



VYSOKÁ ŠKOLA  
KARLA ENGLIŠE, a.s.

*Sborník 2. mezinárodní konference*  
*Aktuální sociální a ekonomické otázky evropské společnosti*  
*Current Social and Economic Issues of European Society*

*Brno, 7. 2. 2014*

*ISBN 978-80-86710-77-8*



INVESTICE DO ROZVOJE VZDĚLÁVÁNÍ

## TÉMATA

- možnosti identifikace trendů aktuálního ekonomického vývoje a vlivu globálního ekonomického prostředí
- právní aspekty podnikání, jejich vývoj a důsledky pro hospodářskou praxi
- úloha managementu v nejistém prostředí globálního podnikání
- mezinárodní migrace a její ekonomické aspekty
- problémy multikulturní společnosti
- úloha a přístupy ke vzdělávání v moderní společnosti
- etika v podnikání a její souvislosti s organizační kulturou

## PROGRAMOVÝ VÝBOR

prof. Ing. Jaroslav Komárek, CSc., Vysoká škola Karla Engliš, a. s. – předseda

doc. Ing. Jaroslav Dočkal, CSc., Vysoká škola Karla Engliš, a. s.

doc. Ing. JUDr. Radek Jurčák, Ph.D., Vysoká škola Karla Engliš, a. s.

Ing. Milan Palát, Ph.D., Vysoká škola Karla Engliš, a. s.

prof. Ing. Peter Markovič, Ph.D., Ekonomická univerzita v Bratislavě

prof. JUDr. Jozef Záhora, PhD., Panevropská vysoká škola Bratislava

**WEBOVÉ STRÁNKY KONFERENCE** [www.esf.vske.cz](http://www.esf.vske.cz)

## **OBSAH**

<b>MODERN COMPUTATIONAL ISSUES OF SEXUAL ETHICS .....</b>	<b>4</b>
<b>WHAT IS LESS, WHAT IS MORE AND WHAT IS JUST RIGHT FOR MODELLING BUSINESS PROCESSES? .....</b>	<b>17</b>
<b>ARE EXPATRIATE MANAGERS A CRITICAL FACTOR FOR SUCCES? .....</b>	<b>33</b>
<b>REFORMA VEŘEJNÉ SPRÁVY S AKCENTEM NA ÚZEMNÍ ČLENĚNÍ STÁTU A REGIONÁLNÍ ROZDĚLENÍ.....</b>	<b>49</b>
<b>STUDY OF THE IMPACT OF PERSONAL DEVELOPMENT ON THE QUALITY OF MANAGERIAL DECISION MAKING.....</b>	<b>55</b>
<b>CURRENT TRENDS OF MANAGEMENT LEARNING .....</b>	<b>66</b>
<b>PROBLÉMY SOUČASNÉHO PODNIKÁNÍ V LÁZEŇSTVÍ A VE WELLNESS .....</b>	<b>72</b>
<b>AGGRESSIVENESS OF A MEN AND ITS RELIANCE ON STRATEGIC THINKING....</b>	<b>82</b>
<b>DIVERSITY MANAGEMENT: CHANGES IN CORPORATE CULTURE .....</b>	<b>87</b>
<b>ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE IN FRAME OF BUSINESS ETHICS.....</b>	<b>94</b>
<b>PERSONALITY DETERMINANTS IN TAKING ROLES OF THE VICTIM ON AND OR FOR PERPETRATOR .....</b>	<b>102</b>
<b>COMPARISON OF THE TWO SPECIFIC DISTRIBUTION SYSTEMS - FRANCHISING AND MULTILEVEL MARKETING.....</b>	<b>119</b>

## **MODERN COMPUTATIONAL ISSUES OF SEXUAL ETHICS**

***Prof. Assoc. Dr. Paweł Czarnecki, PhD. MBA***

Sexual ethics is an exceptional field in the area of ethics, owing to its close relation with extra-ethical concepts, mainly religious ones. This fact distinguishes it from such ethical disciplines as: ethics of business or eco-ethics. However you can speak about Christian and non-Christian (e. g. utilitarian) concepts within those ethics, it is impossible to speak about utilitarian sexual ethics – such ethics, as a separate field, simply does not exist. Wanting therefore to formulate and justify values and principles relating to sexual relations, one must on one side consider values and the principles based upon them formulated by Christian ethics, and on the other hand take into consideration arguments speaking for including the sphere of sexuality into "lay" ethical reflexion. In other words, one must ponder whether sexual drive and the behaviors that directly follow therefrom should undergo ethical evaluation, or whether, as a sphere of privacy, they should remain outside the interest of ethics.

Often one encounters the opinion that ethical evaluation encompasses only those kinds of actions which exert influence over other people. Of course not every action causing results which influence other people is subject to ethical evaluation, although it would be hard to unambiguously indicate such kinds of actions which do not, in any circumstances, undergo ethical judgment. For example, a house built in a city doubtlessly affects other people, as it changes the view and it can hamper movement on a certain area, but these results do not undergo ethical judgment. However the same house built in an area which is touristically attractive can make the landscape ugly, at the same time lowering income from tourism, therefore the results of its construction one can judge as morally bad. This example shows that actions which in themselves do not usually undergo ethical judgment can become subject to such judgment, in so far far as their results limit freedom of other people.

An ethical theory treating sexual drive as an integral element of the "structure" of man is for example catholic sexual ethics. However these ethics do not maintain that sexual drive or instinct in themselves undergo ethical evaluation, considering this drive as a part of man's natural biological endowment. According to catholic ethics, all actions undertaken under the influence of sexual drive, including love and having offspring, do undergo ethical judgment.

Some of the thoughts on the principles of catholic sexual ethics were undertaken by Karol Wojtyła. As a priest he thought the basic difficulty in case of catholic sexual ethics is the justification for moral norms. Such justification, according to Wojtyła, is not possible without calling at a specific concept of man. Because catholic ethics brings about personalistic concept of man, sexual ethics is also based on personalism.

The basis of personalism is the thesis saying that man is a person, that is indivisible whole composed of body and soul. From the definition of a person it follows that regardless of which aspect of man's existence we consider, we should do it with regard of this indivisible whole. Also the bases of sexual ethics should be considered and justified basing on personalist vision of man, treating the sphere of sexuality as an indivisible element of man as a person (not as a field connected exclusively with biological or psychological plane of human activity).

Another central thesis of personalism is the view that it is the person that is always the target of action and as such should not be treated as means to satisfy needs or drives of any kind. Concerning sexual ethics, Karol Wojtyła emphasizes that it is not only about the need to discharge sexual tension, but also about needs of higher rank, like for example the need for closeness, intimacy, or the need to be happy. The bond between man and woman is a bond of two persons, and thus fragmentary treatment of another person, seeing in him or her only a man or only a woman, that is – a medium serving to justify biological and psychological needs – is against personalist ethics.

The basis of a bond of two persons should be love, that is a feeling engaging the whole person, and not only his or her sexual drive. Not every feeling, however, that would colloquially be called love can be a justified basis to enter sexual relationship – that is why Wojtyła differentiates between love in purely psychological sense from the love between two persons. Love between persons is a realization of the "personalist norm", that is the call for unconditional love of another human being, that is why it always has an ethical dimension. The basis of love in the personalist sense is the affirmation of another person as a person, which should be differentiated from the affirmation of certain values (that is: traits allowing for the satisfaction of one's own needs) residing in the other person. The value of man as a person should be particularly differentiated from "sexual value" whose vehicle can be either man as a whole together with his personality (then we speak about love in psychological sense) or only his body as a "tool" for satisfying sexual drive (desire). Without this completion, a bond between two people would be only a transaction boiling down to the giving of one's body to someone of the opposite sex, who in return would give his or her body and personality, thanks to which the two parties would experience intense sensual sensations.

From the above remarks it does not follow, that love in psychological sense is not important for a bond of two people. K. Wojtyła stresses however, that love in psychological sense must be subordinated to love in the ethical sense, because only then man is capable of controlling his or her own sexual drive. Moreover, according to Wojtyła, love in ethical sense is not only a kind of a controlling body, but also it is complementary to love in psychological sense. Love which is an affirmation of the other person, that is, in other words, treating the other person as a person, Wojtyła calls integral love. The purpose of this love is not the body of another man – in that case we would be speaking about desire – neither is it man as representing the other sex, but man in all the aspects of his or her existence – that is, a human person. Love so understood does contain an element of sensual love (eroticism), which however in no way is the most important element and should be subordinated to other elements.

The above statements have important practical consequences, because from the fact that love in personalist sense is the basis of a bond of two people follows the rule commanding control over one's own drive. Wojtyła points namely to the fact, that a drive as a force, which in some way "drives", that is somehow directs our action, is in conflict with freedom. At the same time, sexual drive is given to man, it constitutes a part of his nature and although it does not directly influence his actions, it causes something to "happen" to man. Exactly this difference between something "happening" to man (or in man) and acting under the influence of the drive is, in Wojtyła's opinion, a key one from the point of view of personalist responsibility.

Wojtyła speaks also about "natural sequence of events", meaning that sexual union is a consequence of "integral" love as well as of the sacrament of marriage. In other words, what happens first is psychological and spiritual union of two people, whose outer expression is the sacrament of marriage, which in turn creates the frames for sexual union. Only reciprocal love between man and woman as persons creates the space for realization of sexual drive. The purpose of the bond between man and women is not, however, mutual satisfaction of the need for happiness and love, but having offspring, that is why a bond based on personalist love involves a necessity of sacrifice.

The acceptance of the views presented above depends, of course, first of all on the view of the world we purport. This personalist perception of love is possible to be accepted entirely by believers, to who this problem presents itself in a relatively simple way: sexual contacts are acceptable only in marriage (Muszala, 2007, s. 15). Whereas all those, who would indeed be inclined to accept some of the basic theses of personalism (like the principle of human dignity) do not have to accept at the same time all the consequences which follow from those theses for the personalist ethics of K. Wojtyła.

Lay ethics, as I have mentioned, is reluctant to speak about the sphere of sexuality, treating it as a sphere which is not subject to ethical evaluation. Still, one can encounter attempts to settle some norms having to do with human sexual behaviors understood from the stances which are neutral from the point of view of opinion or religion.

One can also point to some ways of justifying the opinion, that sexual activity should not be excluded from the realm of interest of ethics. In relation to sexual relationships one can first of all assume, that the possibility of formulating ethical evaluation depends not on the deed alone, but on its results, which in turn can depend on circumstances which are not directly connected to the sphere of sexuality. However such treatment does not allow to include into ethical thought sexual relations as such, it enables analyzing the results of this kind of relationship for the persons involved and telling whether there is a need to formulate separate ethical norms protecting from those negative results (e. g. principles concerning betrayal, rape, prostitution etc.)

It is not, however, the only possible approach to sexual ethics free of opinion. Sexual relations can also be treated as a realization of one of the essential rights of all men, that is the right to satisfy sexual drive. Assuming that the need of satisfying this drive belongs to basic human needs, and its suppression can lead to serious negative consequences – social as well as psychological – we are facing the necessity to answer two questions: the question about acceptable forms of satisfying this drive and about the limitations in its satisfactions (to the latter we are going to come back later in the course of the hereby considerations).

The first question does not seem to pose greater difficulties: as unacceptable we regard such sexual behaviors which in any way hurt the other man. As an example of contacts which are impossible to accept ethically one can mention rape or sexual contacts with people under age. It is worth stressing that these actions are morally bad regardless whether they lead to objectively negative results for the victims: rape on a person under the influence of intoxicants undergoes negative ethical evaluation regardless whether this person realizes that he or she was raped. Negatively evaluated are also intentions of entering sexual contacts (e. g. sex in exchange for material benefits).

Finally, it is possible to say that sexual ethics does not relate exclusively to relations between two people. Sexual drive residing in the individual is a drive directed towards other people, at the same time however it can become a basis of certain attitudes or ways of living which also can undergo ethical evaluation. A man consciously resigning from getting involved into a lasting bond based on deep feelings takes a definite stance towards life, which has influence not on him alone, but also on his closer and further social environment. Resignation from a lasting relationship usually

means resignation from having offspring. The influence of this kind of decision on the society is not felt as long as such person constitute the margins, but the moment they become common (and it seems that presently we are facing exactly such situation) their effect on the future of the society becomes obvious. Often we can encounter a popular opinion that this lifestyle is "selfish". This opinion seems to be based on the conviction that if this lifestyle was embraced by all, society would be in danger of annihilation.

Obviously one can answer here that in fact this conscious choice is only an appearance covering emotional problems disabling one from entering lasting relationships. Besides the very increase in the ratio of people deciding to live a lonely life one can just as well consider the cause of social crisis as its result. In the latter case one should rather speak about objective processes occurring in society, and not about moral responsibility.

It is also worth noticing that norms of sexual ethics can also serve as justification for negative ethical evaluation of certain behaviors or attitudes not immediately connected with sexual ethics, such as contraception, AIDS, homosexuality or even abortion.

Relatively close to sexual ethics is the problem of ethical evaluation of contraception. Using contraception is strongly rejected by personalist ethics, as this kind of ethics assumes that the sexual act is a purposeful act, which however does not aim at satisfying the partners but at calling into being a new life (Orzeszyna, 2007, s. 43). This point of view is however impossible to accept by all those who evaluate the sexual act exclusively with regard to its consequences or intentions. It is also worth noticing that evaluation of contraception from the point of view of sexual ethics to a certain extent overlaps with its evaluation from the point of view of medical ethic (that is, sexual ethics is up to this extent an element of medical ethics). The problem of both these ethics is e. g. the right of patients to use contraceptives, including the contraceptives preventing pregnancy up to 72 hours from sexual intercourse. Moreover the problem of contraception belongs to the range of competence of medical ethics because contraceptives are available mostly on prescription. Thence for example during the discussion concerning the novelization of the Codex of Medical Ethics in 2003 the proposition was refuted which proposed that the doctors have the right to provide information about contraception only to those patients who would ask about it themselves.

The problem of ethical acceptability of contraception gained special importance in the face of AIDS epidemic. In many poorly developed African countries, popularization of contraceptives might significantly contribute to the decrease in the number of cases of HIV contamination. According to the proponents of availability of using those measures, maintaining the ban on contraceptives has important practical consequences: the opposition of religious organizations, especially catholic

church, makes the distribution of contraceptives among poorly educated inhabitants of poor countries difficult. The opponents of the availability of contraception, however, point to the fact, that the same effect could be achieved by abiding the rules of sexual ethics, that is simply by limiting sexual contacts to one person. There is also a middle stance, according to which using contraception is indeed evil, but a bigger evil is the spreading of AIDS, and one should simply choose the lesser evil. From that point of view using contraception still remains an "intrinsically bad" deed (John Paul II, 1993, s. 47) and it is possible to accept only under exceptional conditions.

One should also mention the problems connected not so much with sex, but with human sexuality, such as artificial procreation or abortion. The prohibition of artificial procreation can follow not only from the fact that such operation involves a risk to the life of human fetus, but also from the conviction that the only worthy "place" for calling into being a new man is marriage. On the other hand, the prohibition of using the contraceptives which prevent the nesting of the inseminated egg in the uterus can be justified as a special case of the ban on abortion.

The problem of ethical evaluation of homosexuality seems to belong to sexual ethics, as it concerns broadly understood relationship of two persons of the same sex, and not only sexual relationship. One can namely imagine homosexual relationship in which sexual contacts do not play dominant role (that is, they are not the chief goal of the relationship), or even such relationships where these contacts do not occur. On the other hand, sexual ethics does refer to the sphere of human sexuality, but as I have mentioned, the only possible definition of sexuality for the use of ethical discussion is the projecting definition. If we then consider emotions towards the sexual partner an element of sexuality, it will be justified to include into sexual ethics also the problem of homosexuality.

Thus the opponents of moral acceptability of relationship of people of the same sex bring by the argument calling at the fact of humans being endowed with gender. They point to the fact that because man has features not possessed by woman and the other way round, then man and woman in a way complement each other, complete each other. On this basis it is possible to formulate the thesis, that as a sexual being, man in a "natural" way turns to the other sex, strictly to some psychosomatic features of individuals of opposite sex. This way, on the ground of sexual ethics, it is possible to differentiate natural and unnatural sexual drive, accepting as morally acceptable only the first kind of sexual drive.

A separate ethical problem is the evaluation of behaviors usually viewed as pathology, such as zoophilia, fetishism, masochism and the like. A proponent of liberalism in sexual ethics would simply say that such behaviors are not subject to negative ethical evaluation under the condition that they

do not involve suffering of any living being. Such a simple answer does not seem to be satisfying for two reasons. First, pathological behavior seem to be objectively harmful for the persons who undertake them and even if they do not cause suffering of people or animals, in the long run they can lead to psychological suffering of the interested party themselves. Sexual activity is doubtless a condition of a satisfactory relation of two people, starting a happy family, having offspring etc. All the "substitute" forms of satisfying the sexual drive can become the reason for which those goals shall not be reached, which to some individuals can become a reason for loneliness, lack of fulfillment, and general sense of there being no meaning to life.

Another cause, for which pathological sexual behaviors can be judged as morally bad is the lack of social acceptance to most, if not to all their forms. However it is possible to argue that if the society does not accept certain behaviors which have no influence on the third party, one should rather blame the society for lack of tolerance and undertake attempts leading to changes in attitude and not identify social lack of acceptance with negative moral evaluation. There is doubtlessly a lot of sense in such a statement, however in the case of sexual behaviors we deal with reaction based on deeply rooted sexual drive, due to which it is not certain to what extent such a change of social attitudes is possible at all. A certain hint here is the change of social reaction to homosexuality, still it is hard to hope on that basis that society would be able with equal ease to accept e. g. zoophilic tendencies. This lack of acceptance puts the persons showing this kind of tendency under the threat of rejection or even active aggression, it can therefore become a cause of those people being harmed.

For the above reasons it seems that the society has a moral obligation to give help to those people who wish either to change the direction of their sexual drive either through psychotherapy, or to diminish their drive by the use of medicine. Namely, the social health service should finance help for those people, and the society should accept the fact of carrying certain costs concerning that matter.

A separate problem is the moral right to enter sexual relationship. Usually it is assumed that this right is one to which every individual is entitled, whereas depriving anybody of this right is a morally wrong deed. It is obvious, however, that this right is not limitless and in some situation an individual can be deprived of the possibility to satisfy his or her sexual drive. An example can be the celibate of priests or the rules binding for example monks in a Buddhist monastery. The proponents of the view that having a sexual life is a necessary condition of psychological health speak sometimes about "forcing" celibate on priests, monks or nuns, it seems though that the very possibility of living a celibate life for years testifies to the opposite.

The possibility of living in celibate without any perceptible consequences for the psyche does not of course testify to the fact that it would be lawful to deprive anybody the right of sexual activity. Moreover, celibate is always a result of conscious decision, free choice, not force. We have no right to deprive anyone of the possibility to satisfy hunger or the possibility to move for the sole reason that those people are on diet or they lead life within the walls of a cloister. Also the example of people convicted to prison does not really broaden our view, because in the case of prisoners the lack of possibility to satisfy sexual drive is a result of their being deprived of the right to freedom. It is because practically the deprivation of freedom ordained by the court means the taking away from the individual certain number of particular rights, such as the right of free movement, the right to use the mass media, the right to work etc. The right to satisfy sexual drive belongs, in other words, to the group of rights whose deprivation is defined as the deprivation of freedom.

Still, one can indicate circumstances in which depriving someone of the right to satisfy their sexual drive not involving depriving them of other rights seems ethically acceptable. We deal with such situation first of all in the case of people mentally disabled. Some of such people feel sexual drive with the same force as the fully mentally able people do, and at the same time are not capable of realizing the consequences of sexual contacts. There is thus the necessity to settle, whether the wardens of such people have a moral right to deprive them of the possibility of having those contacts.

The rule of full intellectual and emotional maturity seems impossible to use here, since abiding by that rule would force us to prohibit sexual contacts to teenagers, who also have not reached full emotional maturity and are not always able to fully realize the consequences of their own actions. Besides, there are different degrees of disability, and thus it is impossible to formulate a norm which in the same degree would work with all persons suffering from intellectual disability. The most reasonable solution seems to be for the wardens to decide individually in relation to each of their wards, possibly after consulting the doctor and the psychologist.

An interesting notion of group fault in the case of rape has been proposed by American ethicists, L. May and R. Strikwerda. This idea merits special treatment here, as it touches upon one of the key problems of sexual ethics, namely the responsibility of men and women for the unethical deeds resulting from sexual drive. However the thoughts presented by May and Strikwerda concern rape only, one can felicitously refer them also to other deeds, such as betrayal. L. May and R. Strikwerda argue that, just as the responsibility for mass murders belongs to all societies, not only to the immediate executors, so in the case of rape the fault falls not only on the raper, but on the whole group of men. They conclude therefrom, that men should actively counteract rape and sexual violence.

In justification of their view, those authors differentiate four ways of understanding responsibility for rape: direct responsibility of the wrongdoer; lack of responsibility resulting from the fact of his following biological instinct; the co-created social environment characterized by brutality and violence, co-created by men and women; the responsibility of "patriarchal" social structure (May, Strikwerda, 2000, s. 43).

The first ways of understanding responsibility for rape are regarded by the authors as wrong. Assuming the thesis of exclusively individual responsibility would mean the necessity to say that the group of men remains outside the scope of responsibility, which in the opinion of the authors stands in contradiction to the empirical data, which indicate that men turn out to be more prone to rape when they are in a group (e. g. the example of rapes committed by soldiers in the time of war). Empirical data undermine also the thesis of rape being biologically conditioned (more strictly, conditioned by the differences in attitudes towards sex shown by men and women, formed in result of natural selection). If this hypothesis was right, then the level of rape in different societies around the world would be more or less the same, whereas in fact there are societies where rapes practically do not occur. As concerns the idea that the whole society, thus also women, participate in transmitting patterns of behavior which are full of violence, the authors are inclined to find only partially right. They think that although indeed some women have some influence on the transmission of attitudes fostering rape and violence, it is a mistake to ascribe equal responsibility for rape to men and women.

The aptest thesis, according to the authors, is the fourth thesis, according to which men have "non-distributive responsibility" for rape. This kind of responsibility means that although an individual man does not carry responsibility for rape, as this, individually, is carried only by the agent of the rape, he does carry some responsibility as a member of the group of men. Within the whole of social life, the authors identify a set of norms, attitudes and behaviors obtaining only to men, defining this set by the name "male culture". This culture is absorbed by men in the course of socialization. This of course opens a field for actions aiming at changing male attitudes. The authors do not charge every individual man with the responsibility for each rape, they do think however, that the very participation in this culture and the acceptance of it puts on men some kind of responsibility and commitment regarding the phenomenon of rape as such. "We think rather," the authors say, "that in western societies rape is deeply rooted in the broader culture of male socialization. Those who are the most involved in maintaining this culture must also realize that they are responsible for its harmful aspects"(May. Strikwerda, 2000, s. 63). Towards the views referred above one can propose a range of critical remarks. The basic mistake seems to be treating rape and sexual violence as a phenomenon caused by one factor only. What seems particularly unconvincing are the arguments

against the thesis of biological background of this kind of violence. The authors repeatedly point to rapes on Bosnian Muslim women during the war in former Yugoslavia as a crowning piece of evidence that in proper conditions nearly all men are capable of rape. The example of rapes committed during wars, especially mass rapes, committed on women belonging to the nation perceived as enemy does not seem to be a telling one as there is no possibility of deciding whether rape is here a manifestation of "pure" violence or rather is a part of a broader campaign of violence, aiming at physical extermination of the enemy. Besides, the war itself is a "socialization" process, in result of which men and women lose the mental barriers disabling them to perform acts of violence in the time of peace. During the war there may be at play some additional factors triggering rape which can not be rightfully compared to phenomena proper to societies in time of peace.

Also the argument of cultural variability of attitudes of men towards sexual violence and rape does not seem convincing, as it does not contain any explanation of the reasons for those cultural differences. The knowledge of cultures remote from the European culture is sometimes superficial, and first of all it concerns the state in which those cultures are now. That is why it is impossible to ascertain that in those cultures there are no mechanisms preventing rape, which are hard to accept in the western culture (e. g. cruel punishment of the agents of rape by male relatives of the victim), thanks to which the biological drive inclining some men to rape has been successfully suppressed.

Also treating men as a uniform group is a vast simplification (not only by the above mentioned authors but first of all by feminist philosophy). Probably not every man is in equal measure capable of rape, and this inclination may depend in equal degree on socialization, biological inclinations of all men, and hereditary and non-hereditary individual features. There are also differences in the number of rapes committed by representants of different social groups, that is why speaking of the responsibility of men as a uniform group seems to be a serious oversimplification. In western societies one can probably indicate groups of men in which violence and rape not only does not meet approval, but also is universally condemned.

Also "female culture", with which we deal in closed societies of women (e. g. in prisons) does not seem fully free from sexual violence. Because women prove capable of this kind of violence, one should think of reasons why most of the cases are committed by men. One of possible explanation is the thesis that within female culture there are factors which inhibit violence with sexual background, passed from generation to generation in the same process of socialization which makes all men potential rapers and causes women to be obedient creatures, victims of male domination.

Finally, the very concept of socialization should be considered unclear in ethical context. Socialization is a process in which a child learns the rules of social life, wanting therefore to find an

answer to the question of the connection between socialization in "male culture" with the phenomenon of rape one ought to indicate the rules and ways of evaluation causing men to be inclined to rape. The view that what is at stake in that case is the image of woman as a potential victim of rape is hard to justify, if only for the reason that the number of rapes in urban societies, where the changes in social awareness are the deepest and occur the fastest, is not decreasing at all. Equally justified we can consider the view that it is the lack of unambiguous patterns caused exactly by the speed of social changes which is responsible for the high level of sexual violence (and violence in general) in those societies.

For the fact that socialization is not capable of triggering or suppressing behaviors based mainly on a biologically conditioned drive speaks also the fact that in every society there is a certain percentage of people in which sexual drive concerns the same sex and that this percentage is probably stable regardless of repressional attitude of particular cultures towards homosexuality. It is also impossible to explain other kinds of sexual behaviors involving harm to persons, towards whom they are directed, e. g. pedophilia also cannot be explained by "collective non-distributive responsibility".

The above remarks do not mean of course that there is no specific pattern of "male culture", encompassing violence towards women. Such a pattern probably exists, and because it is passed in the course of socialization, it can probably be corrected. The existence of such pattern however cannot form a basis to burden men as a social group with moral responsibility, because it is not the only cause of acts of violence towards women and men. At most one can justify the theses of co-responsibility of men, although this thesis seems trivial: it is obvious that women as well as men learn in the process of socialization a whole range of norms and attitudes on which ground in western societies there happen innumerable unethical deeds.

Whereas the view according to which the responsibility of women and men in the case of sexual violence is not equal seems to mean only that men and women commit different number of unethical deeds, while women (accepting the existence of "collective non-distributive responsibility") as a group also would carry responsibility for crime and other unethical deeds of sexual background committed by women.

The thesis of collective male responsibility for rape seems to be exaggerated, still the above thoughts prove the importance of sexual education. Generally it is thought that sexual ethics deal mainly with the evaluation of contents included within the school subject often called "preparation for life in the family". If we assume that schools are obliged to teach youths certain knowledge about human sexuality, the question springs up about the scope of that knowledge, the way of passing it

and about who should transfer that knowledge. Even the most "objective" knowledge about adolescence or contraception is often to some extent entangled in a specific philosophy of man and it assumes certain truths about the nature of human sexuality. Because parents and teachers assuming a personalist point of view speak for almost entire "cleaning" of this subject of contents concerning sexual life, and the rest would wish for preparing the adolescent youth to undertaking sexual activity, it seems impossible to reach compromise in that matter, which in that case would mean choosing subject matter impossible to be accepted by everyone.

In Poland nearly nobody devotes attention to the problem of relations between sexes and the stereotypes connected with sex functioning in our society. Settling a common stance would not be in this area so difficult as in questions immediately concerning sexual behaviors. If then sexual ethics would be able to formulate postulates concerning sexual contacts which would be possible to use in the scale of the whole society, the postulate to include in education materials, thanks to which a change would occur in the way women and men are perceived and how their roles in society are seen, seems to be fully justified.

#### **Bibliography:**

MUSZALA, A.(2007): *Encyklopedia bioetyki. Personalizm chrześcijański*. Radom, Polskie Wydawnictwo Encyklopedyczne.

ORZESZYNA, J.(2007): *Antykoncepcja*. In: A. Muszala: *Encyklopedia bioetyki. Personalizm chrześcijański*. Radom, Polskie Wydawnictwo Encyklopedyczne.

JOHN PAUL II.. (1993): *Encyclical Regarding Certain Fundamental Questions of the Church's Moral Teaching*. Vatican, L'Osservatore Romano.

MAY, L. Strikwerda, R.(2000): *Mężczyźni w grupach: zbiorowa odpowiedzialność za gwałt*. In: J. Hołowska, Warszawa, Aletheia.

**Prof. Assoc. Dr. Paweł Czarnecki, PhD. MBA**

University of Management in Warsaw, Poland

e-mail: [pawel@czarnecki.co](mailto:pawel@czarnecki.co)

**Prof. Assoc. Dr. Paweł Czarnecki, PhD. MBA**

University of Management in Warsaw, Poland

**Abstract:**

Ethics of sexuality is an exceptional field within the realm of ethics, due to its close connection with extra-ethical concepts, mainly religious ones. This fact differentiates sexual ethics from other ethical disciplines, such as ethics of business or eco-ethics. This is because, however one can talk about Christian or non-Christian (e.g. utilitarian) concepts within those ethics, there is no way one could talk about utilitarian ethics of sexuality: such ethics as a separate discipline simply do not exist. In my article I would like to formulate and justify values and principles relating to sexual relations. In order to do so, one has on one hand to consider the values formulated by Christian ethics, as well as the principles built on them – and, on the other hand, to look at arguments for including the sphere of sexuality within “lay” ethical reflexion. In my considerations as main research problem I pose the thesis: should sexual drive and the behaviours immediately resulting therefrom undergo ethical evaluation, or as a private sphere, they should remain outside the scope of interest of ethics.

**Key words:** ethics, sexual ethics, gender, sex, sexual drive

**JEL Classification:** M12, M53

# WHAT IS LESS, WHAT IS MORE AND WHAT IS JUST RIGHT FOR MODELLING BUSINESS PROCESSES?

*Jaroslav Dočkal*

## INTRODUCTION

Why do we need Business Process Modelling at all? Under the term "process" we, in general understand the systematic sequence of actions directed to some extent.

To inspire you to think about processes as a way of improving our work, or to show how we can improve our business processes and to reflect on which processes we should improve first, the why and how. A business process is from this view a collection of related, structured activities or tasks that produce a specific service or product (to serve a particular goal) for a particular customer or customers. In other words, it is a sequence (or a partially ordered set) of enterprise activities; the execution of which is triggered by some event and will result in some observable or quantifiable result.

Business Process Models take into account the business goals, business structure and the resources that are available to achieve business goals. This introduces additional concepts to the ones introduced in functional modelling: input transformed into output, under a specific condition (Vernadat, 1996). Business Process Management (BPM) is about the optimization and diagrams, and there are tools that help that. The question is, however, how to teach this in the context modelling of business processes.

We have a wide range of models of business processes: structural, functional, behavioral, rule-oriented, object-oriented, actor/role-oriented and so on (Petersen, 2011). The most known method of modelling is functional. Most functional modelling methods are based on a functional decomposition principle: functions of the system modelled are decomposed into sub-functions, sub-functions into sub-functions, and so on.

Functions can be activities or processes. An activity performs something, usually transforming its inputs into outputs. This transformation may happen if some condition is verified. Processes we could understand as the logic-temporal sequences of activities.

We understand how "process" in business is an important term, but think about it, what tools do we have for the visualization, analysis and modeling of these processes?

## 1 A LOT OF STANDARDS

Nowadays, you can find several approaches to modeling processes where the most frequently used of these methods is development process diagrams, ie Eriksson–Penker business Extensions, ARIS by prof. Scheer, DFD, TOGAF, UML (Unified Modelling Language), SysML, SoaML a BPMN. The first three are not accepted standards, while the last four are the accepted standards of the OMG (Object Management Group). These methods differ in the degree of generality, variously interact and overlap.

We may meet up with Eriksson–Penker business Extensions in UML case diagrams. TOGAF is the Open Group enterprise architecture framework, providing a complete approach to enterprise information architecture design, planning, implementation and governance. For our students this is too enterprising and too complete, therefore, we will only marginally focus on this part. Since SysML is specific to the field of systems engineering and derived from UML, and SoaML is a UML application into a service-oriented architecture environment, we will

not continue to deal with them. ARIS is for interesting for thanks to its academic program, but the mainstream of the evolution in area of process modelling moves in another direction.

DFD diagrams can be understood to be a preliminary step used to create an overview of the system which can later be elaborated by other modelling methods. Often, they are viewed as an outdated and obsolete method, but it is a suitable method for simple display for an initial view on the information flows within the system.

In the last years we have seen a group of new buzzwords: UML is a general-purpose modeling language from the OMG, an eclectic approach used in the field of object-oriented software engineering. BPMN is standard for business process modeling, providing a graphical notation for the specification of business processes. A very high-level description of what UML is for is explaining to management what you want and you are talking about.

Some tools (f.e. Modelio) combines BPMN support and UML support in one tool, with dedicated diagrams to support business process modeling.

