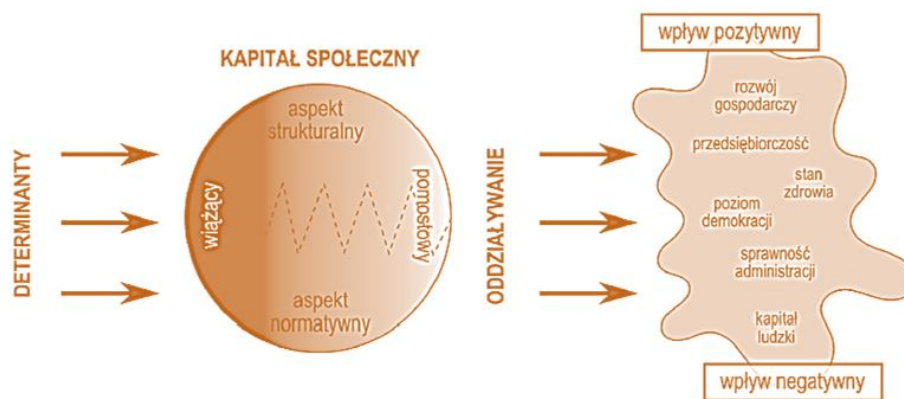
Tabela 1. Przegląd wybranych definicji według literatury przedmiotu ((Fukuyama, 1995; Pye, 2001; Schiff, 1992; Lin, 2002; Baker, 1990; Burt, 1992; Portes, 1998, za: Sztompke, 2006)

Autor definicji	Kapitał społeczny to:
F. Fukuyama 1995	siła zbiorowości wywodząca się z rozpowszechniania zaufania w obrębie społeczeństwa czy jakiejś jego części
L. Pye 2001	„sztuka współpracy wymaga istotnego zaufania wobec innych, tak aby korzyści z wzajemności miały szanse rozwinięcia się. Członkowie społeczeństwa muszą czuć instynktownie, że jeśli zrobią komuś przysługę, to w swoim czasie otrzymają w zamian jakieś korzyści”
M. Schiff 1992	„zbiór składników struktury społecznej, który wpływa na relacje między członkami społeczeństwa i w ten sposób przyczynia się do podwyższenia funkcji i produkcji lub użyteczności”
Bank Światowy	„instytucje, relacje, normy, które wpływają na jakość i ilość interakcji społecznych. Coraz więcej danych wskazuje, że spójność społeczeństwa ma fundamentalne znaczenie dla ekonomicznego dobrobytu i zrównoważonego rozwoju. Kapitał społeczny to nie jest prosta suma instytucji działających w społeczeństwie, ale spoiwo, które pozwala im działać razem”
Kapitał społeczny rozumiany na poziomie indywidualnym	
N. Lin 2002	„inwestycja w relacje społeczne, która ma przynieść oczekiwany zwrot na rynku” „zasoby zawarte w strukturze społecznej, które są dostępne i mobilizowane dla całego działania”
W. E. Baker 1990	„zasoby, które jednostki działające czerpią ze specyficznych struktur i następnie używają do realizacji swoich interesów”
R. Burt 1992	„przyjaciele, koledzy i ogólnej kontakty, dzięki którym otrzymujemy szanse używania ich kapitału finansowego i ludzkiego”
A. Portes 1998	„zdolność działających jednostek do zyskania korzyści dzięki członkostwu w sieciach społecznych lub innych strukturach społecznych”

Ponadto zbiorowy kapitał społeczny (Halperna, 2005; Portesa, 1998, za: Sztompke, 2006): sprzyja satysfakcji autotelitycznej (bezkonfliktowy i przyjazny klimat, otwarte, bogate i częste kontakty z innymi, poczucie wspólnoty np. patriotyzm lokalny tzw. „małe ojczyzny“), sprzyja kooperacji, mobilizacji oddolnej, podnosi efektywność działania i wreszcie obniża „koszty transakcyjne“, zewnętrzne, dodatkowe obciążenia działalności i dzięki temu zwiększa konkurencyjność.

Podsumowując rozważania dotyczące rozwoju koncepcji kapitału społecznego można stwierdzić, że istnieją dwa aspekty rozumienia tego zjawiska, a mianowicie strukturalny (powiązania, sieci) i normatywny, nazywany też kulturowym, poznawczym, kognitywnym (zaufanie i inne normy społeczne). Ponadto aspekty związane z zaufaniem i powiązaniami społecznymi można analizować w kontekście różnych poziomów przyjętych badań.

Powyżej opisano pozytywne skutki kapitału społecznego, ale nie sposób pominąć innych poglądów będących w opozycji do tych wcześniej przytoczonych. Zaprezentowali je m. in. socjologowie A. Portes (1998, 2000) i M. Woolcock (1998), a także przedstawiciele innych dyscyplin, np. geografowie (Mohan & Mohan, 2002; Rutten, Westlund & Boekema, 2010, za: Działek, 2011).



Rysunek 1. Model badania kapitału społecznego, jego determinant i potencjalnego pozytywnego lub negatywnego oddziaływania (Działek, J. 2011. *Kapitał społeczny – ujęcia teoretyczne i praktyka badawcza. Studia Regionalne i Lokalne*, 3,45)

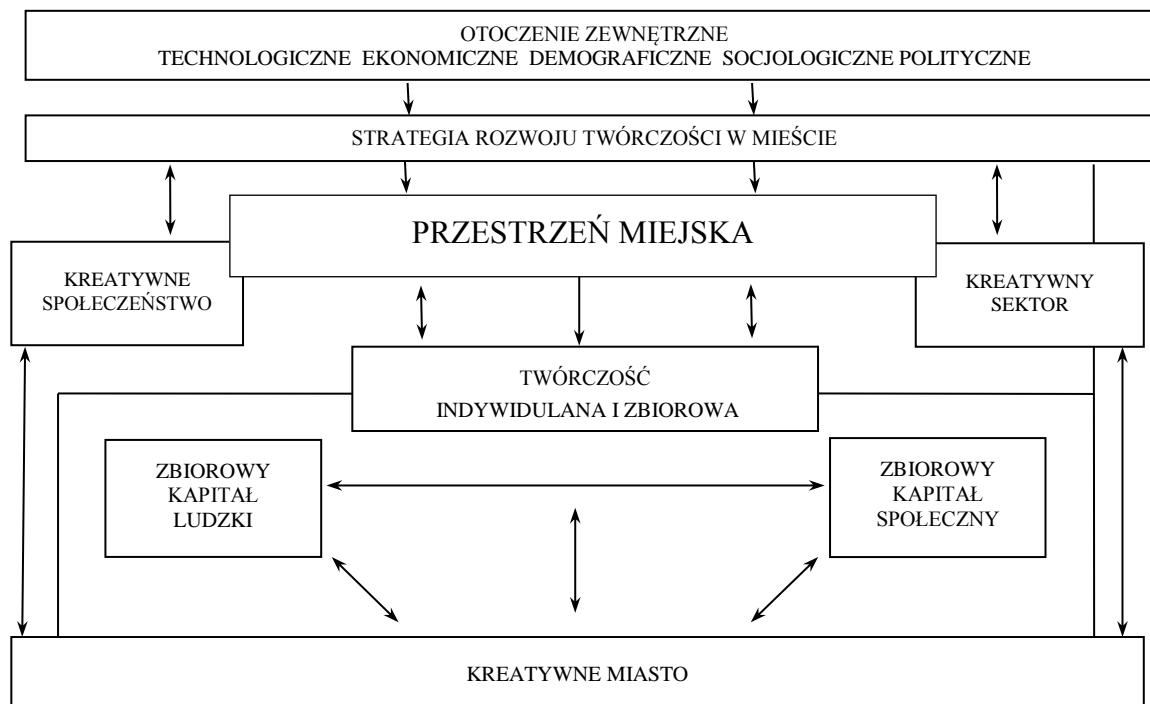
Choć teoria kapitału społecznego zyskała coraz większą popularność, Portes (1998) twierdzi, że mocne strony kapitału społecznego były do pewnego stopnia zawyżone, a sam kapitał społeczny niekoniecznie musi rozwiązać problemy społeczne. Cytowany autor podkreśla wagę zrównoważonego podejścia do kapitału społecznego, w którym analizuje się zarówno jego pozytywne, jak i negatywne cechy. Przyczynia się on do wzrostu pozytywnych korzyści jako źródło kontroli społecznej i wsparcia rodzinnego, ale jednocześnie uwidacznia jego negatywne skutki (Portes, 1998). Portes klasyfikuje cztery negatywne wymiary kapitału społecznego: wykluczenie z zewnątrz (w odniesieniu do zamknięcia sieci społecznych); nadmierne roszczenia wobec członków grupy (np. członkowie grupy poszukują nadmierne pracy lub pożyczek od udanych przedsiębiorców opartych na wspólnej strukturze normatywnej); ograniczenie indywidualnej wolności (wymagania dotyczące zgodności i przestrzegania norm, które mogą być nadmierne); indywidualny sukces może być postrzegany jako zagrożenie dla spójności grupy (to znaczy, że indywidualny sukces może zostać powstrzymany, gdy postrzegana jest jako szkodliwa dla członkostwa grupy w społeczności, gdzie indywidualne sukcesy są rzadkie, a biorąc pod uwagę tę rzadkość, grupa podkreśla jednorodność wśród członków grupy), (Ra, 2011).

4. Kapitał społeczny a kapitał ludzki (klasa kreatywna)

Współcześnie uważa się, że najważniejszym czynnikiem wzrostu gospodarczego są zasoby o charakterze niematerialnym, które w ostatnich latach stały się przedmiotem wzmocnionych badań i obserwacji zarówno teoretyków, jak i praktyków życia gospodarczego. Szczególna uwaga skoncentrowana jest na roli kapitału społecznego i ludzkiego jako jednych z głównych akceleratorów wzrostu gospodarczego (por. prace badawcze R. D. Putmana). Obie kategorie, bez względu na rodzaj i sposób tworzenia, stanowią źródła ekonomicznych korzyści.

Można je analizować rozłącznie, badając wpływ elementów składowych na procesy wzrostu, lub łącznie, na zasadzie przenikania obu tych zasobów, ponieważ podstawą kumulacji kapitału społecznego jest kapitał ludzki i odwrotnie (takie podejście badawcze reprezentował J. Coleman). Przy czym zauważyć należy, że dla rozwoju sektorów kreatywnych, w tym i regionów o charakterze innowacyjnym, szczególne znaczenie ma twórczy kapitał ludzki, określane w literaturze przedmiotu jako klasa kreatywna oraz kapitał społeczny determinujący rozwój twórczości (por. Drela & Sokół, 2014; Sokół, 2015; Sokół, 2016).¹

¹ Prekursorem badań nad klasą kreatywną, która skumulowana może determinować wzrost gospodarczy, był R. Florida (2002a, 2002b, 2002c, 2005a, 2005b, 2008). Autorka artykułu uważa, że współcześnie jednym



Rysunek 2. Współzależności kapitału społecznego i ludzkiego w kontekście rozwoju sektorów kreatywnych (opracowanie własne)

Kapitał ludzki (klasa kreatywna) jest nierozzerwalnie związany z osobą, nie można go zbyć lub nabyć, może więc stanowić źródło przewagi konkurencyjnej. Może być analizowany zarówno w wymiarze społecznym, jak i jednostkowym. Do elementów struktury kapitału ludzkiego zaliczamy: kwalifikacje (wiedza, doświadczenie, wykształcenie, potencjał dla rozwoju i wprowadzania innowacji), umiejętności (przywódcze, zdolność do uczenia się, zdolność budowania pozytywnych relacji z innymi, myślenie strategiczne, umiejętności pracy pod presją), cechy osobowościowe (otwartość na zmiany, elastyczność myślenia, gotowość do podejmowania ryzyka), postawy (motywacja, zaangażowanie w pracę, identyfikacja z przedsiębiorstwem, dzielenie się wiedzą, zorientowanie na cel), zdrowie i wartości.

z najważniejszych czynników rozwoju jest kreatywność. Jej skumulowanie w wymiarze zbiorowym prowadzi do wzrostu gospodarczego, choć kierunkowe badania wciąż są prowadzone zarówno przez zwolenników teorii, jaki i jej przeciwników. Obecnie stwierdzenie to zostało już poparte przez autorów prac np. Montgomery (2005); Boyle (2006); Weick i Martin (2006), choć krytyka koncepcji klasy kreatywnej odnosi się do również słusznych argumentów. I tak przykładowo część neoliberalnego dyskursu (Peck, 2005) teorię Florydy uznała za "rozmytą" koncepcję (Markussen, 2006), wykazując słabe podstawy empiryczne (Glaeser, 2004), zauważając przy tym, że teoria ta koncentruje się na dynamice wzrostu miast marginalizując inne obszary (Storper & Scott, 2009; Andersen i in., 2012; Hansen, 2008). Ponadto, Scott (2006) twierdził, że określona grupa osób nie może stanowić silnej podstawy do długoterminowego sukcesu gospodarczego. Inni np. Glaeser (2005) i Hospers i Dalm, (2005) twierdzili, że pomysły Florydy nie są nowością, że większość z nich jest zbudowana na znanych już pracach. Jak każda nowa teoria pomimo krytyki i negacji opisanych zjawisk wnosi określony wkład w rozwój nowej dziedziny przez wielu określanych jako nowa ekonomia czy kreatywna gospodarka (np. Markusen i in., 2008; Pratt, 2000; Scott, 2000). R. Floryda wniósł określony wkład czerpiąc z dorobku nauk. Dziś trudno kwestionować tezę, że właśnie wykwalifikowani ludzie są kluczem sukcesu miejskiego a kwestia kreatywności ma znaczenie. Podejmowane próby pogodzenia i uzupełnienia badań na pewno pozwolą z czasem uzyskać konsensus w kwestii znaczenia klasy kreatywnej dla rozwoju gospodarczego i wpływu na jej rozwój kapitału społecznego. Być może poszczególni badacze wskażą inne niż dotychczas uwarunkowania jej rozwoju i sposobów kumulowania. W tym miejscu jednak nie sposób nie zgodzić się, iż jest to zasób niematerialny o szczególnie ważnej wartości mając na uwadze współczesną dynamikę rozwoju jak i jej turbulentność.



W literaturze najczęściej wskazuje się na dwie istotne cechy kapitału ludzkiego: kapitał ten w dużej mierze niezależny jest od potencjału demograficznego danej społeczności oraz nie poddaje się wszystkim prawom rynku. Przy czym zasoby tego kapitału nie zmieniają się proporcjonalnie do zmiany liczby ludności i nie są odgórnie określone przez genetyczne cechy populacji (Gajowiak, 2010).

W związku z powyższym kapitał ludzki może być gromadzony w aspekcie indywidualnym, ale i społecznym. Może być on również marnotrawiony. Podobnie jest z kapitałem społecznym, jednak w odróżnieniu od kapitału ludzkiego kapitał społeczny może być najczęściej produktem ubocznym innych działań społecznych. Przy czym rozwój kapitału ludzkiego wpływa bezpośrednio, na jakość kapitału społecznego. Kapitał ludzki zatem daje zaplecze intelektualne, zaś kapitał społeczny, uosobiony w relacjach między ludźmi, sprzyja tworzeniu dobrobytu w wymiarze społecznym, ale i jednostkowym (Gajowiak, 2010).

Wskazując na różnice pomiędzy dwiema analizowanymi kategoriami ekonomicznymi zauważyć trzeba, że: kapitał ludzki pomimo wszystko „kładzie nacisk na cechy jednostki, a z kolei kapitał społeczny koncentruje się na cechach pewnych grup społecznych, gdzie cechy kluczowe dla kapitału ludzkiego pozostają ważne, ale są niejako poszerzone o perspektywę, z której widać relacje między jednostkami w sieci” (Gajowiak, 2010).

5. Ocena stanu zbiorowego kapitału społecznego w Szczecinie jako implikatora rozwoju miasta i sektorów kreatywnych

W artykule przedstawiano wyniki badań własnych. Obszar badań obejmuje zarówno poznanie omawianych zagadnień na płaszczyźnie teoretycznej (studia literaturowe z zakresu rozwoju kapitału społecznego i twórczości w mieście), jak i empirycznej (przeprowadzone badania ankietowe i zogniskowane wywiady grupowe). Wspólną cechą omawianych procesów badawczych była ich cykliczność i współzależność. W badaniach wykorzystano różne kryteria ich podziału. Pod względem kryterium czasowego zastosowano badania historyczne (*ex post*), bieżące i perspektywiczne (*ex ante*). Ich celem była ocena zaistniałych zjawisk ekonomicznych oraz prognozowanie. Celem badań było także zaspokajanie potrzeb informacyjnych w zakresie oceny stopnia rozwoju zbiorowego kapitału społecznego i jego wpływu na rozwój sektora kreatywnego w mieście Szczecin. Biorąc pod uwagę cel badań zastosowano badania poszukiwawcze, opisowe i przyczynowo-skutkowe.

W badaniu ankietowym zastosowano pytania zamknięte w odniesieniu do wątków rozwoju kolektywnego kapitału społecznego jako czynnika warunkującego rozwój sektora kreatywnego w mieście. Zaś w ramach badań jakościowych przeprowadzone zostały zogniskowane wywiady grupowe, zwane powszechnie fokusami (FGI).

W związku z powyższym zostały postawione *następujące hipotezy*:

1. Skuteczne monitorowanie zbiorowego kapitału społecznego wpływa na rozwój twórczości w podmiotach z sektora kreatywnego, a tym samym ilość wygenerowanych przez nie innowacji w przestrzeni miasta kreatywnego.
2. Zbiorowy kapitał społeczny, którego cechą charakterystyczną jest autonomia, zaufanie i wiarygodność, stanowi konieczną przestrzeń dla prawidłowego rozwoju sektora kreatywnego w mieście kreatywnym.

5.1. Struktura badanych podmiotów

Rozważania teoretyczne zweryfikowano empiryczną analizą przeprowadzoną w dwóch cyklach badawczych. Pierwszy cykl był prowadzony w grupie 911 pracowników podmiotów kreatywnych. Celem tych badań było określenie w jaki sposób determinanty materialne i niematerialne warunkują rozwój twórczości, a tym samym generowanie innowacji w podmiotach sektorów kreatywnych (*wyniki badań ukazały się w publikacjach A. Sokół 2013, 2014a, 2014b, 2015, 2016a, 2016b*). Następnie z grupy w pierwszym cyklu badawczym



(przeprowadzonym w latach 2012/2013 i uzupełniająco 2014) wyselekcjonowano 421 pracowników podmiotów kreatywnych, które w drugim etapie (prowadzonym w latach 2015/2016) były badane uwzględniając uwarunkowania funkcjonowania podmiotów zaliczanych do sektora kreatywnego w przestrzeni miasta kreatywnego. By móc dokonać analizy porównawczej, w styczniu 2017 roku przebadano 102 pracowników podmiotów gospodarczych (byli to pracujący studenci studiów niestacjonarnych), które według przyjętej w literaturze przedmiotu definicji nie są zaliczane do sektora kreatywnego.

Natomiast zaogoniskowane wywiady grupowe były przeprowadzone w dwóch grupach studentów w kwietniu 2017 roku. W pierwszej grupie badano ludzi w wieku od 19 do 21 lat, nie pracujących, mieszkających w Szczecinie od urodzenia, drugą grupę zaś stanowili studenci studiów zaocznych w wieku 28 – 35 lat, pracujący i mieszkający w Szczecinie co najmniej 10 lat. W grupie pierwszej przebadano 8 studentów, zaś w grupie drugiej było ich 9.