## 2 WHAT ABOUT PRESTIGIOUS CZECH UNIVERSITIES?

We have to consider, is the depth of just how useful it is to teach our students business modelling methods, and more specifically, which type of visualization (diagrams) should be taught?. What is taught ah prestige Czech universities:

The University of Economics, Prague (VŠE), **Faculty of Informatics and Statistics**

subject	main lecturer	diagrams
4IT215 Information Systems Analysis and Design	Ing. Tomáš Bruckner, Ph.D.	UML

The University of Economics, Prague (VŠE), **Faculty of Informatics and Statistics**

subject	main lecturer	diagrams
3MA341 Implementing information systems in organization	Ing. Kamil Hofrichter, MBA	DFD, IDEF0-3, UML, BPMN

Czech Technical University in Prague – Faculty of Electrical Engineering

subject	main lecturer	diagrams
A4M33NMS – Design and Modeling of Software Systems	doc. Zdeněk Kouba, CSc.	UML
Y36SIN – Introduction to Software Engineering	Ing. Martin Komárek	UML

Recommended software: Visual Paradigm, Astah Community

Masaryk University – Faculty of Informatics

<b>subject</b>	<b>main lecturer</b>	<b>diagrams</b>
PB007 Software engineering I	Ing. RNDr. Barbora Bůhnová, Ph.D.	UML
PV207 Business Process Management	Mgr. Jiří Kolář	BPMN

Masaryk University, Faculty of Economics and Administration

<b>subject</b>	<b>main lecturer</b>	<b>diagrams</b>
PB007 Software engineering I	Ing. RNDr. Barbora Bůhnová, Ph.D.	UML

MENDEL University – Faculty of Informatics

<b>subject</b>	<b>main lecturer</b>	<b>diagrams</b>
Information Systems (Designing)	doc. Ing. Ivana Rábová, Ph.D.	UML
Software Engineering I	prof. RNDr. Milan Mišovič, CSc.	UML

University of Hradec Králové – Department of Information Technologies

<b>subject</b>	<b>main lecturer</b>	<b>diagrams</b>
UOMO – Introduction to object modelling OMO1 – Object modelling	Monika Šimková	BPMN, UML

VŠB –Technical University of Ostrava – Faculty of Electrical Engineering and Computer Science

<b>subject</b>	<b>main lecturer</b>	<b>diagrams</b>
460-4029/01Methods of business modelling	Ing. Jan Kožusznik, Ph.D.	IDEF0–3, UML

University of Pardubice – Faculty of Economics and Administration

<b>subject</b>	<b>main lecturer</b>	<b>diagrams</b>
<u>Inform.Systems in Region. Administration</u>	doc. Ing. Komárková Jitka, Ph.D.	UML

Regional and Information Management		
USSII/PPIS – Development of Information USII/APCR – Procedural Proceeding USII/PPCR – Procedural Management	Ing. Stanislava Šimonová, Ph.D.	UML  (demo MS Visio, case/4/0, CaseStudio, CraftCase, ARIS).

They use demo MS Visio, case/4/0, CaseStudio, CraftCase, ARIS.

VŠB –Technical University of Ostrava – Faculty of Economics

subject	main lecturer	diagrams
157-0313/03 – Strategic Information Systems (STRIS)	Ing. Pavel Vlček, Ph.D.	UML

### 3 AND WHAT ABOUT DFD DIAGRAMS?

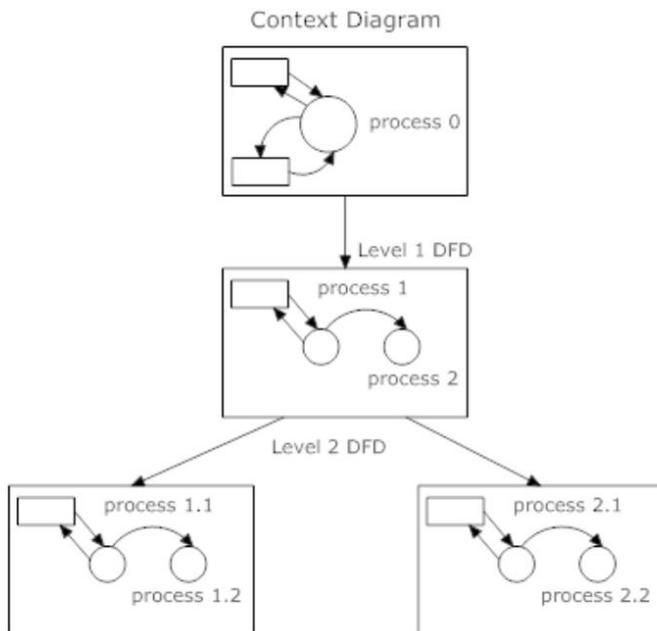
In ancient times (in the seventies of the last century) when I worked with IPO (Input Process Output) methodology at IBM (later elaborated in models IPO+S, HIPO, SIPOC, COPIS etc.) as an IT systems designer, I had the opportunity to experience the benefits of better diagrams for system processing scenarios, than the standard flowcharts which had prevailed in designing projects and programming in these years.

In the eighties IPO methodology (or method) was replaced by SSADM (Structured Systems Analysis and Design Method) with user-friendly DFD (Data Flow Diagrams). DFD diagrams are still far from flowchart, because they exclude cause and effect, sequences and the order of the process. They show what information is needed within a process, where it is stored, and how it moves through a system to accomplish business objective.

Data Flow Diagrams (DFD) help us in identifying existing business processes. It is a technique we benefit from particularly before we go through business process re-engineering. At its simplest, a data flow diagram looks at how data flows through a system. It is concerned with things like where the data will come from and go to, as well as, where it will be stored. The disadvantage of the DFD technique is that users won't find information about the processing timing (e.g. whether the processes happen in sequence or in parallel).

It is common practice to draw the context-level data flow diagram first, which shows the interaction between the system and outside world we talk about level 0. Level 1 is the next highest level view of the information flow; 2 is more granular than 1; 3 is more detailed than 2, and so on (top-down expansion) see Figure- was taken from (Smartdraw, 2014). From context diagram we drill down to DFD Level 1, from Level 1 to level 2 etc.

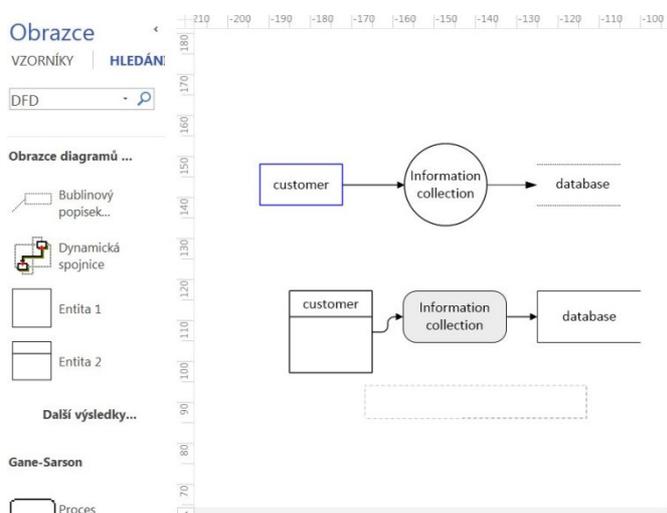
*Figure 1: The nesting of data flows layers*



The practice of keeping DFDs simple and separated into different sublevels is particularly helpful in the agile development process where many of the processes may change frequently. Also particularly useful to the agile process is that iterations of data flow diagrams may be archived to show the history of a project's development.

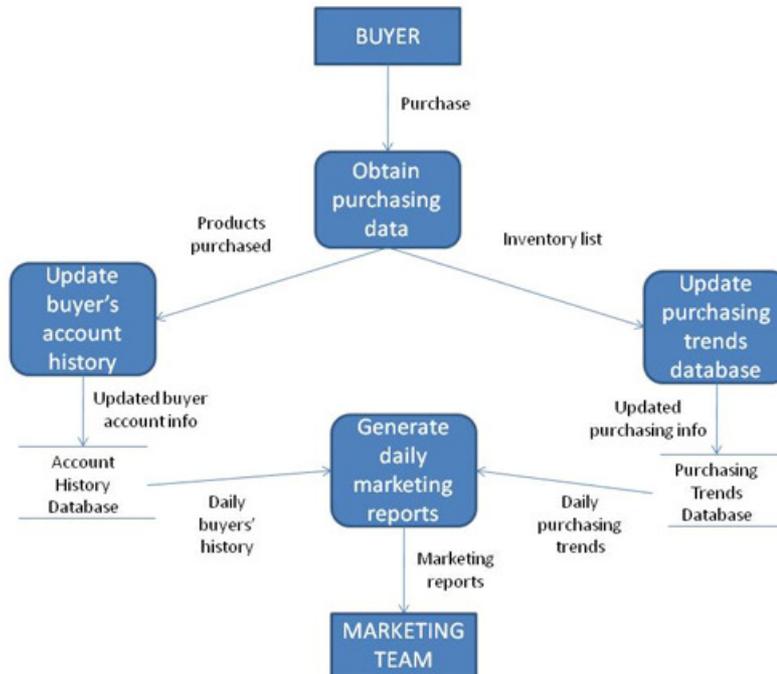
For drawing diagrams we use usually two notations (or symbols): Yourdon & Coad (more commonly used by business analysts) or Gene & Sarson, see Figure 2.

Figure 2: The processing (information collection) of customer data (external entity) and stores them in a database visualized in Visio 2013. Notation Yourdon and Coad was used on the top of picture and notation Gane and Sarson on the bottom of picture.



When all of the data flow elements are combined into one diagram using Yourdon & Coad symbols, we have a more complex example taken from (Masters, 2009), see Figure 3.

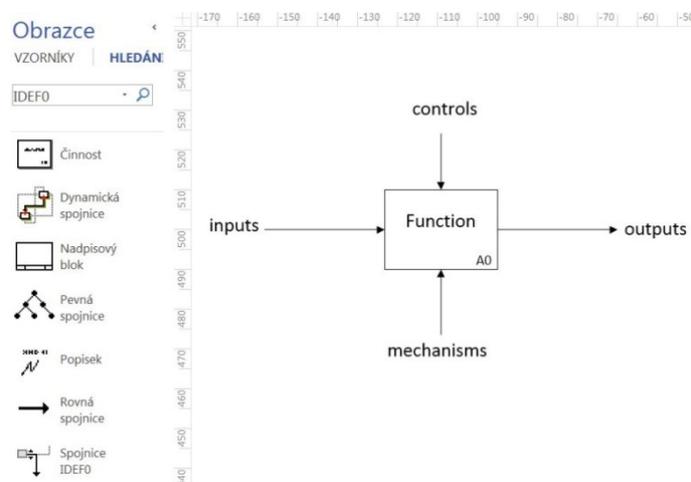
Figure 3: More complex example DFD diagram taken from (Masters).



The advantage of DFD diagrams are the excellent visualization of business processes that move throughout the system, with the disadvantage of difficult transformation programs and database models (Masters). But DFDs are not to capture the sequential processing logic of a system. However, once the system is in DFD decomposed down to a low enough level, it is very easy to then switch to sequence based flow diagrams to finish off the details (excellent ajmarkos comments to (Masters, 2009).

An alternative to DFD are IDEF0 diagrams that outside the input and output includes controls (guide or regulate the activity) and mechanisms (resources used to perform the activity), see Figure 4.

Figure 4: IDEF0 diagrams in Visio



But ajmarkos comment to (Masters, 2009) does not spare either UML Use Case diagram Use “Case diagram really is, a poor man's DFD: A DFD diagram without the essential data flows. Another reason why Use Cases are really poor man's DFD: They offer no guidance on how to proceed in logically partitioning a system”. By ajmarkos DFD's have other unique benefits such as a litmus test of completion and integration across the various requirements categories (business requirements, stakeholder requirements, and solution requirements).

## 4 UNIFIED MODELING LANGUAGE

Unified Modeling Language (UML) combines techniques from data modeling (entity relationship diagrams), business modeling (work flows), object modeling, and component modeling.

For example UML threatened to disappear when Agile methods gained popularity, but this model is used still. This model provides a structured way to think about an analyzed system. It is the conversation between actors and a system (Larson, 2014), which is all well and good in cases where we know what the chosen actors are and what our system is. The system contains all the work we want to do on the project. Actors (people, other systems, time triggers, triggers...) are always outside the system and always interact directly with the system. They provide input, and/or receive outputs from it.

## 5 BPMN

Business Process Modeling Notation (BPMN) is a method of illustrating business processes in the form of a diagram similar to a flowchart. BPMN is currently maintained by the Object Management Group (OMG). Some BPMN vendors have included animation features into their systems.

The most important university experts in the world of the BPMN area are:

Marlon Dumas, Swedbank Professor of Software Engineering, Institute of Computer Science, marlon.dumas@ut.ee, University of Tartu <http://sep.cs.ut.ee/>. Lectures 2014: <https://courses.cs.ut.ee/2014/bpm/Main/Lectures->. Subject: MTAT.03.231 Business Process Management.

### MTAT.03.231 Business Process Management

- Lecturers:
  - Marlon Dumas (marlon.dumas at ut dot ee)
  - Fabrizio Maggi (f.m.maggi at ut.ee)
- For questions, please use the following [Message Board](#)

Maurizio Morisio, Professor, Dept. of Control and Computer Engineering, Politecnico di Torino, Italy. <http://softeng.polito.it/courses/01PDW0V/>. Subject: 01PDW0V Information Systems.

## Information Systems (01PDW0V)

Master in Computer in Engineering

A.Y. 2013 - 2014

---

### Lecturer

Maurizio Morisio  
Politecnico di Torino  
Dip. Automatica e Informatica  
email: first.last\_at\_polito.it  
tel: 011 564-7033

Marcello La Rosa. an Associate Professor in Business Process Management (BPM) and Senior Lecturer with the BPM Research Group at the Faculty of Science & Technology, /, Queensland University of Technology – Brisbane, Australia. Also a Researcher with NICTA and a Liechtenstein IS Research Fellow with the Hilti Chair of BPM at the University of Liechtenstein. Subject: INN320 Business Process Modelling.

### Business Process Modelling

Unit code: INN320

Credit points: 12

[Information about fees and unit costs](#)

Weske Mathias, Prof. Dr. Business Process Technology. Hasso-Plattner-Institut, Germany.  
<http://bpt.hpi.uni-potsdam.de/Public/BPMNCorner#Tooling>

## 6 DIFFERENT BUT COMPATIBLE APPROACHES

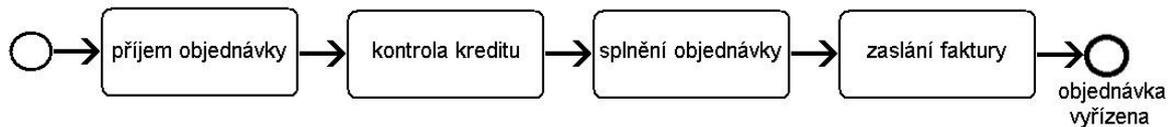
BPMN provides a standard, easy-to-read way of how to define and analyze public and private business processes. BPMN provides a standard notation that is readily understandable by management personnel, analysts and developers. The original intent of BPMN was to help bridge communication gaps that often exist between the various departments within an organization or enterprise. BPMN can also help to ensure that XML (Extensible Markup Language) documents designed for the execution of diverse business processes can be visualized with a common notation.

A diagram in BPMN is assembled from a small set of core elements, making it easy for technical and non-technical observers to understand the processes involved. Elements are categorized into three major groups called flow objects, connecting objects and swimlanes. Flow objects, denoted by geometric figures such as circles, rectangles and diamonds, indicate specific events and activities. Flow objects are linked with connecting objects, which appear as solid, dashed or dotted lines that may include arrows to indicate process direction. Swimlanes, so named because of their geometric resemblance to the lane lines on the bottom of a swimming pool, are denoted as solid, straight lines running lengthwise within a rectangle called a pool. The swimlanes organize diverse flow objects into categories having similar functionality. Pools represent independent organizational entities (e.g. customer and supplier), and lanes – representative resource classes in the same organizational space and sharing common systems, ( e.g. sales department, marketing department, clerk, manager).

We have three basic artifacts: data objects – a mechanism to show how data is required or produced by activities (depicted by a rectangle that has its upper-right corner folded over and represents input and output of a process activity), data stores are containers of data objects that need be persisted beyond the duration of a process instance, and associations (directed, undirected) that links artifacts such as data objects and data stores with flow objects (e.g. activities).

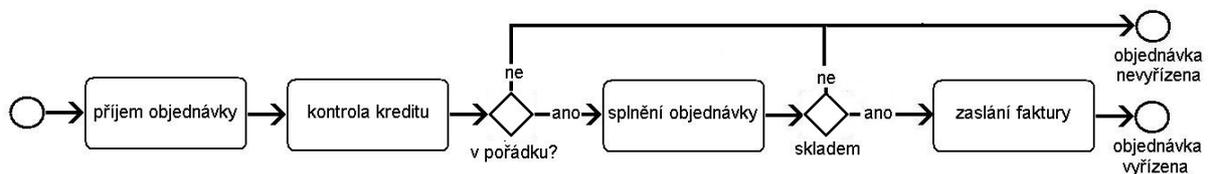
For more detail explanation we use several examples based on book (Silver, 2011). Consider the process to handle an order. The company receives the order, checks the buyer's credit, fulfills the order, and sends an invoice in simplest (Figure 5).

Figure 5: Elementary order process



Simple sequence of activities is not enough – the buyer's credit might not be sufficient, or the goods might not be in stock. Those situations would represent failed orders. A more complete model is in figure 6.

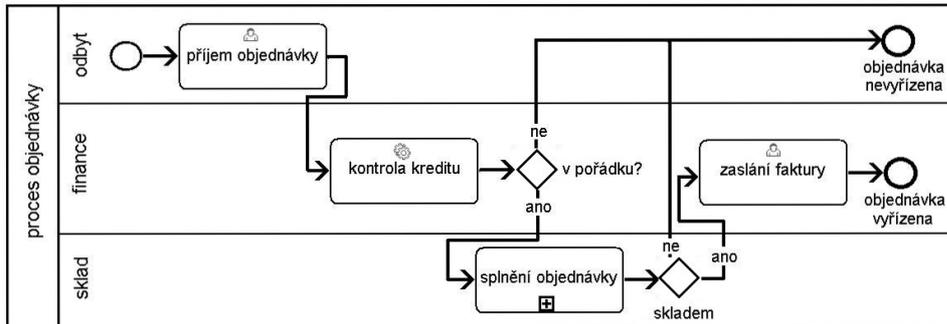
Figure 6: Order process with exception paths



In the figure is the symbol for start even and end event sequence symbols for activities and decisions (exclusive data-based gateways, resp. XOR gateways). If the credit check fails, we do not fulfil the order.

Order process with exception paths we can depict in the form of traditional flowcharts or Event-driven Process Chains. But BPMN is different. For example BPMS lets us indicate the performer of each activity, using swimlanes (or lanes). Lanes usually represent roles or organizational structure. We can also indicate the type of activity through icons and markers inside the rounded rectangle. In figure 7, příjem objednávky (or the received order) and zaslání faktury (or the invoice sent) are human (user) tasks, and Check credit is an automated (service) task.

Figure 7: Order process in swimlanes. We distinguish human and automated tasks



One of BPMN’s most important concepts is subprocess that is the activity containing subparts that can be expressed as a process flow. BPMN tools realize the expanded view, this jump from one level to lower level of subprocess can be done in two ways: inline or with the help of hyperlink, allowing zoom (Figure 8 and 9).

Figure 8: Inline subprocess expansion (Fulfill Order)

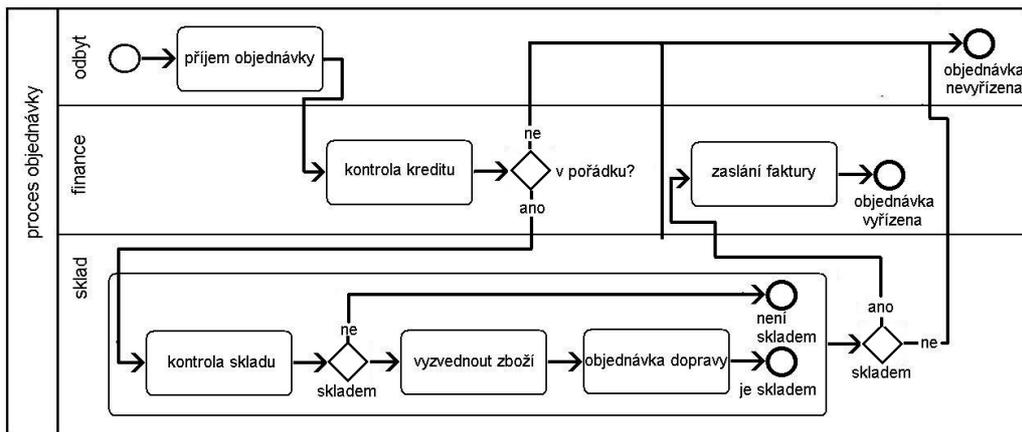
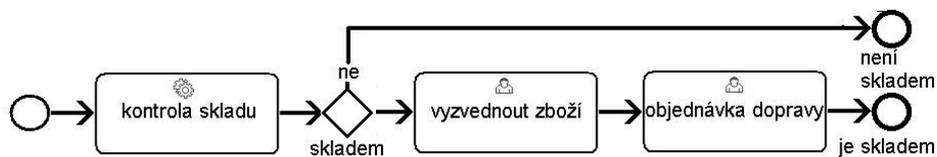


Figure 9: Subprocess expansion on a separate page



A good practice is that the top-level process should be simple (no gateways, no lanes) and should show the main phases of the process. Each phase then becomes a sub-process. Top-level process is basically a *value chain*. Introduce gateways and lanes at the next levels.

First level: start with a value chain. On the next level add main decisions and handoffs (lanes, see later). Only at the more detailed level add procedural aspects: parallel gateways, input and output data objects, data stores, different types of events etc. The biggest pitfall of process modeling are (Dumas, October 2013):

- Using the wrong type of gateways, e.g. decision gateway instead of parallel gateways
- Writing process models from top-to-bottom instead of left-to-right
- Not following strictly the rules of the BPMN notation
- Spending lots of time to produce detailed models that nobody uses

New BPMN tools are able to compare differences between “as-is” and “to-be” business processes see f.e. (Trkman, 2007). They are able to construct multiple animations in a business process diagram and to play different scenarios modeled in a business process diagram. BPMN tools provide various possibilities of equivalence patterns. This can help to structure diagrams and decrease their semantic complexity (Kluza, 2012).

Process analyses insights on weakness analysis and their impact. There are used two types of process analysis techniques: qualitative analysis (value-added analysis, issue analysis, root-cause analysis, pareto analysis) and quantitative analysis (quantitative flow analysis and process simulation). Purposes of qualitative analysis is to identify and eliminate waste (Value-added analysis) and identify and prioritize issues (Issue register, root-cause analysis (e.g. cause-effect diagrams) and pareto analysis).

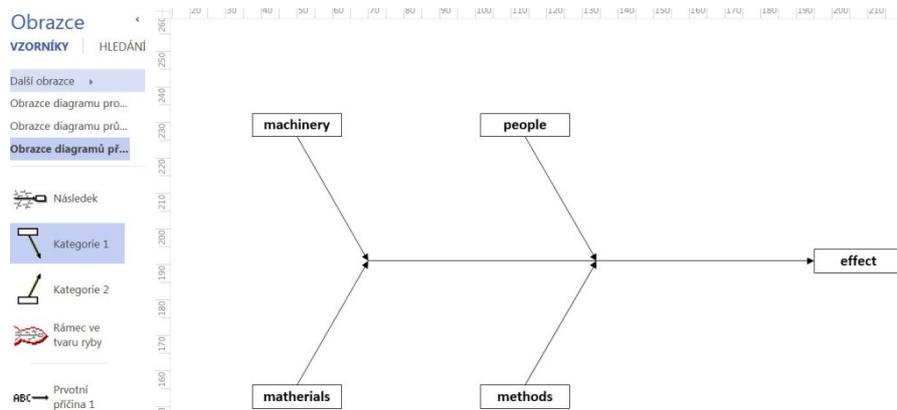
The right way to connect our ICT subjects isto start from the “Seven Wastes” defined by Taiichi Ohno (Toyota's Chief Engineer) later, was:

1. Unnecessary Transportation (*send, receive*)
2. Inventory (*large work-in-process*)
3. Motion (*drop-off, pick-up, go to*)
4. Waiting (*waiting time between tasks*)
5. Over-Processing (*performing what is not yet needed or might not be needed*)
6. Over-Production (*unnecessary cases*)
7. Defects (*rework to fix defects*)
8. Resource underutilization (idle resources)

The elimination of waste by Value-Added Analysis is based on decortication of the process into steps and the classification of each step into Value-adding (satisfaction to the customer), Business value-adding (useful for the business) or Non-value-adding (everything else, e.g. rework).

In management practice we use techniques for issue analysis, especially cause-effect diagrams (also called fishbone diagrams, herringbone diagrams, Ishikawa diagrams, or Fishikawa diagrams), why-why diagrams and Pareto charts. The Cause-effect diagram is a very useful tool when it comes to quality management and because it is usually done in a group setting as part of a brainstorming session, see Figure 10. it is important that we are able to realize this type of process analyze and use the same tools as process description.

Figure 10: Using cause-effect diagrams drawn in Visio



After finish process analyze (descriptive modelling) we are able to start the 3rd phase of the Business Process Lifecycle – process predesign (prescriptive modelling). Redesign heuristics can be used to generate ideas which means this phase requires the most creativity and is the reason it is so important in education.

For process redesign approaches, students learn two methods: Continuous Process Improvement (CPI) and Business Process Re-Engineering (BPR). CPI does not put into question the current process structure; it only seeks to identify issues and resolve them incrementally, one step at a time. BPR puts into question the fundamental assumptions and principles of the existing process structure, and aims to achieve breakthrough, for example by removing costly tasks that do not directly add value.

BPR is a tool that helps reduce weaknesses of BPMN: ambiguity and confusion in sharing BPMN models, support for routine work, support for knowledge work, and converting BPMN models to executable environments. It captures information once and at the source. BPR subsumes information-processing work into real work that produces the information, treats geographically dispersed resources as if they were centralized, and have those who use the output of the process drive the process.

BPMN is a suitable tool for Incremental Process Re-design (IPR). IPR selects issues to address, improvement goals, maps goals to process performance measures and set objectives/targets, applies re-design heuristics on an “as is” process model and analyzes the tradeoffs (e.g. tradeoff between costs, time, quality and flexibility – the devil’s quadrangle (a concept introduced by Brand and Van der Kolk, 1995), selects promising “change options”, as well as, justifies and prioritizes their implementation.

Why are we not able to define business processes in our first attempt? ISO 9000 and CMMI (Capability Maturity Model Integration, see <http://www.sei.cmu.edu/cmmi/>) assess the quality or maturity of a business in terms of its business processes in such this way: 1. Initial/Ad Hoc, 2. Repeatable but Intuitive, 3. Defined Process, 4. Managed and Measurable, 5. Optimized. In COBIT were the maturity models (MMs) first created in 2000 and at that time were designed based on the original CMM scale with the addition of an extra level (0). BPMN offers several types of business process models according to the COBIT concept (Polanič, 2013):

- Process model – shows process elements under a logical control flow and shows sequential dependencies between activities.

- Collaboration model – shows interactions between processes and shows messages which exchange data and coordinate work.
- Conversation model – shows data exchanged between processes (also systems, functions, roles or actors) and is limited to common communications; it can be used to show a process map, a top-level view of processes and their interactions
- Choreography model – focus on between-process interactions and message flows

BPMN 1.0 was standardized in 2004, BPMN 2.0 in 2010, but even this version is not without its shortcomings. It (Chinosi, 2009) was criticized by its many weaknesses notation BPMN 2.0, and at first the provided metamodel was too complex.

## 7 B2B RULES

BPMN specifies certain rules for modeling message flows and sequence flows. Sequence Flows can only be drawn among events, processes, and gateways within the same pool. Message Flows can only be drawn between events, processes, or gateways that exist in different pools – since messages are only passed between different organizations or applications, and so forth.

BPMN suggests that these rules be enforced by the modeling tool providing BPMN support. System Architect enforces these drawing rules by presenting a ghostbuster symbol and disallowing connections between the wrong elements; it only allows connections to proper model elements. This helps you prevent introducing errors or logical inconsistencies into B2B systems as you model.

## 8 CHOOSING AMONG CUSTOM DEVELOPMENT AND SaaS

Custom software development approach means creating software for some specific application. A BPM-based development approach applies techniques and development tools for creating process applications that permit continuous, iterative improvement of all the processes involved in running a business. A SaaS-based development approach uses specific remote services which are combined and invoked via the Web in order to create a new application.

Each approach has its advantages and disadvantages, and the relative pluses and minuses of each approach depend upon which factors you consider to be most important and usessing the FURPS (Functionality, Usability, Reliability, Performance and Supportability) model for software quality overlaid on the classic “Time-Cost-Scope” model. In the paper (Holterman, 2014) seven typical criteria (Time to market, Scope/clarity of requirements, Cost Usability, Reliability, Supportability, Performance) were defined and each of the three application development approaches relative to the others on base weight criteria were evaluated .

## 9 WHAT’S NEXT?

In this paper several techniques were described – the most important for our teaching purpose is BPMN and partially UML. Between them are strong differences: BPMN takes a process-centric approach to the modeling of applications, while UML offers an object-oriented approach. BPMN defines a single type of diagram that has multiple views derived from the

same underlying process execution meta-model. UML is an aggregation of diagrams that are the results of the collective best practices of the various founding practitioners. BPMN is primarily devoted to communication in the style of “manager – manager“ while UML is specially for communication for “system engineer – programmer”.

For example software iGrafx is instrumental in its efforts to clearly see all of business processes and uncover duplication, overlap, and waste. “The ability to see the quantity of processes in place is helpful, but the real benefit is being able to clearly see all of the overlays and connections between the processes. We are now able to identify and streamline interactions between processes and support systems. The relationships between processes and strategic goals, SLA (Service Level agreements) and KPI (Key Performance Indicators) we could also integrate” (iGraf, 2014).

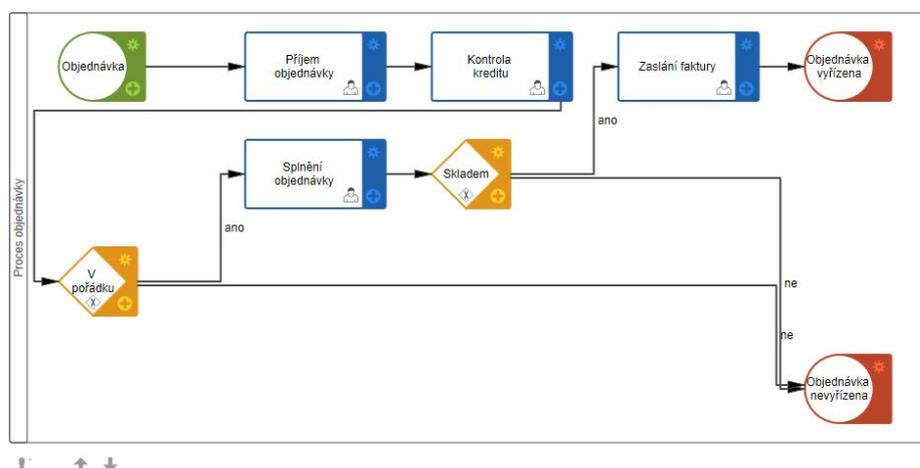
As discussed in the context of COBIT Business BPM, it is a useful tool not only for process diagrams views, but also from business process security aspects and Privacy Policies Integration.

A lot of BPMN is for universities with a significant discount, but not without cost, e.g - Kissflow: “We have special pricing for Educational and nonprofit Organizations. Contact us”. Visual Paradigm's Academic program is free of charge, but not for private schools (<https://www.visual-paradigm.com/partner/academic/>).

We communicate now with company Semtation (Dr.-Ing. Frauke Weichhardt Semtation GmbH Geschwister-Scholl-Straße 38 14471, Potsdam, Germany, tel +49 331 581 39 36 Mobil +49 172 317 12 81 Mail fweichhardt@semtalk.com) about their product. In the meantime it is possible to install a free 30 day trial version of SemTalk with full functionality.

The best possibility is to participate in an evaluation of some product. We have the option to test a Beta version of BPM Modeler and give the author comments and suggestions after we use it. The picture shows a test example. This research product company Agile ICT is based on experience, based strictly on OMG standards and will probably be cleared of any glitches, which can be found in products available. And what is essential - for schools it will be free. The authors have been gained a lot of experience from its testing, and it if will be realized, it is something to look forward to.

Figure 11: Test example in BPM Modeler



And the paper's final words: Students need to be shown many different tools for modeling, to know that software support is changing, but that the basic modelling principles remain. It is also necessary to observe the other subjects of the study profile, search for common ground and notify colleagues of where in other subjects IT tools are utilized.

## LITERATURE

DUMAS, Marlon, La ROSA, Marcello. *Fundamentals of Business Process Management*. Springer; 2013 edition (March 9, 2013), ISBN-10: 3642331424.

DUMAS, Marlon. *Fundamentals of Business Process Management. Quick Introduction to Value-Driven Process Thinking*. University of Tartu, Estonian BPM Roundtable – 10 Oct. 2013.

HOLTERMAN, Reint Jan. *Choosing among Custom Development, BPM and SaaS*. Accessible from: <http://www.bpmlider.com/wp-content/uploads/2014/02/eBook-Choosing-among-BPM-SaaS-and-Custom-Development.pdf>

CHINOSI, Michele. *Representing Business Processes: Conceptual Model and Design Methodology*. Joint Research Centre on Jan 13, 2009, Accessible from: <http://www.slideshare.net/mchinosi/my-phd-dissertation-presentation>

iGRAF *Enabling a Process-Oriented Supply Chain*. Beyond the Swimlane® January 2013. Accessible from: <http://www.igrafx.com/resources/Newsletters>.

KLUZA, Krzysztof and KACZOR, Krzysztof. *Overview of BPMN Model Equivalences. Towards normalization of BPMN diagrams*. Accessible from: [http://ceur-ws.org/Vol-949/kese8-06\\_08.pdf](http://ceur-ws.org/Vol-949/kese8-06_08.pdf)

LARSON, Elizabeth and LARSON, Richard. *Why Don't Use Cases Just Go Away? Part 1: Use Case Diagrams*. January 2014. Accessible from: [http://www.watermarklearning.com/downloads/Why%20Dont%20Use%20Cases%20Just%20Go%20Away.pdf?inf\\_contact\\_key=f88453f934790761a390d64ea9f605cc86ed0fe275471bcc35a930e10c878d46](http://www.watermarklearning.com/downloads/Why%20Dont%20Use%20Cases%20Just%20Go%20Away.pdf?inf_contact_key=f88453f934790761a390d64ea9f605cc86ed0fe275471bcc35a930e10c878d46)

MASTERS, Morgan. *An Introduction to Data Flow Diagrams*. Accessible from: <http://www.modernanalyst.com/Resources/Articles/tabid/115/articleType/ArticleView/articleId/2009/An-Introduction-to-Data-Flow-Diagrams.aspx>

PETERSEN, Sobah Abbas. *Modelling of Information Systems Advanced Course*. Norwegian University of Science and Technology, 2011. Accessible from: <http://www.idi.ntnu.no/emner/tdt4252/2011/Lectures/lecture7-process-modelling.pdf>

POLANČIČ, Gregor. *Business processes BPMN-style*. January 2013. Accessible from: <http://grahamberrisford.com/AM%202%20Ref%20model%20and%20techniques/AM%202%20Techniques/AM%208%20Technique%20-%20Process%20BPMN.pdf>

SILVER, Bruce. *BPMN method & style*. 2nd Edition. Cody-Cassidy Press 2011, ISBN 973-0-9823681-1-4.

SMARTDRAW. *Data Flow Diagram Layers*. Accessible from: <http://www.smartdraw.com/resources/tutorials/data-flow-diagram-notations/#/resources/tutorials/Data-Flow-Diagram-Layers>

TRKMAN, Peter etc. *Process approach to supply chain integration*. Research paper. Supply Chain Management: An International Journal. Volume 12 Number 2, 2007, pp.116–128.

VERNADAT, Francois. *Enterprise Modeling and Integration*. Chapman & Hall, London, 1996, ISBN 0 412 6055-0 3.

**Doc. Ing. Jaroslav Dočkal, CS.**

Vysoká škola Karla Engliš, a.s.

Mezírka 775/1

602 00 Brno

WHAT IS LESS, WHAT IS MORE AND WHAT IS JUST RIGHT FOR MODELLING BUSINESS PROCESSES?

**Jaroslav Dočkal**

Karel Engliš College

Mezírka 775/1, 602 00 Brno

Czech Republic

e-mail: Jaroslav.dockal@vske.cz

**Abstract:**

Conference paper discusses the appropriateness of including different techniques for teaching business process modeling. Paper concludes that students need to be shown many different tools for modeling, to know that software support is changing, but that the basic modelling principles remain. It is also necessary to observe the other subjects of the study profile, search for common ground and notify colleagues of where in other subjects IT tools are utilized.

**Key words:** business process, BPN, BPMN, UML, DFD.

**JEL Classification:** M51

# **ARE EXPATRIATE MANAGERS A CRITICAL FACTOR FOR SUCCES?**

**Gabriele Hausmann**

## **1 Introduction**

### **1.1 Purpose**

This paper should open a field for discussion if the work experience a person makes in other cultures is useful in the respective home country too. Is this experience an advantageous factor or disadvantageous in the process of the person returning to the home country? This paper will also address ideas and approaches on how to use this new knowledge and maybe improving the reintegration of staff and managers into daily business in the respective home countries.

### **1.2 Motivation**

In present time a lot of companies do business all over the world and tend to send a lot of people to other countries and completely different cultural areas. These persons have to adapt their behavior to be accepted in the “new” country and to be able to do a successful job. The question that is barely ever raised is the one in regards to the persons’ interest in this kind of learning. The person is expected to overcome any issues and reach objectives. In general it is to be noted that at the beginning some people try to avoid to adapt to the new culture but that - after a short period of time - most of them realize that this process of adaption cannot be avoided. Not everything that happens in such situations is on a voluntary basis, but it is necessary and helpful.

After a certain period abroad most of these managers / staff return to their respective home country and are experiencing new difficulties and issues when returning. Many of them also face big issues to find their place and orientation in their home base culture. Furthermore reintegration into existing company structures and the existing company culture can be a big challenge. The question to answer here is if there is any success formula to bring all parties involved to a win-win situation and to use the skills the managers / staff have learned abroad also at home, especially in leadership situations.

### **1.3 Methods**

This paper highlights possible opportunities but cannot prove their individual success factor in a concrete situation. The purpose of this document is to provide some processes and ideas from daily practice which can be used in other business areas too. The aim is to analyze and check their suitability in a concrete business environment and create a special way of using it for the individual case. One has to be aware that these situations may bring an enhancement of culture acceptance to a company but may also reduce integration and cooperation.

## **1.4 Assingment**

This short paper does not claim to offer a set of new methods that has been tested and proofed. It is just to be used as a basis for discussion and reflection on some opportunities and chances that can be and must be used in daily business for a better way of cooperation and mutual acceptance. Depending on the view and approach something may be seen as problematic or as helpful.

## **2 Delegation and its consequences**

Most companies decide to delegate staff or managers under the aspects to enter and/ or work a new market or any other economic consideration. These economic reasons dominate the decision to delegate or not. The aspects of individual development for the person being sent abroad or training to enlarge individual competences are rarely even looked at. The goal of the companies is to enter new markets, bring their own company style to other parts of the world and to be as or even more successful as at home and to earn a lot of money. At the end of the day only profit or any other economic goal count. Some companies want to transfer their ideas and culture in the new markets too and want to make sure that the company style is unique as well as alike all over the world. Terms like corporate behavior or corporate design are characteristic for those ambitions but most of the time they only stand for the tool used to reach the companies' economic goals.

### **2.1 Delegation**

When is the term "delegation" used and when do other countries' cultures start to influence the individuals?

To answer this question one has to differentiate between 3 main types of delegation: The Business Trip – normally it lasts only a few days, maximum a month. (Apfelthaler1999)

Secondment – can take some months or even years and has a supporting function in the foreign country. When the members of the "guest" organization or society are able to do the tasks on their own, the mission will end and the person supporting returns to his home company / country. Generally Secondment is used in the

army or in military organizations. In economic business units Secondment is far less important than delegation, but it would be interesting to explore how the transfer of Secondment to them would affect them.

Delegation – normal it lasts a few years and in many cases it also includes that partners and family move abroad too to live there. This is the classic situation referred to when one refers to expatriates.

Most people do not differentiate between the 3 types mentioned above, but it is of importance to do so due the different impacts. Delegation comprises the longest period of time and the return to the home country as well as the reintegration into daily business life is the most difficult compared to business trips or Secondment.

## **2.2 Selection for Delegation**

The question which person will be suitable for foreign delegation is one of those questions that are rarely asked and very often a question without an answer in many enterprises. The importance to answer this question properly is ignored even though the consequences of this decision can have a heavy impact within and also outside the company. In case of business trips the skills required to be delegated are expertise and knowledge on the special task to be fulfilled. Personal skills are neglected in most cases and do not have the same importance than being an expert in a certain area. It would be interesting to compare the success between a group of experts and a group of people who were chosen

to be delegated due to their tolerance level, their interest in new cultures and their curiosity in regards to living in a foreign country. This tolerance level might be a success factor in building bridges to local people and create strong relationships.

But in most cases though, human resource experts focus on expertise and knowledge in the special task required for the job abroad. Those 2 factors are usually the main selection criteria for hiring a person in the home country and thus they are usually used for sending people abroad as well. Irrespective of job content and location a more thorough focus should be laid on personal skills and personal constitution.

Most of the time difficulties and conflicts (Schwarz 2010) stem from animosities between individuals and it is quite rare that they stem from different knowledge levels or lacks of expertise. If one refers to management and leadership skills the relationships between human beings and successful creation of relations are meant. But it is of course a lot easier to prove an expert status than to prove character traits and conduct. Therefore “the old-fashion style” to select personnel is preferred.

But what cannot be ignored is the fact that integration into a foreign environment is more difficult than at home and therefore it seems to be of greater importance to focus on personal abilities and social skills.

When talking about Secondment or delegation one of the main criteria in the selection process is that a person is willing to live in a foreign country for a longer time and possibly his family too. A second point to focus on is if this person is able to stand his ground in the foreign country and his personal needs in regards to guidance and leadership support. If a person seems to be able to work at his own initiative without requiring orders and permanent control from his superior, he has a good chance to be selected for delegation or Secondment.

An interesting skill to look at is the survivability in a foreign culture as well as the entrepreneurial power. Later on in the paper we will look into the fact that these skills may cause difficulties and conflicts during the reintegration process in the home company. If a person is able and willing to work very much at his own initiative, he prefers to work this way most of the time and is not enthusiastic to possibly be facing strict rules and regulations.

It is a matter of fact that only a few companies have created selection criteria for delegation which include skills like the ability to adapt to different cultures, different behavior and manners, Also it is very rarely defined how to integrate personnel and reintegrate, etc.

It would be rather easy though to define such criteria and test possible candidates for delegation in a special assessment centers or any other appropriate selection process.<sup>5</sup>

Some big companies, like for example Siemens<sup>6</sup> or EADS, do have a theoretical part about working abroad and what it means for a manager in their leadership training. But if managers of these companies are interviewed off-the-record, most of them will state that they were not well prepared, when they started their mission. It seems to be just an idea or theoretical part but not very useful for daily practice. What they did not expect in the first place were immense difficulties generated by misunderstandings of culture and manners. A lot of them came to the countries like “conquerors” with some kind of colonial mentality. Their main view was: “We know what you need and be happy that we are here to tell you.” This approach is not really helpful to create prospering relationships, where there is respect for one another and people working at eye level. Due to this attitude the managers

do not see any necessity to look into foreign cultures and mentality and learn about the system they want to be a part of.

The preparation programs taught the managers about different manners in different countries but not about different values or mentality. It was only a superficial training, no in-depth views were given.

Of course this approach cannot be recommended as best practice because the main factors and the most important ones are ignored. Different values and attitudes have a great influence if working together will be successful or not.

### 2.3. Term of Delegation

To talk about the influence of peregrine culture first of all the idea of “culture” has to be defined a little bit more. (To give a detailed definition of culture will not possible in this short paper). Nancy Adler<sup>7</sup> has defined culture as follows: She talks about a cycle of: values

– attitude – behavior and culture and its complex interaction. The result is very complex

and gives an overview about society’s cultural orientation. Acting can be conscious and unconscious. Her theory is based on the awareness of Edgar Schein<sup>8</sup> and she acts on the assumption that values influence acting and by this way create cultural influence. One factor cannot exist without the other and special interaction builds special and individual factors of a culture area.

Looking at the question in regards to the duration of delegation it seems to be interesting to define when cultural influence starts? How long does a person have to take part in this cycle that he gets influenced? Are a few days enough for a person to change his own behavior patterns because of the influence of other participants of a system?

<sup>2</sup> Adler 2008

<sup>3</sup> Schein Edgar, 1928, Prof. em.at MIT Sloan School of Management and „father“ of Organizational Culture

One can prove this theory with a very simple, small example: Thinking about a private holiday trip a person will mention that he notices differences in his behavior very clearly and if they allure to him, he agrees to integrate them in his own life and behavior at home very quickly. Examples would be regional food or beverage, rituals, etc. Even if one does not integrate them permanently in his life, he notices the differences and is conscious of them. The shorter the stay, the clearer the differences to a person. People will use it consciously and also talk about it. If a person lives in another culture area for years, the differences get more normal and are integrated in personal life. They vanish to a subconscious level. When returning back home it can happen that the former “normal” is now strange and irritating. Also the behavior of the person returning may be noticed as “strange” by others in home country. Now the returning person does not fit to the system at home anymore, because he fits better into the foreign system of the last few years. Those who “stayed behind” at home may not even understand the reason for the difference in behavior because they do not know the other culture. Only the expatriate person can distinguish between the cultures, because he is the only person who knows both sides.

The reason for the co-workers’ irritation at home is their lack in experience with the other culture. It just seems strange to them. Therefore it may happen that the expatriate person will be treated like an “exotic”. Most of the time there is another engagement abroad waiting for the expatriate very soon and for the moment problem is solved for the company. The problem of course remains when the expatriate will stay at his home bases

permanently or if there is no other opportunity for another delegation soon. Then the difficult procedure of reintegration starts. (Winter1996)

### **3 Reintegration**

What is required to reintegrate a person into a former team or group of people successfully? What can happen if reintegration fails?

If one follows the systemic<sup>10</sup> approach<sup>11</sup> focusing on groups, teams and their dynamics, then it is to be said that normally all roles are staffed. If one person leaves the group a new casting process immediately starts. Teams structure themselves again, roles are staffed and jobs delegated to the remaining team members. Rankings and hierarchies are built up again. If a member returns after a few days the place will be kept free in the meantime and it just looks temporarily unfilled. The longer a person is absent, the faster the reengineering process starts. One can say that during 2 – 3 weeks nothing will happen in the dynamics of this group but the longer the absence takes the faster the gap will be closed by the others. If somebody leaves for years it seems that he is only a part of the history of the group without any meaning in present times. It feels as if he would never come back.

#### **3.1. Critical Parameters<sup>12</sup> <sup>13</sup>**

The attitude outlined above shows one of the main critical parameters.

There is no empty place available for the person who comes back that can be taken by him immediately.

Actually there is one person too much now and this person demands for a place in a closed system.

---

<sup>10</sup> Herwigg-Lemp 2004

<sup>11</sup> Poggendorf 2012

<sup>12</sup> Wegerich 2006

<sup>13</sup> Sedlmayer 2009

The expatriate sees himself still as part of the team he left years ago, even if this team does not exist anymore. On the other hand nobody “missed” this person, some people do not even know the former member and nobody really knows what kind of job / tasks he is supposed to do. The person is a source of irritation in a well-working machinery.

The returning expatriate very often has the attitude and personal opinion that he did a great job for the company during the past years and it is now time to win laurels for what he did. Sometimes these persons expect to be treated like a “VIP” by the company showing them some kind of gratitude and appreciation. The result of this attitude is that there are factors in place which could raise a conflict<sup>14</sup> very quickly. Those persons who stayed “be- hind” do not want to be disturbed by another person they do not really need in their team and the expatriate expects an affectionate welcome and the opportunity to show what he has learned abroad.

The situation aggravates when the expatriate uses new manners and behavior patterns. Maybe those manners are a real “no-go” at home. The question: “What for do we need this person?” turns rather quickly into the sentence: “We do not need this person, especially not in our system.” The expatriate will be excluded and therefore will be frustrated. A possible consequence can be the withdrawal from the group or even aggression and re- sistance. It will be hard for the expatriate to understand what happens.

### **3.2 Expectations**

Both sides’ expectations could hardly be more blatant. The incorporating group believes that -if they have to accept a new member - this person has to become integrated into existing structures, culture and behavior. The normal course of action must not be dis turbed and the expatriate has to queue up at the end of the queue. Most of time the pro- cesses are unknown to the expatriate though due to his absence when these processes have been set up.

---

<sup>14</sup> Rothe

The expatriate on the other hand comes back with a lot of experience and knowledge that he would like to share with the others. He defines himself as a well-informed person. It depends on the character of the person, but sometimes it happens, that one can detect an attitude like: “You should be happy that I am back and I can tell you all about how the big wide world works, because you, who stayed at home, know nearly nothing about this.” This attitude, of course, aggravates the possible conflict quickly.

These factors cause a harsh rat-race between them all. The main discussion points are: who knows better how to do things right, who is the most clever person, etc. This battle cannot be won and the way into a positive cooperation is stopped immediately. Everybody insists on his point of view and the working atmosphere is poisoned.

Therefore it is necessary to elaborate solutions immediately and the first step is to create awareness for the problem arising. The next step could be to convince everybody that his work and knowledge are important for the common success of the team and that competition is not necessary. All participants should nourish one another and the group should not split up into different hostile parties. This of course only works when none of the participants loses his face and acceptance and respect have a basis to increase. All of the participants have the right and possibility to coexist and work together in a friendly environment.

In general one can say that the top management expects that everything continues smoothly, without any troubles and turbulences. They tend to ignore upcoming difficulties as long as possible and are then very astonished and disgusted if the normal way of life is affected by conflicts in groups and teams. There is a tendency towards ignorance in management and only a few processes of protection against the avoidance of conflicts are usually set up.

As there is no predefined way on how to handle delegation and return, this topic offers a large area for conflicts. Big companies like for example General Electric<sup>15</sup> have implemented some steps in their management education programs. But they also define and prepare more for the delegation process and focus less on what happens when the expatriate people return again in the home company. To be conscious about this problem could be the first step to deal with it. On the other hand this situation may also be a chance to find new ways of co-operation and learn new methods to lead the teams. Synergies can be used in a positive way and can be included in professional life and working style.

To summarize one can say that currently expectations in management are that reintegration works without any issues and does add to the workload – in most cases that is an illusion though. The returning expatriates on the other hand, expect attention, praise and maybe a jump in one’s career because of the achievements abroad.

## **4 Solution Approaches**

To handle the delegation as well as the reintegration effectively for all participants, a well- prepared process is recommended. It is also very helpful to increase awareness within the company that this kind of situation is not trouble-free and will not solve itself.

### **4.1 Pre-Phase**

If a company plans to send staff or managers abroad it is necessary to prepare various ways to handle it, depending on the different duration of stays.

---

<sup>15</sup> With more than 300,000 employees and operations in over 140 countries, GE employees reflect both the local communities we serve and the people with whom we do business. We see diversity and inclusiveness as an essential part of our productivity, creativity, innovation and competitive advantage.

### **4.1.1**

### **4.1.2 Secondment**

As this absence can last longer and most of the time there is no exact end defined, it will not be sufficient to spare work duties, but one needs an additional person as a substitute. A person cannot do these extra tasks in addition to his own job. (For economic reasons companies very often try to spare work without hiring another additional person and the reasoning is: “We do not know how long the Secondment will last and we suppose the previous owner of this job will be back very soon.”) Hiring additional staff is an unwanted cost factor and most managers try to avoid it also because the costs influence their own bonus. But one can be sure that if money is saved this way, the work cannot be done in a proper way and results will not be convincing either. There is only one case where it can be done this way, which is, when the job ceases to exist. Otherwise a company will have quite a lot of issues very soon.

### **4.1.3 Delegation**

This kind of absence is comparable to a complete retirement. Everything that is necessary in such a situation also has to be done in case of delegation. Nobody knows if the employee will come back for sure and if so, when it will be. Therefore the job has to be assigned to a new person. This act usually unsettles the person delegated as it shows clearly that the

“old” job is now taken by a new person and that - when coming back - a new job has to be created / found. This uncertainty generates antagonism - for example when the person delegated should inform the new person taking his job about the details of his former job. The replacement is - in the subjective feeling of the leaving person - some kind of threat because he gets his former place and job and becomes part of the group. This emotion is a little bit similar to jealousy and envy. Most of the delegated persons would prefer that the place stays empty and they can come back whenever they want. This is of course not realistic but it is understandable.

Delegation is the most difficult decision with the widest consequences and therefore the most emotional of all three types - in the phase of leaving as well as in the phase of coming back home. That is the reason why it is so important to have accompanying measures and to set up a process on how outgoing and return will happen.<sup>16</sup>

When a person comes back to his home company, for many team members the person is unknown or forgotten. Therefore coming back is similar to a new entrance of someone into a company and needs defined measures like an introduction process. A benefit can be that there are common experiences with some other people in the company, but this depends on if these were good or bad experiences. Though, it can also be a disadvantage.

It is very important that the expatriate person is well prepared in regards to which kind of group dynamics he has to expect. Most people expect to continue where they have left and they also tend to forget easily that they themselves also have changed a lot in their behavior.

It is very important to make all those different factors very clear to the person selected for delegation before delegation actually starts because this also can be an argument for or against the decision for staying or leaving.

The better the theoretical preparation, the bigger the success in implementation will be.<sup>17</sup>

---

<sup>16</sup> Winter1996  
<sup>17</sup> Lehky 2012

#### **4.2. Program<sup>18</sup>**

As mentioned before, a methodic and well-known process on how to handle all types of being absent from the mother company is something that gives staff and managers the feeling to be well versed and to know what the typical way in the company in dealing with working abroad is. This offers orientation and transparency. Irritation can be minimized and a modus operandi can be demanded. As described before the critical phases are at the point of outgoing and return. Those two points have to be highlighted very clearly and precisely.

The following model has to be prompted by the top management and also has to be controlled and demanded by them. This underlines the importance and meaning of this procedure.

Step 1:

Make clear that activities in other parts of the world are important for the company and favored by the managing board. Every member of management or staff has to know this.

Step 2:

The way of handling this is specified and a matching human resource development program has been implemented. It is a part of a training plan for managers and staff.

The main topics are dynamic interaction and cultural differences, how to handle it and use it in a positive way. Knowledge about other culture should be apprehended as an enrichment of personal competences and as some kind of special knowledge that is helpful and requested also for further career steps in the enterprise. Sensitization for the positive effects at an early stage helps to avoid or even to minimize resistance. This helps the expatriates and those who remain at home in Mother Company and later on are facing different manners, culture and behavior. Everybody is well prepared and knows what could happen.

---

<sup>18</sup> Schabert 2007

Step 3:

Prepare the delegated ones well in regards to what kind of culture they will be facing and what is special and different in this culture. Tell them the “dos and don’ts” and specify the role of the company in this area. These skills open doors and accelerate the acceptance in the foreign country. That is also the way to minimize the individual performance and get more standardized performance for all staff.

Rules offer orientation and the perception is on a more corporate level. Step 4:

Set up a predetermined way back as well as reintegration of the expatriate staff and managers. The management should not forget to plan for some kind of recognition and appraisal for the earnings abroad and try to integrate the newly acquired competences into work at home - this knowledge should not be seen as a factor of disturbance but as expertise. This expertise can also be very helpful in the mother company and in coping with tasks there.

Business environments will be well prepared for the reentrance of a former member and the homecoming person will be prepared to come back in a more formal environment with less free space and potential to make own decisions. This is a remarkable point of view because very often managers abroad are at the top management level and behave a little bit like entrepreneurs. The mother company is far away and they cannot and will not ask for help with everything, so they make decisions by themselves. At home they return to a lower level of managing function and are forced to ask for approval on a lot of things and even regulations are stricter. For some of them it is very difficult to adapt themselves to this structure again and they need a helping hand for it. They were in charge of the branch office abroad as if it would have been their own company and now they have to act under rules and regulations and are controlled much more. They can be offended and may see it as some kind of punishment.

It is a big error to believe that this radical change of working conditions will work free of conflicts, just by itself, without any supportive measures. It is absolutely important and necessary to prepare every person affected in regards to what can and maybe will happen because of this change of role, position, culture etc. and find a common way to handle these circumstances in a positive way. Not only the change of role offers a lot of differences in self-perception and how others notice the person. Also values and attitudes change a lot. If one repositions a person who notices himself as being on top management level, in a position others declare as second or third level, a lot of conflicts can raise from that fact. If there is no rule or regulation for it, escalation can be the next step or even so called long term “cold conflicts” which generate big harm for the companies.

If all participants are aware of this discrepancy it is possible to elaborate and learn a constructive common way on how to handle this situation. Rivalry can be minimized and all members of a team have the chance to work in an amicable coexistence together and benefit from one another. The inclusion of new cultural aspects is a success factor - also their usage at home. In life praxis you can see more exclusion than inclusion and this is neither very constructive nor helpful.

## **Conclusion**

In summary one can say that delegation of managers or staff to other countries and culture areas is an enrichment in knowledge and social competences, if the process is well planned, implemented and accompanied by appropriate measures. The message, that working abroad is an important value in company, has to come from top management and the project should be set-up there. That is the basis for a constructive debate and a well working implementation. It requires good planning, increase of awareness, sensitization, integrative skills, open-mindedness and a positive working atmosphere. Therefore it is less important which kind of culture will be imported, but the way it happens and the usage of those skills. If one can manage these aspects well, it offers a big resource and advantage in comparison to other competitors.

## Bibliography

ADLER, N. und Gundersen, A. 2008. *International Dimensions of Organizational Behavior*. Mason USA : Thomson South Western, 2008.

APFELTHALER, G. 1999. *Interkulturelles Management*. Die Bewältigung kultureller Differenzen in der internationalen Unternehmenstätigkeit. Wien : Manz, 1999.

DEBRUS, C. 1995. Die Vorbereitung von Mitarbeitern auf den Auslandseinsatz: Aus der Praxis der Henkel KGaA S 119-141 in *Mitarbeiterentsendung ins Ausland: Auswahl, Vorbereitung, Betreuung und Wiedereingliederung*. Göttingen, Bern, Toronto, Seattle: Hogrefe : Kühlmann, Torsten M., 1995.

DGFP. 2010. *Expat-Management, Auslandseinsätze erfolgreich gestalten*. Bielefeld : Bertelsmann Verlags Gesmbh &CO KG, 2010.

Electric, General. 2014. <http://www.ge.com/careers/culture/diversity>. [Online] 05. 02 2014.

[Zitat vom: 05. 02 2014.]

ETTLIN, T. 2003. *Lernen in anderen Arbeitswelten*. Zürich : Orell Füssli, 2003.

*Expatriates: Entwurzelte Abenteurer*. Lehky, A. 16.06.2012. 16.06.2012, Die Presse. HERWIG -

LEMPP, J. 2004. *Ressourcenorientierte Teamarbeit*. Göttingen : Vandenhoeck &

Ruprecht, 2004.

MERTESACKER, M. 2010. *Die Interkulturelle Kompetenz im Internationalen Human Resource Management -Eine konfirmatorische Evaluation*. [Hrsg.] Fred g. Becker und Walter A.

- Oechsler. Lohmar-Köln : Josef Eul Verlag GmbH, 2010. Bde. 47 Reihe: Personal, Organisation und Arbeitsbeziehungen .
- POGGENDORF, A. 2012. Angewandte Teamdynamik, Methodik für Trainer, Berater, Pädagogen und Teamentwickler. Berlin : Cornelsen, 2012.
- ROTHER, F. 2008. Konflikt. München : Grin, 2008.
- SCHABERT, K. 2007. Reintegrationsprozess der Expatriates nach dem internationalen Personaleinsatz. *Gestaltungsempfehlung auf der Grundlage des Parallelmodells*. Norderstedt : Grin Verlag, 2007.
- SCHWARZ, G. 2010. Konfliktmanagement: Konflikte erkennen, analysieren, lösen. Wiesbaden : Gabler, 2010.
- SEDLMAYER, S. 2009. Expatriates – Eine kritische Betrachtung aus organisationaler Perspektive. München : Lehrstuhl für Internationales Management von Prof. Dr. Hans A. Wüthrich an der Universität der Bundeswehr München, 2009.
- VAIMAN, V. und Haslberger, A. 2013. *Talent Management of Self-Initiated Expatriates: A Neglected Source of Global Talent*. [Hrsg.] V., Haslberger, A. Vaiman. s.l. : Palgrave Macmillan, 2013.
- WEGERICHT, Ch. 2006. Entsendung und Auslandeinsatz. [Hrsg.] Bröckermann und Müller-Vorbrüggen. s.l. : Schäffer Poeschel, 2006, Bd. Handbuch der Personalentwicklung, S. 493-511.
- WINTER, G. 1996. Reintegrationsproblematik: Vom Heimkehren in die Fremde und vom Wiedererlernen des Vertrauten. [Hrsg.] Alexander Thomas. Göttingen, Bern, Toronto, Seattle, : Hogrefe, 1996, Bd. Psychologie kulturellen Handelns, S. 365-382.

**Dr. Gabriele Hausmann**

MBA Ideen-kontor

A – 2162 Falkenstein 11

hausmann@ideen-kontor.com

## ARE EXPATRIATE MANAGERS A CRITICAL FACTOR FOR SUCCESS?

**Dr. Gabriele Hausmann**

MBA Ideen-Kontor

A – 2162 Falkenstein 11

hausmann@ideen-kontor.com

### **Abstract:**

The paper should be used as a basis for discussion about the delegation of managers and other staff to foreign countries and the cultural influence on the home company in terms of different skills these persons bring back when returning to their respective home countries. It addresses problems and chances of delegation as well as how a successful handling could be implemented. The focus is on the social factor and on behavior of groups and teams with different expectations and approaches to this topic. The questions to be asked are which issues cannot be avoided and therefore must be handled carefully and of course where these new skills can be used as a success factor.

### **Key words:**

Business Trip, Secondment, Delegation, Culture, Expectation, Dynamics, Groups, Teams, Leadership, Social Skills, Conflict, Program;

**JEL Classification:** F – International Economics

# REFORMA VEŘEJNÉ SPRÁVY S AKCENTEM NA ÚZEMNÍ ČLENĚNÍ STÁTU A REGIONÁLNÍ ROZDĚLENÍ

*Radek Jurčik*

## 1 ÚZEMNÍ VYMEZENÍ (SAMOSPRÁVNÝCH) REGIONŮ A JEJICH SLOŽEK V ČESKÉ REPUBLICE

Obecně lze shrnout, že cílem a účelem každé reformy má být určité zefektivnění, zlepšení, zrychlení procesů, na které dopadá, a které jsou jejím předmětem. Jak uvádí D. Hendrych (Hendrych, 2009), reforma veřejné správy představuje proces, který má svou stránku obsahovou (co se má změnit) a časovou (časový horizont jednotlivých kroků a jejich posloupnost), přičemž zdůrazňuje, že reforma znamená víc, než jen dílčí změny či zavádění nových metod. V oblasti veřejné správy pak lze ve zkratce hovořit o tom, že jejím účelem bylo naplnění principu decentralizace, dekoncentrace, subsidiarity, dobré správy a veřejné správy jako služby veřejnosti. Záměrem je rovněž poukázat na to, jak v současné době vypadá organizace územní veřejné správy po reformě, ale i na dosud stále nevyřešené otázky v organizaci a územněsprávním členění státu.

## 2 ÚZEMNÍ REFORMA VEŘEJNÉ SPRÁVY

Reforma veřejné správy v České republice je zásadním úkolem, o jehož naplnění se mluví již od počátku 90. let 20. století. V současné době se přitom nacházíme na počátku diskuse o podobě třetí fáze reformy veřejné správy (vyřešení vztahu krajů jako územních samosprávných celků a krajů jako správních obvodů, vztahu okresů a obcí, apod.). Reforma byla konzultována s Radou Evropy, která se problematice veřejné správy v členských zemích věnuje soustředěně již od padesátých let minulého století, a to zejména prostřednictvím svého poradního orgánu - Kongresu místních a regionálních samospráv Evropy („Congress of Local and Regional Authorities of Europe“) jako poradní orgán Rady Evropy má pomáhat členským státům v oblasti budování a efektivního fungování systému místní a regionální veřejné správy. Mezi jeho významné pravomoci přitom patří především příprava a vydávání zpráv o situaci v oblasti místní a regionální samosprávy a implementaci principů Evropské charty místní samosprávy, a to nejen ve všech členských státech, ale také ve státech, které se teprve mají stát členy Rady Evropy.

Česká republika se stala členem Rady Evropy o mezivládní organizace v roce 1993. Kongres se zabývá veškerými otázkami politiky místních a regionálních samospráv a mezi jeho priority náleží především rozvoj samosprávy. Na této půdě byly diskutovány východiska reformy veřejné správy, která respektuje rovněž následující mezinárodní smlouvy:

- **Evropskou chartu místní samosprávy**

- **Evropská rámcová úmluva o přeshraniční spolupráci mezi územními společenstvími nebo úřady**, která byla v Madridu přijata dne 21. května 1980. Úmluva vstoupila v platnost na základě svého článku 9 odst. 2 dne 22. prosince 1981.

Historicky v roce 1990, kdy došlo k podstatné změně politického klimatu v České republice, bylo nutné mimo jiné přistoupit k celkové reformě systému veřejné správy. Už v roce 1991 se objevily první návrhy, jak by mělo správní členění České republiky vypadat. Jednalo se o čtyři varianty, které vypracovala komise Pithartovy vlády. První z nich stavěla na tzv. zemském uspořádání, kde by v rámci České republiky existovaly 2 až 4 země s vlastními sněmy a vládami. Druhá varianta upřednostňovala naopak tzv. oblastní uspořádání s 15 až 30 oblastmi řízenými z Prahy. Varianta třetí opět stavěla na oblastním uspořádání, nicméně by respektovala historické zemské hranice, ale takto vzniklé země by neměly vlastní sněm. Podle poslední varianty by se Česká republika přeměnila na spolkový stát s třemi zeměmi. V roce 1992 byl vybrán systém dvoustupňového správního uspořádání, kde první stupeň je tvořen obcemi, druhý potom regiony, které by měly být větší než území okresů. Tento systém se také již promítl do znění Ústavy České republiky a pro tyto regiony zde bylo použito označení v podobě vyšších územně samosprávných celků (tzv. VUSC). Po tomto legislativním zakotvení vyvstala ovšem otázka, kolik vlastně VUSC bude na našem území zřízeno. Právě v tomto bodě bylo velice těžké dosáhnout politického konsensu.

V roce 1994 vláda schválila návrh ODS na zřízení 17 VUSC a názvem kraje, proti byly ovšem ministři KDU-ČSL a ODA. Tento návrh však nezískal potřebnou podporu v Poslanecké sněmovně. Ta také zamítla návrh na zřízení 9 krajů předložený poslancem Josefem Ježkem z ODA. V roce 1997 boj o počet VUSC pokračoval, kdy poslanci ODA navrhují 13 krajů, naproti tomu poslanci ČSSD krajů 9. Vláda se ovšem dohodla na 13 krajích, na rozdíl od návrhu ODA s Prahou jako samostatným krajem. Dne 23. října 1997 Poslanecká sněmovna nakonec schválila návrh sněmovního výboru pro regionální správu na vytvoření 14 krajů. Pro přijetí zák. č. 347/1997 Sb., o vytvoření vyšších územně samosprávných celků hlasovali poslanci z KDU-ČSL, ODA, a většina poslanců z ODS a ČSSD. Konečně se tedy po 5 letech podařilo na naší politické scéně vytvořit kompromisní řešení a přijmout základní zákon nutný pro zdárný průběh reformy veřejné správy. Tímto ovšem spory v žádném případě nekončí. Dále bude nutná spolupráce především při převodu majetku na nově vzniklé kraje, stejně tak při stanovování jejich pravomocí.