5.2. Wyniki badania i dyskusja

Nawiązując na wstępie do wyników badań uzyskanych na przełomie 2012 i 2013 roku w zakresie analizy znaczenia kapitału intelektualnego dla rozwoju sektora kreatywnego, w tym kapitału społecznego, należy wskazać, że istotne znaczenie dla sektora kreatywnego mają luźne więzi społeczne, otwartość, zaufanie oraz zaangażowanie społeczne na rzecz rozwoju środowiska lokalnego. Natomiast dla branż niszowych działających w sektorach twórczych bardzo ważną determinantą jest otwartość na wzajemną pomoc. W tym kontekście uznano, że właściwą teorią odzwierciedlającą pożądane warunki dla kreatywności jest teoria R. D. Putnama. Stwierdzono wówczas, że teoria Colmana wydaje się oczywiście słuszna i nie można kwestionować jej ważności, aczkolwiek tworzenie grup czy sieci, które działają na rzecz rozwoju określonego obszaru terytorialnego czy podmiotu, mogą wpływać na zakłócenie procesu kreatywnego, ograniczając jego potencjał. Chodzi tu o tworzenie ścisłych więzi, które mogą nie być pozytywną determinantą dla twórczości. Przecież stwierdzono już, że właśnie różnorodność i poczucie wolności są głównymi stymulatorami twórczego potencjału (*szczegółowe wyniki badań zaprezentowano w pracy: Sokół, 2014*).

Badania prezentowane w tym artykule ukazują jakie składowe zbiorowego kapitału społecznego determinują rozwój sektorów kreatywnych. Decyzja co do sposobu konceptualizacji kapitału społecznego i jej pochodna w postaci wyboru wskaźników kapitału społecznego była częściowo uwarunkowana kontekstem badania. By móc lepiej określić specyfikę funkcjonowania tych podmiotów w kontekście składowych KS dokonana została analiza porównawcza z podmiotami działającymi poza sferą twórczą. Stąd też w pierwszej części badania postawiono sobie za cel określenie w jakim stopniu zbiorowy kapitał społeczny wpływa na rozwój sektora kreatywnego w Szczecinie. W wyniku analizy zebranych danych można wskazać, że dla rozwoju sektora kreatywnego ważne są istotne cechy zbiorowego kapitału społecznego: pomoc i wsparcie, akceptacja i tolerancja, więzi społeczne, kultura i tożsamość, zaangażowanie społeczne, poczucie odpowiedzialności, budowa zaufania i podejmowanie działań innowacyjnych. Pozostałe podmioty wskazały, że najważniejszymi determinantami oddziaływania kolektywnego kapitału społecznego są: wzajemność działania, podejmowanie ryzyka, więzi społeczne, kultura i tożsamość, zaangażowanie społeczne, poczucie odpowiedzialności, budowa zaufania i otwartość. Analiza porównawcza wykazała, że istotne różnice w odpowiedziach badanych pracowników dotyczyły podkategorii „pozytywnego zachowania w sieci“ zbiorowego kapitału społecznego, ponieważ dla sektora kreatywnego najważniejszym elementem okazała się pomoc i wsparcie, natomiast dla grupy kontrolnej podmiotów – wzajemność działań. Dane uwidoczniły kolejną różnicę pomiędzy badanymi w podkategorii „zaufanie“ – tu mianowicie w sektorze kreatywnym respondenci jako drugą składową ważną dla rozwoju wskazywali na podejmowanie działań innowacyjnych, zaś w grupie podmiotów nienależących do podmiotów działających w sferze twórczej respondenci



uwypuklali otwartość. Pozostałe elementy zbiorowego kapitału społecznego były wyszczególniane podobnie przez osoby uczestniczące w badaniu, jedyna różnica wynikała w ilości udzielonych odpowiedzi (por. Tabela 2).

Tabela 2. Składniki zbiorowego kapitału społecznego w Szczecinie (max 1 odpowiedź w wyszczególnionych podkategoriach zbiorowego kapitału społecznego w %), (opracowanie własne na podstawie badań)

Wymiar zbiorowego kapitału społecznego	Składnik kapitału społecznego	Cechy składnika	Podmioty sektora kreatywnego	Pozostałe podmioty
Wymiar wzajemnych stosunków	Pozytywne zachowania w sieci	wzajemność działań	15%	48%
		altruizm	1%	2%
		pomoc i wsparcie	45%	5%
		odwaga, otwartość, asertywność	6%	8%
		podejmowanie ryzyka	13%	25%
		akceptacja i tolerancja	20%	10%
		inicjatywa	0%	2%
Wymiar strukturalny	Sieci	więzi społeczne	72%	63%
		więzi z bliskimi sąsiadami	28%	37%
Wymiar poznawczy	Normy	świadomość misji i wizji miasta	15%	28%
		kultura i tożsamość	85%	72%
Wymiar poznawczy	Wspólnota	środowisko wsparcia	52%	5%
		poczucie wspólnoty	48%	95%
Wymiar poznawczy	Proaktywność	zaangażowanie mieszkańców	34%	53%
		niezależność	22%	12%
		poczucie odpowiedzialności	38%	32%
		otwarta komunikacja	6%	3%
Wymiar wzajemnych stosunków	Zaufanie	budowa zaufania	43%	53%
		otwartość	16%	20%
		wymiana i dostęp informacji	10%	14%
		podejmowanie działań innowacyjnych	31%	13%

Następnie zapytano respondentów zatrudnionych w podmiotach sektora kreatywnego, czy ich zdaniem zbiorowy kapitał społeczny województwa zachodniopomorskiego i Szczecina sprzyja rozwojowi działalności twórczych, czy wpływa na rozwój ich twórczości w mieście i *jaki jest to stopień oddziaływania?* Analiza odpowiedzi miała dostarczyć informacji czy to co kształtuje zbiorowy kapitał społeczny spełnia oczekiwania ludzi pracujących w tym sektorze. Znaczna grupa osób (22%) rozważa możliwość odejścia z sektora kreatywnego ponieważ ich zadaniem zbiorowy kapitał społeczny nie wpływa ani na rozwój tych podmiotów, ani na ich własny rozwój. Natomiast 68% badanych uczestników deklaruje, że zdecydowanie zbiorowy kapitał społeczny sprzyja zarówno ich rozwojowi, jak i podmiotu, w którym pracują. Inni respondenci nie byli w stanie odpowiedzieć na to pytanie, stwierdzając, że nie zastanowili się nad tym.



Uzupełniająco do powyższej analizy przeprowadzono badania jakościowe. W ramach badania fokusowego nie zaobserwowano znaczących różnic pomiędzy badanymi grupami w kontekście oddziaływania zbiorowego kapitału społecznego na rozwój sektora kreatywnego w mieście Szczecin. W celu zidentyfikowania co jest, w opinii badanych, głównym czynnikiem zbiorowego kapitału społecznego warunkującego rozwój twórczości w mieście oraz jakie elementy determinują ten rozwój, badanych podzielono w każdej grupie na dwie podgrupy: zwolenników i przeciwników. Istotne pojęcia dla prawidłowości prowadzonej dyskusji zostały wyjaśnione uczestnikom.

Na początku badani zostali zapytani, czy Szczecin mógłby nosić miano miasta kreatywnego. W obu grupach stwierdzono, że ze względu na swoje uwarunkowania, zasoby i położenie można uznać Szczecin za miasto kreatywne (69% badanych) lub może ono starać się takim miastem być (31% uczestników badania). Następnie zapytano badanych o to, co rozumieją jako miasto kreatywne i dlaczego miasto Szczecin można potencjalnie za takie uznać. Jeden z uczestników zdefiniował miasto kreatywne jako *miasto kultury, w którym tego rodzaju działania mają istotne znaczenie dla jego rozwoju*, zaś kolejne osoby wskazywały, iż kreatywne miasto to takie, w którym: *odbywa się wiele innowacyjnych inicjatyw, rozwija się nauka i to ona kreuje rozwój miasta, przestrzeń miasta jest przyjazna dla życia i przyciąga twórców, a to wiąże się z rozwojem innych sfer funkcjonowania miasta*. Część badanych podawała bardzo krótkie stwierdzenia, dla nich miasto kreatywne to miasto, które: *się rozwija, jest twórcze, kwitnie, skupia ciekawych ludzi, umożliwia rozwój interesującej działalności, sprzyja rozwojowi obywateli, jest otwartą przestrzenią, dla społeczności*.

Następnie badanych zapytano, które z polskich miast mogłoby uznać za najbardziej kreatywne (poproszono o wskazanie trzech): zgodnie z ich odpowiedziami na pierwszym miejscu znalazł się Kraków, potem drugie miejsce zajął Wrocław, a trzecie Toruń. Badani zostali dopytani *dlaczego ich zdaniem Warszawa przodująca w rozwoju sektorów kreatywnych nie została przez nich wymieniona jako miasto kreatywne?* Niestety uczestnicy dyskusji nie potrafili precyzyjnie określić, dlaczego Warszawa nie znalazła się wśród pierwszych trzech miast uznanych przez nich za kreatywne. Jedna tylko osoba stwierdziła, że *jest zbyt hałaśliwa i szybkość życia tłumi twórczość*. Porównując uzyskane odpowiedzi do sondażu z 2009 roku przeprowadzonego przez Brief for Poland można stwierdzić, że intuicja uczestników dyskusji w pewnym stopniu została potwierdzona przez przywołane badania. Zgodnie z ich wynikami na pierwszym miejscu badani wymieniali Wrocław, następne miejsca zajęły Łódź, Poznań, Lublin i Warszawa. Szczecin jako miasto znajdował się na 8 z 11 miast, plasował się zaraz za Krakowem, wyprzedzając Gdańsk, Bydgoszcz i Katowice (*Kreatywne miasta...*, 2009). Natomiast w 2018 roku UNESCO „Creative Cities Network“ zaklasyfikowało Kraków (od 2013 roku miasto literatury) i Katowice (od 2015 roku miasto muzyki) jako najbardziej kreatywne miasta spośród miast europejskich (*Kongres Miast Kreatywnych UNESCO 2018*). Jak widać obydwie rankingi różnią się znacząco, choć dzieli je przestrzeń czasowa 9 lat, Katowice jako miasto uległo wielu ciekawym i kreatywnym przemianom w tym czasie. Szczecin jako miasto również podlegało rewitalizacji, co uczyniło go interesującym i bardziej przyjaznym miejscem dla życia zamieszkującej czy przybywającej społeczności. W związku z powyższym również w tym kontekście zapytano badanych o to, jaką kategorią spośród 7 możliwych dziedzin (literatura, muzyka, film, sztuki wizualne, design, rzemiosło i sztuka ludowa oraz gastronomia) przyznawanych przez UNESCO opisałiby Szczecin. Uczestnicy dyskusji wskazali, że Szczecin można opisać jako miasto: designu, rzemiosła i sztuki ludowej oraz gastronomii. Poza tymi kategoriami jedna osoba wskazała, że Szczecin jest miastem architektury. Uzasadniły, że w ostatnich 2 latach przyzno wiele nagród rangi międzynarodowej w tej dziedzinie.

Kolejne pytania dotyczyły tego, co badani rozumieją pod pojęciem sektora kreatywnego. Okazało się, że 42% uczestników dyskusji potrafiło wymienić branże kreatywne. Jako pierwsze



wskazywali media, reklamę, design, architekturę, działalności związane z wydawnictwem i krzewieniem kultury, szkolnictwo wyższe, w tym instytucje badawcze. Zatem dopytano badanych, które działalności ich zdaniem najlepiej rozwijają się w Szczecinie. Wśród odpowiedzi znalazły się: reklama, projektowanie, programowanie, działalność wydawnicza, architektura. W obu badanych grupach na 17 osób, 5 pracowało więcej niż 2 lata w podmiotach sektora kreatywnego. Były to działalności zaliczane do: mediów, reklamy, działalności wydawniczej.

Na pytanie czy zbiorowy kapitał społeczny Szczecina jest determinantą rozwoju sektorów kreatywnych, wśród odpowiedzi uczestników pojawiły się dwa zdania – część twierdziła, że kapitał społeczny *jest bardzo ważnym czynnikiem kreującym jakość życia mieszkańców, w tym i rozwój całych obszarów przestrzennych*, inna osoba powiedziała, że *zbiorowy kapitał społeczny bardziej uwarunkowany jest indywidualnymi cechami osób zamieszkujących dany obszar, tym samym kształtuje to grupowy jego charakter*.

Uczestników obu paneli poproszono o wskazanie składowych zbiorowego kapitału społecznego, odgrywających ich zdaniem istotną rolę w rozwoju miasta kreatywnego, w tym i sektorów kreatywnych. Początkowo badani mieli problem z określeniem swojego stanowiska, jednak gdy poszczególne osoby zaczęły wymieniać elementy, w obu grupach wyłoniły się kolejne, które zaczęły potwierdzać bądź też wskazywać, iż te czynniki są ważne. Do głównych determinant w pierwszej grupie badanych zaliczono: atmosferę współpracy oraz inicjatywy lokalne, życzliwość otoczenia, w tym sąsiedzka, otwartość i tolerancja, zaufanie społeczne. Natomiast w drugiej grupie uczestnicy dyskusji wskazywali, że najważniejszymi determinantami są: wzajemna pomoc na poziomie lokalnym i sąsiedzkim, wsparcie, zaangażowanie w lokalne inicjatywy, zaufanie społeczne i sąsiedzkie, atmosfera.

6. Dyskusja i podsumowanie

Idea kapitału społecznego jako kategoria badawcza jest niezwykle popularna. Inspiruje badaczy do identyfikowania kolejnych obszarów naukowych i wnoszenia wkładu w rozwój tego zagadnienia. Pomimo tego koncepcja ta wciąż jest słabo rozpoznawana zarówno na gruncie teoretycznym, jak i empirycznym. W literaturze przedmiotu prowadzone analizy odnoszą się do badań ilościowych, ale i jakościowych. Chociaż te drugie należą do rzadkości, to jednak ich zastosowanie może sprawić, że wiedza w nich ujęta będzie pogłębiała uzyskaną z badań analitycznych empirię. Tak też uczyniono i w tym opracowaniu, w którym zastosowano obok badań ilościowych, badania zogniskowanych wywiadów grupowych. Wnioski uzyskane w obu badaniach pozwalają wskazać i potwierdzić przyjętą w badaniu hipotezę pierwszą, że zbiorowy kapitał społeczny ma wpływ na rozwój sektora kreatywnego w podobnym wymiarze jak pozostałych podmiotów, które stanowiły grupę kontrolną. W znacznej części także uzyskane dane potwierdzają wieloletni wkład badań różnych autorów dotyczący oddziaływania różnych czynników zaliczanych również do zbiorowego kapitału społecznego i ich wpływu na rozwój twórczości (pozytywnie zweryfikowano hipotezę drugą). I tak, ważną determinantą dla respondentów sprzyjającą rozwojowi twórczości były właściwe uwarunkowania kultury, charakteryzujące się odpowiednim nastawieniem do wymagań, które będą działały stymulująco na grupę ludzi (*Amabile i in., 1996; Hennessey, 2003, za: West & Sacramento, 2008*). Okazało się, że również pozytywne nastawienie wpływa na właściwy stosunek do wewnętrznej motywacji, kreatywności i innowacji. Przy czym stosowane bodźce powinny obejmować trzy aspekty środowiska. Pierwszym z nich jest zachęcanie do podejmowania ryzyka i tworzenia nowych pomysłów oraz oceny kreatywności i innowacji. Drugi aspekt odnosi się do właściwej oceny nowych pomysłów, zaś trzeci dotyczy roli w zarządzaniu i podejmowaniu decyzji oraz współpracy (*Amabile, 1988; Amabile i in., 1996; Hennessey, 2003, za: Franková, 2011*). Również wyniki badań potwierdzają prezentowane w literaturze przedmiotu tezy o tym, iż zaufanie wymienione jako jeden z ważniejszych elementów zbiorowego kapitału społecznego



odgrywa istotną rolę w procesie rozwoju twórczości w podmiotach gospodarczych i miastach kreatywnych. Przy czym wielu badaczy próbowało wyjaśnić to pojęcie (*Seligman, 1997*), starając się odróżnić zaufanie od znajomości (*Luhmann, 1988*), ufności (*Giddens, 1990; Seligman, 1997*), wiary (*Seligman, 1997*) oraz wykazać związek pomiędzy nim a poziomem twórczości w grupie. Warto podkreślić, iż – jak się okazało - zaufanie jest nie tylko zjawiskiem psychologicznym jak inne wyżej wymienione, jest to również zjawisko społeczne i kulturowe, w istocie determinujące twórczość.

Ważną determinantą sprzyjającą twórczości w kontekście elementów zbiorowego kapitału społecznego jest odpowiednie wsparcie grupy społecznej, wskazywane przez respondentów jako istotne. Przy czym odnosząc się do tej składowej warto nadmienić, że takie wspomaganie działań powinno być ważne w zakresie czterech aspektów: różnorodności, wzajemnej otwartości myśli i idei, zachęcania do konstruktywnych pomysłów i wspólnej odpowiedzialności (*Amabile, 1988; Amabile i in., 1996; Hennessey, 2003, za: Franková, 2011*). Również współpraca i poziom rywalizacji wpływają na poziom twórczości, choć trudno jest jednoznacznie określić, jaki rodzaj współpracy i konkurencji sprzyja liczbie generowanych pomysłów. Wydaje się, iż zarówno nadmierna konkurencja, która powoduje dysfunkcje grupy ludzi, jak i jej brak, są zjawiskami negatywnymi. Jedne badania wykazały, że konkurencja ogranicza twórczość (*Brown & Gaynor, 1967*), a inne, że konkurencja może napędzać kreatywność (*Cummings & Oldham, 1997*).

Mając na uwadze rozwój kreatywnego miasta władze lokalne powinny zwrócić szczególną uwagę na aspekty wymienione powyżej, gdyż one są ważnymi elementami składowymi zbiorowego kapitału społecznego warunkującymi rozwój potencjału w kierunku innowacyjności. Dbałość o rozwój tych kluczowych aspektów prowadzi także do poprawy życia mieszkańców danego obszaru. Wzbogacając przez różne inicjatywy rozwój zbiorowego kapitału społecznego włodarze miast dbają w kontekście długoterminowego rozwoju o postęp i innowacyjność. Dziś podjęte działania będą generowały wartości dodane w przyszłości.

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Positively reviewed by first reviewer: May 5, 2017

Positively reviewed by second reviewer: May 5, 2017

Accepted by Editorial Board of the Conference HPD 2017: May 10, 2017



MOŽNOSTI POZITÍVNEHO OVPLYVNŔOVANIA ORGANIZAČNEJ KULTÚRY PROSTREDNÍCTVOM RIADENEJ ADAPTÁCIE ZAMESTNANCOV

POSSIBILITIES OF POSITIVE INFLUENCING ORGANIZATION CULTURE THROUGH MANAGED ADAPTATION OF EMPLOYEES

KATARÍNA STACHOVÁ, ZDENKO STACHO

Abstract

The critical period for detailed familiarization with company's organizational culture and for the identification of new employees with it is the period of employee adaptation. The research presented in the article, focused on Slovak organizations, indicated that although 100% of the interviewed organizations declared that they realized the importance of organizational culture, only 21% – 33% of them had defined an organizational culture strategy in writing in their corporate strategies. The aforementioned indicates that in adaptation processes, the organizations cannot focus on the adaptation of their employees to the values, attitudes and behavior that are recognized and declared by the organization, as they have not been defined.

Key words: Organizational culture, human resource management, adaptation of employees, organizations operating in Slovakia

Classification JEL: M12 – Personnel Management.