**Byl přijat zák. č. 347/1999 Sb., o zřízení vyšších územně samosprávných celků, který nabyl účinnosti až od 1. 1. 2000.** Tímto datem na území České republiky formálně vzniklo 14 krajů. Nicméně k tomuto datu se nepodařilo připravit balík zákonů, které by umožňovaly fungování těchto územních jednotek. Chyběl především samotný zákon o krajích, který by stanovoval orgány kraje a jejich pravomoci, dále zákon o volbách do zastupitelstev krajů a také zákon, který by umožňoval přechod některých práv, věcí a majetku z vlastnictví státu do vlastnictví krajů. Tyto a mnoho dalších zákonů bylo postupně přijímáno zákonodárným sborem až v průběhu roku 2000. První volby na úrovni regionálních samospráv v podobě krajů tak mohly proběhnout až 12. listopadu 2000, tedy prakticky rok po formálním zřízení krajů. V květnu 2000 byl přijat základní balík zákonů tvořících páteř reformy veřejné správy: zákon o krajích, zákon č. 157/2000 Sb., o přechodu některých věcí, práv a závazků z majetku České republiky do majetku krajů, zákon č. 130/2000 Sb., o volbách do zastupitelstev krajů a o změně některých zákonů, zákon č. 147/2000 Sb., o okresních úřadech, zákon č. 128/2000 Sb., o obcích (obecní zřízení), zákon č. 131/2000 Sb., o hlavním městě Praze, zákon č. 132/2000 Sb., o změně a zrušení některých zákonů souvisejících se zákonem o krajích, zákonem o obcích, zákonem o okresních úřadech a zákonem o hlavním městě Praze. **Vznikem krajských orgánů veřejné správy, tedy dnem**

**voleb do krajských zastupitelstev (12. listopadu 2000) skončila I. fáze reformy územní veřejné správy.** Vznikla krajská zastupitelstva, která se ujala se svých funkcí vyplývajících ze zákona. **Do soustavy územní veřejné správy tvořené cca 6274 obcí (tzv. obce s pověřením I. stupně), 383 pověřenými obecními úřady (tzv. obce s pověřením II. stupně) a 77 okresy tak bylo začleněno 14 vyšších územních samosprávných celků. Nelze však zapomínat, že mezi uvedenými obcemi I. a II. stupně však existují ještě dvě meziskupiny, a to obce s působností matričních úřadů (900 obcí) a obce s působností stavebních úřadů (772 obcí).**

V následující druhé fázi reformy územní veřejné správy se především jednalo o vyřešení problémů spojených s přenosem působnosti zrušených okresních úřadů, které zanikly k 31.12.2002, na jiné subjekty – na kraje a převážně na obce s rozšířenou působností („malé okresy“). Dlužno podotknout, že jednotlivé správní obvody obcí s rozšířenou působností („malých okresů“) se neshodují a nekryjí se správními obvody specializovaných orgánů státní správy, jejichž územní působnost vychází podle zákona č. 36/1960 Sb., převážně z okresů. Důsledkem je nepřehledná situace, kdy adresát veřejnoprávního působení spadá do územní působnosti několika různých správních obvodů.

V současné době je v našich podmínkách uplatňován model tzv. smíšené veřejné správy, kdy územně samosprávné celky – obce a kraje – a jejich orgány vykonávají veřejnou správu jak v oblasti samostatné, označované jako samospráva, což je tradiční přístup, tak se rovněž podílejí na výkonu státní správy, a to v rovině působnosti přenesené. Obce a kraje představují územní orgány správy se všeobecnou působností, přičemž pro (toliko a jen) výkon státní správy v přenesené působnosti došlo k vytvoření 3 kategorií obcí. Obce s běžnými obecními úřady; obce s pověřenými obecními úřady a obce s rozšířenou působností.

Zrušení okresních úřadů se nijak nedotklo územně dekoncentrovaných a specializovaných orgánů státní správy, které si své postavení, věcnou a územní působnost ponechaly a nezaklikly.

**V rámci II. fáze reformy veřejné správy a v souladu se zákonem o okresních úřadech skončila činnost okresních úřadů dnem 31. 12. 2002.** V souladu s filozofií tzv. spojeného modelu, kdy kompetence výkonu státní správy přechází ve velkém rozsahu na úřady samospráv, byly převedeny činnosti výkonu státní správy na převážně obecní úřady s rozšířenou působností a na krajské úřady. Idea výkonu státní správy krajským úřadem spočívala v tom, státní správa se na krajské úřady přenáší jen v minimálním rozsahu a v těch případech, kdy občan přichází s takovým výkonem státní správy minimálně do styku nebo se jedná o výkon státní správy s vysokou náročností na odbornost (Hedrych,2010)..

Závěrem se sluší zdůraznit, že ač druhá **fáze reformy znamenala zánik okresních úřadů, nezaklikly však žádné z jejich činností. Zánik okresních úřadů navíc neznamenal zánik okresů, neboť okresy existují i nadále a některé státní orgány budou dále působit na jejich úrovni.** V této souvislosti bývá upozorňováno i na to, že reforma veřejné správy znamená vytvoření pětistupňové soustavy výkonu veřejné správy v území. Zrušení okresních úřadů opět neznamenalo snížení počtu úředníků, spíše naopak. Lze uvést předpoklad nárůstu o minimálně cca 10 - 15 %. Diskutabilní je rovněž na straně druhé i vliv reformy na profesionalitu a odbornost výkonu veřejné správy.

Zrušení okresních úřadů jako funkčního a efektivního článku veřejné správy se jevílo jako diskutabilní. Někteří autoři (kupř. Kadečka, 2010) vidí problematický i přesun státního dozoru nad obcemi a působnosti v odvolacím rozhodování ve správním řízení na krajské úřady. Vyvolává to jednak

pochybnosti o ústavnosti takového vztahu mezi obcemi a kraji, jednak to znamená přesun druhostupňového rozhodování od občana dále. Reforma jako taková nedospěla do svého konce, byť fakticky systémově neprobíhá.

### 3 REGIONÁLNÍ ČLENĚNÍ STÁTU

Problémem je nadále přetrvávající duální stav v podobě pojetí krajů jako vyšších územně samosprávných celků na straně jedné a krajské členění státu jako správních obvodů na straně druhé. Tato situace je zapříčiněna historickým vývojem organizace správy na našem území.

Autor konstatuje, že do vzniku ČSR se samospráva vyššího stupně na krajské úrovni nevytvořila. Administrativní členění ČSR bylo provedeno zákonem č. 125/1927 Sb. Od r. 1949 pak převzaly úlohu zemských krajských úřadů Krajské národní výbory.

Zákonem č. 280/1948 Sb., o krajském zřízení, došlo k vytvoření 14 krajů, které však byly po 11 letech své existence, zejména pro malou rozlohu, zákonem č. 36/1960 Sb., o územním členění státu, ve znění pozdějších předpisů, nahrazeny 7 kraji novými. V této souvislosti lze hovořit o tzv. „velkých krajích“. Zvláštní postavení získalo hl. město Praha.

Zákon rozčlenil území ČR na správní obvody v rovině krajů a okresů a je ve své podstatě zákonem geografickým, který vymezuje pouze územní plochy státu a sám k nim neváže žádné úřady či jiné veřejnoprávní instituce. Teprve až zvláštní zákony do takto vymezených území krajů umístily veřejně-mocenské orgány krajské úrovně. Např. krajské správy Policie ČR, krajské soudy a krajská státní zastupitelství. Jeho rozsah uplatnění je tak mnohem širší, než je veřejná, resp. v tomto ohledu státní správa.

V České republice nadneseně řečeno existují stále tři druhy krajů:

- **Nadkraje** – členění z hlediska EU, jsou vymezeny jednotkou NUTS 2 (viz dále).
- **Velké kraje** – kraje jako správní obvody.
- **Malé kraje** – územní samosprávné celky.

Ústavní zákon č. 347/1997 Sb., o zřízení vyšších územních samosprávných celků, s účinností od 1. ledna 2000 vytvořil celkem 14 krajů, jako vyšší územně samosprávné celky. Ústavodárce v tomto ohledu volil zcela jednoznačně inspiraci v krajském uspořádání z roku 1948. Jejich území je určeno vymezením okresů podle zákona č. 36/1960 Sb. Je třeba poukázat na skutečnost, že kraje byly zřízeny jako jednotky územní, krajské samosprávy za účelem výkonu veřejné správy v podmínkách jejího tzv. smíšeného modelu. Nově vzniklé kraje se tedy územně liší od dřívějších velkých krajů, v nichž působily do roku 1990 krajské národní výbory. O důsledku vzniku dvojího krajského uspořádání se vědělo, problém tkvěl v tom, že případným zrušením zákona č. 36/1960 Sb. by některé orgány státní správy a zejména a především soudy ztratily územní základ své působnosti. Problematika duálního členění nalézají své praktické problémy v rovině správního soudnictví. Kde spíše než o problém určení místní příslušnosti krajského soudu ve správním soudnictví jde o celkovou srozumitelnost pro běžné občany, v tomto ohledu pro žalobce, a dostupnost správních soudů.

Vycházíme-li z předpokladu, že žalobu ve správním soudnictví lze podat proti pravomocnému rozhodnutí správního orgánu, který ve věci rozhodl v posledním stupni (§ 68 a § 69 s. ř. s.), místní příslušnost je určena § 7 odst. 2 s. ř. s. obecně skrze místo sídla tohoto správního orgánu. Nejčastěji těmito orgány budou krajské úřady, na kterých hodlám demonstrovat přetrvávající nejednotnost. Jsou kraje, kdy žalobce podává žalobu proti jejich rozhodnutí ke správnímu soudu, který má své sídlo na území kraje jiného. Např. o žalobách proti rozhodnutím Krajského úřadu Pardubického kraje rozhoduje Krajský soud v Hradci Králové, proti žalobám Krajského úřadu Libereckého kraje rozhoduje Krajský soud v Ústí nad Labem.

Další poznámka směřuje k vlastnímu uspořádání krajů jako vyšších územně samosprávných celků. Zatímco velké kraje podle zákona č. 36/1960 Sb. byly vzájemně shodné co do rozlohy a počtu obyvatel, u krajů podle ústavního zákona č. 347/1997 Sb., tomu tak není. Vzniká tak problém souměřitelnosti jednotlivých krajských samospráv.

## **4 EVROPSKÝ POHLED NA ÚZEMNÍ (REGIONÁLNÍ) SAMOSPRÁVU V ČR**

Za další problém a prvek nepřehlednosti lze považovat vznik tzv. regionů soudržnosti (Wokoun, R., 2006), které jsou vymezeny na základě zákona č. 248/2000 Sb., o podpoře regionálního rozvoje, ve znění pozdějších předpisů. Regionem je územní celek vymezený pomocí administrativních hranic krajů, okresů, správních obvodů obcí s pověřeným obecním úřadem, správních obvodů obcí s rozšířenou působností, obcí nebo sdružení obcí. Kraje jsou totiž ve většině případů svou rozlohou i počtem obyvatelstva poddimenzované ve vztahu k čerpání prostředků věnovaných na podporu politiky soudržnosti Evropskou unií. Na základě tohoto zákona proto došlo k rozčlenění území ČR na 8 nově vzniklých „nadkrajů“ (regionů soudržnosti) organizovaných podle euroregionů NUTS 2 (NUTS 1 představoval území celé ČR, NUTS 2 dělí ČR na 8 regionů soudržnosti, NUTS 3 je 14 současných krajů, NUTS 4 tvořil 77 okresů a NUTS 5 tvořil obce. Uvedené členění bylo již modifikováno.). Z těchto regionů soudržnosti se pouze Praha, Střední Čechy a Ostravsko územně kryjí se samosprávnými kraji.

## **ZÁVĚR A SHRNU TÍ**

V současné době se využívá pro územní členění dekoncentrovaných orgánů státní správy 14 krajů (policie, krajské pobočky Úřadu práce, finanční a celní úřady, katastrální úřady), otázka obvodů soudů a státních zastupitelství ne uvedené čeká, což by však vedlo např. k nárůstu krajských soudů z 8 na 14, což je na hranici ekonomických možností ČR, byť krajská města bez krajského soudu mají pobočky krajských soudů. Otázka krajské struktury přes její diferenciaci se již nezadržitelně vyvíjí ve prospěch krajského členění na 14 krajů. Nevyřešenou zůstává vztah okresů a územních obvodů obcí s rozšířenou působností, v jejich rámci se vykonává převážná část veřejné správy na nejnižší úrovni. V současné době si nelze představit, že by se kupř. soudní struktura na úrovni okresních soudů přizpůsobila územnímu členění správních obvodů obcí s rozšířenou působností. Reforma veřejné správy tedy bude pokračovat a je složité ji provádět v každé zemi (Stillman, R., 2009).

Použitá literatura:

HENDRYCH, D. *Správní věda – Teorie veřejné správy*. 3. vyd. Praha: ASPI, 2009, 232 s. ISBN 978-80-7357-458-1

KADEČKA, S. Právní předpisy místní samosprávy v českých zákonech o obecním zřízení a jejich novelizacích. *Správní právo*, 2010, vo. 45, no. 5, pp. 33-38, ISSN 0139-6005

STILLMAN, R. *Public administration: Concepts and Cases*. Paperback, 2009, 475 s. ISBN 978-0618993017

WOKOUN, R. *Strukturální fondy a obce I*. 1. vyd. Praha: Linde, 2006, 148 s. ISBN 80-7357-138-2

**Doc. JUDr. Ing. Radek Jurčik, Ph.D.**

Vysoká škola Karla Engliš, a.s.

Mezírka 775/1

602 00 Brno

**PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION REFORM IN RELATION TO TERRITORIAL DIVISION  
OF STATE AND REGIONAL DIVISION**

**Radek Jurčik**

Karel Engliš College,  
Mezírka 775/1, 602 00 Brno

The Czech Republic, e-mail: radek.jurcik@vske.cz

**Abstract:**

This paper deals with the Public administration reform and its impact on a regional division. Public administration reform is a complex and complication process concerning all sectors of human activity. In this paper, we focus on the impact of the reform on the territorial structure and regional division in relation to possible future developments. In the framework of this aspect, we can recognize relations between national point of view of territorial division and European Union regional policy and economic and trade policy of the European Union. Both of these aspects must be taken into account in the final territorial organization of the state. The paper contains ideas of author on future territorial division.

**Key words:** Public administration reform, territorial division of the state, regional division, region, municipality

**JEL Classification:** H 70, H 79

# STUDY OF THE IMPACT OF PERSONAL DEVELOPMENT ON THE QUALITY OF MANAGERIAL DECISION MAKING

*Jiří Koleňák*

## INTRODUCTION

J. Fotr defines managerial decision making as 'one of the basic managerial activities, the quality of which influences both results and effectiveness of any enterprise functioning'. (FOTR, 2003)

In any case it is a very significant element of management, especially in case of strategic decisions. Meeting interests of other subjects is typical for managerial decision making. The decision is not carried out by those who have made it, but mostly by subordinates within the organizational hierarchy. Another important feature of managerial decision making is a low level of determination. The broad space for decision making can potentially lead to various problems connected mainly with too much information or the necessity to estimate the ideal amount of information worth obtaining. The reason is the fact that with the increasing amount of information its problem solving potential decreases. On the other hand, the cost of obtaining the information increases.

Managerial decision making is a demanding and at the same a crucial process within the existence of any enterprise. This creates a strong desire to further research all possible ways to improve its quality. One of the many options (among others there are technical, mathematical and IT tools for managerial decision making support) is also personal development of managers themselves and strengthening their competences in the decision making area. The description of the connection between personal development and the quality of decision making is the main aim of this article. The article presents the foundations of the primary research intended for a further detailed analysis of the connection between personal development and managerial work.

### **managerial decision making**

Literature offers division of managerial decision making into the merit or subject, i.e. the content part and the formal-logical, i.e. the procedural part. Decision making from the merit point of view differs based on individual cases depending on the content, characteristic features, nature of the problem and goals. Decision making from the formal-logical point of view has two common frame procedures, concepts and can be identical for content-wise completely different decision making

problems. The decision making theory according to Veber deals with these common features of decision making processes and its subject is 'its procedural, formal-logical and instrumental side'. (VEBER, 2000) Historical development has formed a significant amount of various decision making theories which differ in terms of their focus on different aspects of decision making processes which are the subject of decision making theory research.

## **Decision making process, problem and analysis**

The subject matter of decision making theories is decision making process, be it an already passed process focused on by descriptive theories or a future process focused on by normative theories. The decision making process is a subject of decision making analysis which includes structuralism of the decision making process and application of statistical and mathematical methods. L. Blažek describes the decision making analysis as an 'approach to solving complex decision making problems which attempts to combine exact processes and model tools with knowledge, experience and intuition of the solvers'. (BLAŽEK, 2010)

The decision making problem definition is based on the following facts:

'Decision making problem is only a problem which has more than one solution'. (FOTR, 2003) Professor J. Veber defines the identification of a decision making problem as the first stage of decision making process and adds that 'solution of the problem is not possible prior to its identification'. (VEBER, 2000) It is also possible to agree with the opinion that it is impossible to correctly identify a problem before the realization of the real state, i.e. where we are and the desired state, i.e. where we want to be. The base of the decision making process then is not the identification of the problem, but definition of the goal.

## **Decision making problems classification**

Decision making problems can be divided based on their complexity and algorithm options into well structured and wrongly structured.

Well structured problems or simple, program, algorithmic problems for which there typically exist routine procedures, solutions and variables quantification options. These problems are commonly solved repeatedly on the operative level and there is typically only one quantifiable variable with one quantitative criterion of evaluation.

Wrongly structured decision making problems differ from the well structured ones mainly in that they are being solved on top levels of management. They are always **new and original** to a certain extent and the solution always requires **creative approach and experience**. There are no

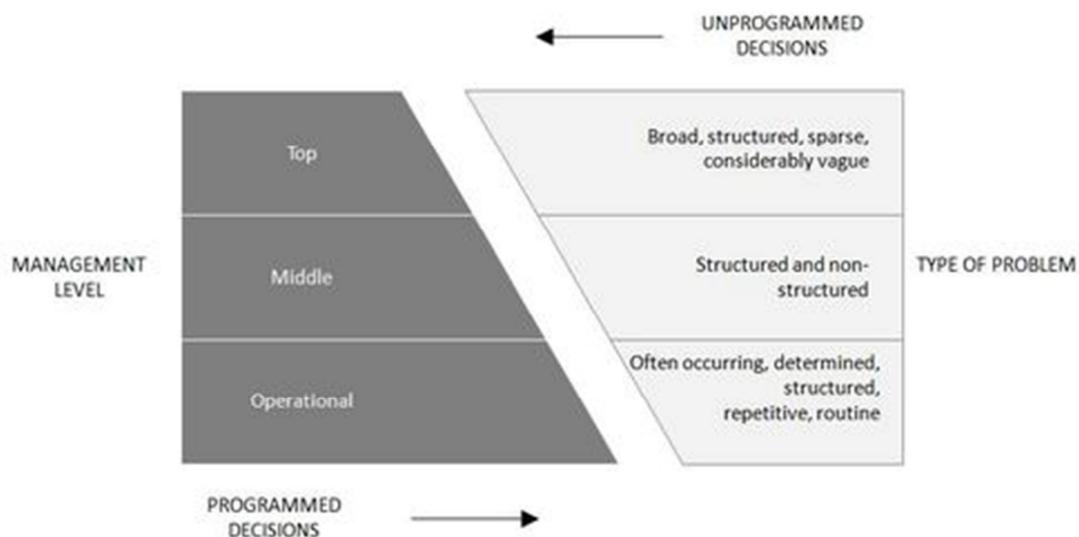
standardized procedures to solve these problems. There are typically more factors influencing the solution of the given problem, for example:

- arbitrariness of changes of some of the elements within the problem solving environment
- greater amount of criteria of solution options
- information not easily accessible
- complexity of interpretation of the information needed in order to make the decision in question

The division of problems on the basis of their complexity and structuralism is closely connected to the different levels of management that deal with them.

In terms of this division there are three levels of management, i.e. operational management, middle management and top management – see chart 1.

Chart 1: Decision making problems according to the level of management and structure, source: (Donnelly, 1997)



The topic of the connection between personal development and quality of managerial decision making is therefore focused mainly on the strategic management level as well as middle

management in the function areas which require high level of creativity when solving problems (marketing, sales, innovation and so on...).

The quality of managerial decisions is positively influenced by the following characteristic features:

- ability to assess the optimal amount of information necessary to make the decision faster and more efficiently;
- ability to define the decision making problems (greater distance when assessing both the real state and the desired state);
- willingness to change the decision in case it proves to have been wrong;
- creativity when solving poorly structured decision making problems;
- prioritizing (understood as the ability to avoid unnecessary actions);
- ability to separate work and private life (not to let stress, doubts, nervousness, fear of failure and so on negatively influence one's private environment).

The above mentioned features are in accordance with the concept of connatural management. (AMBROZOVÁ, 2013)

## **Connatural Management**

Connatural Management (CNM) describes a phenomenon of leading by nature.

The term embraces two aspects:

1. Leading by nature in terms of leading natural qualities of human potential and human systems;
2. Leading by nature in terms of cultivation of the ability to differentiate between the natural and the artificial and to respect natural conditions and influences of situations and environments, potential of both organizations and people.

One of the aspects of CNM is development of individual abilities of efficiency in the cognitive domain. The cognitive domain includes thinking, information and experience processing. This is where knowledge is created which is crucial to make decisions. The decision itself is only one stage of the process. Decision is based on information and knowledge which is meaningful within the particular context. In the process of action it co-creates reality. Coherence and correspondence, i.e. reference unity and connections integrity are crucial. Decision can be rational, reasonable, wise, or not. By rationality, reasonability and wisdom we mean the following:

1. Rationality means the ability to logically evaluate information and knowledge within the frame of the given cognitive model.
2. Reasonability means two different qualities of the thinking process. One is mobility within the cognitive continuum according to K. R. Hammond (KOSTROŇ, 1997) and the other one is the ability to think systematically as considered by P. M. Senge (SENGE, 2007). Reasonability can be understood as the ability to mentally function in two different modes or directions. One of them is the ability to divide, separate, differentiate, categorize and work with individual parts and details. The second mode focuses on connections, relationships, similarities and the whole. The traditional reduction of critical thinking as an operation of formal logic does not seem to be sufficient when dealing with these aspects.
3. By wisdom we meant the aspect of personal mastery as understood by P. M. Senge (SENGE, 2007). To demonstrate the meaning and content of this phenomenon we are presenting a consideration by Z. Neubauer: *'Just by listening to the word wisdom itself we can immediately sense we use it very naturally (though definitely not commonly) and we always hear the same: experienced reasonability, quick-wittedness and the ability to be truthful because the truth is above all feud and also justice that is propitiatory and not judging – goodness which unites the opposites. Wise man is not a particularly educated man who knows a lot, but a man who is able to understand completely different attitudes, opinions. Such a person is able to accept and identify with these. Wisdom means openness and sensitivity, it creates space for understanding. When I approach a wise person to get advice I do not only expect their opinion on my problem or advice or a lesson; more than anything else I want discussion to enable me to find the advice for myself. I know that being close to a wise person allows me to find space within me to view my own situation and my own self from the outer perspective. The perspective of wisdom is a certain distance from my problem, from what burdens and worries me; it is an escape from a dead end. We have already mentioned this at the beginning in connection with skills focused on sharing them with others, no matter how talented they are – either less or more talented and skilled. If there were no wisdom in this world, there would be no development and no gaining experience: information would simply get twisted and lost, just like when playing Chinese whispers.'* (NEUBAUER, 2002).

For decision making the crucial factor is how it is understood and then realized in the physical domain, i.e. it is crucial how the decision is shared as information and put by the action-makers into the particular situation context. Various models and metaphors make learning, thinking, decision making and both knowledge sharing and gaining accessible to our cognitive system. One of the currently used models is the model using the language of cybernetics with terms such as hardware and software. This model has also introduced the so-called soft skills, i.e. skills and abilities necessary for human cooperation, knowledge sharing and human systems leading. This mechanistic model certainly makes it possible to categorize reality and understand it within the current postmodern paradigm. It is easy to detect the traditional difference between the material and the immaterial, or soul and body, or the physical and the metaphysical, in the background of this model. There are, however, different models as well, the principles of which are applicable nowadays. In terms of its applicability the Taoist concepts presented in the thoughts of Lao-ć, Sun-ć and Zhuang Zhou are of similar significance.

Insufficiency or limitations of the mechanistic hard/soft model drawn from cybernetics to explain all the aspects co-shaping the manager as a whole combining particular individual skills, abilities and knowledge necessary for action in specific area and situation context, suggest itself.

Connatural Management approach presents, besides the usual hard and soft skills, the so-called subtle skills. Every individual has the soft skills potential, it is possible to believe soft skills have been genetically encoded. In our environment they are, however, suppressed by social development and also the common models of behavior and managerial decision making. That is why it is difficult to apply this approach. Correct perception of feelings (emotions) and intuition can be the key to managerial success in the modern highly-competitive enterprise environment. Hroník agrees with this when he emphasizes the necessity to search for: *'solid point within self'* (Hroník, 2008). What he means is managerial integrity as a necessary tool of an individual who operates within the managerial environment.

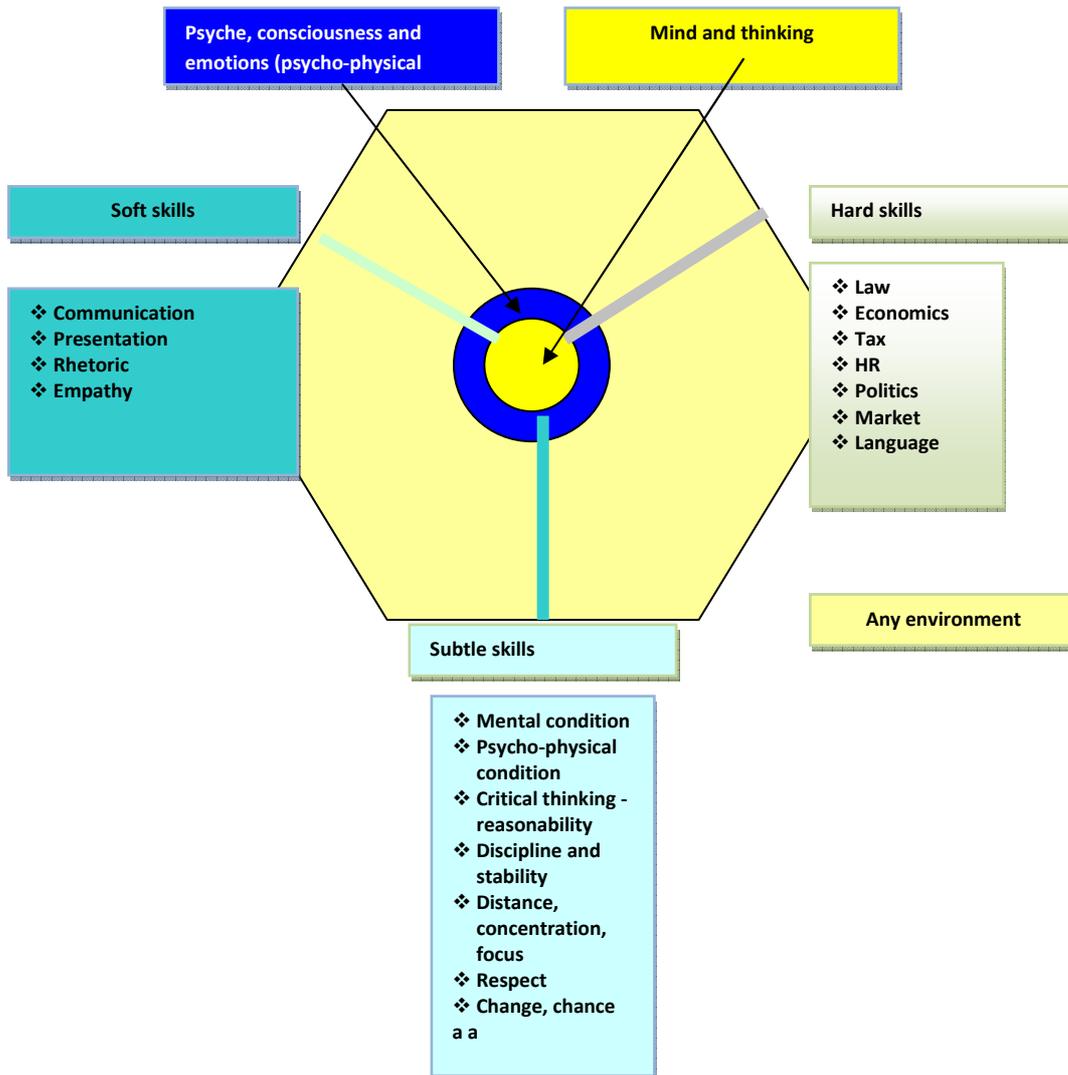
CNM focuses on qualities integral to all human beings with the extent and quality being individual. Therefore it is integral to organizations of human systems as well as all possible situation contexts these can find themselves in. In others words, these skills are integral to any context and can be applied anytime and anywhere. These are not characteristics and abilities described by psychologists, sociologists or structural and categorical philosophers. They are closer to what is commonly referred to as tacit or implicit skills as discussed by the Dreyfus brothers who talk about non-rationalized practice which is connected to the aspects of the flow effect according to Csikszentmialy, personal mastery according to P. M. Senge or a story by Zhuang Zhou in which he introduces the attitude of the master in the chapter titled: 'Life Cultivating Principles':

*'Master cook was butchering a young bull for prince Wenhui. It was as if each swing of his arm, each step of his foot, each movement of his knee, each ring and turn of the penetrating blade set the desired tone of a musical piece the harmony of which surpassed the dance of the Mulberry bush and also the famous Leader Calling choir. 'Oh! That's wonderful', prince Wenhui cried out in awe while watching. 'How is it even possible you have reached such a level of skillfulness?' Master cook put his knife away and replied: 'I only love one way and in it lies my skillfulness. Long time ago when I was new to butchering bulls, the only thing I could see was the bull. Three years later I never saw the whole bull again. Now I only meet it through my spirit, my eyes never get to see it. My senses managed to stop when the spirit wanted to go. I follow the star signs, guide the knife over the big cavities, watch the spots where the skeleton splits, I watch it as it is. Therefore it doesn't happen to me that I would sever the artery or the tendon, not even mentioning the bone. A good cook changes their knife once a year; an ordinary cook has to change their knife every month, but I have had my knife for nineteen years now and it has opened thousands of bulls and its blade looks brand new. There is always a gap between the joints and the blade of the knife is not too thick. If you slide something thin where there is still a gap, no matter how fast the swing, there is always enough space for the moving knife. That is why my knife is still like brand new even after nineteen years. But still, when I approach a more difficult joint, I can see its complexity, I focus, slow down, move the knife very slowly and alas – one cut and the bull is in pieces, it crumbles away like clay and falls to the ground. I take my knife and stand up looking in all four directions and treading water I feel absolutely satisfied! I carefully polish my knife, wipe it clean and hide it away. 'That is brilliant' prince Wenhui cried out. 'I am listening to the words of cook Dingo and I am learning about cultivating life!'* (ZHUANG, 2006).

These qualities which are naturally integral to all of us and which are accessible for leading and cultivation are referred to as subtle skills within the CNM model. They are connected to natural human potential based on the ability to step out of the usual knowledge schemes, thinking models, decision making standards and behavior norms. CNM focuses on the way which is similar to the way of thinking described by Zhuang Zhou.

The following scheme presents the three-dimensional model of managerial skills and individual skills within them. The base of the model includes three dimensions of skills - hard skills – professional and system skills, soft skills – interpersonal skills and subtle skills – individual skills (fine, implicit, tacit).

Chart 2: Three dimensional model of the Connatural Management approach, source: the authors



Subtle skills refer to natural abilities of an individual which are applied when making decisions and acting in changing situational contexts.

- Mental condition is connected to the cognitive and decision making optimum.
- Psycho-physical condition is connected to balance and harmony of the internal environment of an individual.
- Critical thinking – reasonability. As part of subtle skills it is not and should not be confused with analytical thinking or logical judgment. It includes, but goes beyond these aspects. The mobility within the cognitive continuum requires the use of emotion and intuition. We therefore extract critical thinking (krinó) from its usual context of formal logic methods, so that it can also be applied in heuristics or tasks requiring decision making under uncertainty, constant change or influenced by stochastic processes and so on.
- Discipline and stability have to do with states and functions of mind. Stability refers to the ability to avoid extremes, i.e. move within the optimum continuum of critical thinking. Discipline relates to realizing the content of one’s consciousness, i.e. what and how one is thinking about. That allows the self to discipline and direct the stream of consciousness.

- Distance, concentration and focus are related to the ability of sticking to the topic and subject, following the intentions within the context of the vision and situation. This also includes the ability to work with a gap, stereotypes and subjective-objective reaction state.
- Respect means the ability of having a fully responsible relationship towards one's self, the team, the company and the environment.
- Change, chance and burden represent the ability to accept change as a constant feature of existence and also embrace its consequent processes – stress and crisis.

For us, preparing managers for their future practice means being more and more dedicated to developing approaches and methods that are used in the process of their education and training. The value created in this process has various levels. The first basic level is the level of knowledge and learning. The second level is the level of skills. The third level is based on constant and conscious self-development and cultivation of tacit knowledge and meta-skills (meta-skills are 'continuous focus and more conscious use of our approaches in practice') (MINDELL, 2009). Using various techniques, for example for effective leading and managing people and human systems can, to a certain extent, be, in cases of some managers, influenced by meta-skills which in the end influence the quality of their work by increasing their competences to act in different situational contexts, i.e. subtle skills.