1. Úvod

Organizačnú kultúru možno charakterizovať ako komplex predpokladov a presvedčení, hodnôt, noriem správania a postojov, ktoré sú pre každý podnik jedinečné, zdieľané a vytvárajú pre ňu špecifický podnikateľský štýl (Řezáč, 2009). Nadobúda svoje podoby v nemateriálnej oblasti (spôsob riadenia, organizačná štruktúra, spôsob prezentácie produktov) a rovnako aj materiálnej oblasti (vzhl'ad budov podniku, výrobkov, reklama), (Urbanovičová, Vaňová & Čambál, 2016; Višňovský, 2003).

Všeobecne uvádzanými a deklarovanými prvkami organizačnej kultúry sú základné presvedčenia, hodnoty a normy, ktoré sa navonok prejavujú symbolmi a artefaktmi, ktoré sa v organizácii vymysleli, objavili, alebo vyvinuli v dôsledku úspešného riešenia problémov a tiež je spoločným prvkom skupina ľudí, ktorá je nositeľom organizačnej kultúry, v ktorej je táto kultúra zdieľaná (Čambál & Hoghová, 2008). S uvedeným tvrdením sa stotožňujú aj autori ako Deal & Kennedy (2000), Schein (1999), Cameron & Quinn (2011), Višňovský (2003), Collins & Smith (2006), Kachaňáková (2010), Lukášová (2010), Wei Jiacheng a kol. (2010), Cow (2012), Joniaková & Blštáková (2013), Kachaňáková & Stachová (2014) vo svojich publikáciách.

Vzhl'adom na skutočnosť, že nositeľmi zmeny, resp. nositeľmi vhodnej organizačnej kultúry by mali byť všetci zamestnanci podniku, od ktorých sa očakáva, že budú zdieľať a rozvíjať strategicky potrebné predstavy, prístupy a hodnoty, je nevyhnutné zamerať sa na organizačnú kultúru a na ľudské zdroje simultánne, z uvedeným tvrdením sa stotožňujú autori Schein (1999), Collins & Smith (2006), Lukášová (2010), Cow (2012) Urbanová (2012), Kachaňáková (2013), Čambál, Cagaňová, Sobrino & Košťál (2013). Možnosť pre takéto simultánne zameranie je daná previazanosťou organizačnej kultúry a riadenia ľudských zdrojov, ktorá je deklarovaná v ich spoločnej primárnej úlohe, ktorou je, ako uvádza Kachaňáková (2010): „vytvárať podmienky na tzv. pozitívne správanie zamestnancov v zmysle strategických zámerov a cieľov podniku.“



Adaptáciu je všeobecne možné chápať ako proces aktívneho prispôsobovania sa človeka životným podmienkam a ich zmene (Remišová, & Búciová, 2012; Zavadský, a kol. 2015; Vicen, 2015). Pre každého človeka sú významné sociálne aspekty práce, vzťahy so spolupracovníkmi a pocit spolupatričnosti s pracovným prostredím, ktoré od prvej chvíle vedie k získaniu oddanosti a stability, alebo práve naopak, môže viesť k demotivácii, resp. nespokojnosti vyplývajúcej z nedostatku informácií a strachu zo zvládania pracovných úloh. Je dôležité, aby sa proces adaptácie zamerlal na všetky tri roviny, v ktorých je potrebné, aby adaptácia prebehla. V rámci roviny pracovnej adaptácie je potrebné zabezpečiť vstupný zácvik a zaškolenie zamestnancov v rámci celkového formovania ich schopností podľa potrieb podniku a tiež definitívne konkretizovať umiestnenie nového zamestnanca na „správne“ pracovné miesto (Papula & Volná, 2012; Vicen, 2014; Kampf, a kol. 2014). V rámci roviny sociálnej adaptácie je potrebné dosiahnuť zaradenie zamestnanca do existujúceho systému medziľudských vzťahov na pracovisku aj v podniku (Kachaňáková, Nachtmanová & Joniaková, 2011; Maloney, 2011; Stacho & Stasiak-Betlejewska, 2014). V rámci tretej roviny, ktorou je adaptácia zamestnanca na organizačnú kultúru je potrebné pomôcť novým zamestnancom orientovať sa v existujúcich sociálnych normách, štandardoch konania a správania, uznávaných hodnotách, ale tiež v statusových symboloch a ostatných prostriedkoch organizačnej kultúry, pričom cieľom je, aby sa s nimi zamestnanec v čo najväčšej miere stotožnil, prípadne prispôbil. V rámci tejto roviny je potrebné v čo najkratšom možnom čase zmeniť pohľad zamestnanca z VY a VAŠA na postoj MY a MOJA.

Z uvedeného dôvodu jasne vyplýva význam tejto činnosti vo vzťahu s organizačnou kultúrou, keďže v rámci z nej sa nový zamestnanec oboznamuje, resp. neoboznamuje so všetkými prvkami organizačnej kultúry podniku (od hodnôt, až po prostriedky organizačnej kultúry). Súčasťou tejto funkcie, je taktiež sledovanie a hodnotenie, či a do akej miery nový zamestnanec „zapadol“ do podniku.

2. Metodika výskumu

Pre potreby tohto príspevku boli využité dáta z prieskumu realizovaného v priebehu rokov 2011 až 2013 na Vysoké škole ekonomickej a manažmentu verejnej správy v Bratislave, pričom respondentmi prieskumu boli vrcholní predstavitelia podnikov pôsobiacich na Slovensku. Opytovanie prebehlo formou dotazníka doručeného osobne. Množstvo oslovených organizácií sa každoročne pohybovalo v rozmedzí medzi 573 až 609 organizácií, pričom návratnosť komplexne vyplnených dotazníkov sa pohybovala na úrovni 60 % – 65 %.

Z dôvodu určenia dostatočnej výskumnej vzorky sme si stanovili dve stratifikačné kritériá, prvým kritériom bol región pôsobenia podniku podľa systému NUTS, konkrétne sme Slovensko rozdelili podľa kategórie NUTS 2, pričom pri štruktúrnom zložení výskumnej vzorky sme vychádzali z údajov ŠÚ SR (Štatistický úrad Slovenskej republiky).

Druhé stratifikačné kritérium sme si zvolili minimálny počet zamestnancov 50, čím sme síce z výskumnej vzorky vylúčili malé podniky, no na druhej strane sme týmto kritériom sledovali opodstatnenosť zamerať sa na formálny systém riadenia ľudských zdrojov v podnikoch s 50 a viac zamestnancami.

Údaje ŠÚ SR počas sledovaného obdobia ukazujú, že počet podnikov s 50 a viac zamestnancami v jednotlivých regiónoch osciloval okolo rovnakých hodnôt, konkrétna regionálna štruktúra podnikov nad 50 zamestnancov v uvedených rokoch je uvedená v tab. 1.

Pri výpočte optimálnej výskumnej vzorky z uvedeného základného súboru podnikov sme si stanovili percento spoľahlivosti (Confidence Level) výskumu na 95% a interval spoľahlivosti (Confidence Interval) výsledkov bol stanovený ($H = \pm 0,10$). Na základe uvedených kritérií bola stanovená dostatočná, resp. relevantná výskumná vzorka pre jednotlivé regióny Slovenska, v analyzovaných rokoch, ktorá je uvedená v tab. 2.



Tab. 1. Regionálna štruktúra podnikov nad 50 zamestnancov (podľa: Štatistický úrad SR)

Región – NUTS II.	Bratislavský kraj	Západné Slovensko	Stredné Slovensko	Východné Slovensko
Kraje	BA	TT, TN, NR	BB, ZA	KE, PO
Počet podnikov 2011	1098	904	644	612
Počet podnikov 2012	1105	916	651	613
Počet podnikov 2013	1102	911	645	606

Tab. 2. Veľkosť výskumnej vzorky pre jednotlivé regióny Slovenska (vlastné spracovanie)

Región – NUTS II.	Bratislavský kraj	Západné Slovensko	Stredné Slovensko	Východné Slovensko
Kraje	BA	TT, TN, NR	BB, ZA	KE, PO
Počet podnikov 2011–2013	1098–1105	904–916	644–651	606–613
Veľkosť výskumnej vzorky	88	87	84	83

3. Výsledky uskutočneného výskumu

V rámci časti prieskumu zameraného na organizačnú kultúru bolo prioritne sledované, či si vedenia opytovaných organizácií uvedomujú dôležitosť a opodstatnenosť zaoberať sa tvorbou a udržiavaním vhodnej organizačnej kultúry. Väčšina opytovaných sa zhodovala v kladnej odpovedi na túto otázku (Stachová & Kachaňáková, 2014).

Odpovede na prvú otázku vyznievali veľmi pozitívne, avšak keď bolo zisťované, či majú organizácie v rámci stratégie organizácie písomne zadefinovanú stratégiu organizačnej kultúry, pozitívne odpovedalo už len 21 % až 33 % (tab. 3). Pričom, pokiaľ chýba jasne a zrozumiteľne definovaná stratégia organizačnej kultúry, je len veľmi obtiažne odvodzovať od nej konkrétne parametre a hodnoty organizačnej kultúry.

Tab. 3. Oblasti, na ktoré majú analyzované organizácie vypracované dokumenty (vlastné spracovanie)

Má organizácia vypracované nasledujúce dokumenty:	Áno, dokument v písomnej forme [%]			Áno, dokument v nepísomnej forme [%]			Nie [%]		
	2011	2012	2013	2011	2012	2013	2011	2012	2013
Poslanie organizácie	71	65	69	13	14	12	15	21	19
Stratégiu organizácie	68	64	67	18	14	16	14	22	17
Personálnu stratégiu	53	51	53	26	22	25	21	27	22
Etický kódex	53	49	50	18	18	20	29	33	30
Kódex sociálnej zodpovednosti organizácie	23	23	20	20	18	16	57	59	64
Inovačnú stratégiu	23	26	22	26	23	30	51	51	48
Stratégiu organizačnej kultúry	33	29	30	26	21	27	41	50	43

V rámci rozmiestňovania zamestnancov bolo prioritne analyzované, či organizácie majú zavedený systém adaptácie nových zamestnancov. Z odpovedí opytovaných organizácií žiaľ



vyplývalo, že približne 30 % z nich nemá zavedený systém adaptácie z čoho vyplývalo, že tieto organizácie si dôležitosť adaptácie neuvedomujú.

Ešte negatívnejší výsledok nám vyplýval z otázky: „Prosím označte, čo je obsahom adaptačného procesu nových zamestnancov vo Vašej organizácii“ je možné hodnotiť ešte kritickejšie. Z prieskumu vyplývalo, že organizácie, ktoré deklarujú, že sa adaptácii venujú, sa jej v skutočnosti venujú len na úrovni pracovnej adaptácie (tab. 4).

Tab. 4. Obsah adaptácie nových zamestnancov (vlastné spracovanie)

Čo je obsahom adaptácie nových zamestnancov	Podiel podnikov v %		
	2011	2012	2013
Pracovná adaptácia	100	100	100
Sociálna adaptácia	27	25	29
Adaptácia na organizačnú kultúru	28	34	32

S cieľom zistiť, koľko organizácií z tých, ktoré deklarujú, že sa adaptácii venujú, sa jej venujú vo všetkých troch rovinách, bola využitá krosová tabuľka, v rámci ktorej bolo zisťované, ktoré organizácie sa venujú tak sociálnej adaptácii, ako aj adaptácii na organizačnú kultúru, keďže všetky organizácie uviedli, že sa pracovnej adaptácii venujú (tab. 5). Z uvedeného vyplývalo, že vo všetkých rovinách sa adaptácii venuje len približne 18 až 20 z organizácií, ktoré uskutočňujú adaptáciu. Z toho následne vyplýva, že z celej opytovanej vzorky sa komplexnej adaptácii novoprijatých zamestnancov venuje len približne pätina organizácií.

Tab. 5. Krosové porovnanie organizácií venujúcich sa sociálnej adaptácii a adaptácii na organizačnú kultúru (vlastné spracovanie)

Obsahom adaptačného procesu je:		Adaptácia na organizačnú kultúru	
		Nie	Áno
Sociálna adaptácia [2011]	Nie	63	10
	Áno	9	18
Sociálna adaptácia [2012]	Nie	61	14
	Áno	5	20
Sociálna adaptácia [2013]	Nie	59	12
	Áno	9	20

4. Zhodnotenie výsledkov a diskusia

Z prieskumu zameraného na organizácie pôsobiace v Slovenskej republike vyplývalo, že hoci 100 % organizácií deklaruje, že si opodstatnenosť organizačnej kultúry uvedomuje, len 21 % – 33 % má v rámci stratégie organizácie písomne zadanú stratégiu organizačnej kultúry. Z uvedených zistení taktiež vyplýva, že hoci teória riadenia ľudských zdrojov hovorí o troch rovinách adaptácie 30 % dopytovaných organizácií nemá systém adaptácie zavedený vôbec a len približne 20 % organizácií sa adaptácii novoprijatých zamestnancov venuje komplexne, teda vo všetkých troch rovinách.

Z uvedeného jednoznačne vyplýva, že je potrebné zamerať sa tak jednotlivo na organizačnú kultúru a adaptáciu zamestnancov, ako aj na ich vzájomné možnosti pozitívneho



ovplyvňovania sa. Činnosti, ktoré je za týmto účelom potrebné uskutočňovať spolu s dôvodmi, je možné popísať nasledovne:

- Previest' adaptujúceho sa zamestnanca priestormi organizácie, keďže predstavenie priestorov organizácie a s tým súvisiacich materiálnych artefaktov je nevyhnutné nielen z pohľadu orientácie sa zamestnanca v organizácii, ale z pohľadu organizačnej kultúry ide hlavne o uvedomenie si zamestnanca jednotlivých organizáciou využívaných artefaktov, ako sú veľkosť a umiestnenie loga, farby ktoré sú v organizácii a jej priestoroch využívané, vybavenie kancelárií taktiež napovedá o tom, ako si organizácia svojich zamestnancov váži, resp. stará sa o nich. Zamestnanec taktiež získa prehľad o vyžadovanom, resp. tradičnom oblečení zamestnancov. Z dôvodu, že tak ako všetky symboly, aj symboly materiálnej povahy majú tendenciu byť mnohovýznamové je vhodné, aby boli novému zamestnancovi sprostredkované ich skutočné významy (napr. vysvetlenie dôvodu, prečo niektorí zamestnanci v rámci jednej pracovnej skupiny sedia v rámci jedného open office, a iní nie, resp. prečo časť z nich má formálne firemné oblečenie a časť nie).
- Zoznámiť adaptujúceho sa zamestnanca s organizačnou štruktúrou organizácie, pretože poznanie organizačnej štruktúry je z pohľadu organizačnej kultúry dôležité z dvoch pohľadov. Na jednej strane je pohľad zamestnanca a jeho uvedomenia si svojej pozície, resp. statusu v rámci organizácie ako celku a formálnych vzťahov z nej vyplývajúcich a na strane druhej je poznanie organizačnej štruktúry, prioritne vedúcich predstaviteľov významné z pohľadu imidžu organizácie. (Novoprijatý zamestnanec je svojim okolím často dopytovaný hlavne v krátkom čase po nastúpení na nové miesto na jeho spokojnosť, postavenie a vedenie organizácie).
- Charakterizovať statusové symboly prislúchajúce jednotlivým úrovniam riadenia, keďže potreba poznania statusových symbolov novým zamestnancom vyplýva priamo z ich podstaty a teda, že práve oni dávajú, respektíve mali by prioritne dávať najavo, s kým má nový zamestnanec do činenia, čím predurčujú zodpovedajúci spôsob správania a odstraňujú, či zmierňujú prípadné nedorozumenia a konflikty. Zároveň podporujú aj samotnú identifikáciu zamestnancov s organizáciou.
- Zoznámiť adaptujúceho sa zamestnanca so žiaducim správaním a konaním. Poznanie a pochopenie príčin jednotlivých noriem správania a konania v organizácii (vykanie/tykanie; oslovanie pozíciou, titulom, priezviskom, menom; postavenie ženy/muži a i.) je nevyhnutné, pre adaptovanie sa nového zamestnanca. Pravidlá správania sa, sú zväčša nepísané, avšak pre zamestnancov organizácie tak samozrejmé, že ich nedodržanie sa v niektorých prípadoch až trestá. Poznanie a zúčastňovanie sa jednotlivých zvykov, rituálov, či ceremoniálov akými bývajú v organizácii napríklad oslavy narodenín, povýšenia, či privítania nového zamestnanca do tímu, môže novému zamestnancovi výrazne uľahčiť jeho sociálnu adaptáciu.
- Oboznámiť adaptujúceho sa zamestnanca s históriou, stratégiou, etickým kódexom, zakladateľom a hrdinami organizácie. Na základe poznania histórie organizácie prípadne ságy, ktorá sa s ňou spája, adaptujúci sa zamestnanec môže plne pochopiť korene hodnôt uznávaných v organizácii. Zo sprostredkovaných príbehov, legiend a mýtov získa zamestnanec pomerne komplexnú informáciu o tom, aké postoje a správanie sa, sú členmi organizácie považované za správne a odmeňované a tiež, ktoré sú definované ako nevhodné a neakceptovateľné. Poznanie „hrdinu“, najlepšie osobné, znamená pre zamestnanca poznanie vzoru správania sa a nositeľa hodnôt organizácie.



- Na adaptáciu zamestnanca má hlavný vplyv a zodpovednosť za ňu prioritne priamy nadriadený, preto by mal priamy nadriadený na jednej strane dozeráť na kvalitu adaptačného procesu zamestnanca, a mal by sa jej zúčastňovať, či už aktívne, alebo z pohľadu kontrolóra a v neposlednom rade by mal byť vzorom danému zamestnancovi, teda jeho správanie by malo byť v zhode s organizáciou uznávanými, hodnotami, postojmi a spôsobom správania.
- Potreba individuálneho prístupu pri adaptovaní zamestnanca na organizačnú kultúru. Dĺžka adaptácie zamestnancov na organizačnú kultúru je rôzna. Vplyv na dĺžku má jednak schopnosť zamestnanca vnímať tento typ informácií a transformovať ich do svojho správania, jednak skúsenosť a typy kultúr, v ktorých sa pohybovali v minulosti (tak počas pracovného, ako aj súkromného života) a tiež miera jeho vlastného súladu, resp. nesúladu s novou organizačnou kultúrou.

Tak ako bolo v rámci tejto časti príspevku uvedené, činnosti vykonávané v rámci adaptácie zamestnancov, majú významný vplyv na deklarovanie a podporovanie žiaducej organizačnej kultúry a taktiež zohrávajú významnú úlohu pri zavádzaní novej, zmenenej vhodnej organizačnej kultúry podporujúcej udržateľný rozvoj organizácie.

5. Záver

V príspevku sme konkrétne definovali jednotlivé činnosti, ktoré je potrebné uskutočňovať pre efektívne adaptovanie zamestnanca na organizačnú kultúru spoločnosti a taktiež pre udržanie deklarováných hodnôt, postojov a správania sa všetkých zamestnancov v organizácii. Definovanie uvedených činností nie je možné považovať za konečné, avšak je možné chápať ich ako základné pri dosahovaní efektívneho prepojenia hodnôt deklarováných organizáciou a ich vnímaním jednotlivými stakeholdermi organizácie.

Za týmto účelom je potrebné mať stanovenú žiaducu organizačnú kultúru, na ktorej presadzovanie je vhodné využiť jednotlivé činnosti riadenia ľudských zdrojov, pričom práve adaptácia zamestnancov je špecifická tým, že je prvou funkciou ktorá ovplyvňuje zamestnancov po nástupe do zamestnania.

Potreba zamerať sa na adaptáciu zamestnancov vyplýva aj z faktu, že práve vstup do nového zamestnania je na jednom z popredných miest v rebríčku najstresovejších životných udalostí. Žiaľ, práve adaptácia je často podceňovanou oblasťou riadenia ľudských zdrojov, hoci jej priebeh má priamy a významný vplyv na výsledok a samotný úspech procesu získavania a výberu zamestnancov, ktorým sa spravidla venuje oveľa väčšia pozornosť (*Stýblo, Urban & Vysokajová, 2009*). Avšak ak opustí nový zamestnanec, v dôsledku nezvládnutej adaptácie organizáciu, znamená to pre ňu vždy značné náklady. Ako uviedol *Armstrong (2009)* vo svojej knihe *Handbook of human resource management practice*: „V prípade straty odborného zamestnanca, môžu náklady predstavovať až 75 % jeho ročného platu. V prípade pomocného zamestnanca, môžu dosiahnuť 50 % z platu. Ak počas roku odíde pätnásť zo sto zamestnancov, ktorí majú priemerný ročný plat 12 500 eur, potom celkové náklady môžu byť 90 000 eur, teda 7,5 % z celkových mzdových nákladov (*Armstrong, 2009*). Vzniká teda potreba zaistiť rýchlu adaptáciu na všetky aspekty novej pracovnej pozície. Tak môže organizácia prispieť k stabilite a spokojnosti zamestnancov od ich prvého pracovného dňa a znížiť tak mieru fluktuácie, ku ktorej často dochádza v krátkej dobe po nástupe do nového zamestnania a predstavuje pre organizáciu zbytočné finančné náklady.

Z uskutočneného prieskumu jednoznačne vyplýva, že je potrebné zamerať sa v organizáciách pôsobiacich v Slovenskej republike jednotlivo na organizačnú kultúru a adaptáciu zamestnancov, ako aj na ich vzájomné možnosti pozitívneho ovplyvňovania sa, vo významne vyššej miere.



PodĎakovanie:

Tento príspevok je vypracovaný v súvislosti s projektom financovaním Grantovou agentúrou Vysokkej školy ekonómie a manažmentu verejnej správy v Bratislave č. 2/2016 Podiel vybraných atribútov manažérskej práce na kreovanie interného prostredia podporujúceho konkurencieschopnosť podniku.

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Positively reviewed by first reviewer: April 26, 2017

Positively reviewed by second reviewer: April 30, 2017

Accepted by Editorial Board of the Conference HPD 2017: May 2, 2017



O ČEM JE BUDOUCÍ PERSONÁLNÍ MANAGEMENT

WHAT ABOUT IS THE PERSONNEL MANAGEMENT

JIŘÍ STÝBLO

Abstract

This contribution focuses on the development of current management and the perspectives of the personal one in the upcoming period of 10 years. Based on the analyses of studies and presentations of a top experts within the field, studies of the documentation and partial surveys among HR specialists and managers, it comes up with the hypothesis on tendencies and changes in HR management. Last but not least, it benefits from a rich experience of an author and his lifelong active work in the field of theory of human resources management as well as from practice around many companies over the years.

Key words: innovation, motivation, management, tools and methods of HR management, inner and outside market, customer.

Classification JEL: M12 – Personnel Management.

1. Úvod

Problematika personálního managementu je v současné a zejména v budoucí etapě rozvoje a prosperity ekonomiky jedním ze zásadních témat. Reagovat rychle a v předstihu na změny znamená prosazovat inovace, rozvoj a šíření znalostí a osvojení si nových přístupů a postojů k práci s lidskými zdroji. Efektivní personální management musí vycházet z potřeb trhu jako konkurenčního prostředí a z dominantního postavení zákazníka. Tomu je třeba podříditi metody a nástroje personální práce jako nedílné součásti řízení firem a pojetí moderního byznysu.

Záměrem článku je nastínit přechod od „standardní“ personalistiky k budoucímu rozvoji lidských zdrojů, který je těsně spjat s pojetím moderního byznysu, konkurenceschopností prověřenou trhem, inovacemi a využitím elektronických procesů prolínajících prakticky všechny sféry podnikání.

2. Inovace, učení, změny

Společnost ovládají nové síly, řídí se novými hodnotami. Podmínkou naplnění nových vizí směřujících k udržitelnému rozvoji a stálému pokroku je vytvářet účelné a efektivně fungující *system jejího řízení*.

„Jádrem je permanentní a perspektivní systém práce s lidmi a jejich vzdělávání,“ zdůraznil Stuart Schaag (*in: Porter & Kramer*), obchodní rada velvyslanectví Spojených států amerických, na konferenci konané u příležitosti vyhlášení výsledků soutěže Manažer roku 2012 v dubnu letošního roku v Praze. Konference měla výstižný název „Don't Miss The Train“ (Nenechme si ujet vlak).

Ústředními silami tvorby nové generace *osvojování znalostí* v řízení je jejich šíření a podpora. Výrazně je třeba posilovat *motivaci* lidí, optimalizovat jejich individuální *rozvoj* a jasně definovat *postoje* a *role*.

Inovace musí směřovat ke zvyšování výkonnosti a produktivity práce a stávají se aktuálními *hodnotami* společnosti byznysu druhého a třetího tisíciletí tohoto století. A. Hurvikoski (*in: Pitra, 2014*) z finské University of Applied Science připomíná v této souvislosti trojúhelník reprezentující *výzvy* současného ekonomického pokroku a rozvoje podnikání. Jeho vrcholy představující *výzvy* pro management a leadership jsou:

- kolektivní inteligence šířící se prostřednictvím transferu znalostí v sociální sítích,



- vytváření a podpora tvůrčího, motivujícího a inspirujícího prostředí,
- intenzivní sociální interakce a komunikace a sdílení informací.

Společný jmenovatel podnikatelského úspěchu a konkurenceschopnosti pak představují *systematické učení*, schopnost *řídít změny* a to zejména využitím originálních a průlomových inovací. Management se stává výzvou k novým způsobům sdílení znalostí v zájmu *udržitelného pokroku a rozvoje* vytvářejícím synergie k podnikání.

Změny ve světě moderního managementu se *akcelerují*. Zesnulý génius informačních technologií Steve Jobs (Apple) označil jejich trajektorii, počínaje rokem 1980 počítačovou revolucí, následovně rok 1990 jako internetovou revoluci, rok 2010 jako informační revoluci a rok 2020 jako inovační a talentovou revoluci. Informační revoluce bude uschopňovat a posilovat jednotlivce – spíše individuality – demokratizovat – rozuměj zpřístupňovat – všechno všem (*in: Pitra, 2014*). Tuto trajektorii podmínil imperativem jak docílit žádoucích změn. Podmínkou je nejen vývoj technologií, ale především *lidí a jejich rozvoje*.

3. Razantní nástup fenoménů ovlivňujících byznys

Jak jsme byli většinou zvyklí vidět firmy? Shora dolů nebo zdola nahoru. (Obvyklé je v managementu vyjádření top down či bottom up). Řídící praxe tomu přikládá nemalý význam. V této souvislosti se současně se směry řízení obvykle uvádějí *fenomény* výrazně ovlivňující současný byznys. Z četné řady se co do jejich významu, většina manažerských teoretiků i praktiků shoduje na těchto následujících:

- *globalizace* vnášející do podnikání absolutně jiný, nový rozměr,
- *digitalizace* umožňující značnou rychlostí a s relativně přiměřenými náklady, šířit, transformovat a sdělovat informace, z nichž se za rozhodující specifikum považují znalosti (hovoří se o knowledge managementu, know-how managementu, speed managementu apod.),
- *komunikace* chápaná nejenom ve smyslu výměny a přenosu digitálních informací, ale v mnoha směrech především interpersonálních informací (ať již mezi zákazníky a výrobci, zaměstnanci a zaměstnavateli, vedoucími a zaměstnanci, zaměstnanci navzájem apod.),
- *sociální síť* jako způsob a prostředek interaktivní komunikace. Jako výmluvnou ilustraci lze uvést společnost Dell, která spustila webovou komunikaci zaměřenou na pomoc uživatelům produktů Dell (technický helpdesk, kde odpovídají uživatelům). Tato technologie umožnila uživatelům operujícím v komunitě přímými odpověďmi na jejich otázky docílit úspory nejen práce, ale také nákladů.

Fenomény ovlivňující byznys si vynucují *razantní změny systému řízení*. Meritorním imperativem změny systému řízení je uschopnit firmy být úspěšné v rychle měnícím se globalizovaném světě ovládaném trhem. Hlavním *prostředkem* k tomu je maximální využití a optimalizace všech dostupných *zdrojů* se zvláštním důrazem *na lidský kapitál*, který má na úspěch rozhodující vliv.

Není to tak dávno, co se starý model řízení „postavil na hlavu“. Jan Curizon, CEO společnosti SAS, byl zřejmě otcem, který našel další a další následovníky současné doby a který, místy až tvrdošijně, prosazoval změnu paradigmatu totálním fokusem a *orientací* řízení na externí i interní zákazníky. Starý model (paradigma) vychází ze skutečnosti, ve které je zákazník vnímán jako někdo, kdo má trvale nějaké požadavky a operační běžné řízení firmy je stačí jen s vypětím plynule a někdy ne zcela bezchybně včas plnit. Vrchní linie řízení v hierarchické organizaci vysílá pokyny, příkazy, *instrukce nižším úrovním* a kontrolu jejich plnění. V poněkud přemrštěném pojetí nazývá například již zmíněný J. Curizon tento model jako firmě „nepřátelský“ (enemy), (*in: Charan, 2001*).

Opačný model jako odraz priority potřeb zákazníka, který dominuje v tržním podnikatelském prostředí, je (poněkud úmyslně protipólně extrémně) vyjádřen schématem,



kteří charakterizuje *suverenitu trhu* v současném podnikání a byznysu. *Externí zákazník* (rozuměj trh) určuje dění a konání na všech liniích řízení. Nižší stupně řízení uspokojují potřeby *interních zákazníků* nad nimi tak, aby všechny vyšší úrovně řízení měly potřebné podmínky pro uspokojování potřeba v linii nad nimi. To je podstata nového modelu (leadership modelu) řízení.

Hlavním důsledkem razantního nástupu fenoménů ovlivňujících byznys je *totální orientace* (fokus) na:

1. Motivaci jako hlavní hledisko manažerů a její kulturní podmíněnost (hodnotami, diverzitou apod.).
2. Motivaci jako vnitřní sílu individua, která generuje směr, úroveň, vytváří inspiraci a podporuje vnitřní úsilí vynakládané na docilování produktivní práce (výkonnosti).
3. Kreativitu směřující k inovačnímu zánícení, produkci nových myšlenek a schopnosti jejich realizace.
4. Práci s talentovanými lidmi, kteří představují neopakovatelné a nevyčerpatelné zdroje nových přístupů, pozitivních a funkčních změn v řízení firem.
5. Komunikaci jako systematický přenos a sdílení informací a nových idejí směřující k urychlování procesů řízení, získávání nových podnětů a stmelování subjektů interního a externího prostředí trhu.

To vše se děje v zájmu uspokojování potřeb externích i interních zákazníků a tím zajištění konkurenceschopného postavení firmy na trhu („what’s your leverage“ co je vaší konkurenční výhodou, v čem spočívá originalita a jedinečnost, která přesvědčí o výjimečnosti firemního postavení v globální soutěži).

Mezi další rysy, *nástroje a principy* moderního byznysu řadí mnozí odborníci, byť v různém pořadí, například *continuous improvement* (neustálé zlepšování), efektivitu řízení procesů a operací (*lean management*), *benchmarking* (stanovení nejlepší dosažitelné úrovně v určitém oboru, odvětví či sektoru podnikání nebo v jiných globálních měřících) apod. Žádoucí stav představuje docílení *strategické orientace* firmy, podmíněná jasnou vizí „přetavená“ do reality potřeb zákazníka. Strategická orientace je rozhodujícím měřítkem úspěšného byznysu. Její nedílnou součástí je trvalá péče a zájem o *člověka* (zaměstnance firmy) a jeho *rozvoj*.

4. Komu zvoní hrana

Doba se rychle změnila a mění se i nadále obrovským tempem. Fakta, která ještě před několika léty představovala ekonomickou realitu, jsou nejen nepopulární, ale pro mnohé firmy přímo sebevražedná. Staré zdroje podnikání a řízení jsou „nevýživné“ nehledě na to, že již prakticky vyschly nebo *přestávají být životné*. Jedná se především o:

- spotřebu taženou populační explozí,
- půjčování oproti budoucím příjmům,
- virtuální (nikoliv reálnou) hodnotu produktů a služeb,
- politické zázemí vycházející a nacházející oporu v podvodech a korupci,
- management spoléhající se na opatrnost, jistotu, pevné struktury, jasné, předem dané procedury a minimalizaci rizika,
- příkazový systém práce s lidmi, úkolující a normující vedení sledující plnění pevně stanovených ukazatelů výkonnosti.

Nenávratně skončila doba fám o řízení a „personalismu“. Role krakena a kněží kultu vyznávajících a hledajících rozhodující sílu v *utopickém managementu* je překonanou minulostí. (Pojmy „krakena a kněží kultu“ byly užity L. Pfeifferem na konferenci Institutu of International Research v prosinci v Praze 2012).

Není však dosud stále výjimkou, že někteří manažeři i personalisté se stále domnívají, že jsou nositeli firemní výkonnosti, protože právě oni pracují s lidmi a „všechno přece záleží na



lidech“. Být si vědom tohoto faktu nestačí. Jen nemnoho těchto „business partnerů“ (jak se také sebevědomě nekriticky občas nazývají) je však schopno prokázat skutečný *přínos* své práce pro naplnění *podnikatelských cílů* společnosti. Nic jim například nevadí, že nejčastěji jimi používané HR ukazatele nemají pro řízení firemní hodnoty a tvorbu přidané hodnoty valný vypovídací smysl a význam. Takovým manažerům a personalistům (ať se na vizitkách honosí jakýmikoliv úctyhodnými tituly) opravdu zvoní hrana. A je zřejmě opravdu na čase.

Manažerská scéna je sice plná monstrózních technologií, technik, pracovních metod a nástrojů nabízených pro měření docilované výkonnosti. Jen málokteré z nich jsou však v praxi smysluplně implementovány. A to je chyba a daň „kultu“ utopickému managementu. „Nový“ management a personalisté si jasně uvědomují odpovědnost za *core business* firmy. Odmítající rádobu vědecký étos a respektující sociální role byznys partnerů pro externího i interního zákazníka. Proto považují *funkční aparát* managementu za účinnou a racionální pomoc ve své práci. Pro přehled uvedme alespoň ty základní, z celé řady dalších, *nástroje a metody* tohoto aparátu, které nacházejí v praxi uplatnění a racionální využití:

- transformační leadership,
- empowerment,
- engagement,
- job rotation,
- onboarding,
- employer branding,
- competencies gap analysis,
- cross cultural management,
- gender rules,
- diversity management,
- career planning,
- talent management,
- knowledge management,
- knowledge community,
- mentoring,
- coaching,
- salaries benchmarking.

Hrana nezvoní tomu, kdo má zkušenosti s trhem, jeho fungováním, core businessem, tomu, kdo umí hledat a nacházet jedinečnou *konkurenční výhodu* své nabídky v prostředí globální ekonomiky. Dále také tomu, kdo sází na *pragmatismus a jednoduchost* a je ochoten bořit strnulé korporátní struktury, nepřehledné a šablonovité řídicí matice. Noví manažeři a personalisté si musí uvědomovat, že co dnes ještě patří k modernímu stylu práce, bude s největší pravděpodobností zítra (za několik málo let) náležet do manažerského „second handu“. Všeobecně je uznáváno pět hlavních příčin nazývaných oprávněně „zabijáci“ *katarze byznysu*. Jedná se o:

- strategickou impotenci,
- strategické mezery,
- manažerský akademismus,
- firemní turistiku,
- ulpívání na konformních zónách bytí a existence.

Budeme-li optimističtí realisté, pak zabijáky byznysu opticky nebudou a hrana nezvoní těm, kdo neslouží starým paradigmátům, ale těm, kteří se „na oko“ právě naopak snaží stávat se katalyzátory a urychlovači byznysu. Praxe dává za pravdu zkušenostem, že noví manažeři a personální guru jsou *autentické osobnosti s odvážnou strategickou představivostí*.



5. HR drivers (hybatelé)

Společnost, která chce získat čelné postavení na globálních trzích poskytováním excelentních produktů a služeb svým klientům, si musí udělat nejprve jasno „uvnitř“ a zavést efektivní systém vlastního *vnitřního trhu*. Vnitřní trh je důkazem schopnosti podnikat a je založen na spolupodnikání. Jasná rovnice a současně předpoklad úspěšného byznysu. Jeho subjekty jsou především vlastní zaměstnanci a ti zaměstnanci firem a podniků, které jsou v blízkém a nejbližším operačním okolí, tedy jejich *přímí partneři*. Co to znamená v podnikatelské praxi? Taková společnost se musí řídit následující filosofií:

- Spolupodnikání chápat jako podíl každého jednotlivce na zvyšování hodnoty celé firmy. Na základě prováděných činností, znalostí, schopností a dovedností, inovačních aktivit apod., může každý zaměstnanec na svém pracovišti (v týmu) vytvářet nové hodnoty a podílet se tak na výsledcích celé společnosti
- Spoluvlastnictví znamená osobní odpovědnost za vlastní odvedený výkon a také dobrovolné přijetí spoluodpovědnosti za společně docílené efekty. Náleží sem i možnost a právo spolurozhodování (podle míry odpovědnosti a funkčního postavení) o způsobu jak budou docílené výsledky účelně přerozděleny, reinvestovány, případně investovány.

Vnitřním zákazníkem je každý zaměstnanec (v odůvodněných případech i přímý spolupracující partner), protože každý je závislý a přijímá výsledky práce svých spolupracovníků, případně partnerů (vnitřní trh práce) v řetězci činností a procesů vytvářejících hodnotu pro externího zákazníka. Není dobré skrývat tvář neschopnosti za masku všechápajícího personalisty, byť pouze někdy jen, pohříchu okouzleného různými školeními. Platí pravidlo odevzdat a také dostat práci v požadované kvalitě a včas. Jeho fungování je zajišťováno především správně a citlivě prováděnou vnitřní kontrolou.

V praxi existují firmy (například Agrostroj Pelhřimov), které zavedly systém *vnitřní kontroly* práce vlastních zaměstnanců s minimem nezbytných specializovaných kontrolních pracovníků. Kontrolu výsledků práce provádějí sami zaměstnanci podle tzv. pravidla „– 1“. Konkrétně to znamená, že práci, kterou pracovník odevzdá, nekontroluje po sobě jen on sám, ale také jeho následující kolega. Pokud není odevzdaná práce naprosto v pořádku, nesmí ji přijmout k další pracovní operaci a je povinen ji vrátit před ním chybnému spolupracovníkovi. Teprve po opravě nedostatků lze navazovat další pracovní operaci. Toto předávání „štafety“ v celém řetězci pracovních činností přináší značný efekt. Je zavedeno v celém systému *operativního řízení* a po počátečních rozpacích bylo přijato s porozuměním a souhlasem zaměstnanců. Přináší nesporné výsledky nejen v kvalitě práce, ale také v dodržování termínů. Sebekontrola zamezuje i případné možné dříve obávané šikaně, protože výsledky práce jednoho zaměstnance jsou vázány na výsledky práce druhého zaměstnance a naopak a to v celém systému pracovních procesů, operací a činností.