Considering the development of hard skills and soft skills the first two levels of the educational process, the development of subtle skills is considered the third step to managerial mastery. The anthropologist Edward Hall says that 'people are learning organisms par excellence. The desire to learn is as strong as the sexual desire – only it appears earlier and diminishes later.' (SENGE, 2007)

## **the research**

The aim of the research is to prove the positive impact of personal development on managerial work, i.e. quality of managerial decision making.

The partial aims are:

1. Evaluating the characteristics of the manager (self-evaluation) in terms of the hierarchy of the following notions: self-consciousness, self-confidence and self-security by using a questionnaire.
2. Quantitative research of factors influencing personal development, managerial decision making and their mutual synergy or antagonism.
3. Qualitative research – part of the expected amount of respondents (approx. 200) will take part in a projective qualitative research in the category of competences.

## conclusions

Decision making is alpha and omega of managerial work. Its quality measured mainly by its correctness and speed is the main precondition of further managerial work.

Evaluating the connection between personal development and managerial decision making will make it easier to identify the factors having an impact on effectiveness of decision making and recommend methods of further development.

Connatural Management approach seems to be a suitable model to classify managerial competences the development of which is assumed to be directly connected to increasing the level of managerial work and also its long-term sustainability. This fact can influence economic results of various enterprises in a very positive way.

## Bibliography

- AMBROZOVÁ, E. K. (2013). Connatural Management jako nový přístup v posilování konkurenceschopnosti lidí na trhu práce. *Scientia et societas* , 1, 144-152.
- BLAŽEK, L. (2010, 10 23). *Sylabus k předmětu Management I, část Rozhodování*. Retrieved from Sylaby předmětů: <http://is.muni.cz>
- Donnelly, G. I. (1997). *Management*. Praha: Grada.
- FOTR, J. D. (2003). *Manažerské rozhodování*. Praha: Ekopress.
- Hroník, F. (2008). *Manažerská integrita*. Brno: Motiv Press.
- KOSTROŇ, L. (1997). *Psychologie vytváření úsudků*. Brno.
- MINDELL, A. (2009). *Metadovednosti*. Olomouc: ANAG.
- NEUBAUER, Z. (2002). *Golem*. Praha: Malvern .
- SENGE, P. (2007). *Pátá disciplína (teorie a praxe učící se organizace)*. Praha: Management Press.
- VEBER, J. a. (2000). *Management. Základy, prosperita, globalizace*. Praha: Management Press.
- ZHUANG, M. (2006). *Sebrané spisy*. Praha: Maxima.

**Ing. Jiří Kolečák, Ph.D., MBA**

Vysoká škola Karla Engliš, a.s.  
Mezírka 1, 602 00, Brno  
e-mail: [jiri.kolenak@vske.cz](mailto:jiri.kolenak@vske.cz)

**Jiří Kolečák**

Karel Engliš College, Mezírka 755/1, Brno 602 00, Czech Republic

**Abstract:**

The aim of this article is to describe the connection between personal development and quality of managerial decision making. Managerial decision making is a demanding and at the same a crucial process within the existence of any enterprise. This creates a strong desire to further research all possible ways to improve its quality. One of the options is also personal development of the managers themselves and strengthening their decision making competences. The article presents the foundations of the primary research intended for a further detailed analysis of the connection between personal development and managerial work.

**Key words:** personal development, decision, management approach, connatural management

**JEL Classification:** M12, M53

# CURRENT TRENDS OF MANAGEMENT LEARNING

*Jaroslav Komárek*

## INTRODUCTION

More than twenty years of development of the new economic environment in the Czech Republic already entitles to look back. Not accidentally we encounter with reflections (Soucek 2005, Košturiak 2006), how Czech managers succeeded in competition with foreign enterprises and managers and how contributed the transfer of Management learning (theory) from the world of market economy. It's not easy ranking because 80th-90th summers are characterized precisely by that brought many "postmodern" approaches, which quickly spread to be immediately replaced by "more successful". In this context, we can often doubt whether "modern" is not only "fashionable" and consider where are the limits of successful applications in different economic, legal, social and cultural environment.

The question arises, why should be judged just an approach to Management learning and not to economic disciplines? The answer is simple, the science of Management is not comprehensively defined as a scientific discipline, in it prevails practical approach (tools) and not unequivocally accepted universally recognized basis of teaching, no "Samuelson" (2007). Therefore, there are considerable differences in the approach to teaching Management in terms of content between individual universities, which is a reflection of the general state of the Management learning that characterizes the metaphor "Management theory jungle" (Koontz 1961).

Questions about current, and especially future development of the Management learning, are relevant also in the traditional market environment and not coincidentally (Tanner 2007, Stern 2007). When an analogy with Pareto analysis is applied to the development of the Management learning, it is clear that the influence of the first few approaches to labor productivity was significant, while the effect of a multitude of postmodern approaches has been problematic and at the turn of the millennium the development stagnated totally, no new "Manifesto for Business Revolution" (Hammer 1993). Business and general environment as well has changed itself fundamentally during this period due to the influence of the development of information technology. But it is not only due to its technical development, but also due to the fundamental qualitative change of its social function. Internet and telecommunications networks open up almost unlimited possibilities for sharing information between all participants, regardless of the formal organizational structure and the using (or misusing) of these options affects all aspects of human society significantly.

## MANAGEMENT MOON SHOTS

About the answer how to advance further has tried a group of academics and entrepreneurs at a workshop organized by the research organization Management Lab in Silicon Valley from the initiative of Garry Hamel (2009), who has suggested "modernization" of Management so as Management 2.0 in his book *The Future of Management* (Hamel 2007). The group's immediate goal was to create a roster of make-or-break challenges: „management moon shots“ that would focus the energies of management innovators everywhere. The 25 „moon shots“ that emerged are neither mutually exclusive nor exhaustive. The current management model is an integrated whole that can't be easily broken into pieces. That's why many of the challenges overlap. However, each „moon shot“

illuminates a critical path in the journey to Management 2.0. There was general agreement that the first 10 are the most critical:

1. Ensure that the work of management serves a higher purpose. Management, both in theory and practice, must orient itself to the achievement of noble, socially significant goals.
2. Fully embed the ideas of community and citizenship in management systems. There's a need for processes and practices that reflect the interdependence of all stakeholder groups.
3. Reconstruct management's philosophical foundations. To build organizations that are more than merely efficient, we will need to draw lessons from such fields as biology, political science, and theology.
4. Eliminate the pathologies of formal hierarchy. There are advantages to natural hierarchies, where power flows up from the bottom and leaders emerge instead of being appointed.
5. Reduce fear and increase trust. Mistrust and fear are toxic to innovation and engagement and must be wrung out of tomorrow's management systems.
6. Reinvent the means of control. To transcend the discipline-versus-freedom trade-off, control systems will have to encourage control from within rather than constraints from without.
7. Redefine the work of leadership. The notion of the leader as a heroic decision maker is untenable. Leaders must be recast as social-systems architects who enable innovation and collaboration.
8. Expand and exploit diversity. We must create a management system that values diversity, disagreement, and divergence as much as conformance, consensus, and cohesion.
9. Reinvent strategy making as an emergent process. In a turbulent world, strategy making must reflect the biological principles of variety, selection, and retention.
10. De-structure and disaggregate the organization. To become more adaptable and innovative, large entities must be disaggregated into smaller, more malleable units.

These challenges are very ambitious, but basically they are common challenges, not the specific instruments applicable "for achievement of stated objectives" such as the current management teaching. What then use when business and social environment has changed and will change so radically? The basic question, what is the essence (core) of management from a theoretical point of view (even when we anticipate that the management is not a standard scientific discipline), tried to respond University of California professor and longtime president of the International Academy of Management Harold Koontz (1909-1984) and identified eleven approaches to management theory (Koontz 1980).

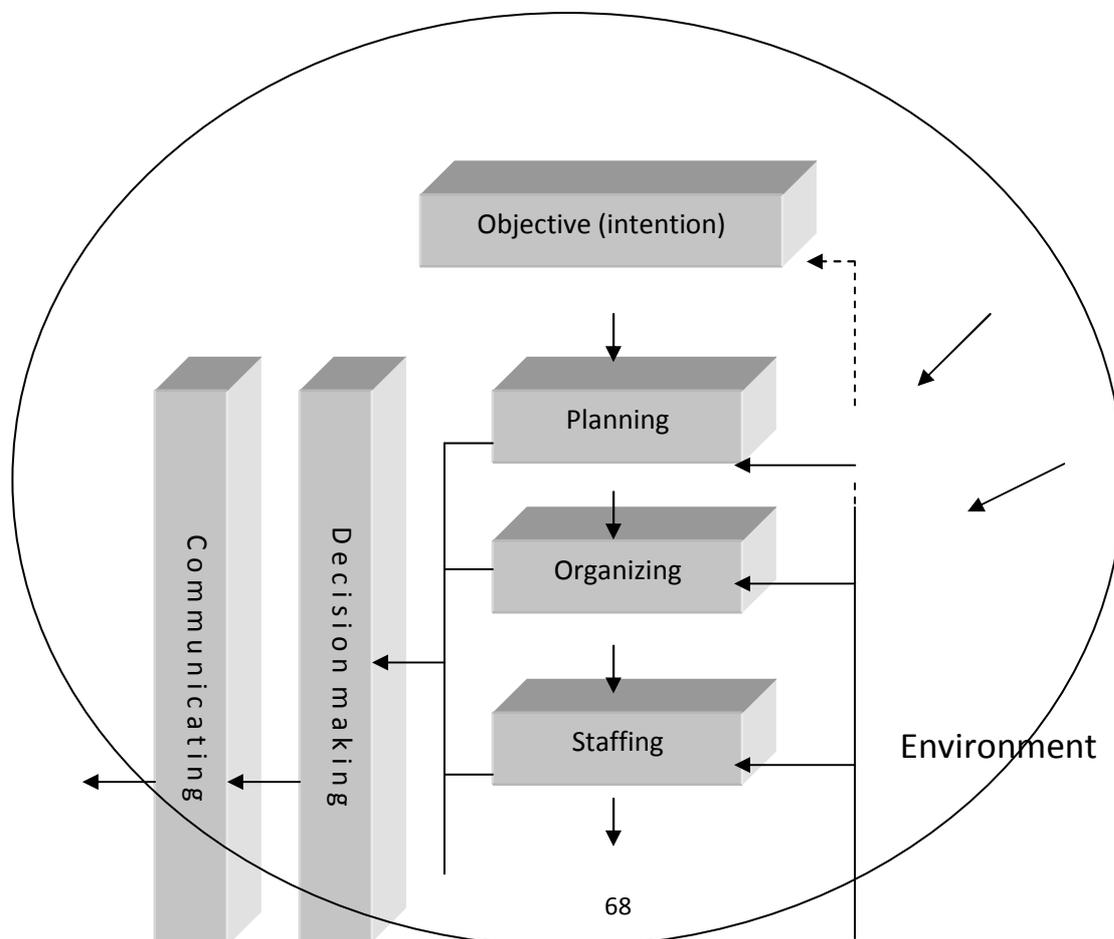
## **FUNCTIONAL APPROACH IN MANAGEMENT**

Koontz alone recommends functional approach, which is the focus of all the teaching of Management learning (theory) on several typical functions (activities) that are unique to the managers (in this context should be pointed analogy with Fayol's administrative functions!). Number of differentiated functions by various authors ranges from four (planning, organizing, leading, controlling) to nineteen (Miner 1985) and most often to five - planning, organizing, staffing, leading and controlling (Koontz 1993). These features are unique to the core teaching of management, but decidedly not theoretical, but rather eclectic - in different functions is used theoretical knowledge

from a variety of sciences, such as psychology, sociology, economics, mathematics, engineering and system science.

Although Harold Koontz has been unquestionably one of the "gurus" of Management, his approach cannot be considered for an universal solution. His five functions can be supplemented by two more - decision making and communicating (Massie, 1987). The function of decision making has Koontz included in planning, but this function is not limited to planning undoubtedly. He has also included communicating to leadership activities, even though he writes, "Although communication accompanies all areas of management, particularly for the leadership is of extraordinary importance" (Koontz, 1993, p. 507). The management is unthinkable without communicating, because only through communicating is the entire management process set in motion: the manager is aware of the task, completes necessary information and after the selection of a certain variant of solving, his decision will get through the communicating to the executors. Even the controlling of realization can be ensured by communicating.

If the check reveals that current state does not ensure the successful achievement of the objective, it is necessary to take appropriate action (eg. change terms in plan or restructure resources, choose better people, change the style of leading, better control). Each of these functions usually contains more variants of a solution and therefore it is necessary to determine which one will bring the greatest effect. Decision making is so intertwined with all managerial functions, it is always about choosing the best solution from several options. Therefore decision making has the key role between managerial functions and when some decision is followed by an implementation, way back may demand a significant cost or may not be possible at all (it is said that managers are paid to make decisions!).



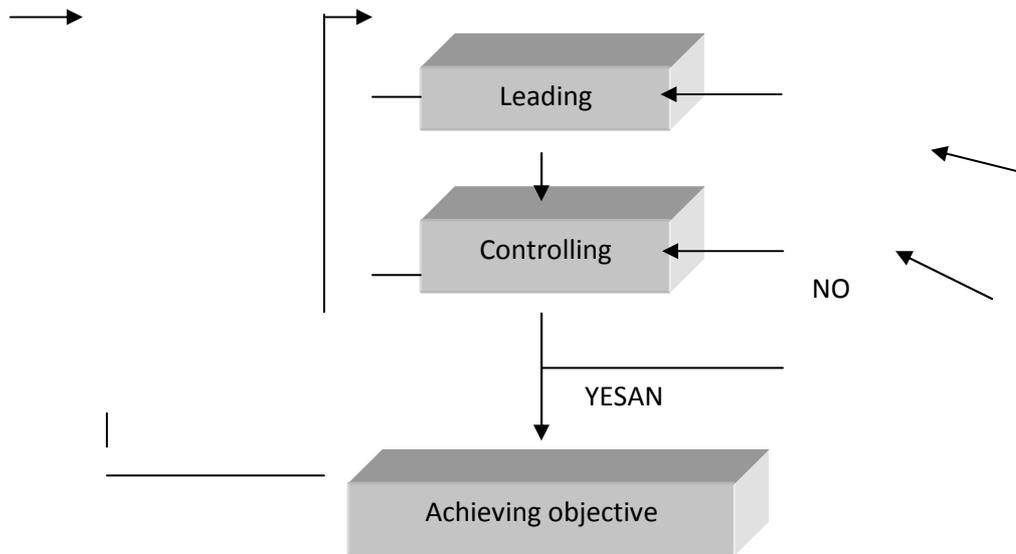


Fig. 1 The modified functional model of Management (Komárek, 2004)

But there can be a situation that even the best variant of managerial functions does not ensure the achievement of objective (Fig. 1). Why, the objective has been determined incorrectly? Each plan is based on certain assumptions about the future state of the environment (both external and internal) and if, in the course of implementation the originally anticipated state changes significantly (mostly beyond our control), objective must be corrected (and not to waste resources in order to meet the objective „at any cost“).

To the above model of the "core" management it must be emphasized that this is in fact the illustration of the most common definition of Management - a tool for achieving the set objectives with effective use of resources (whether objectives were established in planning by a manager or awarded directly by a superior as a task).

## CONCLUSION

Business and general environment as well has changed itself fundamentally during last decades due to the influence of the considerable development of information technology. But it is not only due to its technical development, but also due to the fundamental qualitative change of its social function. Therefore questions about current and especially future development of the Management learning are highly justified. There are recommended various new approaches to the Management learning promising success, but they have just the general nature of the challenges and can not be considered as a coherent learning. It appears, therefore, the question what to do with existing knowledge. The answer is not simple because there are considerable differences in the approach to teaching Management in terms of content between individual universities, which is a reflection of the general state of the Management learning that characterizes the metaphor of "Management theory jungle". Analysis of global approaches showed that the approach to management teaching implemented at Karel Engliš College in comparison with other universities in the Czech Republic is based strictly on a

systemic approach and that it is necessary to deepen it and build on it both in the other management subjects and in supporting informatics subjects, where is the centroid of preparing to work in an environment of Business Intelligence.

**Professor Jaroslav Komárek**

Karel Englis College  
Mezírka 775/1, 602 00 Brno  
e-mail: jaroslav.komarek@vske.cz

## References

- HAMEL, G. Moon shots for Management. *Harvard Business Review*, February 2009.
- HAMEL, G. *The Future of Management*. Cambridge: Harvard Business School Publishing, 2007.
- HAMMER, M. - CHAMPY, J. *Reengineering the Corporation – A Manifesto for Business Revolution*. Harper Business, 1993.
- KOMÁREK, J. *Základy managementu*. [online]. Brno: Vysoká škola Karla Engliše, 2004. [cit. 2011-12-15]. Dostupné z: <http://www.vske.cz/intranet/predmety.html>.
- KOONTZ, H. The management theory jungle. *Academy of Management Journal*, 1961, Vol. 4, No. 3, pp. 174-188.
- KOONTZ, H. The Management Theory Jungle Revisited. *Academy of Management Review*, 1980, Vol. 8, No. 2, pp. 175-187. Dostupné také z WWW: <<http://www.iluv2teach.com/mgt304/jungle.pdf>>
- KOONTZ, H. - WEIHRICH, H. *Management*. Praha: Victoria Publishing, 1993. ISBN 80-85605-45-7.
- KOŠTURIÁK, J. Česká škola managementu. *Moderní řízení*, 2006, roč. 16, č.1. ISSN 0026-8720.
- MASSIE, J. L. *Essentials of Management*. 4th ed. New Jersey: Prentice Hall, 1987. ISBN 0-13-286337-5.
- MINER, J.B. *Introduction to Management*. Indianapolis: Merrill Publications, 1985. ISBN 978-0675203906.
- SAMUELSON, P. A. – NORDHAUS, W. D. *Ekonomie*. 18. vyd. Praha: NS Svoboda, 2007. ISBN 978-80-205-0590-3.
- SOUČEK, Z. Jak jsme chybovali. *Moderní řízení*, 2005, roč. 15, č.12. ISSN 0026-8720.
- STERN, S. You reed here first. *Management Today*, Sept 2006.
- TANNER, J. Managementkonzepte im gesellschaftlichen Wandel. *io new management*, 2007, No 6, pp. 8-13.

## CURRENT TRENDS OF MANAGEMENT LEARNING

**Jaroslav Komarek**

Karel Englis College, Mezirka 775/1, 602 00 Brno, e-mail: jaroslav.komarek@vske.cz

### Abstract

The questions about current and especially future development of the Management learning are relevant because business and general environment has changed itself fundamentally at the turn of the millennium. About the answer how to advance further has tried a group of academics and entrepreneurs at a workshop organized in Silicon Valley from the initiative of Garry Hamel. Their "moon shots" are very ambitious, but basically they are common challenges, not the specific instruments applicable "for achievement of stated objectives" such as the current management teaching. What then use when environment has changed and will change so radically? The basic question, what is the core of management from a theoretical point of view tried to respond the longtime

president of the International Academy of Management Harold Koontz and identified eleven approaches to management theory. Koontz alone recommends functional approach, which is the focus of all the Management learning (theory) on several typical functions (activities) that are unique to the managers. Although Harold Koontz has been unquestionably one of the "gurus" of Management, its approach cannot be considered for universal solution. His five functions are to be supplemented by two more - decision making and communicating.

**Key words:** management, learning, theory, future development, analysis of approaches, management theory jungle, management moon shots, functional model

**JEL Classification:** I 21, M 10

# PROBLÉMY SOUČASNÉHO PODNIKÁNÍ V LÁZEŇSTVÍ A VE WELLNESS

*Olga Kubová*

## ÚVOD

Lázeňský cestovní ruch a wellness cestovní ruch řadíme společně pod zdravotní cestovní ruch. Lázeňství je obor ekonomických činností zaměřený na využívání přírodních léčivých zdrojů, které prostřednictvím různých procedur slouží k prevenci a léčbě zdravotních problémů návštěvníků lázní. Od lázeňského cestovního ruchu se wellness liší především svými preventivními účinky na organismus člověka. Wellness cestovní ruch je často spojen i s jinými formami cestovního ruchu – bývá součástí nabídek incentivního a kongresového cestovního ruchu. Businessmani často vyhledávají hotely s wellness zařízením, kde mají možnost odreagovat se po stresujícím dni a firmy zase volí wellness hotely jako místa organizace různých teambuildingových programů, setkání se zákazníky či jako formu odměny pro úspěšné zaměstnance. Wellness cestovní ruch se řadí spíše mezi krátkodobé druhy cestovního ruchu. Z toho také plyne, že wellness i lázeňství jsou specifickým druhem cestovního ruchu, využívající obdobnou infrastrukturu a také přinášejí pozitivní ekonomický a multiplikační efekt. Je třeba připomenout, že wellness je do jisté míry filosofie a způsobem přístupu k životu. Nejen slovem opačného významu a anglickému „illness“. V České republice se obvykle za wellness považuje těžko definovatelná oblast činností mezi lázeňstvím a fitness. V současné době prochází wellness v České republice velmi dynamickým vývojem. Chápeme ho nejen jako aktuální trend a velkou podnikatelskou příležitost, ale právě jako zdravý, aktivní přístup k životu. Takový přístup může pomoci nalézat podnikajícím subjektům nové podnikatelské příležitosti a povede k lepšímu uspokojování potřeb zákazníků a může dávat i větší šanci uspět v konkurenčním boji na poli cestovního ruchu.

## 1 EKONOMICKÉ PŘÍNOSY ZDRAVOTNÍHO CESTOVNÍHO RUCHU

Význam zdravotního cestovního ruchu v České republice je velice důležitý. Zvláštností je to, že jednak je součástí systému zdravotní péče v české republice a jednak je také důležitým odvětvím cestovního ruchu. Lázeňství bývá označováno za zdravotně-sociálně-ekonomickou kategorii [Nejdl, str. 8]. Přínosy lázeňství jsou z výše uvedeného považovány zejména v kontextu zdravotním a ekonomickým, často se také hovoří o přínosech společenských a environmentálních. Medicínské přínosy zdravotního cestovního ruchu jsou vymezeny celkem jasně. Např. [Rebjonková, str. 10] charakterizuje tyto přínosy takto:

- Léčebné působení na základní onemocnění podle indikačního seznamu lázní,

- Léčebné působení na vedlejší onemocnění – např. žlučnickové kameny, nadváha atd.
- Zpomalení procesů stárnutí,
- Zlepšení tělesné a duševní kondice ve stáří,
- Zvýšení výkonnosti oběhového aparátu, zlepšení prokrvení orgánů a zlepšení látkové výměny,
- Prevence vzniku nebo progresu onemocnění již vzniklých,
- Získávání a prohlubování znalostí správné životosprávy, pohybových stereotypů, dietního stravování atd.

Ekonomickými přínosy zdravotního cestovního ruchu se zabývá řada autorů. Mezi jinými i C. Molnár, který rozlišuje přínosy lázeňství na přímé, nepřímé a vyvolané (generované). Příjemci přínosů jsou v tomto případě jak hospodářské podniky, tak i obce (samospráv) a stát.

Mezi přímé přínosy zařazuje C. Molnár finanční příjmy, tvorbu pracovních míst, podporu podnikání a investic a přínosy platební bilance. Mezi nepřímé přínosy zařazuje zaměstnance, podnikatele, národní vládu a samosprávu, Investice, hospitality, ubytování, příjmy platební bilance, příjmy cizích měn. Mezi vyvolané přínosy zařazuje příjmy a zisky dodavatelů a zaměstnanců komplementárních podniků, dodatečné vládní příjmy, rozvoj celkové infrastruktury, komplementární podniky cestovního ruchu, vládní příjmy, místní nabídku zdravotního cestovního ruchu pro cizince, multiplikační efekt.

## 1.1 Čerpání wellness služeb

Wellness služby mohou být čerpány v rámci:

**Wellness center** – tato centra obvykle zahrnují fitness, beauty salon a relaxační centrum nabízející masáže, koupele či vířivky bazén a kosmetiku.

**Lázeňský wellness** se vyvinul v místech, kde je poskytována také klasická lázeňská péče. Od 90. let můžeme pozorovat pokles počtu tradičních lázeňských pobytů. Důvodem je menší ochota pojištěnoven tyto pobyty hradit a také menší množství času, který jsou zákazníci ochotni věnovat lázeňskému pobytu. Rizika, která z těchto trendů pro lázně plynula, byla významně snížena nabídkou wellness pobytů, které se staly hitem nabídky většiny nejen českých lázní. Tyto pobyty jsou charakteristické tím, že jsou kratší než klasické lázeňské pobyty a jsou hrazeny výhradně ze soukromých zdrojů. Jelikož se zpravidla jedná o zdravé zákazníky toužící po odpočinku, nemusí být tito zákazníci pod kontrolou lékařů. Jedná se v podstatě spíše o aktivní dovolenou, než o léčbu. Protože jsou účastníci wellness pobytu samoplátcí, mají často vyšší nároky na nabídku a kvalitu služeb. A to nejen služeb spojených s léčbou či procedurami, ale i na kvalitu služeb jako je ubytování a stravování.

**Hotelový wellness** znamená připojení wellness služeb ke klasickým hotelovým službám. Některé wellness hotely nabízejí širší nabídku wellness, jiné užší. V případě vysoce specializovaných wellness hotelů se jedná nejen o existenci wellness centra, ale i o celkovou atmosféru hotelového zařízení. Samozřejmostí je pak i možnost zdravého stravování v hotelové restauraci. Zázemí wellness centra je tvořeno především sportovním centrem, relaxačním centrem a kosmetickým salónem. Oficiální jednotná klasifikace ubytovacích zařízení české republiky klasifikuje tato speciální zařízení:

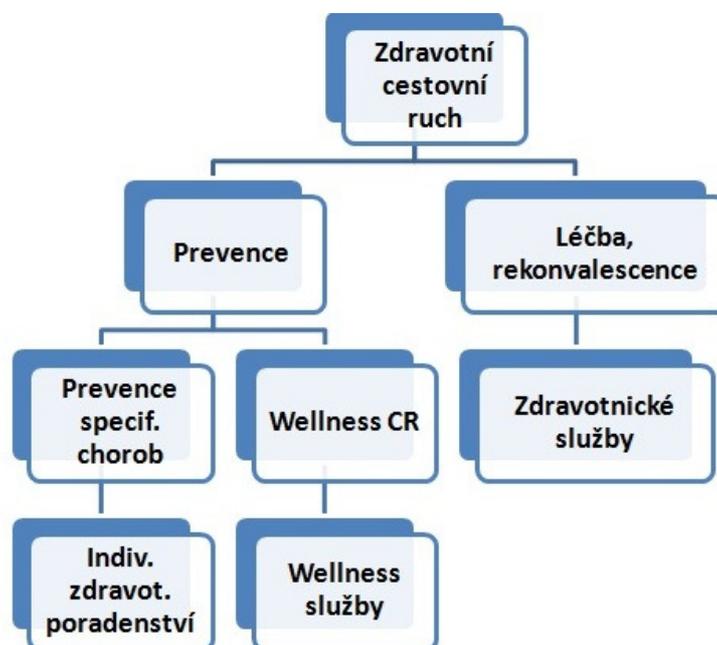
- *Lázeňský Spa Hotel* – ubytovací zřízení, které se nachází v místě se statutem lázeňského místa dle Zákona č. 164/2001 Sb. (lázeňský zákon) v aktuálním znění, které splňuje veškeré požadavky pro kategorii hotel a které zajišťuje zároveň lázeňskou péči dle §33 zákona č. 48/1997 Sb. Zákon o veřejném zdravotním pojištění a o změně a doplnění některých souvisejících zákonů.
- *Lázeňský hotel Garni* – ubytovací zařízení, které se nachází v místě se statutem lázeňského místa dle zákona č. 164/2001 Sb. (lázeňský zákon) v aktuálním znění, který splňuje veškeré požadavky pro kategorii hotel garni a které zajišťuje zároveň lázeňskou péči dle §33 zák. č. 48/1997 Sb. Zákon o veřejném zdravotním pojištění a o změně a doplnění některých souvisejících zákonů.
- *Wellness Hotel* – ubytovací zařízení, které splňuje veškeré požadavky pro kategorii hotel dle oficiální jednotné klasifikace ubytovacích zařízení České republiky 3\* - 5\* a zároveň poskytuje služby wellness, přičemž bude současně certifikováno podle výstupů z projektu Ministerstva místního rozvoje „Zavádění národních standardů kvality ve vybraných sektorech cestovního ruchu“.

Zásadní přínosy wellness centra spočívají v získání nových zákazníků, ve zvýšení obrátu a v celkovém zlepšení image provozu. Wellness nabídka také prodlužuje turistickou sezónu daného hotelu, jelikož většinu wellness služeb je možné vykonávat bez závislosti na počasí. Významné je také zvýšení atraktivity hotelu pro business cestovní ruch.

## 2 SOUČASNÝ CESTOVNÍ RUCH A WELLNESS

Wellness cestovní ruch se řadí spíše mezi krátkodobé druhy cestovního ruchu – průměrná délka wellness pobytu je 2,6 dne (Deutscher Wellness Verand, 2008). Z toho také plynou požadavky na marketing a realizaci wellness programů. Schéma zařazení wellness cestovního ruchu mezi další formy cestovního ruchu je na následujícím obrázku 1.

**Obrázek 1: Schéma zařazení wellness mezi další druhy cestovního ruchu**  
Zdroj: Mag Consulting



Wellness cestovní ruch je dnes pevně zakotven v systému zdravotního cestovního ruchu a wellness služby v lázeňských místech a wellness hotelích hrají důležitou ekonomickou úlohu a zvyšují konkurenceschopnost daného místa, či subjektu.

Přírodní léčebné lázně podle lázeňského zákona představují soubor zdravotnických a jiných souvisejících zařízení sloužících k poskytování lázeňské péče a jsou zákonem určeny jako přírodní léčebné lázně, jak uvádí.[Čurda, str. 51].

Lázeňským místem se rozumí území nebo část území, v němž se nacházejí přírodní léčebné lázně stanovené za lázeňské místo podle zákona.

Wellness jako trend současné doby začal být šlágr i v nabídce lázeňských zařízení. Roste počet zákazníků, kteří poptávají wellness programy. V minulosti se pobývalo v lázních zejména kvůli léčbě různých zdravotních neduhů. Většina těchto pobytů byla z části úplně hrazena z finančních prostředků zdravotních pojišťoven. Tím, že se lázně otevřely i pro zdravé lidi, kteří se svým pobytem v lázních snaží zregenerovat, relaxovat a nabrat nové síly, naskytla se možnost zvýšit a diverzifikovat zdroje příjmů lázeňských center. Tato diverzifikace přináší výhodu zejména ve snížení rizik, která plynula z přílišné finanční závislosti na jednom zdroji – zdravotních pojišťovnách.

Následujícím důvodem implementace wellness programů do lázeňské nabídky je zvýšení konkurenceschopnosti lázní. Tím, že lázně nabídnou vedle klasických léčebných pobytů i něco navíc, přilákají nový segment zákazníků či uspokojí další potřeby svých současných zákazníků.

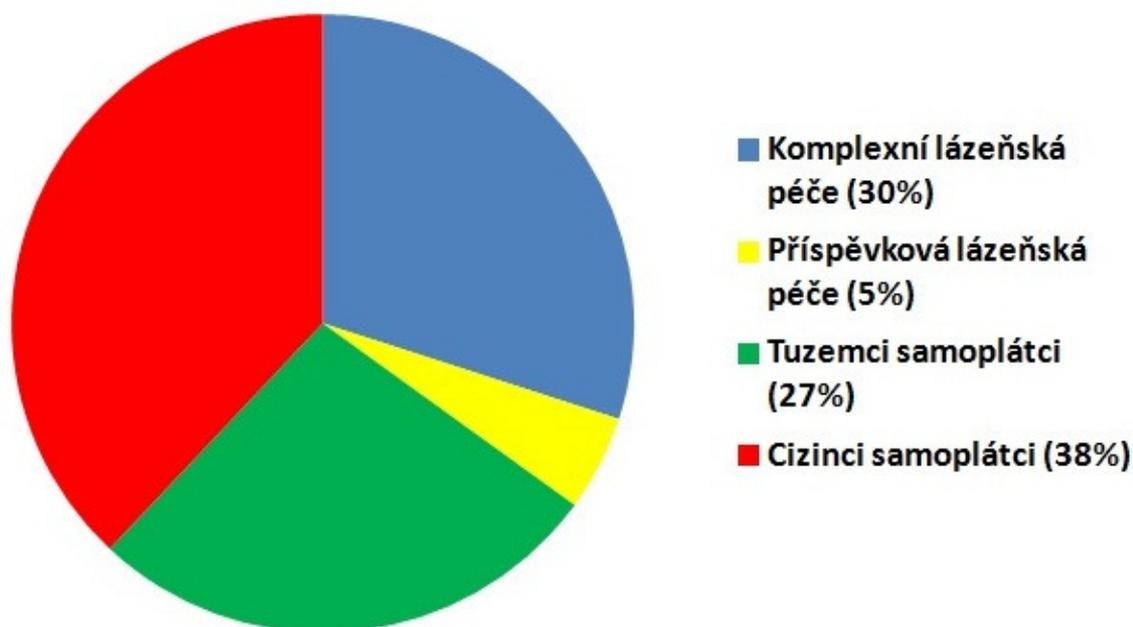
Následující obrázek 2 ukazuje procentuální podíl pacientů, kteří si ubytování hradí sami, tedy tzv. samoplátci, a podíl pacientů, kterým pobyt hradí pojišťovna ať už z části (příspěvková lázeňská péče), nebo úplně (komplexní lázeňská péče).