Neprobíhá-li celá posloupnost podle popsaného scénáře, je ihned patrné kde vznikla chyba a nedochází tak současně ke zbytečnému prodlení v časovém harmonogramu práce. Filosofií spolupodnikání a vnitřního zákazníka musí být prodchnuta bez výjimky celá firma a musí se stát součástí *firemní kultury*.

Vnitřní trh vytváří síť, vlastní prostředí firmy, přirozeně a citlivě svými kontakty, vztahy a vazbami vázané na vnější trhy. Jen tak lze docílit uvolnění *tvořivého potenciálu* lidí, vytvářet a sdílet hodnoty, ve firemních sociálních sítích šířit znalosti, účinně a účelně komunikovat, vytvářet produktivní výkonovou kulturu docilující synergické efekty a při tom poskytovat zaměstnancům uspokojení z práce a umožňovat jejich seberealizaci.

Řízení svého budoucího osudu nemůže žádná firma ponechat náhodě či živelnému vývoji a spoléhat na svoji tradici, případně pověstné štěstíčko. Udrzuje-li pouhý „status quo“, protože se jí momentálně daří a nespátřuje proto důvody ke změně ve své orientaci, je na nejlepší cestě k odchodu ze scény globálního podnikatelského trhu. Praxe společností, které si více méně



trvale vybudovaly nebo budují „místo na slunci“, dokládá, že řízení takových subjektů má důsledně *strategickou podobu*.

Tab. 1. HR drivers

HR funkce	Způsoby a procesy	Ukazatele
Nábor a výběr	Obsazení pracovních pozic interními zaměstnanci	Hodiny tréninku a školení ke strategii
Školení a rozvoj	Plán obsazení pracovních pozic	% obsazených klíčových pozic
Profilování a definování	Počet kvalifikovaných pracovníků na jednu pozici	Počet hodin tréninku a školení (pro nové i zkušené pracovníky)
Rozvoj vůdcovských schopností	Stanovení jednoznačných cílů	% přijatých pracovníků zvenčí
Plánování nástupnictví	Přidělení osobní odpovědnosti za strategii	% účasti v tréninku a vzdělávání o řízení a vedení podniku
Řízení strategie	Strategie ve vazbě na rozpočet a činnosti	
Podpora fúzí a akvizic		
Komunikace	Program sdílení informací	% angažovanosti lidí ve strategii
Mobilizace zaměstnanců	% zaměstnanců pravidelně se účastnících průzkumu v tréninku a vzdělávání	% zaměstnanců pravidelně se účastnících průzkumu o podnikové kultuře
Řízení výkonnosti a hodnocení	% zaměstnanců podporujících strategii HR	% zaměstnanců majících a osobní cíle ve vazbě na BSC
Systém odměňování	% ukončeného hodnocení zaměstnanců	
Podporující a stimulující pracovní prostředí	BSC	% zaměstnanců odměňovaných podle pravidel BSC
Řízení znalostí		% pracovníků využívajících nástroje a prostředky řízení znalostí
Organizační rozvoj		
Rotace zaměstnanců		

Realizátory rozvojové strategie mohou být manažeři a personalisté, kteří mají jasno ve svých rolích a působnosti.

- *Manažeři a HR generalisté*, kteří vedou lidi, motivují je, jdou „hodně do šířky“ nad rámec odborných procesů (například obchodních, personálních apod.). To znamená, znají byznys, vědí co se děje na trzích, znají potřeby klienta a umí se spolehlivě orientovat i základních otázkách hospodaření firmy.
- *HR specialisté*, kteří znají trendy v řízení lidských zdrojů, metody práce s lidmi, zvládají organizaci a provádění personálních procesů (výběr, vzdělávání, rozvoj, odměňování zaměstnanců, sociálně právní otázky, problematiku pracovního prostředí a podmínek apod.), „jdou do hloubky“ v řízení lidských zdrojů.



6. Závěr: leaderi a HR manažeři tvůrci budoucnosti

Z četných šetření prováděných renomovanými výzkumnými a poradenskými pracovišti (The Boston Consulting Group, Prague Leadership Institute, Gallupovým institutem, Golemanovou společností apod.) i z poznatků současné praxe zřetelně vyplývá, že pokud řídíme firmu „po staru“, transakčním stylem podle pravidla „má dáti – dal“, nedosahuje účinnost řízení žádoucích efektů. Některé z uvedených institucí hovoří dokonce o tom, že až 80 % kapacity pracovní síly (?) není plně aktivní. (Například Goleman Studies z května 2010 hořce konstatují, že „neexistuje pojítka se svými šéfy ani správná komunikace“).

Takový stav není příliš vzdálen od stylu a pojetí vedení, kterému zvoní hrana. Například v materiálech, jejichž autorem je Pepeer de Callier, (Praue Leadership Institute), se lze dočíst o „*morální chytrosti*“ nových leaderů využívajících emoční inteligenci a vycházejících z přirozené touhy lidí něco dokázat a seberealizovat se.

Lidé k tomu, aby byli aktivními partnery v pracovním procesu, musí vědět proč to či ono dělají, v čem jsou dobří, očekávají povzbuzení a šéfové se o ně mají zajímat jako o lidské bytosti. Leaderi a manažeři proto mají být přirození a féroví, *lidští*, (v originále „honest“, což působí jako tmel, „lidské lepidlo“), neustále *zaměřeni dopředu* (forward looking), motivující a *inspirující* (inspiring), odborně způsobilí, *kompetentní* (competentive) a stále *nad věci* (overviewship). To jsou například zkušenosti H. Kouneyse a P. Lencioniho.

Toto jsou pouze střípky z celé mozaiky podobných názorů. Shrneme-li je však a pokusíme-li se o zobecnění, dojdeme k závěru, že leaderi, manažeři a HR vedoucí se stávají čím dále zřetelněji a výrazněji partnery společností a jejich zaměstnanců. Jejich *odpovědnost a angažovanost* je klíčem k odpovědnosti a angažovanosti ostatních.

Partnerství v podnikání ze strany *leaderů a manažerů* (zejména vrcholových) znamená podle společnosti CDS Consulting Partner „formulování strategických záměrů, vize a akčních plánů a jejich promítání do personální (sociální politiky). Současně znamená sdělení očekávání produktů a služeb poskytovaných HR složkou řízení podniku“. Leaderi a manažeři by jako „vnitřní podnikatelé“ měli umět vytvořit poptávku, zájem nejen o „vlastní“ produkty a služby, ale také by se měli zajímat o nabídku lidí působících v HR oblasti.

HR manažeři, kteří se nechtějí stát pověstnými „kněžskými krakeny kultu, musí vyvíjet účinné úsilí pozitivně ovlivňovat dění v organizaci. Proto by si měli být vědomi souvislostí jevů, procesů a věcí. Je třeba, aby pečlivě vnímali vývojové trendy, aby je dokázali odhalit již v zárodku a nenechali je přerůst do destruktivních problémů. „Organické vnímání sociálních systémů je základ schopnosti práce s nimi“ (Armstrong & Stephens, 2008).

Od HR manažerů se očekávají jasné, *přesné intervence*. Intervence podmiňuje chod událostí, je jí rozuměna smysluplná akce, jejímž smyslem je dosáhnout určitého cíle. V praxi například změna kvalifikačního složení útvarů, které mají vyrábět inovované produkty. HR manažeři musejí *projevit odvahu* k takové akci či zásahu, i když bude mít podobu bolestivého, avšak citlivého řezu. Je také nezbytné, aby projeвили zásadovost při vyhledávání a „otevírání“ problematických témat, která narušují podnikové klima, snižují výkonnost, brání lidem v jejich iniciativě či jinak negativně ovlivňují firemní výkonnost nebo narušují kulturu.

HR manažer by také měl být schopen nejen odhalit, popsat a vysvětlit *příčiny neuspokojených stavů*, ale také disponovat základními *diagnostickými materiály* (např. dotazníky, testy apod.) a zvládnout práci s nimi. „Manažer řízení lidských zdrojů musí mít odvahu vyjít z uzavřeného světa a koloběhu rutinní personalistiky, hledat cestu k jiným odbornostem. Učí se a vyhledává pohledy „zevně“ od kolegů, výkonných manažerů, od lidí ve firmě, poradenských firem i z jiných zdrojů a oborů,“ (Walker, 2012).

Vysoká odolnost a *frustrační tolerance* nezbytně náleží k osobní výbavě HR manažera. Často nadlimitní tlaky doslova ze všech stran (od manažerů, zaměstnanců, kolegů, ale i jiných partnerů v podnikání) jsou na téměř denním pořádku. Nikdy se nelze zavděčit všem a být ve



své práci naprosto dokonalý. Navíc v práci s lidskými zdroji se obvykle výsledky nedostávají okamžitě. A pokud si nikdo nestěžuje a ani nikdo nic nechce nebo o nic nestojí, je to nepřírozeně divné až podezřelé.

K profilu současného HR „antikrakena“ jako partnera v podnikání náleží také elán, vlastní dynamika, nadšení, hybnost, schopnost přenášet hnací sílu, *dávat impulsy*. To vše vytváří týmový duch, inspiruje ostatní, dává jim potřebný příklad a stává se nekonformním vzorem chování. Jde o aktivitu a angažovanost v tom nejlepším slova smyslu. Partnerský vztah je vždy založen na *důvěře*. Nejinak a snad ještě výrazněji právě v oblasti práce s lidskými zdroji, v HR managementu. Od HR manažera lze také oprávněně očekávat důvěru ve skrytý potenciál lidí. Optimismus pokud se jedná o lidskou nezdolnost, sílu a její směřování. „Leader a manažer využívá sílu učení nápodobou. Jde o příklad vzorem, založený na osobní autoritě a důvěře,“ (Covey, 2008).

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Poznámka

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Positively reviewed by first reviewer: April 7, 2017

Positively reviewed by second reviewer: April 9, 2017

Accepted by Editorial Board of the Conference HPD 2017: April 29, 2017



CURRENT TRENDS OF TRAINING OF MANAGERS IN THE SECURITY AREA

DAVID ZÁMEK, JANA FIRŠTOVÁ

Abstract

The area doc. of security corps is missing a complex systematic lifelong training, which provides complex competences for the leading employee's performance on the middle and higher managerial post. The complex managerial training shall create a knowledge basis of building the career in the area of leading and managing people. The paper deals with a new form of training of security corps, which is currently being constituted in the Czech Republic.

Key words: security, security force, manager, management, leadership, training.

Classification JEL: M12 – Personnel Management.

1. Introduction

The training in the area of internal security rises on the importance in the current modern dynamic democratic society. The provision of internal security perceived as a summary of certain internal security and legislative measures for keeping and providing state internal functions, for protection of state democratic bases, internal order, security and legality, for protection of life, health and assets values of citizens and society certainly belongs to priorities, which deserve to be drawn a permanent systematic attention (*Plincnerová, 2008*).

In order to ensure adequately the security of citizens, which significantly influences the life quality of an individual as well as the whole society overall, it is necessary to realize all activities conducted in the area of internal security on professional basis. The indispensable assumption for efficient quality realization of related activities at all levels (national, regional or local) is the provision of requested educational level of its actors.

The aim of paper is to devote a deeper attention to new a form of training of security corps, which is currently being constituted in the Czech Republic. Paper explains the basic positives in this field and put emphasis on the most important aspect and implementation characteristics of a searched training form.

2. Education and training

The education and training are not considered the same in particular pedagogical publications. The term education is described by some authors as a process of specialized socialization, which relates to all age categories of citizens since birth until education and training in senior age (*Vališová, Kasíková, 2011*). In this context we can talk about the process of lifelong learning, which is one of the essential assumptions of realization of key activities in the area of provision of internal security on professional basis. We can consider here a certain distinctive formative educational-training process including not only processes which shape the personality of individual but also training in the sense of “*inculcation and acquiring knowledge, facts, knowledge of relationships, contexts and patterns of phenomena as well as acquiring skills, abilities*”. In this relation the instrumental characteristic of training, which serves to human being as a tool for recognition and activity, to efficient handling a changes of surroundings a cultivation character making a personality that something knows and can from an individual (*Vališová, Kasíková, 2011*). We always have to reflect fully both these layers within educational-training process.

It is more than clear to professionals dealing with process of education and training that training is necessary to perceive as a continuous lifelong process realized from the early



childhood to senior age involving various forms and shapes of studies during the whole life of an individual. It is necessary to be aware that lifelong learning as a process of obtaining and subsequent development of knowledge, intellectual capabilities and practical skills is considered as a key factor determining quality of human resources on all levels of social life. Therefore, also in the area of provision of internal security it is highly crucial to work systematically on a strategy of development of human resources, where the training area is an indispensable part. Thus, the strategy must contain plans for further professional development, career and related wage promotion of employees (members of security corps), with a close relation to individual plans of development and training.

If we return to the essence of concept lifelong learning it is necessary to be aware that it has been realized since the childhood age on the primary (basic) level. The aim of primary training, how is defined by the Frame Training Programme for primary training, is to equip pupils with a set of key competences feasible for them, preparing them for further training and social application. The key competences such as learning competences, for solving problems, communication competences, social and personal competences, civil and work competences create the crucial basis for lifelong learning of pupil, his/her entrance to labour process.¹

In relation to the primary training and on the level complying with their abilities and training assumptions, during the secondary training pupils create key competences, which represent a set of knowledge, skills, capabilities, attitudes and values that are important for personal development of an individual and his/her active social inclusion and subsequent application in life selected based on the focus, training objectives of the particular training institution. We find different key competences at secondary schools, vocational schools and apprentice schools also stressing a set of professional competences with the respect to subsequent expected application of graduates. The objective of each training institution comprised in the system of (not only) secondary sphere of training is certainly to reach such a level of key and professional competences of graduates that enables them a subsequent development of abilities and skills in the process of lifelong learning.² Especially the frame training programme for secondary schools supposes the subsequent application of graduates within university or other types of tertiary training, concluding the formal training system of the Czech Republic on the highest degree.

3. Lifelong learning

If we start for classification of a term lifelong learning at the definition of OECD (Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development): *“Lifelong learning connects the individual and social development in all directions and means in formal training, i.e. in school institutions, facilities of vocational preparation, tertiary training, adults training, in informal environment – at home, in work, other social units etc.”* (Palán, online), it is absolutely clear to us that this process highly depends on the actual individual, his/her motivation. The motivation is one of the biggest problems of lifelong learning. It is the individual thing of each of us and also individually we perceive a need of training, we attribute a different value to the training and individually differently we are willing to invest to the training (time or own financial resources).

¹ Rámcový vzdělávací program pro základní vzdělávání (Frame training programme for primary education) available on: <http://www.msmt.cz/vzdelavani/skolstvi-v-cr/skolskareforma/ramcove-vzdelavaci-programy>

² Rámcový vzdělávací program pro gymnasia (Frame training programme for secondary schools). Available at: <http://www.msmt.cz/vzdelavani/skolstvi-v-cr/skolskareforma/ramcove-vzdelavaci-programy>, Rámcový vzdělávací program pro odborné školy (Frame training programme for vocational schools). Available at: <http://www.nuov.cz/ramcove-vzdelavaci-programy>



The motivation is a basic factor of success of any training. Langer (2016) talks in this relation about inner and outer motivation with a broad scale of motives influencing of an adult individual:

- *Compensation* of previously missing training and learning;
- *Need to gain new or develop current knowledge, skills or attitudes*, which lead to satisfaction of needs in professional, family or personal area;
- *Need to fulfil expectations of authority*, employer, friends or family;
- *Social needs* such as gaining new friends, social contacts, which fulfill the need for recognition, belonging and love;
- *Escape from boredom or solitude feeling*;
- *Need to learn just for joy and pleasure of recognizing*.

To motivate staff to the process of lifelong learning is in many cases a very difficult and demanding part of the human resources work of each organization. In this respect, intensive communication between management and employees is necessary; one of the tools that can be used in this respect is also the assessment of employees within which it is possible to set the need for further training and professional development of a particular employee with the setting of regular evaluation. However, it is important to avoid cases where a worker understands further training as the so-called necessary evil, an obligation imposed on him by his employer. We must strive to achieve a state where the need for further training becomes a value, a priority and gradually an integral part of the individual, an obvious part of his/her not only professional but also personal life.

4. Lifelong training in security corps

There is a lack of complex, systematic, lifelong managerial training in the area of security corps, which provides complex competences for executive management at middle and senior management positions. Complex managerial training is intended to form the knowledge basis of career development in leadership and management of people. A sophisticated lifelong learning system for members of security corps will definitely contribute to the professionalism and consolidation of the role that society deserves and requires.

The vision of management of each bigger organization is to have well-equipped, properly prepared and highly motivated employees to meet their goals. This is certainly the case for security corps, which must necessarily have an advanced system of human resource planning and management, with an integral part of the lifelong learning system. Lifelong learning, if it is effective, can provide the necessary professional readiness (Pálková, 2017).

The valid wording of Act No. 361/2003 Coll., On the employment relationship of members of the security corps in § 13 only stipulates that the candidate must fulfill the degree of education provided for the service place to which he is to be appointed. On the other hand, the law also stipulates that the service is characterized not only by the required level of education but also by the field of education. Therefore, the whole thing needs to be explained.

The definition of service place is contained in § 19 (1) of the Employment Service Act³. The service place expresses the organizational and legal status of a member of the security corps. It is characterized, in particular, by the established service rank, the level of education, the field or the focus of education, another professional requirement, the basic tariff, the scope of the service activity, the extent of the authorization and obligations of the member. The purpose of law enforcement in this context is the indisputable fact that members of security corps should be trained for the needs of a particular security corps and service placement.

³ Compare: Tomek, P. (2012) Zákon o služebním poměru příslušníků bezpečnostních sborů s komentářem k 1.7.2012 (Act on Service relationship of members of security corps with commentary to 1.7.2012). 2., updated issue Olomouc: ANAG, p. 81.



The current adaptation of the required education for the performance of service posts at each grade is, in our opinion, considerably unbalanced. University education acquired in a bachelor's degree programme is set only for one service rank (higher commissioner), whereas the university degree obtained in the master's degree programme is set for three service ranks (councilor, supreme councilor and supreme state councilor). This does not meet the needs of the security corps, which have undergone a large change of generations and simultaneously a considerable loss of longer serving members after the entry into force of the new law on service and following the uncertainty caused by unprecedented political pressures on the leadership of some security corps. It would therefore be suitable in the future to set for the rank councilor (9th tariff class) only a bachelor's degree and to reduce the level of educational degree required for a commissioner's rank. The current requirement of higher professional education (alternative bachelor education cannot be regarded as obligatory) lacks rationality. A member trying to advance the career ladder apparently may not be studying a higher vocational school just to meet the requirement of the only single service rank.

In order to be appointed to a post, and thus also to the career advancement of a member for higher service rank, the minimum duration of the service is determined. It means that only a member of the staff whose service relationship lasts for the period prescribed by the Act on Service is eligible for entry into the competition for the appointment of a post for which a higher grade is established. This legislation is intended to prevent an unjustified fast-tracking of an inexperienced member to high service ranks, which in the past led to significant problems.

Act No. 361/2003 Coll., On the employment relationship of members of the security corps in § 19, paragraph 2, provides: „Unless this Act provides otherwise, a member of the service post for which he is appointed shall meet, in addition to the level of education, the demand of branch or focus of education if they are established for a post.“ Determining the subject or focusing education on a systemized service place is within the competence of the security corps.

The service posts also vary from a different field of study or focus of education. However, this does not have to be set for all service posts in the systemization of posts. Definitions of the terms of education and the orientation of education are enshrined in the provisions of Section 19, paragraphs 3 and 4 of the Act on Service relationship. The field of education is understood to mean a complete part of the education attaining the level of education and providing the professional qualification or the study branch which is part of the study programme of a university. The focus of education is understood to mean education attained in a vocational course designed to supply the professional knowledge and skills necessary for the performance of service activities or in lifelong learning programs oriented to the performance of the service. Failure to comply with this requirement has the same consequences as non-compliance with the specified level of education, it means, a member of staff may not exercise that post.