Pacienti samoplátci, kteří si hradí pobyt sami, očekávají za své peníze i odpovídající kvalitu služeb. Financování lázeňské péče je velkým výdajem, a proto jsou pacienti nároční při zhodnocování celkového přínosu pobytu na zdraví. Nároky jsou kladené na služby v oblasti relaxace a regenerace, ubytování, stravování, ale i při trávení volného času.

Pro uspokojení pacientů, kteří přijeli do lázní relaxovat a pečovat o své zdraví, je vhodné rozšířit klasickou lázeňskou nabídku o kvalitní kulturní nebo sportovní program. Zároveň se neočekává organizace pobytu jako u komplexní lázeňské péče. Nabídka služeb by měla být široká, ale pacient by měl mít možnost si služby kombinovat dle svého uvážení.

### **Obrázek 2: Struktura pacientů lázní v ČR v roce 2011**

Zdroj: ÚZIS, [www.uzis.cz](http://www.uzis.cz)



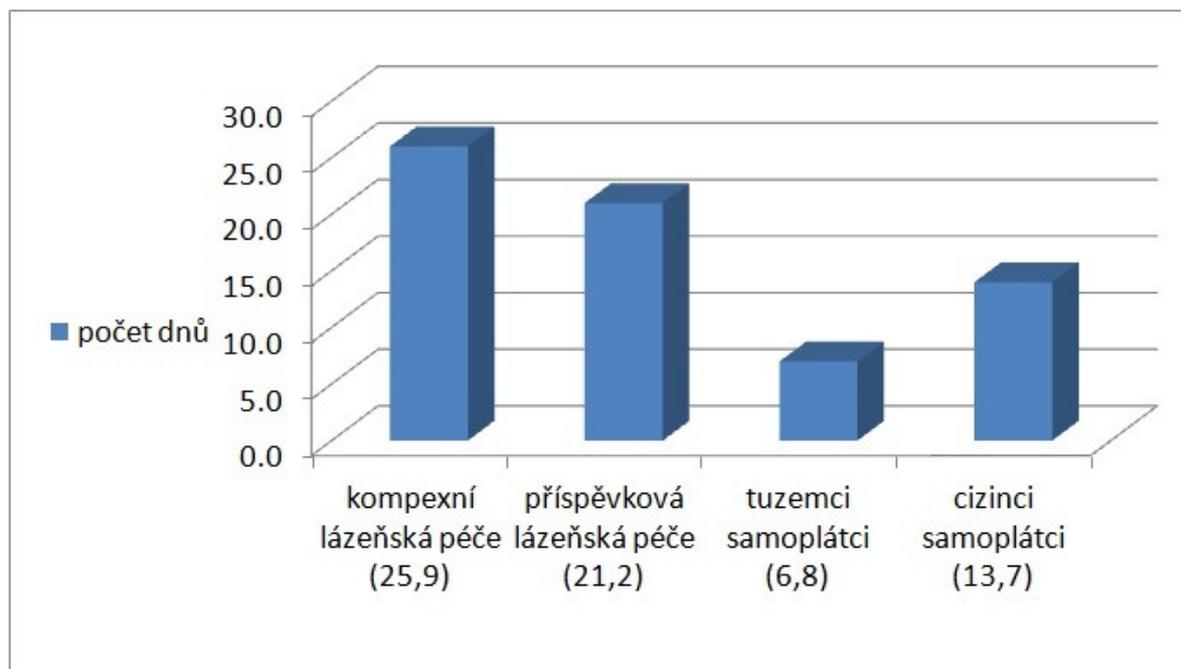
Lázeňské pobyty se vlastním konceptem odlišují od wellness pobytů. Hlavním rozdílem klasického lázeňského pobytu a wellness pobytu jsou odlišní zákazníci. Zatímco klasickou lázeňskou péči využívají především nemocní lidé, kteří mají léčebné kúry předepsané od lékaře, wellness lázeňské pobyty navštěvují lidé, kteří usilují o upevnění svého zdravotního stavu. Cílem je prevence, relaxace či regenerace.

Změnu lze nalézt i v délce pobytu. V obrázku 3 je vidět průměrná délka pobytu dílčích skupin. Nejkratší délku pobytu tj. 6,8 dnů mají čeští zákazníci, kteří si pobyt hradí sami, následují cizinci samoplátci, kteří čerpají služby v průměru 13,7 dne.

Rozdíl délky pobytu je dán zejména kupní silou jednotlivé skupiny. V případě lázeňského pobytu hrazeného v celé výši pojišťovnou se pobyt prodlužuje až na 25,9 dnů a u příspěvkové lázeňské péče je průměrná doba 21,2 dnů.

### Obrázek 3: Průměrný počet dnů pobytu v lázních za rok 2011

Zdroj: ÚZIS, www. uzis.cz



## 3 MARKETING VE WELLNESS CESTOVNÍM RUCHU

V marketingové strategii je nutné, aby wellness cestovní ruch byl zřetelně oddělen od lázeňského cestovního ruchu a od léčby. Tyto dva segmenty musí být prezentovány samostatně, ačkoli mohou být nabízeny ve stejném zařízení.

Důležitou úlohu i zde hraje management kvality. Vysoká kvalita je základem úspěchu na trhu i v rámci mezinárodní konkurence. Je nutné ale podotknout, že nejen kvalita a modernost vybavení wellness zařízení je zárukou úspěchu, ve wellness turizmu je klíčová především celková atmosféra celého zařízení, kde hraje významnou roli kvalitní personál. Prvním krokem při tvorbě marketingové strategie by měla být analýza vnějšího okolí. Je důležité si opatřit analýzu poptávky. Odpovědět si na následující otázky:

Jaké jsou nejnovější trendy v oblasti wellness ? Jaké jsou předpoklady budoucího vývoje? Jaké je konkurenční prostředí? Jak silná je konkurence, která by mohla příhodně navazovat na wellness nabídku, či jí naopak konkurovat? Výsledky této analýzy je pak nutné porovnat s ohodnocením sebe sama. Na základě toho je pak možné zhodnotit šance a rizika, která pro daný subjekt vyplývají z podnikání v této oblasti.

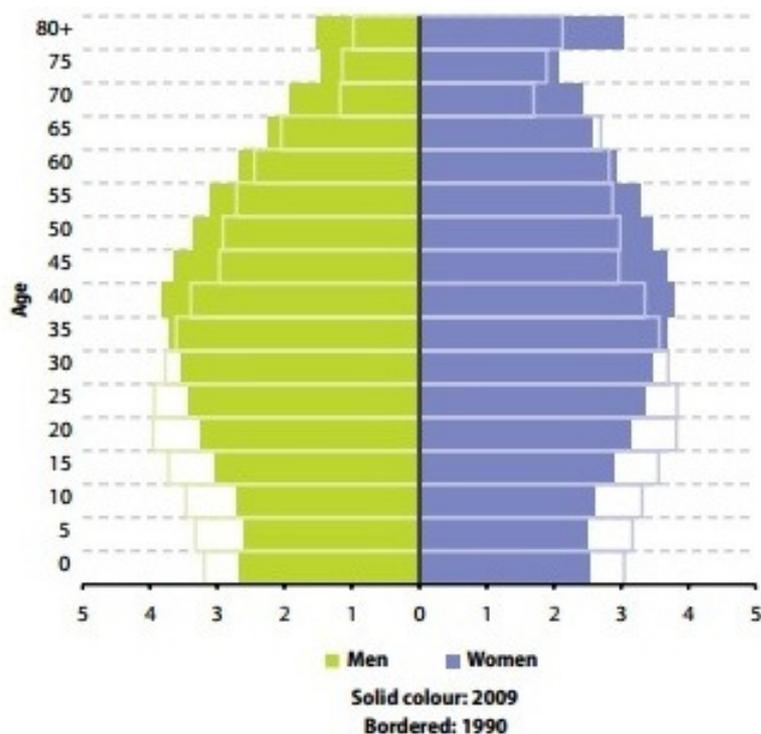
## 4 SENIORSKÝ CESTOVNÍ RUCH A WELLNESS

Cestovní ruch seniorů označujeme jako cestovní ruch starší generace. Není přesně dána věková hranice, od které je člověk zařazen do této skupiny. Podle některých pramenů je to již od 50 let, častější je však vymezení od 55 či 60 let. Vzhledem k tomu, že se ve vyspělých zemích zlepšuje zdravotní péče, propaguje se zdravý životní styl, prodlužuje se i délka vitálního života. Senioři disponují větším množstvím volného času a tak mohou cestovat během celého roku, zvyšuje se také množství peněžních prostředků, které jsou ochotni investovat do cestování a do péče o své zdraví [Kubová, str. 52]

Podle odhadů U.S. Census Bureau bude v České republice v roce 2050 podíl této skupiny (starší 50 let) na celkové struktuře populace téměř 52 %, což je nárůst oproti šetření z roku 2000 o 20 procentních bodů. Je tedy zřejmé, že tento segment v sobě skrývá obrovský potenciál. Nejvyšší nárůst v podílu na celkovém počtu obyvatelstva se předpokládá u věkové skupiny 80 a více let, jak ukazuje obrázek 4.

**Obrázek 4: Věková struktura obyvatel EU-27 v roce 2009.**

Zdroj: Eurostat, 2009



Je vědecky doloženo, že pravidelným cvičením, zdravou stravou a psychickou pohodou, tedy obecně naplněním wellness ideálů, může být kvalita života seniorů podstatně zlepšena. Senioři zůstávají aktivní stále déle a mají zájem o své zdraví dále pečovat. Častěji využívají metody, které by podpořily jejich relaxaci, vyvolaly pocit pohody a celkově blahodárně působily na zdraví. Chtějí získat novou energii. Nabídka na trhu cestovního ruchu se tak stále více přizpůsobuje jejich specifickým potřebám. Lázeňská zařízení, wellness centra i hotely nabízejí produkty speciálně určené tomuto segmentu.

Rok 2000 je považován za vznik seniorského cestovního ruchu v České republice a jedním z jeho nejdůležitějších motivů se staly lázeňské wellness programy, poznávací turistika a pobyty u moře.

Z pohledu složení účastníků cestovního ruchu nejvíce roste právě podíl seniorů. Dle asociace českých cestovních kanceláří byl v roce 2011 podíl seniorů mezi zákazníky cestovních kanceláří a agentur přibližně 10 %. V porovnání s ostatními vyspělými zeměmi je seniorský cestovní ruch v české republice stále méně rozšířen. Následující tabulka 1 uvádí jeho zastoupení ve vybraných zemích.

**Tabulka 1: Účastníci mezinárodního cestovního ruchu starší 60 let v roce 2011**

Země	Podíl seniorů na světových příjezdech
Německo	20 %
UK	16 %
Francie	30 %
USA	27 %
Španělsko	15 %
Kanada	28 %
Itálie	13 %
Japonsko	27 %
Průměr v EU 15	18 %
Česká republika	10 %

Zdroj: Mag Consulting

Z tabulky 1 vyplývá, že největší podíl na světových příjezdech seniorů mají účastníci z Francie, Kanady, Japonska a z USA. Účast českých seniorů na těchto příjezdech se drží pod průměrem Evropské unie. Tato skutečnost je způsobena zejména relativně nízkými penzemi českých seniorů.

Z výzkumů UNWTO, které zjišťovaly postavení výdajů na cestování a péči o vlastní zdraví mezi seniory ve vyspělých zemích, vyplývá, že je řadí na první příčku mezi všemi výdaji a na cestování vynakládají dokonce vyšší částky, než na běžné spotřební výdaje. Další rozvoj čerpání wellness procedur pro seniory bude záviset na růstu jejich disponibilních příjmů, respektive důchodů a růstu cen. Nejvíce citliví jsou senioři na růst cen potravin a bydlení (elektriny, plynu, a nájemného).

## 5 EVROPA A WELLNESS

V dnešní době vykazuje německý i rakouský trh wellness oboru stagnaci. Podle mínění odborného „Institut für Freizeitwirtschaft“, zaznamenává Rakousko snížení poptávky po wellness produktech ze strany německých zákazníků.[Orieška, str. 81]

Na Slovensku se využívá podobného principu, tedy získat novou skupinu zákazníků více citlivých na cenu. Je důležité neopomenout ani důležitost marketingu. „Často se stává, že zdravotní pojišťovny neplatí včas faktury za lázeňskou péči a platby je třeba vymáhat. V těchto daných případech se zohledňují sociální aspekty trhu. Jestliže si chce lázeňský podnik ve vztahu k zdravotní pojišťovně udržet svoji tržní pozici, je přinucen dělat cenovou diferenciaci mezi pojištěnci zdravotních pojišťoven a komerčními klienty. V praxi lázeňských podniků se stává, že komerční klienti kompenzují ztráty vyplývající z léčby pojištěnců zdravotních pojišťoven jen proto, aby lázeňský podnik nepřišel o svůj tržní podíl. Zde je možné hovořit o skryté solidaritě mezi platícími a neplatícími pacienty, kterou je možné chápat jako ochranný nástroj lázeňského podniku“.[ Eliašová, str. 99]

## ZÁVĚR

V České republice se začalo aktivně provozovat wellness se zpožděním. Zavádění jeho myšlenek do strategií ubytovacích zařízení, lázeňských a fitness center započalo až v 90. letech 20. století. To bylo dáno zejména naší separací od západoevropského dění před rokem 1989. Teprve v posledních letech dochází k jeho dynamickému rozvoji. Na počátku 21. století se začalo s aktivní propagací zdravého životního stylu a zdravé výživy. Až s postupem času se rozvinul i koncept usilující o komplexní přístup k člověku a hledání rovnováhy a harmonie. Stále větší péče se věnuje zdravotnímu stavu, fyzické kondici, relaxaci a osobnímu rozvoji jedince.

Jiným možným důvodem, který ovlivnil pozdější příchod tohoto trendu do České republiky, je i způsob, jakým je vnímána lázeňská péče. Zatímco např. v Kanadě, USA nebo Velké Británii a dalších státech vnímají wellness jako relaxaci, odpočinek, kosmetickou péči apod., v České republice si lázeňství zachovává výrazně medicínský charakter, a podle průzkumů poptávky je oceňována zejména kvalitou poskytované léčebné péče. Wellness získává stále větší popularitu a představuje proto velmi perspektivní obor podnikatelské činnosti. Wellness služby mohou být čerpány v rámci lázeňských míst, které nabídku wellness služeb zahrnují do svých produktových balíčků nebo fungovat zcela samostatně ve formě specializovaných beauty a fitness studií nebo komplexních wellness center. Wellness centra nabízejí v našich podmínkách obvykle prostory pro sport, tenisový či squashový kurt, sál na aerobik, spinning, jógu a další druhy cvičení. Stále větší poptávku zaznamenávají masážní služby, sauny, solária, whirlpools a beauty služby. Vzhledem k tvrdé konkurenci, která panuje mezi poskytovateli wellness služeb především v zahraničí, jsou zákazníci přicházející z těchto zemí zvyklí na vysoký standard poskytovaných služeb. Je proto nutné zabezpečit jejich kvalitu, abychom dokázali uspokojit potřeby těch nejnáročnějších zákazníků.

## POUŽITÁ LITERATURA

ČURDA, J. a kol. *České lázně a lázeňství*. Praha: Ministerstvo pro místní rozvoj, 2007. ISBN 978-80-239-9330-1.

ELIÁŠOVÁ, D. *Kúpeľníctvo*, Ekonomická univerzita Bratislava, Obchodná fakulta EKONOM 2007, ISBN 978-80-225-2452-0

KUBOVÁ, O. *Wellness v cestovním ruchu*, Vysoká škola Karla Engliš, a.s., Ostrava 2012, ISBN 978-80-86710-63-1

MOLNÁR, C. *Health Tourism in Hungary: History, its Reevaluation and Tendencies*. (online). (cit. 2011-02-10). Dostupné na WWW: <http://web.ebscohost.com/ehost/pdfviewer/pdfviewer?hid%=8&sid=dd5a928-7d12-4208-9103-5ae901f2d9e940&sessionmgr=13&vid=8>

NEJEDL, K. *Lázeňství v České republice na křižovatce svého vývoje*: Czech Hospitality and Tourism Papers č. 2/2005. ISSN 1801-2535 REBONKOVÁ, M. *Mají lázně místo v současném systému zdravotnictví?* Lékařské listy 14/2010 – příloha Zdravotních novin č. 14/2010. ISSN 1214-7664 ORIEŠKA, J. *Metodika činnosti průvodce cestovního ruchu* 6. Vydání Praha: Idea servis 2010, ISBN 9788085970579

Zákon č. 164/2001 Sb. Lázeňský zákon

Zákon č. 48/1997 Sb. § 33 Zákon o veřejném zdravotním pojištění a o změně a doplnění některých souvisejících zákonů

Oficiální jednotná klasifikace ubytovacích zařízení České republiky, Terminologie z ČSN EN ISO 13809  
Služby cestovního ruchu – Cestovní agentury a cestovní kanceláře (touroperátoři)

EUROSTAT 2009, *Key figures on Europe* [online]. 17 June 2011, [cit. 2012-07-17]. Dostupný z WWW: [http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/portal/page/portal/product\\_details/publication?p\\_product\\_code=KS-EI-11-001](http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/portal/page/portal/product_details/publication?p_product_code=KS-EI-11-001) [citované 11.září2013] Deutscher Wellness Verand, 2008.

U.S. Census Bureau

Mag Consulting

ÚZIS, [www.uzis.cz](http://www.uzis.cz)

**Olga Kubová, Ing.**

Hostěradice 454, 671 71 okr. Znojmo

721 853880

[o.kubova@seznam.cz](mailto:o.kubova@seznam.cz)

doc.Ing.Darina Eliašová PhD.

## CONTEMPORARY PROBLEMS OF SPA & WELLNESS BUSINESS

**Olga Kubová**

Karel Englis College, Mezírka 755/1, Brno 602 00, Czech Republic

Email: [olga.kubova@vske.cz](mailto:olga.kubova@vske.cz)

### **Abstract:**

Spa and wellness – both branches are often described as health tourism. These are important segments in travel industry. The significance of spa&wellness from business point of view can be understood as a summary of the economic activities of the various sectors and industries, whose results meet customer needs. The typical customer on the health tourism market is around 40 yrs old although we see more and more in senior age. The health tourism providers must calculate with the fact that European population is aging and customize their offers to this.

**Key words:** tourism, health tourism, spa tourism, wellness tourism, senior tourism, marketing of tourism.

**JEL Classification:** H 51,L83

# **AGGRESSIVENESS OF A MEN AND ITS RELIANCE ON STRATEGIC THINKING**

*Antonino Milicia*

## **INTRODUCTION**

The first of authors of this submission is dedicating to psychology and sociology for long time and the second author is dealing with a strategic management and nowadays is concentrating on the problematic of the strategic thinking. In this submission the both of them want to discuss one of the factors of the strategic thinking and it is the factor of the aggressiveness. This is the way they want the research of the aggressiveness which is the dominance of subjects like psychology more elucidate to a problematic of the management. They will mainly issue from the work of one of the distinguished psychologist of the 20<sup>th</sup> century – Erich Fromm and his work “*Anatomy of men destruction*” (Fromm, 1997).

## **1 THE STRATEGIC THINKING**

The term strategic thinking is possible to indicate as *a way of thinking that conforms to the essence and typical characters of the strategic processes* (Souček, 1991, p. 18). So that is a way of thinking which among others influences and predetermines managing skills of men. The aim of this research of the strategic thinking is to indicate of the essence of the strategic thinking and collect pieces of knowledge to courage methods of its strengthening.

Present research of the strategic thinking has come to a determination of basic factors that influence the strategic thinking (Milicia, 2001). One of them is right the factor of aggressiveness. The aggressiveness influences other factors in this model as well – e.g. ethic, motivation etc.

## **2 DETERMINATION TO THE TERM AGGRESSIVENESS**

The concept of aggressiveness by Fromm and others authors is a bit different than common reception of the term aggressiveness where the aggressiveness is precariously received negatively.

This advance in a cognisance of aggressiveness is possible to discern in the citation of the determination of the term strategic thinking as well. One of possible interpretations of the term aggressiveness is that it confers of “...*achievements that produce or cause aimlessly harm to another person, an animal or lifeless object*” (Fromm, 1997, p. 190). This definition is effective in relation to researching of the strategic thinking as well, let us say strategic management that is generally in the conflict with other’s interests and one of its secondary (but wilful as well) discourses is just harm other subjects (e.g. Nastoupil, 1998).

The term “*aggressiveness*” is, however, in its prime meaning to strategic management closer. The word “*aggressiveness*” comes from the words „*ad*“ („*towards*“) and „*gradus*“ („*step*“) composed on „*ad gradi*“. The compound „*aggredi*“ means then „*move to something, go, walk*“, likewise e.g. „*regression*“ mean „*move back*“. „*Be aggressive*“ meant in the prime meaning „*go to determinate aim without meaningless irresolution, doubts or threat*“ (Fromm, 1997, p. 193).

Above-cited determination of the term “*aggressiveness*” in its prime meaning is becoming considerably closer to a character and aims of strategic management and thus the essence of the strategic thinking as well. The aggressiveness is becoming another rightful component of the strategic thinking. Before that it will be fully possible to include in the formatted conception of the strategic thinking is necessary to peruse and describe it properly.

### **3 COMPARISON OF MEN AGGRESSIVENESS WITH AGGRESSIVENESS OF ANIMALS**

The man is in the comparison with animals essentially more destroyed. The aggressiveness is at animals rather infrequent (the aggressiveness of predators is not in this context the aggressiveness to all intents and purposes). The increase of the aggressiveness is an exception in this case of an abolishment of the environment balance (e.g. compress of the population). But the man embodies essentially higher aggressive potential than animals and it often gives the leeway to its vent. In nature there is also except for men no existent of another species that is possible to watch joyous of destruction in, the satisfaction of cruelties and not only on level of individuals but also in many cases all inside as well.

The difference is that “*the aggressiveness at a man overruns the aim of self-defence or satisfaction his needs*” (Fromm, 1997, p. 190). Fromm is using for a pernicious aggressiveness the term destruktivity, which is something like hyper-aggressiveness, which has not the justification in protections of individual interests. Fromm also denies thesis that the human destruktivity is anthropological and evolutionary predetermined; that it goes with an inheritance from predecessors, firmly berthed in human species.

### **4 THE BENIGN AND THE MALIGN AGGRESSIVENESS**

For the reason that the aggressiveness serves for men safekeeping interests and hyper-aggressiveness that is similar to a destruktivity and cruelties, it is possible to divide into two basic types: the benign aggressiveness and the malign aggressiveness.

#### **4.1 The benign aggressiveness**

The essence of the benign aggressiveness (biologically adaptive, attending to the life) is an ability to save life supporting interests ahead of different types of a threat. The benign aggressiveness is fylogenetically programmed, is common for animals and men, is not spontaneous and does not accumulate and increase itself. It is the reaction on a definite stimulation and has a defensive character, is destining to an elimination of the threat, respectively either with destroying or eliminating of its causes.

Fromm differentiates these types (motives) of the benign aggressiveness:

### **PSEUDOAGGRESSIVENESS – AGGRESSIVE RECORDS WHOSE AIM IS NOT TO CAUSE A DAMAGE BUT THEY MIGHT HAVE CAUSED**

- ***unintended aggressiveness*** – unintended causing of the damage eventually an aggressiveness with unconscious motives
- ***playful aggressiveness*** – aggressiveness attending to practise of skills; is hateless and desire to the destruction
- ***aggressiveness as self-enforcement*** – it is the basic character susceptible survival, influences the skill of a man to achieve and force to impediments; strengthens his decisiveness. It has been genetically given to the man and was established its connection with male hormones and sexuality

### **DEFENSIVE AGGRESSIVENESS – AGGRESSIVENESS WHICH ATTENDS TO FORCES MOBILISATION TO A SECURITY OF VITAL INTERESTS**

- ***enforcement of freedom*** – enforcement of individual or collective freedom
- ***defence of narcissism*** – defence of individual or collective feeling of an exclusiveness
- ***aggressiveness as resistance*** – subconscious defensive of the psychical stability and effort to displace some motives from a consciousness that collide with a self-respect and a self-love. In a group it is a defence ahead to uncomfortable or unpleasant incidences of the truth.
- ***conformist aggressiveness*** – the enjoined aggressiveness, realisable with reference to obedience and not for need of an individual destroy. The disobedience is the basic crime.
- ***instrumental aggressiveness*** – the aggressiveness as a instrument to enforce a true aim; attend to provision necessary physiological needs. It is necessary to contrast the enforcement of desirable needs – insatiableness and greediness that have a pathological character.

## **4.2 The malign aggressiveness**

The malign aggressiveness is not biologically adaptive, is not instinctive, does not represent the defence against exposure and is not phylogenetically programmed. It is biologically harmful because it disturbs the social structure. It is occurring only by men and expressing itself as a destructivity and cruelty. Its discourses offer a pleasure to the aggressor thereby they harm without serving for another aim. It is clearly men potential established in conditionals of human existence. Because it is not innate, Fromm believes in its extirpation. The malign aggressiveness is in a conflict with progressive the strategic thinking (progressive qualitatively and quantitatively as well (Milicia, 2001) because it is in its essence devastating neither aims nor skills.

## **CONCLUSION**

The aggressiveness is from the strategic thinking inseparable. At the judgement of man aggressiveness is though essential to contrast among motives that involve the malign character (e.g. self-enforcement) and the destructive aggressiveness. In the first example the aggressiveness is the force that is fundamentally strengthening man skills and among others also his strategic thinking. In the second example the whole man personality is conformed to his the malign aggressiveness. Then the aggressiveness will be having the pernicious, destructive form.

The man strategic thinking is as well as his aggressiveness should always follow the basic biological program of the man which is according to Erich Fromm the conservation and the growth of the individual and human species as well.

The importance of the aggressiveness though rather N. Machiavelli also refers peculiarity form: „The history has repeatedly referred to the combination to be over teeth gun carrying and devious will enables you with major probability achievement of your aim. To be kind-hearted is praiseworthy, but leader himself must be able to become a devil, provided it the necessity inculcates it to him.” (Crainer, 1998)

## **Literature**

CRAINER, S. Kompendium managementu. 50 knih, které změnily management. Přel. J. Loos. 1. vyd. Praha: Computer Press, 1998. 196 s. Přel. z: Key Management Ideas. Thinkers that changed the management word. ISBN 80-7226-109-6.

FROM, E. Anatomie lidské destruktivity. Můžeme ovlivnit její podstatu a následky? Přel. B. Placák. 1. vyd. Praha: NLN, 1997. 520 s. Přel z: Anatomie der menschlichen Destruktivität. ISBN 80-7106-232-4.

FROM, E. Mít nebo být? 2. vyd.. Praha: Naše vojsko, 1994. 170 s. Přel. z: Haben oder Sein

MILICIA, A. Význam a některé aspekty strategického myšlení. In IMEA – mezinárodní konference studentů doktorandských studijních programů. Pardubice, 4.5.2001. Pardubice: Univerzita Pardubice, 2001. s. 202-205. ISBN 80-7194-347-9.

NASTOUPIL, J. Strategické myšlení (I.). NATO – dokumenty, informace, názory, komentáře, 1998, č. 8. s 73-88.

SOUČEK, Z. Strategické myšlení. 1. vyd. Praha: Economia, 1991. 81 s. ISBN 80-85378-10-8.

**Ing. Antonino Milicia, Ph.D., MBA**  
UTILITY CONSULT, s.r.o.  
Kolískova 4, Brno  
e-mail: milicia@utilityconsult.cz

## TITLE OF PAPER IN ENGLISH

**Antonino Milicia**

Kolískova 4, Brno, Czech Republic

milicia@utilityconsult.cz

### **Abstract**

The submission is considering men aggressiveness that is incorporated into the conception of the research of a strategic thinking. Determining to the term “aggressiveness”, differentiating the aggressiveness of animals and men Aggressiveness, dividing to “benign” and “malign” aggressiveness and describing basic types of benign aggressiveness and its reliance on strategic thinking.

**Key words:** strategy, ethics, strategic thinking

**JEL Classification:** A 01, B 02

# DIVERSITY MANAGEMENT: CHANGES IN CORPORATE CULTURE

*Karina Mužáková*

## INTRODUCTION

Diversity management is not yet in the Czech Republic as widespread as in other EU countries and the USA. The slowdown of its development in the last five years also contributed to the effects of the recent financial crisis, which caused the bankruptcies of companies worldwide in the value for 2009 14.5 trillion USD. Basis of diversity management gives companies and institutions a new view of the working group. It is no longer necessary diversification of working groups so popular "young team", the main emphasis is on the diversity of personalities in the group. It is this diversity has a big influence on the change in the corporate culture of the business.

The development of diversity management also belonged to the initiatives of the European Union. In this context it may be interesting to mention that the year 2007 has been designated the European Commission, the European Year of Equal Opportunities for All. To promote this year have been published many interesting materials that contributed to the expansion of this phenomenon not only in all EU member states. The article focuses on selected aspects of significant diversity management, and also from the perspective of its critics.

## 5 DIVERSITY AND DIVERSITY MANAGEMENT

### 1.1 Diversity

Exist to much of definitions of this conception. Here are two of the many.

The term "diversity" refers (UIOVA, 2013) to populations that have been historically and presently denied full inclusion on the basis of race, creed, colour, national origin ... . What include this term see in Fig. 1.

The concept (GLADSTONE.UOREGON, 1999) of diversity encompasses acceptance and respect. It means understanding that each individual is unique, and recognizing our individual differences. These can be along the dimensions of race, ethnicity, gender, sexual orientation, socio-economic status, age, physical abilities, religious beliefs, political beliefs, or other ideologies. It is the exploration of these differences in a safe, positive, and nurturing environment. It is about understanding each other and moving beyond simple tolerance to embracing and celebrating the rich dimensions of diversity contained within each individual.

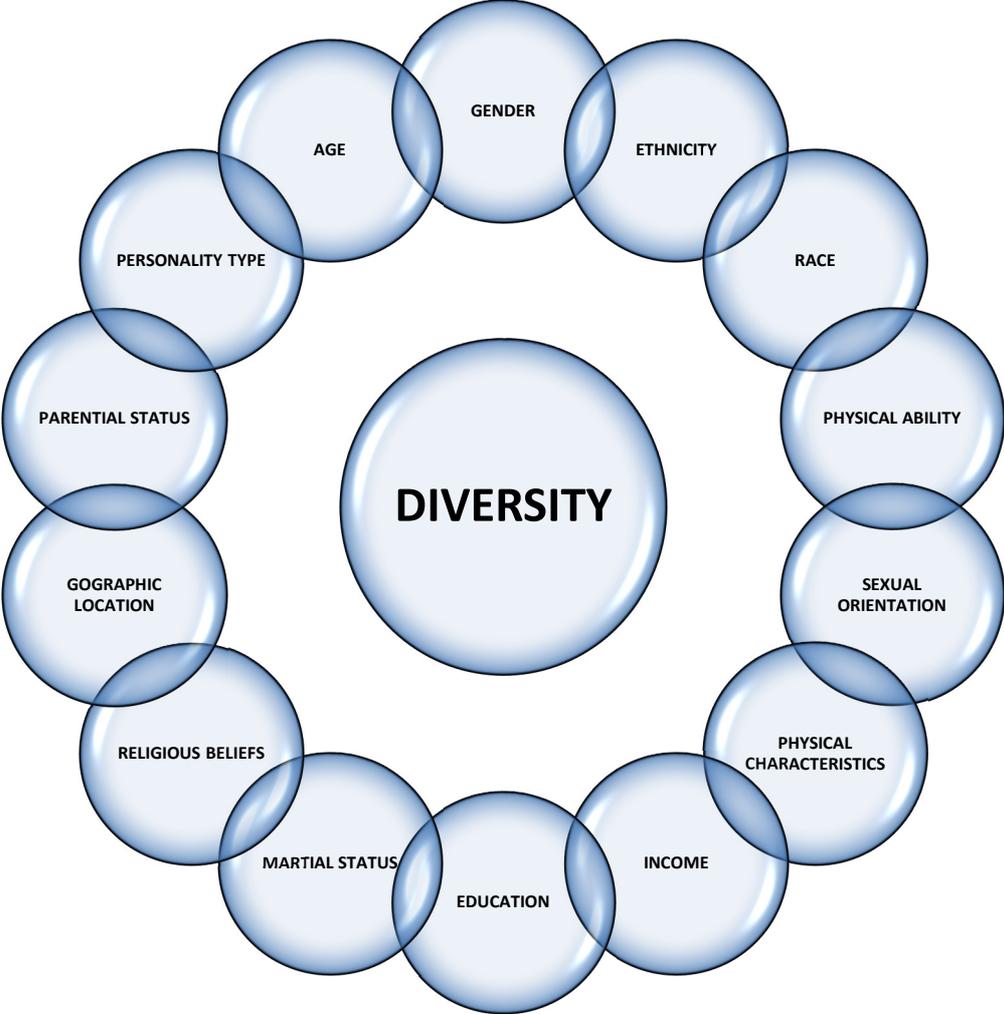
Managing diversity (Prasad, 1997) begins with valuing individual differences. In one set of solutions, educational efforts are the common thread. The first solution is diversity training, which helps individuals understand their own and others prejudices. Near Gordon (1993) diversity training is focuses on four strategies:

- Management development: increase the visibility of, understanding of, and commitment to diversity;
- Organizational development: promote an equitable work environment that values diversity;
- Talent development: obtain horizontal and vertical integration of diversity throughout all functions;
- Individual development: empower individuals to help reduce barriers to reaching their full potential.

Exist much literature about diversity which also showcases ways in which managers can effectively introduce diversity into organizations.

Source: self-elaboration

Figure 1: A framework (non-hierarchical) for Diversity



### 1.2 Diversity management

Discipline diversity management originated in the USA.

The concept of "managing diversity" was first defined by R. T. Roosevelt, Jr. in his book "Beyond Race and Gender. Unleashing the Power of Your Total Work Force by Managing Dviersity" published in 1992. Since then, this topic has devoted a great number of authors from individuals to government organizations.

Diversity management (Wrench, 2007) is the latest development in a sequence of strategies which have aimed to get excluded minorities better represented in employment. However, diversity management is said to be characteristically different from previous employment equity approaches directed at under-represented minority ethnic groups, such as equal opportunity and affirmative action approaches, in a number of ways.

For one thing, its rationale is primarily one of improving organizational competitiveness and efficiency, driven by business purpose and market advantage. In relation to this it emphasizes the necessity of recognising cultural differences between groups of employees, and making practical allowances for such differences in organizational policies. The idea is that encouraging an environment of cultural diversity where peoples´ differences are valued enables people to work to their full potential in a richer, more creative and more productive work environment.

An advantage of diversity management is said to be its more positive approach, rather than the negative one of simply avoiding transgressions of anti-discrimination laws. It is said to avoid some of the “backlash” problems associated with affirmative action, as unlike previous equality strategies, diversity management is not seen as a policy solely directed towards the interests of excluded or under-represented minorities. Rather it is seen as an inclusive policy, and one which therefore encompasses the interests of all employees, including white males. Managing diversity also represents a significant competitive advantage, see Fig. 2.

Source: self-elaboration from DIVERSITYINSTITUTE (2013)

Figure 2: Managing Diversity for a Competitive Advantage



Very important are the principles of diversity management, which were summarized in 2004 (NESDIS.NOAA):

- Establish a business strategy for effectively; managing a diverse workforce;
- Create a positive work environment;
- Promote personal and professional development;
- Empower all people to reach their full potential;
- Attract talent;
- Remove barriers that hinder progress.

## 6 THE IMPORTANCE OF IMPLEMENTING THE PRINCIPLES OF DIVERSITY MANAGEMENT IN CORPORATE CULTURE

The very important question is: what is corporate culture? The term of corporate culture has become embedded in management vocabulary and thought. About the term of corporate culture exist many definitions. The central notion is that culture relates to core organizational values. Near book Flamholtz & Randle (2011) corporate culture can be thought of as a company's "personality". Every organization has a culture that influences how people behave, in a variety of areas, such as treatment of customers, standards of performance, innovation, etc.

Authors Flamholtz & Randle (2011) introducing the concept of "culture typology matrix". Culture typology matrix is creating with two factors – strength and functionality. This tool can be used to identify the type of culture present in a company, with the "best" type of culture being strong and functional. A sample culture typology matrix, with companies of each type, is shown in Tab. 1.

Source: Flamholtz & Randle (2011)

Tab. 1: Culture typology matrix

	Functional	Dysfunctional
Strong	Starbucks GE Southwest Airlines	Ford GM PowerBar
Weak	Amgen Toyota	A19 Kodak

Culture might well be the ultimate strategic asset and competitive weapon for most companies. Corporate culture is very important, that have an impact on organizational performance. By J. Kottler and J. Heskett (2008), strong cultures are often said to help business performance because they create an unusual level of motivation in employees.

There are several specific reasons corporate culture is of vital importance in an organization Flamholtz & Randle (2011):

- Culture does influence organizational success;
- Culture is a strategic asset (a source of competitive advantage), and it can even be the ultimate source of sustainable competitive advantage;
- Culture functions as "organizational glue", especially in siloed organizations;
- Culture affects financial performance;
- Culture is a driver or strategic building block of organizational success;
- Culture influences the success of people in organizations;
- Culture is a more important factor that "strategic fit" in mergers and acquisitions.

The changes of corporate culture are implementing in the context of strategic management rules. Here it is very important to determine the vision, mission and strategy of the organization. Changes in corporate culture may be twofold - it may be a natural change in the context of the development and evolution of the organization and also "artificially" created (for example, by DECISION top management of the company). These changes, there are two directions of view, namely: the macro perspective and micro perspective (Orlikowski, 1996). Nadler et al (1995) describe these on-going adjustments as mere incremental variations on the same theme and lump them together into an epoch of convergence during which interdependencies deepen. These changes can be deployed in an organization such as Lewin's

(1951) model by introducing changes or other methods. Among the newer approaches to the implementation of changes in the organization include access by Van den Ven & Poole (1995). This authors introduced four basic processes theories of change, which are characterized by a different even sequence and generative mechanism:

1. Life cycle theories have an event sequence of start-up, grow, harvest, terminate and start-up. They have a generative mechanism of an imminent program or regulation.
2. Teleological theories have an event sequence of envision/set goals, implement goals, dissatisfaction, search/interact, and envision/set goals. They have a generative mechanism of purposeful enactment and social construction.
3. Dialectical theory has an event sequence of thesis/antithesis, conflict, synthesis, and thesis/antithesis. It has a generative mechanism of pluralism, confrontation, and conflict.
4. Evolutionary theory has an event sequence of variation, selection, retention, and variation. It has a generative mechanism of competitive selection and resource scarcity.

In the last two decades, several authors dealing with the subject introducing changes in the corporate culture. The above mentioned was one of the basic approaches (Lewin's model) and then one of "timely" approaches. It depends on the decision of top management which of the many approaches to the implementation of a change in corporate culture chooses. It is important that a company's management realized that the change in business culture in the future somewhere. It must also take into account the changes are usually slow, but from the viewpoint of permanent. One of the most important influences on changes in corporate culture, and migration and development of the population is published by book of Mužáková et al. (2013).

## CONCLUSION

Diversity management is included age management one of the fastest growing disciplines in management. Its timeliness is also given the demographic changes in all countries of the world, which are given not only the development of world economy in the context of globalization. For these obvious trends are based on the importance and implementation of a change in corporate culture.

## Literature

Association, 1992, 189 p. ISBN 0-8144-7807-7.

DIVERSITYINSTITUTE. The Diversity Institute, 2013 [cit. 2014-01-06]. Available from WWW: <http://www.diversityinstitute.co.za/site/training-courses/managing-diversity-mdca/>.

DUDEK, P. Řízení ve skupině Unipetrol. In *INSOURCE 2008 : konference o profesionálních informačních zdrojích*, Praha 5.-6. února 2008. [online]. Praha : Albertina, 2008 [cit. 2009-12-22]. Dostupný z WWW: <http://www.insource.cz/pdf/2008/dudek-petr2.pdf>.

FLAMHOLTZ, E.; RANDLE, Y. *Corporate Culture: The Ultimate Strategic Asset*. 1<sup>st</sup> ed. Stanford University Press, 2011, 264 p. ISBN 978-08-047-7754-4.

GLADSTONE.UOREGON. [online]. University of Oregon, 1999 [cit. 2013-12-22]. Available from WWW: <http://gladstone.uoregon.edu/~asuomca/diversityinit/definition.html>.

GORDON, J. R. *A diagnostic approach to organizational behaviour*. Boston: Allyn & Bacon. 1993

KOTTER, J. P.; HESKETT, J. *Corporate Culture and Performance*. 1<sup>st</sup> ed. Simon and Schuster, 2008, 224 p. ISBN 978-14-391-0760-7.

LEWIN, K. *Field Theory in Social Science*. New York: Harper & Row. 1951.

LOCKAMY, A. Linking planning practices to supply chain performance. *International Journal of Operations Management*, 2004, vol. 24, no. 12, pp. 192 – 218. ISSN 0144 – 1218

MUŽÁKOVÁ, K. et al. Analýza vývoje počtu obyvatel a vývoje počtu cizinců v ČR v ekonomickém kontextu. 1. vyd. Brno: Vysoká škola Karla Engliš, a.s., 2013, s. 125. ISBN 978-80-86710-74-7.

NESDIS.NOAA. Diversity Management, 2004 [cit. 2010-03-25]. Available from WWW: <[www.nesdis.noaa.gov/About/Diversity/documents/DiversityManagementrevisedsept2004nocasestudy.ppt](http://www.nesdis.noaa.gov/About/Diversity/documents/DiversityManagementrevisedsept2004nocasestudy.ppt)>.

PRASAD, P. *Managing the Organizational Melting Plot: Dilemmas of Workplace Diversity*. 1<sup>st</sup> ed. SAGE, 1997, p. 395. ISBN 978-08-03974-11-1.

THOMAS, R., R. *Beyond Race and Gender. Unleashing the Power of Your Total*

UIOVA. [online]. University of Iowa, 2013 [cit. 2013-12-22]. Available from WWW: <<http://www.uiowa.edu/~eod/searches/manual/glossary/index.htm>>.

VAN den VEN, A. H.; POOLE, M. S. Explaining development and change in organizations. *Academic Management Review*. 20 (3), p. 510–540. 1995.

*Workforce by Managing Diversity*. 1. Edition. New York: American Management

WRENCH, J. *Diversity Management and Discrimination – Immigrants and Ethnic Minorities in the EU*. London, Ashgate Publishing, p. 156, 2007. ISBN: 07-54-64890-7.

**Bc. Ing. Karina Mužáková, Ph.D.**

Vysoká škola Karla Engliš, a.s.

Ústav managementu

Mezírka 775/1, 602 00 Brno

e-mail: karina.muzakova@vske.cz

## **DIVERSITY MANAGEMENT: CHANGES IN CORPORATE CULTURE**

**Bc. Ing. Karina Mužáková, Ph.D.**

Karel Englis College,

Mezírka 775/1, 602 00 Brno

e-mail: karina.muzakova@vske.cz

### **Abstract:**

Diversity management is not yet in the Czech Republic as widespread as in other EU countries and the USA. The slowdown of its development in the last five years also contributed to the effects of the recent financial crisis, which caused the bankruptcies of companies worldwide in the value for 2009 14.5 trillion USD. Basis of diversity management gives companies and institutions a new view of the working group. It is no longer necessary diversification of working groups so popular "young team", the main emphasis is on the diversity of personalities in the group. It is this diversity has a big influence on the change in the corporate culture of the business.

**Key words:** diversity, diversity management, corporate culture

**JEL Classification:** M 14

# ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE IN FRAME OF BUSINESS ETHICS

*Barbora Novotná Brezovska*

## INTRODUCTION

*„Our society is run by a managerial bureaucracy, by professional politicians; people are motivated by mass suggestion, their aim is producing more and consuming more, as purposes in themselves. All activities are subordinated to economic goals, means have become ends; man is an automaton – well fed, well clad, but without any ultimate concern for that which is his peculiarly human quality and function. If man is to be able to love, he must be put in his supreme place. The economic machine must serve him, rather than he serve it. He must be enabled to share experience, to share work, rather than, at best, share in profits. Society must be organized in such a way that man’s social, loving nature is not separated from his social existence, but becomes one with it.“ (FROMM, 1956, p. 132-133)*

This paper has been inspired by Fromm’s idea of paradigm change in thinking of an individual, which will lead to change of the entire society. The human race has behaved in a very authoritative way on the earth, especially in recent centuries. People’s exceptional status as if in connection with their behaviour was predetermined by conviction of their uniqueness. The Old Testament says that God created the earth and told people to conquer it. Most people behave like that even today. Although most of us have left theological reasoning, the egoistic anthropocentrism remains and it is justified by various arguments. However, the primacy of reason, which is one of the most frequent arguments, is dangerous. It has led us to very problematic situation. We are facing a fateful question for the entire human civilization. Fatefulness of this position and question: „What else?“ lies on the bottom of an abyss which deepens extremely quickly between the ecosystem with very limited sources of energy and uncontrollable pace of growth and development of economy (in the sense of demanded welfare).

Hans Jonas summarizes it very aptly: the subject of new responsibility must be the entire humankind, the object – Planet Earth, temporal dimension is the future and the means which will lead the society towards this responsibility will be the FEAR. (JONAS, 1997).

### **1.1 Free human being’s responsibility**

We do not think that it is possible and desirable to regulate successfully business activities and economic sphere in a directive way. However, if people tend to behave selfishly and destructively, there must be a mistake. And to remove such a mistake will not be easy.

Therefore it is necessary to look for mistakes, to correct small mistakes immediately and to prevent mistakes. People should not be confident that they are infallible and they should admit mistakes at the very beginning of this journey.

People are fascinating and complicated creatures whose substantial determination is freedom. If we look at the concept of freedom more closely, we can see common reason of non-ethical or immoral conduct. Some people are convinced they can do anything. That is the freedom for them. We are not saying that this is not one of its manifestations, or impacts as the case may be. We claim there is a logical implication: if there is freedom, then there is responsibility. Freedom without responsibility is a contradiction. He who considers himself to be free without being RESPONSIBLE at the same time, behaves like a child. As development psychology shows the personality of a child is able to perceive in contexts and causality. The approach of „I am free. FULL STOP.“ is not correct when somebody with the identity card (or another document of full age) embarks on business and he will apply this conviction in the field of economy, where his behaviour will touch other people and this conduct will probably damage them.

This is our position, or our starting hypotheses, as the case may be: People are essentially predestined to behave ethically.

It has been demonstrated that in spite of cultural differences, religious belief or temporal or territorial affiliation, general principles are typical of individuals' or even entire societies' morals and they not only make it easier but directly enable human societies to function. (VANĚK, 2010). As we have stated above some people behave like children even when grown-up, and this is, in our opinion, the reason for unethical and immoral conduct in all the spheres of the human society, including the sphere of economy. Ethical conduct, which we are predestined to, is the declaration of inside values which man acquires in the course of socialization process. People acting ethically are grown-up beings. Before we grow up we must get through various phases, and self-awareness is at the very beginning. Psychology and philosophy agree that the state of self-awareness, i.e. to become aware of one's „ego“, is very important and necessary precondition for further development in human life. This kind of egoism can be marked as psychological egoism. From the point of view of the development psychology this occurs between the second and third year of man's life. Child realizes that the original identity with the mother was replaced (to its displeasure) by a new identity – ego-identity. Another challenge in the child's development is to find place for its ego in the world of other „egos“. There are many theories of lifelong development. Development psychologists agree that the development of personality (in the sense of development of abilities and competences) does not finish when reaching adulthood but it continues. Primarily, the ability to think, to think reflexively and to act according to cogitative skills presumes a certain extent of maturity, adulthood. Each of us acts egoistically, after all our ego must be in the first place for us. If I do not accept myself, my personality will hardly develop in substantive and balanced way. If everything worked in an ideal way, everybody should strive for the stability of one's ego and they would have to accept Kant's categorical imperative about maxim's universalization.

Assessment of situations even from the point of view of others is a medicine for moral short-sightedness. The Golden Rule of human conduct already known from the Old Testament, which says: „Do to no one what you would not want done to you.“ In this case psychological egoism converts into ethical non-egoism. Hegel’s accusation of formalism leads us to further elaboration of this reflection. This maxim applies only to „normal“ individuals and standard situations. In this case the norm is determined by the ideal of a mentally healthy individual that went through effective and appropriate social process and common situations. Individuals who are outside the norm and who would deliberately demanded something that is refused by the majority of society, represent deviation and are not decisive.

Reason has one important forerunner – emotions. These have nothing in common with rationality, they are older than reason and massively influence our behaviour and conduct. This plays a key role in connection with ethics. Liking and disliking brought about by a notion of my conduct applied to me, not to others, will probably have an influence on whether I will continue in my conduct or not.

The problem seems to lie in inability of others to imagine they were in such a situation, or admit they could find themselves in such a situation. Man becomes an adult only when he realizes his rights together with his duties. One of these duties of a man integrated in society is to act according to the law. To act according to the law is considered to be our moral duty. Why? Because the reason, which an adult has learnt to use adequately, which he has as a capacity at his disposal, implies thinking and judging. If law represents the norm of conduct which again represents the values of the society, reason must accept them as declared values and adopt them. Despite the fact that violation of law must be disliked by any „normal“ individual (according to the Golden Rule mentioned above) and most of us tend to avoid unpleasant things. However, there are exceptions (as in everything). Laws are created by people and they can be wrong. Therefore the situation might occur when we violate the law but nevertheless we will not act imorally/unethically. Laws should (!) comply with moral standards. But it is not always so and the explanation lies in the consitution of culture which is determining for a particular society.

A hundred-times repeated phrase which says that one must choose either business or ethics and that there is no such thing as ethics in business, is nonsense. There is nothing unethical in making profit, there is nothing unethical in business. However, there are questionable ways in how business is performed, there are even kinds of business that might be problematic. These cases must be treated by the laws and they must be a subject of social consensus. The entrepreneur’s intention to generate profit does not represent any ethical category, it is rational consequence of a previous decision. The subject of enterprise can be ethically modified but not the intention to make profit. The following implementation of this intention, which takes place in particular and real steps, can lead to ethical conflicts. However, we repeat again that the nature of enterprise, i.e. to generate profit, is not unethical. Under one unremovable condition: economy must develop from culture, not vice versa.

## 1.2 Interconnection of culture and economy

What is the culture? As a matter of fact it is a way we move in nature, or in environment as the case may be. And if we connect the content of this wide and live concept with the concept of education, our metaphor will be completed. As a child in its socialization process gets to the phase of enculturation when it adopts products and manifestations of culture, an adult who has decided to do business, follows the products and manifestations of the society's culture, in which he will implement his business activities. If he implements them without respecting the norms and laws, he has not adopted the culture correctly. A mistake has occurred somewhere in the socialization process (the phase of enculturation). Mistakes in upbringing children and bad habits are difficult to remove. It may be easier with children, but adults have low probability of success. Therefore emphasis must be laid on the correct „upbringing“ process.

Don't be mistaken! We are not thinking about the foundation of a specialized school for future entrepreneurs, where their moral sense would be cultivated. We think that standard process of handing over of values and adoption of culture will be enough – family, social institutions such as kindergarten, school etc. However, as a child learns from its parents not by listening to what they say but by watching, imitating and adopting paradigms, also people who do business imitate reality and paradigms of behaviour they see around themselves. That is the moment we should think about. Adult individuals (those who are truly grown-up) will behave and act in the same way no matter if somebody watches them or not. They will eat with cutlery at home, not only in restaurants, they will greet others when walking along the street even if their mother is not there to remind them. And they will throw garbage in the garbage can even if there is nobody around. Who adopts different paradigms (parents may not be the only authority!), they will act differently. Each person (within the norm) has a potential to ethical behaviour. Those who act unethically are defective in a way (it sounds awful, but it often looks awful too).

Culture is closely connected with morals due to existence of values and norms of behaviour. It is possible to track accepted, acceptable and unaccepted and unacceptable values in every culture (regardless of time and space). We can define norms of behaviour which are valid or not. Thanks to the concept of values culture can have a normative function in society (function of creating values) and regulative function (controlling or regulating). If culture is the main and significant determinant of behaviour of individuals and of society, it logically participates in forming morals of an individual (and of society), or in more gentle words in creating a moral framework of an individual (and of society). Morals create a set of moral opinions which are used by an individual or society. People's sensual aspect, their needs, instincts, rationality's older brothers in evolution – emotions cannot be suppressed, they form a natural part of our personality. These parts are the most frequent causes of discrepancies in economy. Emotionality must be cultivated because emotions represent energy without which thinking would be impossible. Emotions also form our conscience, our inner compass. Morality does not fly in the vacuum, it has a subject, object and purpose.

## 2 ETHICS ERGO HOPE

Ethics is an expression of HOPE. Hope that there will be a „tomorrow“, which we will experience according to the rules determined „yesterday“ and lived „today“. However, social and individual reality is not filled with optimism, it is rather sceptical and even cynical. The term of crisis is often used. Not only economic but also the long-term crisis of values.

Economy must primarily follow clearly defined rules so that we are able to build a system which could be discussed (if not anything else). The core of any ethical order is universalization of rules. Universalization is necessary in the ethical order because the ethical order should be absolute, in the sense that it is valid for everybody. If we want to create an order, we must accept that each individual in the society is interchangeable. It does not degrade or annihilate human value. „(...) of ethical nature is a set system only under the circumstances when we are ourselves willing to bear any position in it. However, the loss of a personal dimension occurs; and this personal bond must be regained in another way, that is in personal encounters and in communication with other people proceeding from understanding.“ (PAYNE, J., p. 56). If we follow these requirements in the following process, on the metaphorical way towards business ethics, we may reach the destination. The final status should be a moment when in social interaction we can imagine we are in the place of the other participants of the interaction, when in connection with the organizational culture and the conduct of the organization we can imagine we are at any level of the organization, in the place of the employee, customer or supplier. After all we actually find ourselves at these positions.

### 2.1 Ethical organizational culture

Performance-related society and its requirements – that is the focus of the topic of organizational culture. Although this focus is questionable. The company wants to make profit. It has some tools it uses in one way or the other. One of these tools are its employees. And sooner or later we come across the term of *performance* in any book about personnel management, about management and control of employees, their motivation etc. when we are searching for an answer to the question: What shall we do to make employees work effectively? Work is a purposeful activity which brings a number of benefits to people, if it is implemented. We have to give a performance to gain a benefit (material, creative, socialization etc.). It is crucial for the performance how it is defined and how we reach it. Notice there is a direct connection between previous topics! The question about the essence of performance is not asked only by personnel officers, or managers as the case may be. It is a fundamental question for everybody. In consequence the answer to this question characterizes the society – culture, where people work.

Specific form of culture is the business culture (company culture or organizational culture), which naturally proves that even a company or any other economic organization has its unique, distinctive and unrepeatable culture. The organization is perceived as a whole in the sense of a certain type of cultural system. Every organization develops its own original concepts, values and paradigms of conduct. Business culture is a modern or even postmodern subtopic of this wide manifestation of human society. It affects all the areas, in which culture can be divided, i.e. material culture (means, objects, tools), spiritual culture (arts, philosophy, religion, science, ideas) and normative culture (morals, law, traditions, customs, conduct rules). Business culture is most easily observed, similarly to material and normative culture. Organizational culture is connected with so-called soft factors of the company, because it consists of values and manifestations, which the organization uses to present itself. It expresses the way the activity of the company is implemented, i.e. how it treats others, how it works with them. It shows what is and what isn't important for the organization within its scope of activity. It is a set of rules that work so well they could become written laws („That's how we do it.“). They are the soul and the spirit of the organization's activities, images of values and expectations. To illustrate the meaning of this concept a metaphor of „iceberg“ is often used. Organizational culture consists of clearly identified and visible manifestation of the organization, that is the visible top of the iceberg, and invisible essential conviction, the invisible „body of the iceberg“ under water. The visible factors of the organizational culture are e.g. processes, conduct, strategies and organizational structure. Invisible factors include convictions, e.g. attitudes, taboo, feelings and values. Organizational culture fulfills central functions which are crucial for the operation of the organization. For example, it allows fast and routine dealings in everyday running of the organization, without having to set each single step separately. Employees of the organization with strong company culture have a clear idea what is expected from them. In the process of decision-making company culture provides assurance. Organizational culture is not interchangeable with the goals of the organization, because it does not include only „written“ values. Organizational culture should include values, attitudes, strategies and processes, which are „lived“. Company, firm, organization – these are social groups created with a certain purpose. People who become their parts bring personal values and attitudes to these social groups (to their job) and they make use of their skills in these organizations. If we realize that these variable factors (often unconscious) influence the running of the organization and form organizational culture, we should admit that clarification of the structure of these social groups and efforts for basic understanding how the elements of this structure (i.e. individuals) work are vital information for everybody who wants to understand the organization and processes taking place, but also to influence development of an organization.

Ethics is a significant aspect of successfulness of an organization. Long-term successful organizations – both globally and locally – do not act ethically only when dealing with the outside world but also within its inner environment – with its employees. Ethical conduct is an important added value because it strengthens trust.

## CONCLUSION

We have claimed that people are predestined to behave ethically. This hypotheses can be valid „only“ for those who are aware of themselves, who perceive themselves as people, who are perceived and accepted as people by others. In this case inter-personality is the essence of „being human“. Returning to the economic sphere, the employer should be concerned about the employees being able to fulfill their tasks, develop their qualifications and to continue the re-socialization process in the same way as he is concerned about his organization. It is obvious that in this context he should focus on the goal-directed building of the organizational culture.

Managers are not parents, and state does not assume the function of a tutor. Anyway, if it is possible to strengthen qualifications in any stage of life, it is also possible to form a personality in each stage of its development. However, it is not possible without a priori values (virtues) or sense. The only way out of this value crisis (or possibly of long-long-long toing and froing) is consideration *sub specie aeternitatis* (eternity can be higher power in the form of God, virtues, values, sense or our end with regard to infinity), possibly expressed in the so-called golden moral rule. Let's not do unto others what we don't want others to do to us. Let's try to perceive others as we do ourselves. *„If it is true, as I have tried to show, that love is the only sane and satisfactory answer to the problem of human existence, then any society which excludes, relatively, the development of love, must in the long run perish of its own contradiction with the basic necessities of human nature. Indeed, to speak of love is not „preaching,“ for the simple reason that it means to speak of the ultimate and real need in every human being. That this need has been obscured does not mean that it does not exist. To analyze the nature of love is to discover its general absence today and to criticize the social conditions which are responsible for this absence. To have faith in the possibility of love as a social and not only exceptional-individual phenomenon, is a rational faith based on the insight into the very nature of man.“* (FROMM, 1956, p. 133)

## Literature

FROMM, E. *Umění milovat*. V Českém klubu 6. vyd. Praha: Český klub, 2010, 125 s. ISBN 978-80-86922-32-4.

JONAS, H. *Princip odpovědnosti: pokus o etiku pro technologickou civilizaci*. Vyd. 1. Praha: Oikoymenh, 1997, 318 s. ISBN 80-86005-06-2.

PAYNE, J. *Hermeneutická etika: jeden filosofický pokus o setkání s lidskou bytostí*. Praha: Triton, 1995, 109 s. ISBN 80-85875-07-1.

VANĚK, J. *Obecná, ekonomická a informační etika*. Vyd. 1. Praha: Wolters Kluwer Česká republika, 2010, 252 s. ISBN 978-80-7357-504-5.

**Mgr. Barbora Novotna Brezovska, Ph.D.**

Karel Englis College  
Mezirka 755/1, Brno 602 00  
e-mail: barbora.novotna.brezovska@vske.cz

## **ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE IN FRAME OF BUSINESS ETHICS**

**Barbora Novotna Brezovska**

Karel Englis College, Mezirka 755/1, Brno 602 00, Czech Republic

**Abstract:**

This article is based on the hypothesis that people are basically innately predetermined to behave ethically. This view is not only based on the findings that regardless of cultural differences, religious beliefs, or temporal or territorial affiliation, the morality of individuals and entire communities, is created by their own guidelines, which in turn, not only eases, but directly enables the functioning of society. In addition, the assessments and impressions of philosophers, psychologists and sociologists also assist in the successful socialization process of individuals to enable one to reach the stage where they use reasoning as an appropriate tool of in decision-making, critical evaluation and in their implementation of values in everyday life. Despite any pessimistic and/or ironic tinge to the topic of ethics in business, this article strives to contribute to a positive change in the social paradigm.

**Key words:** business ethics, economics, culture, organizational behavior

**JEL Classification:** Z 13

# PERSONALITY DETERMINANTS IN TAKING ROLES OF THE VICTIM ON AND OR FOR PERPETRATOR

Krystyna Teresa Panas PhD.

Warsaw Management University

## Introduction

Contemporary psychology in the description of the *self* is starting to depart from the description of the *self* as a static or unchanging structure. There appear reports about presenting the *self* from the point of view of phenomenology, that is taking into consideration the perspective of the subject through self-description, their narration in the context of functioning in social relations and inner experience<sup>1</sup>. Revealing of the *self* in self-description is determined to a large extent by the surrounding reality. It can be especially significant in young people in the period of adolescence. Their self-esteem is a personality trait for which social relations are responsible. Adolescents build their self-esteem on the basis of personal experiences and emotional relations with their families or friends (the community surrounding them).

Appropriate functioning of young people can be ensured by high self-esteem formed by satisfying psychological needs such as acceptance, security, autonomy, belonging, as well as the appropriate level of emotional intelligence. Self-esteem formed on negative family and social role models can lead to the formation of negative identity<sup>2</sup>.

---

Dr Krystyna Teresa Panas – Doctor of Psychology at the **Department of Pedagogy at the Faculty of Social Sciences in Warsaw Management Academy in Warsaw**. E-mail address for correspondence: tpanas@poczta.onet.pl

The article is a result of research as part of a scholarship of the President of Warsaw Management Academy in the academic year 2012/2013.

<sup>1</sup> Bąk, W., (2009). Wielość Ja w ujęciu poznawczym i dialogowym. Próba integracji podejść. *Przegląd Psychologiczny*, 52, 53-68.

<sup>2</sup> Ziółkowska, B., (2005). Okres dorastania. Jak rozpoznać ryzyko i jak pomagać. [In:] A. I. Brzezińska (ed. by) *Psychologiczne portrety człowieka. Praktyczna psychologia rozwojowa*. Gdańsk: GWP, 404-407.

The presented research refers to girls who are staying at the Youth Detention Centre and Young Offenders' Institution in Warsaw Falenica according to the ruling of Family Division and Juvenile Court. The area of scientific interest referred to the level of emotional intelligence of girls in the understanding of Salovey and Mayer and susceptibility to emotional blackmail (according to the theory of S. Forward, D. Frazier).

The presented research is a pilot study. It charts a new scope of research. It can also be used in the work of tutors, social therapists and social workers taking care of juveniles both during and after their stay at the Young Offenders' Institution.

## **Emotional Intelligence in the conception of Salovey and Mayer**

The conception of defining the structure of emotional intelligence was put forward by Salovey and Mayer in 1990. They outlined three groups of components. The first one refers to the abilities connected with identification and expression of one's own emotions, verbalised and nonverbalised and those connected with identification of other people's emotions, also interpreted on a verbal and nonverbal level (empathy).

The second group of components is the ability to manage emotions in both ourselves and other people. The third group of components of emotional intelligence includes the abilities to use emotions for our own motivation to act; they are also essential in flexible and creative thinking as well as in thinking skills. In 1997 the authors widened their conception, taking into account its developmental aspect, and therefore proposing degrees of maturity of emotional intelligence<sup>3</sup>.

The new approach includes:

1. the abilities to perceive and express emotions,
2. the abilities to emotionally support thinking in cognitive processes,
3. the abilities to comprehend and analyse emotions as well as using emotion knowledge in everyday life,
4. the abilities to control and regulate one's own emotions as well as other people's.

The notions close in meaning to that of emotional intelligence which exist in the scientific sphere are:

---

<sup>3</sup> Mayer, J.D., Salovey, P. (1999). *Rozwój emocjonalny a inteligencja emocjonalna*. Poznań: Dom Wydawniczy Rebis. 23-69.

1. emotional competencies, that is learned capabilities, which help in various life situations and are of practical nature,
2. emotional knowledge, which is acquired and shaped from the earliest stages of human development,
3. social intelligence
4. personal intelligence<sup>4</sup>

On the basis of the above theory a questionnaire was designed by Schutte and associates, which is known under several different names: *Emotional Intelligence Scale*, *Assessing Emotions Scale*, *Schutte Self-Report Inventory for Emotional Intelligence Scale*<sup>5</sup>. In Poland adaptational work of the above quoted questionnaire was led by Anna Ciechanowicz, Aleksandra Jaworowska and Anna Matczak.

### **Emotional blackmail in the conception of Forward and Frazier**

The authors think that emotional blackmail is a strong form of manipulation, in which “blackmailers who are close to the victim threaten – either directly or indirectly – that they will punish them if they do not do what they want”<sup>6</sup>. Emotional blackmail is a common form of manipulation of another person. Threatening is fundamental in every act of blackmail, it can be expressed in a variety of forms. It is a method which strikes at us personally because the blackmailer knows how valuable this relationship is for us.

The blackmailers may threaten to use information concerning the past of the person being subjected to blackmail and to ruin this person’s reputation. They usually demand money in return for keeping a secret. They know our vulnerabilities and deepest secrets. And even if they really care about us, when they are afraid that they will not get what they want they will use their knowledge about us to formulate threats, which will bring them what they want – our submissiveness.

An important element of emotional blackmail is the very understanding of how our relationship with the blackmailer works. It is a very important step in the process of eliminating blackmail from our relationship. Blackmailers can very skilfully conceal the pressure they are exerting on us and that is why we are so often not sure what we are really experiencing.

The world of emotional blackmail is extremely complex. Some emotional blackmailers openly express their threats while others send ambiguous signals to their victims. It all makes it very difficult

---

<sup>4</sup> Jaworowska, A., Matczak, A. (2008). *Kwestionariusz Inteligencji Emocjonalnej INTE*. Podręcznik. Warszawa: Pracownia Testów Psychologicznych, 13-16

<sup>5</sup> Ibidem ,31-34

<sup>6</sup> Forward, S., Frazier, D.,(2007). *Szantaż emocjonalny...* op.cit, 12

to recognise when in our relationship manipulation patterns start developing. Obviously, there are unequivocally declared blackmailers who always openly say what will happen if we do not submit and they set out consequences of our disobedience in a way that does not leave a shadow of a doubt. However, more often than not emotional blackmail is much more subtle and it happens in a relationship in which a lot of positive features also become apparent. Memories of nice, good events have an influence on it and we are not able to accept our partner as a blackmailer.

Forward and Frazier identify four types of blackmailers. Each of them reflects a different type of blackmail: „punisher”, “self-punisher”, “sufferer” or “tantaliser”. Each of the type makes use of different vocabulary and each imparts a different nature to their demands, threats or negative judgement that they give to other people as an element of blackmail. Those differences often make it difficult to recognise blackmail, though most people think that they can discern it.

„Punishers” are the easiest to recognise. They are people who accurately define what they want and what consequences there will be if people do not give in to them. They may display aggressive behaviour, or the opposite – they may remain stubbornly silent. Regardless of the behaviour they display, their anger, which they feel when they come across opposition, is directly aimed at the other person. The „punishers” do not have to say a lot in order to inform us about their stand. The most terrible threats turn into emotional abuse when they change into intimidation and one person takes total control over the relationship. In the heat of emotional blackmail, blinded by the intensity of their own needs, „punishers” appear to be indifferent to our feelings and not too critical of themselves. They truly believe they are right in what are doing and that they are entitled to fulfil their desires.