The legislation thus selected reflects the fact that, as a general rule, the profession of a security corps is, as such, very broad and involves so many different activities that it cannot be linked to one single area of education, for example, unlike purely legal professions, but there can be bind to individual service posts. Each service post is possible and also desirable according to its inclusion in a particular service or in a specific organizational article depending on the field, or the fields of education, or the focus of education. However, security corps do not work systematically with this option and do not designate a field or focus in majority, with the exception of a small number of posts where the field or focus of education is specifically designated for the purpose of a selection procedure (so-called ‚side entry‘).

In the moment, it seems that the original intention of gradually expanding the range of service posts that would have been necessary to meet the requirements of the field or the focus of education completely failed. It is not a great deal of interest from the job functionaries to determine the requirement of the field or the focus of education in the systemization of service posts, as the maneuvering space for filling posts would be restricted by those who do not meet



the particular requirement. The era of graduates of ‘gardening schools’ or a variety of other educations continues, including in the management of security corps, and there has not been any progress in increasing the expertise of members of the exposed service posts. It can be concluded that providing the increase in the expertise of the members is not one of the priorities of the management of some security corps.

For the performance of some service posts, it is necessary in systemization of service posts to provide for the additional professional requirement anchored down in Section 19 par. 5 of the Service Act. This means the requirement for a narrower definition of professional competence for a post. These include, for example, the requirement of foreign language knowledge, the passing of a management course, the completion of specialized courses aimed at specialized activities (interventions) conducted by individual departments of security corps. Also, in providing close specialization to members, some corps has large reserves. The consequences of this state on the safety and property of citizens are not hard to imagine.

5. Current possibilities of further – managerial training of members of security corps in Czech Republic

In most areas of life, lifelong learning is necessary, including training of security corps members. Increasing competition, more demanding requirements for service officials, but especially citizens of the Czech Republic requiring the professionalization of members of security corps, and higher standards of security, but also more general pressure of today’s time, force permanent work and personal development, skills upgrading and deepening of knowledge. In recent years, it has been attracting especially professional online MBA, MPA and LLM studies. It meets the requirements not only in terms of the quality and content of the study, but also draws on the comfort and flexibility offered.

Current time thanks to modern technology provides considerable freedom and flexibility in training. The online form of study is increasingly being promoted, which makes teaching accessible to those who are very time consuming. This is precisely the case of MBA, MPA and LLM studies that provide valuable information needed for management and prepare students for leadership positions. Graduates are fully prepared for managerial practice, gaining good orientation and needed insight into the given discipline.

The MBA, MPA or LLM title is awarded in the Czech Republic as a non-academic professional title, written after the name. It is not, therefore, a substitute for bachelor, master or doctoral degrees, but the lifelong career training, which complements and extends this higher education.

It is the ideal professional training of all leading workers, whether aspiring to managerial positions or people who already act as managers. In some (especially international) companies, even the MBA is a prerequisite for career promotion and higher managerial positions. This training will also be appreciated by independent entrepreneurs or civil servants. Increasing competition, more demanding employers’ demands, and the more general pressure of current time are pushing for continuous work and personal development, skills upgrading and deepening of knowledge. In recent years, it has been attracting mainly professional online MBA or LLM study. It meets the requirements not only in terms of the quality and content of the study, but also draws on the comfort and flexibility offered.

Career promotion, attractive job offers, higher financial rewards, new personal and business contacts, deepening of knowledge or overall competitive advantage in the labour market. These are the main contributions and main reasons why MBA or LLM attract more new applicants each year. The CEMI⁴ survey, which dealt with the impact of studies in postgraduate career, showed that 92% of people in the hierarchy moved one or more positions

⁴ Compare: <http://www.cemi.cz/prinosy-mba-studia>



higher or gained a better job offer. 36% improved straight after graduation, most (90%) succeeded in one year. It is also not uncommon for graduates to engage in their own business. It concerns up to a third of them.

Investing in MBA education is undoubtedly a way that opens new possibilities. However, it depends largely on the quality of the given study provider. So at the selection be very careful and thoroughly review the information. Not only from the financial point of view, because the study is not the cheapest but also the quality and the above-mentioned study benefits.

An experienced and professional lecture team, which should provide not only theoretical knowledge, but above all share practical experience (*Firstová, 2017*), plays a crucial role. Students should be available for individual consultations, support them in their studies, and help them develop their own activities. At this point, we would like to point out one of the examples that we consider to be the right direction in the context of improving the educational-training process in the conditions of Czech training, including training in the field of security. Recently, the Government approved a draft amendment to Act No. 563/2004 Coll., On pedagogical staff, which comes with the so-called new career path for teachers – through the development of teachers' professional competences. The career system for teachers is based on a three-stage standard building on the professional competences of the teacher and their graduation towards the increasing quality of the teacher's work. Beginning teacher are provided within the so-called adaptation period with multi-source support for the development of all professional competences. Within the framework of the attestation procedure for achieving the second and third career grades, the area of developing his/her professional knowledge and skills (lifelong learning) will also be considered, which will include, among other things, the portfolio of the teacher, which should include documents providing an overview of the competencies achieved and the quality of performance of the teaching profession. Also, according to the draft amendment to the new specialized activities – the mentor of professional development and the school's own evaluation coordinator – it will certainly contribute in its effect to improve the quality and development of further training of pedagogical staff.

We believe that it is indispensable to implement a similar model in the field of security training, even though lecturers in basic professional preparation at security services are not seen as pedagogical practitioners according to the law. If we want to ensure the quality of the training process leading to such an important area as ensuring the internal security of the state, we must respond flexibly to the changing conditions and motivate the members, the employees holding the position of teachers, lecturers, mentors ... to their further professional development and training.

6. Conclusion

The Institute for Public Administration Prague has the ambition to take and on the professional level to launch the managerial training for territorial self-government units' officials, state officials and members of security corps. Currently a study plan has been arranged, reflecting both professional and practical requirements for this type of professional training. This model has the ambition to contribute to the start of professional discussion over the possibility of further, especially managerial, training of members of security corps and can also make a major contribution to solving the issue of complex managerial training. And not only in terms of managerial training of members of security corps.

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Positively reviewed by first reviewer: May 9, 2017
Positively reviewed by second reviewer: May 9, 2017
Accepted by Editorial Board of the Conference HPD 2017: May 17, 2017



REVIEW OF MODEL APPROACHES OF CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY

MARCIN ŻEMIGAŁA

Abstract

The author presents the evolution of model approaches of corporate social responsibility. In the introduction, he motivates the choice of the topic of the study with two arguments. First – an increasing interest in CSR as a scientific concept (supported by a bibliometric analysis). Second – an increasing interest in CSR as a business concept (supported by a catalog of different tools for implementing CSR in enterprises). Afterward, he presents the evolution of model approaches of corporate social responsibility: from the early models (simple, primitive, pointing to the specific boundaries) to the contemporary models (more elaborate, complex and comprehensively representing the essence of CSR).

Key words: corporate social responsibility, CSR, model approaches.

Classification JEL: M14 – Social Responsibility.

1. Introduction

Corporate social responsibility is a popular concept today, both in the field of scientific research and practical application in enterprises. The number of scientific studies carried out in this area shows an upward trend with no indication of its collapse or even its inhibition (see Figure 1). After performing a preliminary exploration of the Scopus database (one of the representative bibliographic databases for management science, next to the Web of Science) and writing a „corporate social responsibility” phrase in the search field “Article Title, Abstract, Keywords”, 7 377 scientific articles were found.

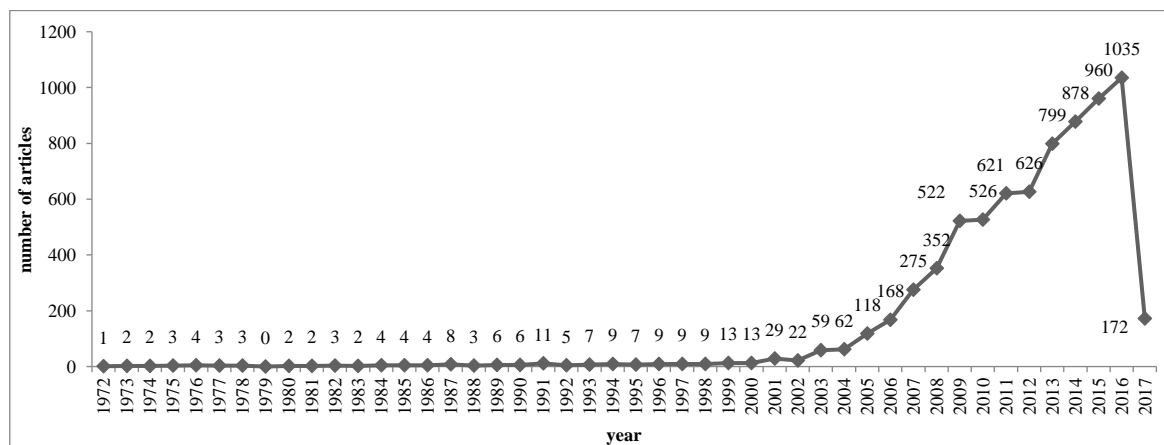


Figure 1. Number of scientific articles on corporate social responsibility (based on Scopus database, access date: March 20, 2017)

The first article in the database was recorded in 1972 (this was the only article that year). By the turn of the century, only single articles were added per year, with the exception of 1991 when the number of them reached 11. The evident increase in the number of articles began to be noticeable since 1999 when a tendency of at least a dozen or so articles per year did not falter. Another important period pointing out to the increased interest in corporate social responsibility as a research field is 2005 when hundreds of articles began to appear each year, and this upward trend began to pick up its momentum. The initial crawl growth, reflected in the small number of articles in individual years, has grown into a significant increase



since 2005. Until 2000, the highest absolute year-on-year growth was 5 (1991) followed by 4 in 1987 and 1999. In addition, zero-growth years were noted during this period (1974, 1978, 1981, 1985, 1986, 1990) and even the negative ones (1977, 1979, 1983, 1988, 1992, 1995), which ranged from -1 to even -6 (the largest negative increase was recorded in 2002 and ranged -7 articles comparing to the previous year). Between the years 2001 and 2006, continuous growth was recorded at the level of a dozen or even several dozens of articles year by year, the highest in 2005 and 2006 (50 and 56 respectively). Since 2007, the absolute increase of over 100 has already been recorded. The highest ones were in 2009 and 2013 (170 and 173 respectively). In the current century there were virtually no negative growth observed, except in the aforementioned 2002. The number of articles since 2001, together with the absolute growth (expressed as a difference in the number of articles in a given year to the previous year) and the relative growth (expressed as a percentage where 100% is considered the value of the previous year) are presented in Table 1. The small numbers and negative value of the growth in the last year, 2017, needs to be addressed. In the bibliometric databases, the data about the last years flows in long after the year ends. The data was collected in March 2017, so in the first quarter, they are incomplete; similarly – the data from 2016, which is still likely to increase, already confirms the growing tendency in the set.

Table 1. Number of research articles on corporate social responsibility along with year-on-year growth between 2001–2017 (based on Scopus data, access data: 20. 03. 2017)

No	Year	Number of articles in a given year	Absolute growth in the number of articles	Relative growth in the number of articles
1	2001	29	16	123.08%
2	2002	22	-7	-24.14%
3	2003	59	37	168.18%
4	2004	62	3	5.08%
5	2005	118	56	90.32%
6	2006	168	50	42.37%
7	2007	275	107	63.69%
8	2008	352	77	28.00%
9	2009	522	170	48.30%
10	2010	526	4	0.77%
11	2011	621	95	18.06%
12	2012	626	5	0.81%
13	2013	799	173	27.64%
14	2014	878	79	9.89%
15	2015	960	82	9.34%
16	2016	1035	75	7.81%
17	2017	172	-863	-83.38%

To confirm the popularity of corporate social responsibility concept in the context of its practical application in enterprises it is worth emphasizing a large number of tools that are currently available. These are both the norms as well various programs or initiatives in which companies can participate, can implement and even certify. As far as the norms are concerned, the following can be applied by the companies in each sector of the economy:

- SA 8000 (Social Accountability 8000) – standard for the working conditions.



- Group of AA 1000 norms (Accountability 1000) – three standards for the core principles of social responsibility, verification of their implementation, and model engagement of stakeholders.
 - ISO 26000 – guidelines for social responsibility for all types of organizations, not standard for management system and not designed for certification.
 - DS 49001 (Dansk Standard) – social responsibility management system, requirements for certification.
 - ONR 192500 (Quality Austria) – analogous norm to DS 49001, social responsibility management system with certification capability.
 - SR 10 (IQNet) – analogous to DS 49011 and ONR 192500 Spanish standard.
 - Group of norms ISO 14000 – environmental management norms; the most important of the group is the ISO 14001 standard – environmental management systems, requirements and guidelines for use.
 - G4 – Sustainability Reporting Guidelines developed by the Global Reporting Initiative.
- Additionally, standardized tools can also be found but designed for companies operating in specific sectors of the economy, such as:

- Fairtrade Standards for the agricultural sector, mainly regarding the working conditions in developing countries and the rules of sustainable development.
- Global GAP Standards – Good Agricultural Practice for the agricultural sector, concerned mainly with sustainable agricultural production, chemicals in plant and animal husbandry as well as working conditions in the sector and animal conditions in livestock and transport.
- The FCS Standards – Forest Stewardship Council norms for the forest sector; it is about taking into account the principles of sustainable forest management including harvesting, processing and trading, as well as working conditions in the sector and local community issues.
- The Marine Stewardship Council (MSC) Standards, similar to the FSC, but regarding the maritime sector; it is about marine and fishing management taking into account the principles of sustainable development.

On the other hand, tools from the second group, i.e. programs and initiatives of wider application for enterprises from different sectors of the economy, include:

- Global Compact – a set of 10 rules on environmental protection, labor standards, human rights and anti-corruption.
- OECD Guidelines for Multinational Enterprises – a set of rules focused on social progress and the development of local social capital.
- Fair Labor Association – a code of conduct in the workplace based primarily on the regulations of the International Labor Organization.

Programs and initiatives of a sectoral character include but are not limited to:

- Responsible Care – for the companies in the chemical industry that focus on the environmental and human health protection and the safety of the industrial processes.
- Assessment Protocol of the International Hydropower Association – for the hydropower sector and specific conditions related to sustainable development.
- Business Social Compliance Initiative – for the retail and marketing companies, focusing on social interactions in the global supply chain.
- Electronic Industry Citizenship Coalition – for the sector of the electronics industry, focusing on the issues of health and safety, the environment and ethics.

Taking into account the keen interest in the concept of corporate social responsibility on scientific and practical grounds, it is not surprising that there is a large number of different model attempts to approach it.



2. Early models of corporate social responsibility – before the year 2000

The initial model conceptualizations (before 1980) were very primitive such as suggested by R. Eells continuum of social responsibility, which was a single axis with minimum poles marked on it (where the author placed the companies which in their actions accommodate the needs and expectations of the shareholders) and the maximum (companies that take into account the needs and expectations of a broader set of stakeholders) (Eells, 1960, pp. 334–340; Eells, 1959, pp. 33–41). There were more similar bipolar straightforward approaches, such as that proposed by Schlusberg, which opposed companies unilaterally focused on maximizing profits and companies socially integrated, that is, considering different rights and reasons (Schlusberg, 1969, pp. 65–76). Evolutionarily, the following models were more elaborate, such as that proposed by Walton but using the axis of Eells, also based on one axis but indicating several successive concentration thresholds: simple (shareholders), family (employees), sellers (customers), investment (contractors), civic (society) and artistic (broader creative context) (Walton, 1967, pp. 127–141).

The next step in the development of model conceptualizations of corporate social responsibility is the introduction of models consisting of different levels, layers or spheres (and not as earlier points or thresholds). Such was the approach of Mears and Smiths in their four relationship model: organization with society, organization with employees, organization with customers and employees with the organization (Mears & Smiths, 1977, pp. 1–5). However, the best-known model from this early development period is Carroll's pyramid, consisting of four spheres of responsibility: economic, legal, ethical and philanthropic (Carroll, 1979, pp. 497–505). The breakthrough in this approach was the strong rooting of corporate social responsibility in the economic sciences and in the principles of the free market, including the principle of maximizing profit. The Carroll's pyramid model has also become the basis for the development of many more contemporary model conceptualizations (as described later in the text).

In the nineties, research based on Carroll's model was carried out, and a strategic approach formed on the stakeholder theory began to emerge (Freeman, 1984, pp. 38–51), such as the Fahey-Wokutch analytical model, which identifies the five subsystems (as in the earlier organisation model as a system of Kast and Rosenzweig (Kast & Rosenzweig, 1972, pp. 447–465) and in each of them relevant stakeholders and relevant relations (Fahey & Wokutch, 1983, pp. 128–142):

- Political system (main components: executive, legislative and political parties; main functions: formulating government and law policies).
- Economic system (main components: manufacturing and service companies, suppliers of raw materials, trade unions and consumer groups; main functions: production, distribution, and supporting of sales of goods and services).
- Legal system (main components: independent committees, regulators, and administrations, courts; main functions: implementation of government policies and legislation, sometimes initiation of change or creating regulations).
- Social system (main components: communities, social interest groups; main functions: representation of the interests of these groups).
- Central business system (main components: subsystems of the economic system, production or service business units; main functions: production of goods and services).

The voice in the discussion was also taken by such authorities as Mintzberg and Drucker. The first one had formulated a horseshoe model that referred to corporate social responsibility and corporate control (Figure 2). Mintzberg was inclined to trust, to exert some pressure and democratization, and if justified, operations can be made to regulate, induce or sometimes even nationalize. He was critical of the attempts to ignore.

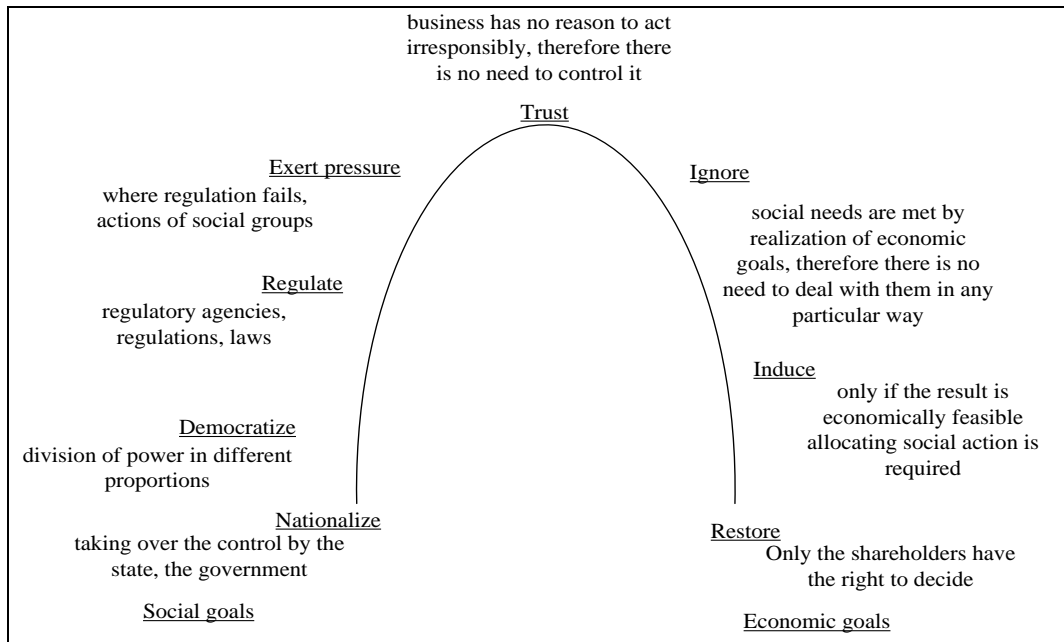


Figure 2. Mintzberg's horseshoe model (source: Mintzberg, 1986, pp. 47–64; Žemigala, 2013, p. 27)

Drucker, however, was of the opinion that corporate social responsibility would increase profits by reducing future social costs and that it would have to be approached as a transformation of social problems into business opportunities (Drucker, 1984a, pp. 17–28; Drucker, 1984b, pp. 53–63; Klimczuk-Kochańska, 2016, pp. 68–79). A similar attitude was held by the aforementioned Freeman and co-authors (Harrison, Freeman & Harrison, 1999, pp. 479–485).

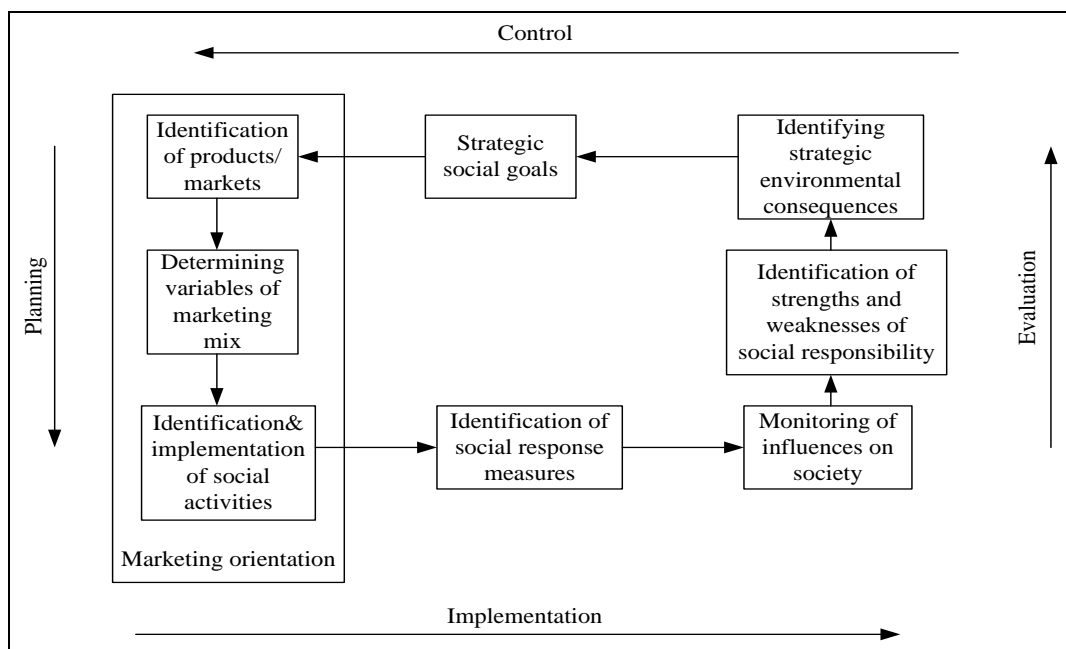


Figure 3. Model of MARM (source: Murray & Montanari, 1986, no. 4, p. 822; Žemigala, 2013, p. 27)

As a consequence of the deepening of the business – society relationship with the requirements of the free market, a marketing approach has emerged approaching the corporate social responsibility from a marketing mix perspective and including it in the cycle of planning,



implementation, evaluation and control (Murray & Montanari, 1986, p. 827). This model conceptualization was called with an abbreviation of MARM – Marketing Approach to Responsive Management (Figure 3).

Carroll's pyramid was also revised, the role of philanthropic responsibility got weakened, and economics and ethics became even more closely connected (Pinkston & Carroll, 1996, pp. 199–206). L'Etang model became a reflection of the revised Carroll's model, and where there are mentioned: direct responsibility (direct influence and full control of the company), indirect responsibility (indirect influence and incomplete control) and philanthropy (like Carroll's first pyramid), (L'Etang, 1995, pp. 125–132).

3. Contemporary models of corporate social responsibility – after the 2000

The beginning of the 21st century resulted in another revision of Carroll's model conceptualization. It was decided not to create a separate sphere of philanthropic responsibility and the factors attributed to it were included into the economic and ethical sphere (Schwartz & Carroll, 2003, pp. 503–530), (Figure 4).

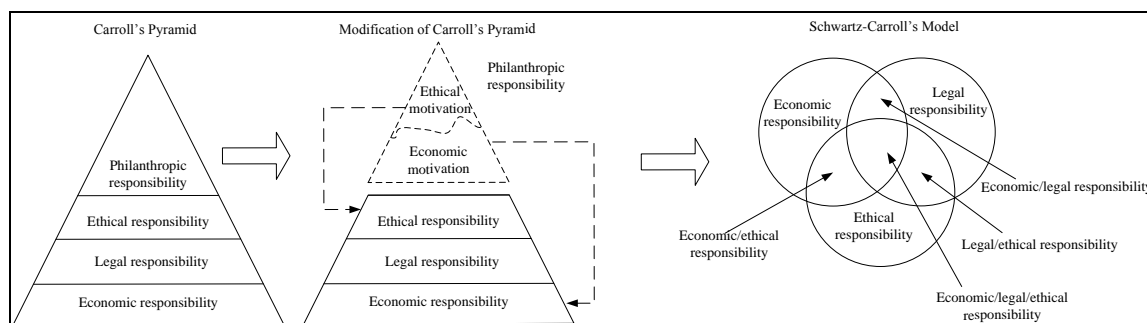


Figure 4. Revision of Carroll's pyramid (source: Carroll, 1991, pp. 39–48; Pinkston & Carroll, 1996, pp. 199–206; Schwartz & Carroll, 2003, pp. 503–530; Żemigala, 2016, p. 231)

The philanthropy issues within the perspective of corporate social responsibility were also approached by Benabou and Torile, who proposed three visions of corporate social responsibility (Benabou & Torile, 2010, pp. 1–19):

- Based on the win-win model, the classic reconciliation of business needs related to maximizing profit and good corporate citizenship.
- Based on the perception of the firm as a channel to express the values of citizens (they call it delegated philanthropy), which involves sacrificing a part of the profits to meet the needs of stakeholders.
- Insider-initiated corporate philanthropy – is based on the corporate managers' sacrificing profits for the philanthropic purposes but those directly related to them, such as public benefit organizations where they are a part of a board or causes they themselves support. Profit is then typically not maximized.

Inspired by Carroll's work, other models were also created. For example, Hemingway and Maclagan's two-axis cross-shaped model, where on the vertical axis the motives for undertaking corporate social responsibility were placed (commercial and strategic or altruistic and idealistic), whereas the horizontal axis shows their placement (corporate or individual) (Hemingway & Maclagan, 2004, pp. 33–44). The problematic aspects of the motives and their roots in the corporate social responsibility activities within organization were also approached by Matten and Moon who divided CSR into implicit and explicit perspectives (Table 2). In a similar fashion, Jamali tackled the issue by pointing out the mandatory responsibility (where there are three areas of Carroll's model – economic, legal and ethical) and voluntary (where



elements from the Hemingway and Maclagan approaches are involved – strategic and altruistic responsibility) (Jamali, 2007, pp. 1–27). Comparable to the Hemingway and Maclagan’s models (also the intersection of the two dimensions) were the concepts formulated by Quazi and O’Brien. The horizontal axis represents the spectrum from a narrow view of social responsibility (profit maximization, market play rules, shorter time horizon, a classic definition of enterprise as a provider of goods and services) to a broader one (organization is responsible for meeting the social needs, environment protection issues, resource-saving). The vertical axis, on the other hand, represents the stretch of costs of CSR activities and their benefits (Quazi & O’Brien, 2000, pp. 33–35; Rugimbana, Quazi & Keating, 2008, pp. 61–74). Hemingway and Maclagan’s model, as well as Quazi and O’Brien’s, are presented in Figure 5.

Table 2. *Matten-Moon model (own study: Matten & Moon, 2008, p. 404–442; Żemigala, 2013, p. 35)*

Explicit CSR	Implicit CSR
Actions taken as a result of accepting corporate responsibility for the interests of society	Actions taken as a result of accepting by the corporation its role in social institutions (formal or informal), acting for the benefit of social interest and social concern
Voluntary policies, programs and strategies	Values, norms, and principles resulting in the emergence of certain requirements for corporations; these requirements are often codified and valid
Motives for the actions are the expectations of the stakeholders of the organization and the opportunities they offer	Motive for the actions is to achieve a social consensus on the basis of legitimate expectations (in terms of the role played and contribution) of all relevant social groups
Element of individual corporate actions	Element of actions of institutionalized corporate networks
Roots in liberal economics	Roots in market regulation
Discretionary activities	Compulsory actions

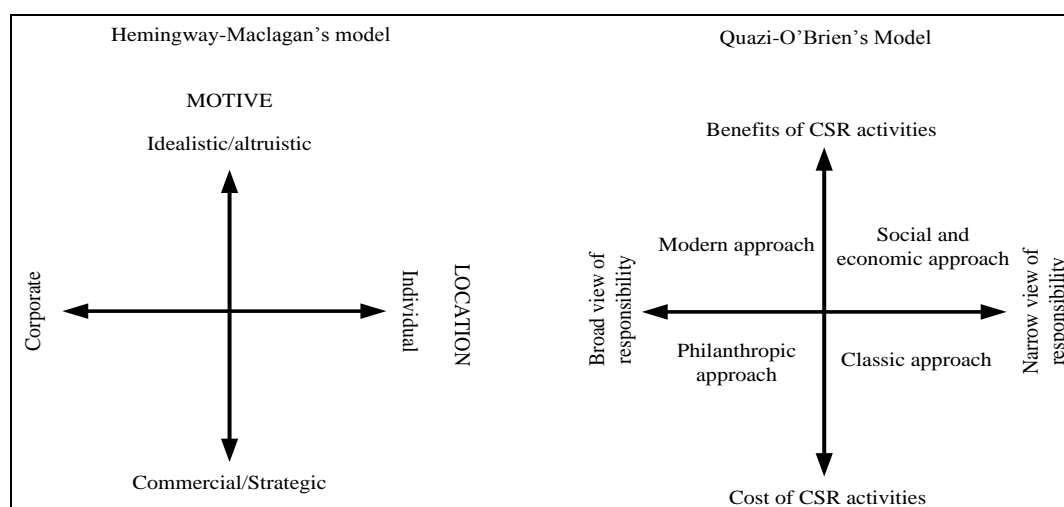


Figure 5. *Hemingway-Maclagan’s, and Quazi-O’Brien’s models (source: Hemingway & Maclagan, 2004, pp. 33–44; Rugimbana, Quazi & Keating, 2008, pp. 61–74; Żemigala, 2013, p. 36, 38)*



Holistic models began to appear, such as that proposed by Ketola (Figure 6), consisting of three dimensions (economic, ecological and social) and, according to their combination, proposing eight types of socially responsible organizations (Ketola, 2008, pp. 419–435; Ketola, 2006, pp. 98–107):

1. Suicidal, that is when all three dimensions of responsibility are basically omitted. Typically, such organizations quickly collapse, are closed, but in their place appear new ones.
2. Ideal, that is when all dimensions are treated with maximum attention. The author of the model emphasizes that it is difficult to find such organizations on the market, this is only a model ideal type.
3. Plutocratic, that is, when the economic dimension is treated with great care and the others are minimally paid attention to. Many modern companies implement this type of responsibility.
4. Anthropocentric, that is where social responsibility is high. Ketola indicates that some types of NGOs and social enterprises can be included in this category.
5. Biocentric, where ecological responsibility is high. This may include NGOs that deal with environmental issues or some environmental technology organizations.
6. Patriarchal, which concentrates on economic and social responsibility. According to the author of the model, many contemporary enterprises belong to this type.
7. Technocratic, which maximizes activities within the framework of economic and ecological responsibility. Ketola emphasizes that in the past some of the Scandinavian (i.e. Finnish) companies have operated this way.
8. Matriarchal, i.e. focused on the social and ecological dimension, similarly to some of the NGOs.

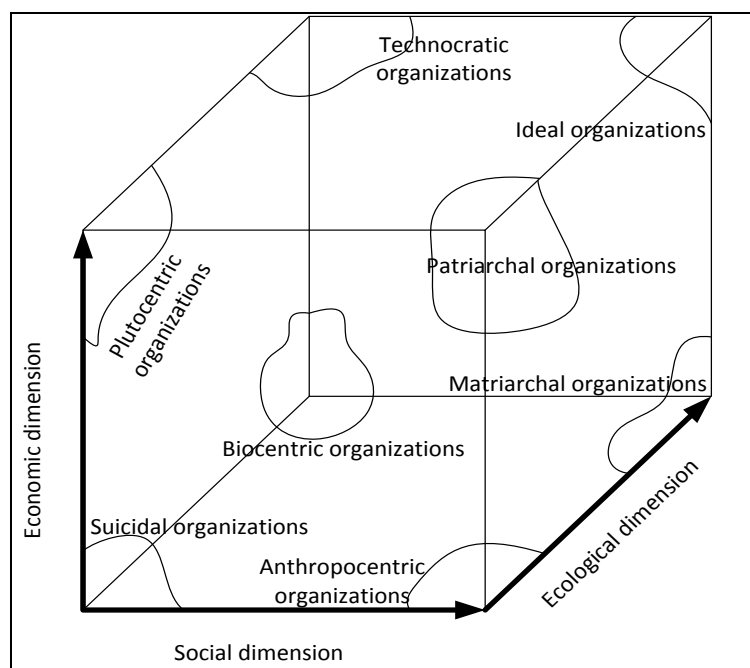


Figure 5. Ketola Model (source: Ketola, 2006, pp. 98–107; Žemigala, 2013, p. 43)

4. Conclusion

This short and non-comprehensive overview of the model conceptualizations of corporate social responsibility (broader review in: (Žemigala, 2013, pp. 20–48) shows the evolution of the concept itself. At first, the models were very simple, even primitive. Over time and with



increasing interest, the research was becoming more complex, previous approaches were verified, and – if deemed necessary by empirical research – modified. More dimensions or variables were taken into account, and corporate social responsibility was analyzed from different perspectives. As stated in the introduction, there is no reason to believe that the popularity and activity of researchers will begin to weaken in the near future. Rather, one may say that the growing trend in scientific research on corporate social responsibility will continue and new model approaches will continue to emerge on the basis of those already existing; therefore, they will be richer, more accurate, more detailed.

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Positively reviewed by first reviewer: April 21, 2017
Positively reviewed by second reviewer: May 10, 2017
Accepted by Editorial Board of the Conference HPD 2017: May 12, 2017



BUILDING REPUTATION IN HIGHER EDUCATION

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Abstract

The importance of reputation and reputation management in business or showbusiness sphere is indisputable. The reputation is also important in other areas, such as education for example. Universities acquire and increase their reputation depending on the students and the pedagogic staff, but also on the activities which are carried by them and by the university itself. The power of the universities reputation influences the motivation of potential students while selecting their future. Motivation to study on the particular university of these prospective students may be increased also by the absolvent. This paper highlights the importance of the reputation of university itself and its activities but also its graduates, which influence the potential students' motivation. The methodological part of the paper contains a survey conducted by the Net Promoter Score method with graduates and current students at the Faculty of Management and Informatics at University of Žilina, but also in the form of interviews with potential students on Roadshow. The sample is made up of 30 Slovak students of secondary schools and 84 students and 23 graduates of the Faculty of Management and Informatics. In the application part of the paper, recommendations are proposed through which the college or the university can influence (increase) its current reputation, which is supposed to increase the motivation of secondary school students to study at the college/university, in new conditions, with new good name and prestige.

Key words: reputation, motivation, students, education, university.

Classification JEL: M12 – Personnel Management; M30 – General.

1. Introduction

At present, reputation is very important and recognized not only in the business sphere, but its importance has already been convinced by the public in other sectors as well. Reputation is currently highly respected by teaching staff in higher educational systems and represents the concept of creating a positive image of an educational institution. Such a concept brings to the institution not only a positive image of itself from the perspective of the public, but reputation also helps it to gain some prestige, positive references, and basically create something like a brand. Barnett and Pollock state about the reputation following: Reputation is a prediction of future behaviors that is based on an assessment of how past behaviors meet the role expectations that follow occupying a particular social status (2012).

The basement for gaining prestige through reputation and reputation management is to know concrete target audience, what is it asking, what motivates and enchants them, what will bring the greatest benefit and the feeling of meeting demands to the fullest. Reputation and reputation management are often used in the business sphere, so companies often organize various surveys and surveys in collaboration with their customers so they can meet customers' needs and requirements through their products, and in this way increase their reputation, while building a strong brand.

But what about educational institutions? Universities and the academic community often reject marketing and marketing activities, as most universities are still 'living' from their goodwill, built in ancient times, and they think it will be in this way forever. They are wrong! Good name, resp. the reputation that some universities have is based on referrals and by a word-of-mouth advertising from older years. This type of marketing remains critical to alarming, because if universities rely on it permanently, nowadays, when the Z generation comes to the scene, they would be defeated in the deliberate struggle by the private colleges which invest money in marketing activities.

Another striking fact is that many people, as well as members of the academic community, confuse reputation with branding and marketing, while these are different concepts. Due the



American Marketing Association, marketing is an activity, or a set of institutions and processes for creating, communicating, delivering and changing offers that have value for customers, clients, partners, and the general public (2013). In the case of branding, Kotler and Keller point out that branding equips the product or service with a brand strength. Its essence is to create differences between products. It includes the creation of mental structures and helps consumers to sort out their knowledge of products and services to facilitate their decision-making (2007).

In reputation, not only companies but also educational institutions ‘walk through thin ice’ if they neglect their reputation. Several authors claim that reputation is an intangible asset, and if companies do not care enough about reputations, they can very easily lose the positive one or turn it into a negative one (e.g. Helm, Liehr-Gobbers & Storck, 2011; Chun et al., 2003). The importance of reputation is that good reputation is essentially a metaphor of inner quality and is perceived as a result of cumulative activity (Roberts, 2009).

As mentioned above, in order to be able to take good care of the reputation and develop it, an audience analysis is needed. It is therefore necessary to analyze the requirements of potential and current students, as well as the graduates, which are on their part towards the educational institution. *In this paper*, a survey is described that explores the reputation of an educational institution as well as interviews with potential students who have expressed their demands for a university.

2. Trust and reputation

When talking about reputation, trust is also worth mentioning. It belongs to reputation inherently. If the public did not trust the educational institution, its philosophy, and how it communicates externally, the public could hardly build up any positive associations with this educational institution. It follows that, without trust, there would be no positive reputation.

Trust is an important pillar of business activities, but it is also necessary and indispensable for operations and activities of an educational institution (Daignault et al., 2002). Trust represents a certain belief in fulfilling the promises the public has to the organization or the educational institution. Trust also represents the degree of openness of the educational institution to the public in the field of human relations. Trust also means certain degree of confidence provided and presented by the educational institution based on its operations, activities and the development of circumstances, and so on, which have a positive impact not only on the stakeholders but also on the general public (Bruhn, 2001; Chang et al., 2006).

Trust is a prerequisite for building reputation. As Shore says, trust is a strong belief that it is possible to rely on somebody or on a group of people (2005). Of course, there is a difference between reputation and trust. According to the author, the difference between trust and reputation can be expressed in two sentences (Jøsang et al., 2005):

- I believe you on the basis of your good reputation.
- I still believe you, even you have a bad reputation.

Reputation represents how an organization or an educational institution is perceived publicly and perceived by stakeholders. The educational institution is mainly about people who create the reputation of their institutions by their access to students, research, but also for various other activities. This importance of people highlights also Alsop, who states that in questions of reputation is essential to connect with people, who’s natural component is visibly exhibited in high quality in positive sense in case, if one values his or her own well-earned good reputation.

Otherwise, it is better to go on one’s own way alone than being surrounded by a bad company (Alsop, 2004). Whether we are talking about businesses or educational institutions, they all have some reputation whether they know and care about it or not. As stated earlier, reputation is an intangible asset, so companies and educational institutions should devote special attention to this area (Marsden, 2013). The educational institution cannot neglect its



reputation and leave it to chance. It is their greatest responsibility, in order to get elite students. Overall, reputation represents the overall quality or character as seen and judged by other subjects, celebrity fame, the recognition of certain abilities, or characteristics by other people (*Pollak, 2015*).

Reputation is, in essence, an indicator that identifies some past experience of third parties (stakeholders) in relation to a potential partner (business, communications, etc.) or to a participant in any other direct relationship with the institution (*Einwiller, 2001*). The need for finding information and views on the educational institution from potential students is also emerged. From a different point of view, it is also necessary to find out the views on the institution and perception of the reputation of institution also from graduates. The reason is simple. As the author asserts, reputation is best done when an image of an educational institution is passed through people who know it in detail, or currently are or were a part of it (*Svoboda, 2009*).

According to Fill, an important fact about reputation is the state about the four main reasons for the reputation's importance (*2009*):

- It represents differentiation if there are minimal differences in products;
- It represents support in turbulent times and in measuring company's value;
- If it is positive, it can increase the company's share price and if it is low, on the contrary, it affects the share price of the company;
- The higher the quality of customer relationships is, the higher the reputation of the organization is.

From the above, it can be argued that even in the area of educational institutions, the four reasons for the reputation are true. Taking into account the close similarity of study programs at faculties with a similar focus, it can be argued that reputation represents a certain form of differentiation in the 'market' of universities. When we talk about measuring company's value, there is basically equivalent from a school perspective. The value of the university can be expressed, for example, by the applicability of the students, or by meeting the requirements of the accreditation commission, or through the ranks of the universities. Right for this reason it is possible to assert that reputation in the rating of university can influence its positive evaluations. In public education, it is not possible to talk about stock prices as in companies, but the imaginative cost of the university is closely related to the value of the university, that is, how the students are prepared for practice and what is their interest and knowledge in business. The last reason for the reputation importance is even greater in public education. The better the university and its employees have built relationships with their students, the better and the higher the reputation they get; the reputation is all about the people. As an example, if the university have not fair and correct educators who would terrorize and underestimate students, it would be hard to get a positive and attractive reputation.

3. Methods

About the reputation is often heard in the media, especially in the sphere of entertainment or business, but there is little less of mention about reputation in higher education. For this reason, a survey was carried out on the reputation of the Faculty of Management Science and Informatics at the University of Žilina. The survey was conducted in the form of an interview with potential students. Potential students were asked not only about the knowledge of the Faculty of Management Science and Informatics but also about their requirements and wishes that could motivate them when deciding about the choice of a university. The second part of the survey was devoted to finding reputation from current students and graduates who are employed. For learning about the perception of the Faculty of Management Science and Informatics by current students and graduates was used the Net Promoter Score methodology. This methodology is designed to measure the loyalty of customers or partners and, at the same



time, it is the method of obtaining and using feedback that can enhance organization's performance. The methodology identifies the answer to the question: „How likely are you to recommend this business to a friend or colleague?“ It is an index in range from -100 to 100 that measures loyalty and willingness to recommend products or services to the surrounding. In the end, Net Promoter Score measures the overall customer satisfaction with the brand, organization and its products or services. The practice of this methodology is following (www.medallia.com, 2017):

- Identifying the surveyed question;
- Giving the question to the respondents;
- Write the rating of the respondents on a scale from 0 to 10;
- Dividing ratings from respondents into 3 categories: critics (0–6), passive (7–8) and promoters (9–10).

Determining the Net Promoter Score by subtracting, the percentage of customers, who are in the group of critics and promoters, is very important. If the score of all respondents is smaller or equal to 6, the Net Promoter Score will be -100 and if the score of all respondents is 9 or 10, the total Net Promoter Score will be 100. So the reputation will be negative or positive.

In the case of the current students and graduates, information about the association with the Faculty of Management Science and Informatics was also been searched, so they answered the question of what come to them when they remind the name of their faculty. Potential students were asked, in particular, about their needs and requirements for an educational institution they would be willing to study.

3.1. Survey characteristics

Survey through the Net Promoter Score methodology was conducted in the form of a short inquiry of current students of Bachelor and Master Study programs at the Faculty of Management Science and Informatics at the University of Žilina (Faculty). This inquiry was made in March 2017. The survey was aimed at finding out the reputation of the faculty they are studying at. The survey sample consisted of 84 students. One of the main questions of the survey was as follows: “How likely are you to recommend the Faculty to your friends or prospective students?“ Figure 1 shows a table with both numerical and graphical evaluations. The meaning of faces/smiley was in helping with choosing the answer if students could not figure out what value they should assign. The students had the option to choose from 0 to 10, with 0 meaning that they certainly did not recommend the Faculty to their known and potential students and 10 means that they would definitely recommend the Faculty.



Figure 1. Net Promoter Score of Faculty of Management Science and Informatics – rating scale (own study)

3.2. Results of current students

After evaluating the above question from which the Net Promoter Score was directly evaluated, the following results were found: Up to 24% of students rated 9 or 10 on a scale of 0–10, indicating that they were categorized as Promoters. This group of students is extremely important for the Faculty, as these students are very loyal, up to enthusiasts. Promoters are volunteering to advertise Faculty and highlight all of its benefits in its neighborhood. The second group is Passives. These students marked the numbers 7 and 8 on the rating scale. While



these students are happy, they are not enthusiastic and not too loyal. In this group of students, there is reason to fear that if their competitive faculty at another university is able to attract them with some benefits, they are willing to finish their baccalaureate and continue studying the second level at another university. The third group contains 28.57% of Detractors. Students are not satisfied with the faculty, what often hampers the reputation of the Faculty and damages its good name. Together with the Promoters, they are the most important objects of interest in the field of reputation management and in the field of higher education.

Figure 2 shows a pie chart with a representational percentage of the groups into which the students were divided based on the evaluation. In the center of the graph is shown the resulting Net Promoter Score. It is calculated as the difference between the percentage of Promoters and Detractors. Net Promoter Score is not expressed as a percentage, but as an absolute number in interval from -100 to +100. The Net Promoter Score of the Faculty of Management and Informatics for current students is after the round -5. Since the value is negative, the reputation of the faculty is negative in the eyes of current students. This negative result should encourage the faculty management as well as the academic community to understand and uncover factors that negatively affect students' perception of the faculty.

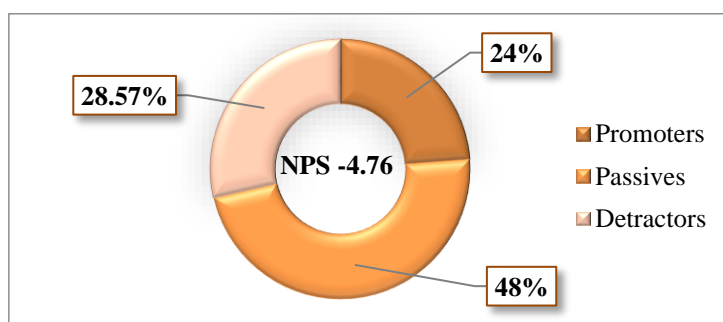


Figure 2. Net Promoter Score of Faculty of Management Science and Informatics – current students (own study)

Another important question in the current students' inquiry was the question: "What do you think first of all when you hear on Faculty of Management Science and Informatics?" This question was also put to students to find the impression of students from the Faculty they are studying at. After evaluating the question, it was found that there is no dependency between the Net Promoter Score and the school impression, as can be seen in Figures 3 and 4.

Students who were included in the Promoters group responded to questions with answers like good reputation, school activities, prestige, top quality faculty in the Slovak Republic, as well as hard work, difficulty. In the graphs in Figures 3 and 4, it is also possible to see the answers, logically arising from the Department or study subjects that students are studying, for example Computer science, PC, Algebra, Programming. These subjects seemed to be perceived by students as automatically relevant for the study. In the subject such of Algebra, we would like to say that students perceived the difficulty of the subject after graduation.

Students from the group of Detractors have come up with responses such as lack of subjects suitable for practice, demanding study, hard word and a large number of semester projects, but surprisingly, a large number of responses were positive. Detractor students have very often written a response as school events organized by the Faculty to bring students closer together, as well as answers like great perspectives, high standards, high quality education, and even a good reputation.

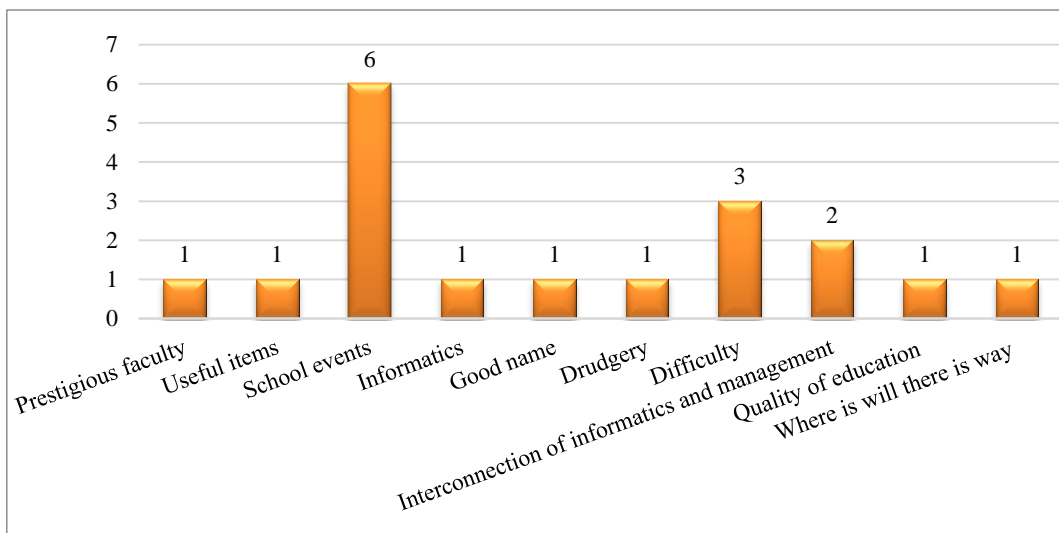


Figure 3. Evaluating students' impressions in the group of Promoters (own study)

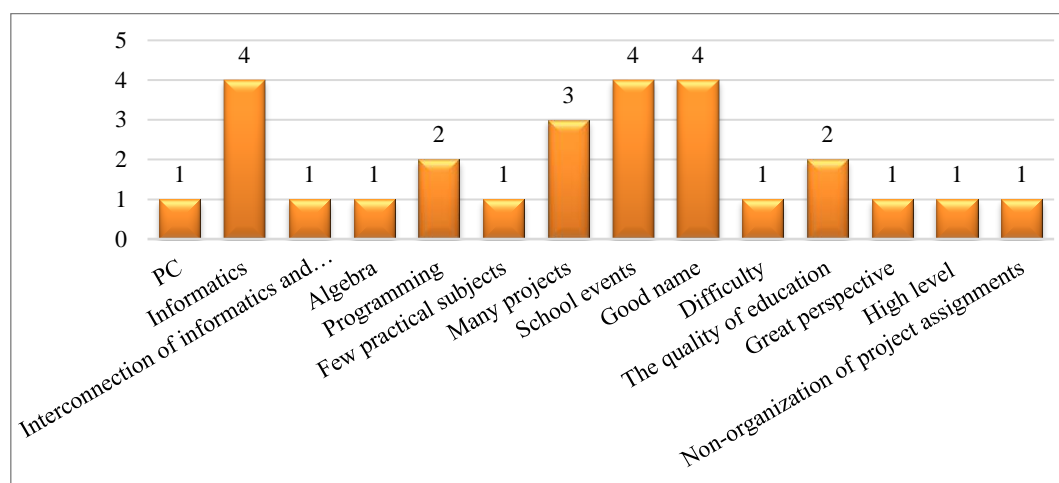


Figure 4. Evaluating students' impressions in the group of Detractors (own study)

The third important question in the survey is: “Have you received recommendations to study at the Faculty of Management Science and Informatics from another student who studied/ studies there?” Only 35.71% of students received a recommendation for study at their current Faculty and up to 64.29% of students of the Faculty were chosen by themselves. It can be said that the Faculty has a very decent name built in Slovakia, but the higher the number of students who have joined the Faculty at the Faculty can also be caused by locality factor. Locality in the sense that most students from Žilina region, who were interested in studying informatics, chose the faculty because of its proximity.

3.1. Results of graduates

The second part of the survey consists of graduates who studied various fields at the Faculty. In the case of graduates, the result was positive, unlike current students. As can be seen in Figure 5, more than half of the respondents belong to the group of Passives who are not benefiting the faculty. The benefits for the Faculty are graduates who rank with their rankings in the Promoters group and make up 43.48% of the total number of respondents. The Detractors group accounts for only 4.35% of the total number of respondents in the absolvent, which means that only the minimal of its graduates recalls and has a negative experience with its Alma Mater.

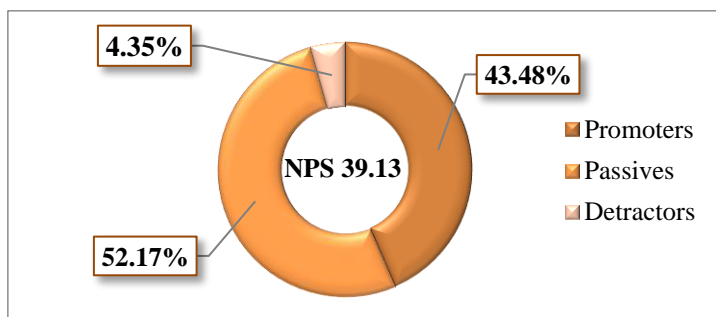


Figure 5. Net Promoter Score of Faculty of Management Science and Informatics – graduates (own study)

Graduates presented different impressions as to what they are thinking about at the Faculty name they had passed. As with current students, the relationship between this issue and the Net Promoter Score methodology was not found. Both the Promoters and the Detractors groups have more or less agreed in the statements about Faculty in the following terms: good name, inspiring lectures and a sufficient selection of subjects with different orientation, linking with practice, as very positive was received the individual access to students, high quality education and qualified teachers. However, we also have those who, in addition to positives, said that it was work under pressure, a demanding study where teachers put a lot of demands on students, full of pretty hard work, overnight nights.

3.3. Results of secondary schools students

Based on the *Roadshow* event (where to go on a university), it was also possible to obtain information and views of high school students who were deciding to study at university during the interviews. It was a pleasant finding that the Faculty of Management Science and Informatics is known by the students throughout the whole of Slovakia and they think it has a good name. In conversations about their possible future at the Faculty, most of them were interested in linking the study with the practice. Their requirement was for many of them to link learning with practice. Their reasoning was that, based on the study of Job Portals, they found out that one of the demands placed on the applier was just practice.

In addition to linking with practice, several of the students were interested in studying foreign languages. Informatics students have been interested in programming languages, but also in profiling, as many of them, for example were interested in leading the network. As a big plus and positive, they perceived that the Faculty of Management and Informatics provides the possibility of CISCO certification, not only CCNA Routing and Switching, but also IoT and IoE. Last but not least, the students were interested in employment and applicability after graduation. Students who, even after the interview, were not sure whether to apply for the Faculty, were often convinced by school events. The Faculty (acronym in Slovak languages for Faculty is 'FRI') organizes school events like FRI Punch, FRI Fest, FRIčkoviča (common event with barbecue, music, sport, and fun), FRI Ples (ball), where students can get together with their classmates and teachers.

They also had positive feedback on practice lectures or actions like Girl's Day. This one is an IT event under the auspices of the President of the Slovak Republic Andrej Kiska (www.girlsday.sk, 2017). It is dedicated to university female students. Companies and institutions around whole Slovakia, as well as the Faculty of Management Science and Informatics, accept girls in their areas and prepare a computer science and technology program for them. The action encourages girls to study computer science. Some students, however, have expressed their perseverance. The finding was interesting. Students do not want to go to



university by their own will, but only by the parents, or by virtue of the fact that each has a university now. It was for such reasons that they tried to choose an easier school where there was no math and similar difficult subjects.

4. Conclusion

On the basis of the survey conducted, it was possible to obtain different views on reputation in education. The following conclusions can be drawn from the information obtained from potential students: universities should focus on the usefulness of the subjects and continually update them according to the needs of the labor market. An example is the Faculty of Management Science and Informatics, which gives students the possibility to select optional subjects across departments, so they can profile themselves on their own deliberation.

Very positive are also perceived lectures by specialists from practice. Recommendation for universities is also to link these lectures with foreign languages and so to invite lectures and discussions of well-known speakers from abroad. In addition to gaining a prestige based on lectures in a foreign language, the university can increase its reputation based on the reputation of the speaker. If we talk about links with practice, it is again possible to highlight the Faculty, which has introduced project teaching at the second level of study. Students work on projects through which they can help the business sector solve problems. In teams they devote their attention to the issues for three semesters and then present their proposals to companies in the IT sector. The prestige of universities also increases by participation in various national projects. Based on information from graduates, it can be concluded that student-to-student action is very positive. As graduates say, even with such university activities, it is possible to get a more personal and confidential relationship with students and vice versa.

As it emerges from the theory, trust is very important for reputation, so it is necessary for universities to create a policy of personal access and trust. If students trust their teachers, their correctness and their neutrality in the evaluation, they will not see Alma Mater in the future as just years of hard work, demanding projects, and so on. Of course, beyond the confidence, students *must be motivated and supported* from the start of the study. If students receive support from their teachers, they will also strengthen their own motivation to study and be able to get better results, what is again an opportunity to gain reputation for university as excellent students and graduates. However, if a teacher wants to prove motivation for students, s/he must have a high level of his/her own internal motivation (*Tršková, 2017*).

In addition to motivation, it is important for teachers to give them the opportunity to continually improve and expand their knowledge in field of trends and novelties. The university should strive to support their continued education in different areas and should also strive to be content. If the teacher is satisfied and without time pressure, s/he will have better access to the students. It follows that universities are able to increase their reputation with a quality study program and a wide choice of voluntary subjects, but also with satisfied and motivated teachers. Last but not least, to increase the reputation, the marketing activities of the university are necessary where this one communicates with potential and current students, but also with graduates and companies from practice.

Acknowledgement:

This article is supported by the Slovak Research and Development Agency under the contract No. APVV-15-0511.

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Positively reviewed by first reviewer: May 19, 2017
Positively reviewed by second reviewer: May 19, 2017
Accepted by Editorial Board of the Conference HPD 2017: May 20, 2017

HUMAN POTENTIAL DEVELOPMENT

Proceedings of Scientific Papers

© Institute for Public Administration Prague, Czech Republic & University of Žilina,
Slovak Republic, 2017

Published: Institute for Public Administration Prague, Czech Republic

Editors: Martina Blašková, Rudolf Blaško

Printing: ON Tisk

ISBN 978-80-86976-41-9

ISBN 978-80-86976-41-9



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