The second group of blackmailers are „self-punishers” who emphasise what they are going to do to themselves if they do not get their own way. Dramatic words, hysterics and the atmosphere of crisis surround „self-punishers”, who are people of great needs. They tend to create tangled relationships with people close to them and they often find it very difficult to take responsibility for their own life. If they resort to blackmail, they justify their demands blaming the partner for all the difficulties in their life, either real or imaginary.

„Self-punishers” are talented prosecutors, they like to burden others with a sense of guilt and they often force others to guess what their desires are, claiming that someone else should fulfil them. „Self-punishers” are totally preoccupied by how they feel and they think that other people’s inability to read their mind is evidence that they are not given enough attention. Depressed, silent, often with tears in their eyes, „self-punishers” retreat when their partner does not fulfil their desires.

The last type of blackmailers are the so called "tantalisers". They are the most subtle of the blackmailers. Such people subject others to a series of tests, at the same time promising wonderful rewards, which others will get if only they are compliant with them. Sometimes the rewards offered by "tantalisers" are less measurable than material ones. The desire to receive what was promised can be so strong that those repeatedly blackmailed have to suffer a disappointment before they realise that they are emotionally blackmailed<sup>7</sup>.

### **The psychological situation of an adolescent**

The purpose of emotional blackmail, as the above considerations indicate, is to satisfy the needs of the perpetrator at the victim's expense. Children and adolescents appear to be the least resistant and unprepared for manipulation. They get entangled in many difficult situations, which they are unable to handle. Communication problems in the family, with peers or at school do not make it easier for the youth to adapt and to develop their own personalities, including emotional intelligence.

Crises, in other words specific changes which occur in confrontation with oneself and the world, are typical for adolescence. Adolescents are to perceive themselves as social persons, functioning and cooperating with other people, respecting norms, principles and values. The discrepancy between self-expectations of adolescents and public opinion's expectations and requirements of them can lead to experiencing tension within the somatic, psychological and social spheres. In the search for ways of reducing the tension and of personality reorganisation they expect adults to help them. The result of risk factors at work in the situation of shortage of resources can be a lack of social adaptation, manifesting itself in actions which are a manifestation of opposition to adult authorities; actions reducing the level of anxiety, frustration connected with school failures; actions leading to belonging or identification with peer groups; actions whose aim is to demonstrate the attributes of one's own identity; actions, which seemingly help to achieve a higher level of development.<sup>8</sup> Finding out about young people's resources and shortages is therefore a priority for tutors.

The purpose of the above considerations is to pinpoint the scientific problem which the author of the article engaged in, that is to look for relationships between emotional intelligence and emotional blackmail in adolescent girls staying in a Young Offenders' Institution.

### **The research question and the aim of research**

---

<sup>7</sup> Ibidem, 58-77.

<sup>8</sup> Ziółkowska, B., (2005). Okres dorastania. Jak rozpoznać... op.cit. 388-389.

The aim of the presented research was to look for relationships between the level of neuroticism, emotional intelligence and emotional blackmail in peer relationships. On the basis of the subject literature the research question can be formulated as follows:

Is there a relationship between the level of neuroticism, emotional intelligence and the type of emotional blackmail in adolescent girls staying in the Young Offenders' Institution in Warsaw Falenica?

The hypotheses resulting from the problem formulated thereby:

1. The level of emotional intelligence of the girls who took part in the research is lower.
2. The girls take on the roles of victims and perpetrators in social situations.
3. The level of neuroticism of the underage girls is high.

The research is a pilot study and will be continued.

### **The applied research methods and the research procedure**

In the research there were used the following: Kwestionariusz Inteligencji Emocjonalnej INTE (INTE Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire) adopted by Aleksandra Jaworowska and Anna Matczak<sup>9</sup>, an experimental version of „Moi rówieśnicy i ja” (“My peers and I”) questionnaire designed by Marta Pawelec and Jacek Łukasiewicz<sup>10</sup> and Skala Jawnego Niepokoju Jaki jesteś? (the Scale of Open Anxiety What Are You Like?) designed by Elżbieta Skrzypek and Mieczysław Choynowski.

*Kwestionariusz Inteligencji Emocjonalnej INTE* consists of 33 items, most of which are phrased in the first person. The statements were rated on a scale from 1 to 5 degrees depending on the extent to which the participants agree that particular sentences refer to them (from “I completely disagree” to “I completely agree”). 24 statements refer to abilities or skills – the participant having a given ability or skill – or they are evidence of difficulty in coping in different situations. Other statements reveal possessed skills.

---

<sup>9</sup> Jaworowska, A., Matczak, A. (2008). *Kwestionariusz Inteligencji..* op. cit., 31-34.

<sup>10</sup> Pawelec, M., Łukasiewicz, J., (2012). Szantaż emocjonalny w relacjach rówieśniczych. *Roczniki Nauk o Rodzinie i Pracy Socjalnej*.4(59), 299-312.

„*Moi rówieśnicy i ja*” questionnaire consists of 36 questions (earlier version). The participant underlines one answer on the scale from 0 to 4. The questions were grouped under three categories. Each category constitutes a separate part of the questionnaire. The first one contains questions, which help diagnose whether the participant is a victim of emotional blackmail, or whether the participant is experiencing peer pressure. The second category contains questions which help to determine the type of the participant’s reaction to peer pressure. Whether he or she adopts a compliant attitude towards the person who is exerting pressure. The open questions contained in the third part enable us to diagnose whether the participants are perpetrators of emotional blackmail, whether they themselves are putting pressure on their peers. The diagnostic answers in each of the category are evidence of the participant’s adopting a definite role. The average of the sum total of the answers in each distinct category is the indication.

### „MOI RÓWIEŚNICY I JA” QUESTIONNAIRE

based on the conception of Susan Forward, questionnaire adopted by Marta Pawelec, Jacek Łukasiewicz

The purpose of the questionnaire below is to learn about selected aspects of peer relationships. It is anonymous. It means that nobody will know how you answered individual questions. I believe that therefore your answers will be truthful. Your honesty is really important to me. Read the questions carefully and mark the answers by putting a cross **X** in the appropriate space.

**The numbers mean: 0 - never, 1 - rarely, 2 - it’s hard to say, 3 - often, 4 - always.**

Lp.	A. Does any of your friends:	0	1	2	3	4
1.	Threaten that they will make your life difficult if you don’t do what they want?					
2.	Threaten that they break up with you if you don’t do what they want?					
3.	Say or insinuate that they will hurt themselves or will be overcome with great sadness if you don’t do what they want?					
4.	Want more, no matter how much you give them (e.g. time, things)?					
5.	Feel convinced that you will always give in to them?					

6.	Ignore or hurt your feelings or desires?					
7.	Promise you a lot but on condition that you fulfil their wishes?					
8.	Shower you with words of admiration, friendliness and praise when you give in to them and dislike or anger when you don't want to give in?					
9.	Use bribery in order to get their own way?					
10.	Try to control you e.g. keeps asking you who you spend your time with and feels jealous of the time spent with another person?					
11.	Ignore your protests when you don't want to agree to their suggestions, ideas?					
12.	Say it is entirely your fault in case of misunderstandings?					
Lp.	<b>B. When you come across pressure from your peers do you:</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>
1.	excuse yourself					
2.	argue					
3.	cry in secret					
4.	change or cancel your plans					
5.	give in and hope this is the last time					
6.	get into a fight with them					
<b>0 - never, 1 - rarely, 2 – it's hard to say, 3 - often, 4 - always.</b>		<b>0</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>
7.	say that such behaviour is unacceptable					
8.	call them names and swear					
9.	tell your parents or a teacher about it					
10.	not protest in front of them but you will „take it out” on another friend					
11.	think badly of them but you don't say it aloud					
12.	imagine you “take them apart”					
Lp.	<b>C. Do you happen to behave in the following ways towards any of your friends:</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>

1.	Threaten that you will make their life difficult if they don't do what you want?					
2.	Threaten that you will break up with them if they don't do what you want?					
3.	Say or insinuate that you will hurt yourself or will be overcome with great sadness if they don't do what you want?					
4.	Want more, no matter how much they give you (e.g. time, things)?					
5.	Assume that they will give in?					
6.	Ignore or hurt their feelings or desires?					
7.	Promise them a lot but on condition that they fulfil your wishes?					
8.	Show them with words of admiration, friendliness and praise when they give in to you and dislike or anger when they don't want to give in?					
9.	Use bribery in order to get your own way?					
10.	Try to control them e.g. keep asking them who they spend their time with and feel jealous of the time spent with another person?					
11.	Ignore their protests when they don't want to agree to your suggestions, ideas?					
12.	Say it is entirely their fault in case of misunderstandings?					

The purpose of *Skala Jawnego Niepokoju Jaki jesteś?* is to study the level of anxiety considered equivalent with neuroticism in school age children and young people – 40 questions, it also has a scale of lying interpreted as a susceptibility to social approval – 10 questions. The participant chooses the answer YES or NO in accordance with their self-knowledge. Answering time is unlimited.

The test was of mixed character: group and individual. The girls were informed about the scientific purpose of the test and about the fact that the answers were anonymous. They were asked to carefully read each questionnaire and give answers in accordance with the first idea they had. Additional information or explanation was not needed during the test. The time of test was unlimited.

### Description of the participants

The research was conducted from September to December 2012 at the Youth Detention Centre and Young Offenders' Institution in Warsaw Falenica. 30 girls participated.

Table 1. The age of the participants

Age	N	%
14 years old	3	10
15 years old	7	23,33
16 years old	7	23,33
17 years old	6	20
18 years old	4	13,33
19 years old	2	6,67
20 years old	1	3

Source: based on author's own research

The biggest group of participants was girls at the age of 15-17, that is in the period of escalation of developmental crises (unstable self-esteem, strong need for acceptance, fear of humiliation, searching for a close person, somebody important to them, sexual initiation, change of school).

Table 2. Number of participants with regard to their participation in compulsory education

Type of school	N	%
Primary School	3	10
Gymnasium/ Junior High School	25	83,33
Vocational school	2	6,67

Source: based on author's own research

### Analysis and interpretation of results

Based on the analysis of the research results the following were established: the level of emotional intelligence of the participants, the adopted roles in the victim – perpetrator relationships in emotional blackmail and the level of neuroticism. The act of presenting oneself in a favourable light with the aim of gaining public approval was also verified – a lie.

Table 3. The participants' results in the Kwestionariusz Inteligencji Emocjonalnej INTE

	Average raw scores (M)	Standard error of measurement	Confidence intervals	The limits of raw scores intervals	Sten scores
Factor I	57	+/- 7	95%	50-64	2-6
Factor II	41	+/- 6	95%	35-47	2-7
General factor	115	+/- 10	95%	105-125	2-5

Source: based on author's own research

The analysis of mean scores obtained in the Kwestionariusz Inteligencji Emocjonalnej INTE (95% confidence intervals) indicates a tendency to a low level of social competencies – managing in social life and effective functioning in the society. The described behaviour and competencies are signs of a lower level of empathy of the participants – empathising with other people's experiences (emotional empathy) as well as understanding and accurately predicting their feelings (cognitive empathy). The dispersion of scores in factor I – from low to elevated may suggest a variability of emotional regulation and use of emotions. The scores obtained in factor II are contained in the interval from low to elevated, which may mean that the participants' ability to recognise emotions in themselves and other people is the best developed<sup>11</sup>.

Table 4. Mean scores (M) in the „Moi rówieśnicy i ja” questionnaire

Scales	M	Range of scores

<sup>11</sup> The obtained results – in the author's opinion – may be the result of therapeutic work in the Young Offenders' Institution

Victims	8,1	0 - 23
Perpetrators	5,2	0 - 16
Submissiveness	10,7	0 - 16

Source: based on author's own research

Based on the analysis of the data, the roles most frequently adopted by the girls were established. Mean scores in the scales of victims, perpetrators and submissiveness are an indication of an increase in the studied phenomenon of emotional blackmail. The lowest score was achieved by the participant in the role of the perpetrator (M=5,2), and elevated ones in the role of the victim (M=8,1). The highest one was in submissiveness (M=10,7). It can therefore be concluded that this behaviour is typical of the participant. Nonetheless, during result interpretation the context of the research has to be taken into consideration despite anonymity of the answers.

Table 5. The roles adopted by the participants

Role	N	%	M	
			Perpetrator	Victim
Victim	6	20	0	7,5
Perpetrator	3	10	5	0
Victim and Perpetrator	18	60	8,16	10,8
Neither of the roles	3	10	0	0
Total	30	100		
Submissiveness	21	70		

Source: based on author's own research

The results presented above indicate that 80% of the participants may be described as victims of peer blackmail as compared to 10% that of perpetrators. In the perception of 20% of girls

they are victims of peer blackmail, however they have never experienced a situation in which they would become perpetrators. The participants who declare themselves as perpetrators are a small group – 10%. They make use of blackmail towards peers but they themselves do not experience it. 10% of the participants think that neither of the suggested roles refer to them. Such an answer may suggest a defensive attitude or a poor insight into one’s own behaviour. The combination of the roles of the victim and the perpetrator, however, looks really interesting. As many as 60% of the participants notices such combination in themselves. It might be well to consider in which situations the same person is once the victim and another time the perpetrator. What conditions have to occur, what personal characteristics predispose them to the above relationships in social contacts.

Emotional blackmail may appear within a group or towards one, yet submissive person. In the presented research 21 people (70%) revealed that they are also submissive. They may, therefore, adopt the role of the victim.

Table 7. Mean scores obtained in Skala Jawnego Niepokoju Jaki jesteś?

Scale	Raw score	Confidence interval	SEM	The limits of confidence interval	Sten scores
Neuroticism	22	80%	+/-3	19-25	6-8
Lie	4	x	x	x	6

Source: based on author’s own research

Mean scores on the Neuroticism scale indicate that the participants are characterised by a high level of Neuroticism, and so they can be less motivated to study and are less socialised. The results on the Lie scale let us draw a conclusion with regard to an average tendency to present oneself in a more favourable light. The analysis of the data contained in the Skala Jawnego Niepokoju Jaki jesteś? provides us with a basis to analyse the remaining questionnaires due to the average scores on the Lie scale.

#### **Discussion of results and practical conclusions**

As it was indicated in the introduction the presented research is a pilot study. The proposed thesis was proved.

The participating girls staying in the Youth Detention Centre and Young Offenders' Institution in Warsaw Falenica have a lower level of emotional intelligence, a low level of social competencies. They have difficulty in managing in social life and effective functioning in the society. Their low competencies are a sign of a lower level of emotional and cognitive empathy.

The research results presented in this work indicate that 80% of the participants are both victims and perpetrators of blackmail at the same time. This group of participants shows a necessity for further research into the relationship between emotional blackmail in connection with personality studies, system of norms, principles and values, family relationships, peer relationships. In the perception of 20% of the girls they are victims of peer blackmail, however they have never experienced a situation in which they would become perpetrators. Only 10% of the participants mentioned the role of the perpetrator, never having been the victim. They make use of blackmail towards peers but they themselves do not experience it. 10 % of respondents could not find themselves in either of the roles. Their attitude can be interpreted in terms of psychological resistance and/or low self-awareness or self-esteem.

The whole of the verified hypotheses are completed by the statement about a high level of neuroticism of the participants, which is conducive to lower emotional competencies and entering the role of the perpetrator, victim or both at the same time. The obtained results confirm reports from the research conducted by Pawelec and Łukasiewicz about universality of the phenomenon of emotional blackmail among young people<sup>12</sup>.

Observational data gathered by the author and the Youth Detention Centre and Young Offenders' Institution tutors indicate that the participants use socially disapproved behaviour because they are not familiar with strategies to deal with difficult situations. Negatively valenced solutions are the only means of adaptation, gratification of needs, solving intrapsychic or interpersonal problems that are accessible to them, they also serve to build one's own self-image.

In a further stage of the research it is essential to establish whether the role of the victim-perpetrator in one person depends on the social situation and the peer, or whether the roles are fluid, that is one time victim behaviour predominates, and another perpetrator towards the same person but in different situations. Emotional or social intelligence of the

---

<sup>12</sup> Pawelec, M., Łukasiewicz, J.,(2012). Szantaż emocjonalny...op.cit. ,310.

participants might play an important role in understanding the adoption of the role of the victim or perpetrator and entering into violence relationships. This is also the direction that should be pursued in further research, expanding onto a larger test group.

The development of appropriate self-esteem in adolescent girls, appropriate shaping of personality structure, searching for identity and building one's own self-image is a challenge for tutors, therapists and social workers working with juveniles at the Youth Detention Centre and Young Offenders' Institution. The ongoing psychoprevention and minimising of violence phenomena is very important, in which the above research results can be extremely helpful.

### References

Bąk, W., (2009). *Wielość Ja w ujęciu poznawczym i dialogowym. Próba integracji podejść. Przegląd Psychologiczny*,52,

Forward, S., Frazier, D.,( 2007). *Szantaż emocjonalny*, Gdańsk: GWP.

Dobrowolska M., (2010). *Związek satysfakcji z pracy i kosztów psychologicznych pracowników tymczasowo zatrudnionych*. [In]: Kożusznik B., Chrupała-Pniak M., *Zastosowania psychologii w zarządzaniu*. Prace Naukowe Uniwersytetu Śląskiego Nr 2789. Katowice: Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Śląskiego.

Dobrowolska M., (2013): *Postrzeganie zachowań nieetycznych przez pracowników zatrudnionych w nietradycyjnych formach zatrudnienia*, [In]: Chudzicka-Czupała A., Ed.: *Człowiek wobec wartości etycznych. Badania i praktyka*, Prace Naukowe Uniwersytetu Śląskiego w Katowicach, nr 3013..

Dobrowolska M., (2012): *CSR z doświadczeń lokalnego przedsiębiorcy*, [In]: Adamus – Matuszyńska A., Maćkowska R., Eds.: *Public relations – doskonalenie procesu komunikowania*, Katowice: Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Ekonomicznego w Katowicach.

Dobrowolska M., (2011): *Kariery późnej dorosłości w kontekście psychologicznego funkcjonowania człowieka*. [In]: Dobrowolska M., Ed.: *Metody wsparcia indywidualnego i środowiskowego na rzecz integracji społeczno-zawodowej grup wykluczonych społecznie z powodu izolacji więziennej*. Katowice: Wydawnictwo Naukowe KMB Press.

Dobrowolska M., (2010). *Alternatywne formy zatrudnienia wobec zjawiska wykluczenia społecznego starzejącego się społeczeństwa*. [In]: Dobrowolska M., Ed.: *Integracja elastycznych 50+*. Katowice:Wydawnictwo Naukowe KMB Press.

Dobrowolska M., (2010). *Elastyczne formy zatrudnienia. Zagrożenia i wyzwania dla osób po pięćdziesiątym roku życia.* [In]: Dobrowolska M., Ed.: *ABC elastycznych form zatrudnienia.* Katowice: Wydawnictwo Naukowe KMB Press.

Dobrowolska M., (2010). *Aspekty psychologiczne elastycznych form zatrudnienia,* [In]: Dobrowolska M., Ed.: *Elastyczne formy zatrudnienia szansą na pracę.* Katowice: Wydawnictwo Naukowe KMB Press.

Jaworowska, A., Matczak, A. (2008). *Kwestionariusz Inteligencji Emocjonalnej INTE.* Handbook. Warszawa: Pracownia Testów Psychologicznych.

Mayer, J.D., Salovey, P. (1999). *Rozwój emocjonalny a inteligencja emocjonalna.* Poznań: Dom Wydawniczy Rebis.

Pawelec, M., Łukasiewicz, J., (2012). Szantaż emocjonalny w relacjach rówieśniczych. *Roczniki Nauk o Rodzinie i Pracy Socjalnej.* 4(59).

Salovey, P., Mayer, J.D. (1990). Emotional intelligence. *Imagination, Cognition, and Personality,* 9.

Ziółkowska, B., (2005). Okres dorastania. Jak rozpoznać ryzyko i jak pomagać. [In:] A. I. Brzezińska (ed. by) *Psychologiczne portrety człowieka. Praktyczna psychologia rozwojowa.* Gdańsk: GWP.

#### Key words

Emotional intelligence, emotional blackmail, girls in the Young Offenders' Institution, social work.

#### Abstract

Contemporary psychology in the description of the *self* is beginning to take into consideration – apart from the *self* described as a static, unchanging structure – the point of view of phenomenology, the perspective of the subjects through self-description, their narration in the context of functioning in social relations and inner experience. Revealing of *self* in self-description is determined to a large extent by the surrounding reality. It can be especially significant in young people in the period of adolescence. Their self-esteem is a personality trait for which social relations are responsible to a great extent. Adolescents build their self-esteem on the basis of personal experiences and emotional relationships with their families or friends (the community surrounding them).

The appropriate functioning of young people can be ensured by high self-esteem formed by satisfying psychological needs such as acceptance, security, autonomy, belonging as well as the appropriate level of emotional intelligence. Self-esteem formed on negative family and social role models can, on the other hand, lead to the formation of negative identity, and thereby inappropriate peer relationships.

The presented research refers to girls who are staying at the Youth Detention Centre and Young Offenders' Institution in Warsaw Falenica according to the ruling of Family Division and Juvenile Court.

The presented research is a pilot study. It charts a new scope of research. It can also be used in the work of tutors, social therapists and social workers taking care of juveniles both during and after their stay at the Young Offenders' Institution.

# COMPARISON OF THE TWO SPECIFIC DISTRIBUTION SYSTEMS - FRANCHISING AND MULTILEVEL MARKETING

*Marek Zábaj*

## INTRODUCTION

This paper focuses on franchising and multilevel marketing (MLM). These systems are approached from the viewpoint of entrepreneurship, in which case franchising and MLM are understood as a forms of starting and conducting entrepreneurship and business. The approach utilized in the study is relatively new and little applied. The research tradition of franchising and MLM, like that of entrepreneurship, is fairly short, its foundation is multidisciplinary and its theories are rather undeveloped. In business studies, franchising/MLM has largely been looked at from the point of view of marketing, i.e. as a retail distribution channel solution and a form of international business, as well as from a management point of view, i.e. as a form of organization, strategy and cooperation between enterprises.

The paper deal with possibilities of the specific forms of co-operation in the frame of distribution of consumer goods and services. The first one is more famous franchising which is based on contract providing license for franchisee to use trademark, know-how and other intangible assets and services from franchisor. The second one is multilevel marketing operating on basis of the personal selling and pyramidal hierarchy of the distributors under firm producing the given product or providing the given services. The main goal of the paper is then due to comparison of these two distribution methods to find common and different features and recommend their use.

## 7 CHARACTERISTICS AND MAIN ASPECTS OF FRANCHISING

Franchising dates back to at least the 1850s. One early example resulted in the characteristic look of historic hotels (bars) in New South Wales, with franchising agreements between hotels and breweries. Early American examples include the telegraph system which was operated by various railroad companies but controlled by Western Union, and exclusive agreements between automobile manufacturers and operators of local dealerships. Modern franchising came to prominence with the rise of franchise-based restaurants. This trend started initially in the 1930s with traditional sit-down restaurants like the early Howard Johnson's, and then exploded in 1950s with the development of fast food chains, of which McDonalds has been the most successful worldwide. Many retail sectors, particularly in the United States, are now dominated by franchising to the point where independently-run operations are the exception rather than the rule.

Franchising (from the French for *free*) is a method of doing business wherein a *franchisor* licenses trademarks and methods of doing business to a *franchisee* in exchange for a recurring royalty fee. The term "franchising" is used to describe a wide variety of business relationships which may or may not fall into the legal definition provided above. For example, a vending machine operator may receive a franchise for a particular kind of vending machine, including a trademark and a royalty, but no method of doing business.

The parties involved typically enter a *franchise agreement*, which binds the parties together through contractual provisions. This is an arrangement whereby someone with a good idea for a business (the *franchisor*), sells the rights to use the businesses name and sell a product or service to someone else (the *franchisee*). A franchise agreement will usually specify the given territory the franchisee can use as well as the extent to which the franchisee will be supported by the franchisor (e.g. training and marketing campaigns).

Most franchisee agreements, however, do not provide the franchisee with exclusive control over the given territory. [Cliquet, G. et al, 2007]

### **1.3 Advantages and Disadvantages of Franchising**

As practiced in retailing, franchising offers franchisees the advantage of starting up a new business quickly based on a proven trademark and formula of doing business, as opposed to having to build a new business and brand from scratch (often in the face of aggressive competition from franchise operators). As long as their brand and formula are carefully designed and properly executed, franchisors are able to expand their brand very rapidly across countries and continents, and can reap enormous profits in the process, while the franchisees do all the hard work of dealing with customers face-to-face. Additionally, the franchisor is able to build a captive distribution network, with no or very little financial commitment. For some consumers, having franchises offer a consistent product or service makes life easier. They know what to expect when entering a franchised establishment.

For franchisees, the main disadvantage of franchising is a loss of control. While they gain the use of a system, trademarks, assistance, training, and marketing, the franchisee is required to follow the system and get approval of changes with the franchisor. In response to the soaring popularity of franchising, an increasing number of communities are taking steps to limit these chain businesses and reduce displacement of independent businesses through limits on "formula businesses." Another problem is that the franchisor/franchisee relationship can easily give rise to litigation if either side is incompetent (or just not acting in good faith). For example, an incompetent franchisee can easily damage the public's goodwill towards the franchisor's brand by providing inferior goods and services, and an incompetent franchisor can destroy its franchisees by failing to promote the brand properly or by squeezing them too aggressively for profits. Because litigation is expensive, the majority of franchisors have inserted mandatory arbitration clauses into their agreements with their franchisees. [Sugars, B., 2006]

### **1.4 Legal and Financial Aspects**

In the United States, franchising falls under the jurisdiction of a number of state and federal laws. Contrary to what might be expected, there is no federal registry of franchising or any federal filing requirements for information, but franchisors are required by the Federal Trade Commission to have a Uniform Franchise Offering Circular to disclose potential franchisees about their purchase. Instead, states are the primary collectors of data on franchising companies, and enforce laws and regulations regarding their spread.

In Russia, under Chapter 54 of the Civil Code (passed 1996), franchise agreements are invalid unless written and registered, and franchisors cannot set standards or limits on the prices of the franchisee's goods. Enforcement of laws and resolution of contractual disputes is a problem: Dunkin Donuts chose to terminate its contract with Russian franchisees that were selling vodka and meat patties contrary to their contracts, rather than pursue legal remedies.

*In the Czech Republic* the courts behave and proceeds according to "Act about Legal Competition" č.63/1991 Sb. which was harmonized with EU competition law. What does it mean for us? While in EU is state of courts much more liberal to franchising types of business, in the Czech Republic there are still quite strict precautions against franchising given by uncertain character of franchising which can seem to be very similar to "cartel agreements" or abusing of dominant position on market. The result was that you had to ask for exception on Ministry of Economic Competition. Nevertheless, as mentioned above EU is more liberal and as such uses so-called "block exceptions" for franchisors. This means that if you want to run some franchising oriented business in the Czech Republic, you still have to ask the Ministry for Economic Competition for acceptation (allowing) of franchising

agreement. However, this claim shouldn't be refused given by our tendencies to fit in with EU law.

First of all, franchising is tool of company's strategy. It also has an important financial connections and therefore we can consider it as a tool of financing (like instrument of financial managing of a firm, e.g.).

I.) Financial perspective on the side of franchisor:

- Savings of own financial source in way that franchisee
  - puts certain own capital in business
  - accepts credits on his reliability as such saves credit capacity of a company
- Greater personal activity

It is also important, whether franchisor prefers owning of real estates needed for running a business by franchisee or by itself. There are systems in which is usual selling of estates to franchisee or systems preferring a rent on the other hand. Ownership of franchisee has advantage that real estates can serve as guarantee of financial needs. The need of capital is evolving in harmony with phases of franchising system evolution. That demands investments into:

- Market research
- Generation of suitable type of operating unit
- Selection of suitable location for business
- Advertisement
- Getting and raising of suitable consumers

II.) Financial perspective on the side of franchisee. In the most basic case holds the fact that franchisee pays to franchisor:

- One-time entrance fee
- Common fees for continuing of relationship
- Rewards for concrete outputs (advertisement, license fees)
- Rent, if franchisee uses franchisor's real estates
- Interests from credit

What is important for franchisee at the beginning is certain help of franchisor as:

- Providing franchisee with credits with low interest rates for equipping of place of business
- Free provision of inventory
- Longer periods for payments of goods provided by franchisor

**Common fee** can be defined as percentage ratio from turnover or as an absolute value per unit of rented capacity. Common fees are about 3 – 4 % like portion of turnover.

**Entrance fee** – is defined according to profitability or attractiveness of place of business which can be given by level of population.

**Other common fees** paid by franchisee are defined both for amortization of primary costs of franchisor and also for covering of standard costs connected with franchising itself which franchisor has. The level of these fees can fluctuate from 1.5 % up to 8 %.

**Fees for special services** are concentrated primarily on share of franchisee on advertisement costs. Sometimes they can reach considerable amount (1 – 5 % from turnover), for hotel systems it is usual to pay part of internal costs connected mainly with communication network.

Thus, franchising has following functions (from franchisee's perspective):

- Provides with capital and know-how
- Contributes to assuring of expected profitability of capital due to:
  - Usage of well-known trademark on the market
  - Usage of tested technologies
  - Usage of tested pieces of knowledge
- Reduces the business risks and therefore also investments

## 8 CHARACTERISTICS AND MAIN ASPECTS OF MULTILEVEL MARKETING (MLM)

Multilevel marketing (MLM) is a business model, which utilizes a combination of direct marketing and franchising. Typically, individuals become associated with a parent company in an independent contractor relationship. Sellers are compensated based on their sales of a product or service, as well as the sales of those they bring into the business.

Multi-level marketing has a recognized image problem because of difficulties in making a clear distinction between legitimate network marketing and illegal "**pyramid schemes**" or **Ponzi schemes**. Nonetheless, many MLM businesses operate legitimately in all fifty U.S. states and more than 100 other countries. Because of this image problem many new businesses do not use the words "multilevel marketing" or "network marketing" and instead use terms like "**affiliate marketing**" and "**home-based business franchising**".

In a legitimate MLM company, commissions are only earned on the sale of products or services to the end consumer who, in many cases, is also a distributor. No money may be earned on a "sign-up fee" or for recruiting alone. Critics contend that some companies produce revenue primarily by attracting new participants, as opposed to selling products. Analysis of the compensation plan is often required to determine whether participants are paid based on actual sales of products to customers versus new recruit bonuses and sales of business support materials.

A major shift in MLM occurred during the 1980s when companies began allowing their members to focus solely on marketing rather than handling the tasks of stocking/distributing products as well as taking care of commission payments to their sales organizations. Today, most MLM companies act as fulfillment companies by taking orders, shipping products, calculating and paying commissions, etc. Often, victims of fraudulent or illegal MLM schemes are required to purchase expensive inventories of products. These schemes are often quick to collapse, when the merchandise cannot be resold, leaving all but those at the top of the pyramid with sometimes staggering financial losses. Over the course of decades, companies have devised various MLM compensation plans:

- **Stair Step Breakaway plan** or **Unilevel plan**. The oldest and the most popular plan features two types of distributors: managers and non-managers and three types of pay:
  - **Base shop overrides** are overrides of managers from their subordinate non-managers, collectively called a base shop. This is no different from any sales organization.
  - **Generational overrides** are overrides of managers from the base shop of managers who were previously their subordinate. Most plans compensate at least three generations of such managers.
  - **Executive bonuses**. Additional commission to managers who exceed a sales quota. For example, 2 % of the total company sales revenue goes to a *bonus pool* which is shared monthly pro-rata to managers who exceed 10 000 CZK in that month.
- **Matrix plan**. This plan limits the width of each level in a distributor's group, hereby forcing strong distributors to pile ("spillover") their recruits over people who did not sponsor them.

- **Binary plan.** This plan limits the width of each level to two legs. Commissions are based on "cycles" where a distributor is paid a fixed amount whenever both legs achieve a certain number of sales units each. Commissions are paid incrementally when the sales volume in each leg matches.
- **Matrix scheme or Elevator scheme.** This plan features a game board or a list where each distributor would pay in one or more product units to participate. When a certain number of units have been paid in, the structure splits and the earlier participant receives consideration. See the main article regarding the legality of this plan. The bottom line is you have to do your research as you would anything else.

To help understand what multilevel/network marketing is, it is necessary to explain what it *isn't*. First, network marketing isn't a pyramid scheme. Pyramids are programs similar to chain letters where people just invest money based on the promise that other people will put in money that will filtrate back to them and somehow, they'll get rich. A pyramid is strictly a money game and has no basis in real commerce. Normally, there's no product involved at all, just money changing hands. Modern-day pyramids may have a product, but it's clearly there just to disguise the money game. Network marketing is a legitimate business. First, it's based on providing people with real, legitimate products they need and want at a fair price. While some people do make a lot of money through network marketing, their financial benefit is always the result of their own dedicated efforts in building an organization that sells real products and services. Pyramids are illegal and are based on taking advantage of people. For a person to actually make money in a pyramid scheme, someone else has to lose money. But in network marketing, each person can multiply his or her efforts, skills and talents by helping others be successful. Network marketing has proved itself as part of the new economy and a preferred way to do business here and around the world.

Network marketing isn't about taking advantage of your friends and relatives. Only a few years ago, network marketing meant retailing to, and sponsoring people from, your "warm list" of prospects. Although sharing the products or services and the opportunity with people you know is still the basic foundation of the business, today we see more people using sophisticated marketing techniques such as the internet, conference calling and other long-distance sponsoring techniques to extend their network across the country. Network marketing isn't a get-rich-quick scheme. Of course some people do make large amounts of money very quickly. Many would say those people are lucky. But success in networking isn't based on luck. Success in network marketing is based on following some very basic yet dynamic principles.

Now let's discuss what network marketing is. Network marketing is a serious business for serious people. It's a proven system where the design, creation and expense the corporate team has gone through becomes a road map for your own success. Just follow the simple, proven and duplicable system that the good companies provide. The real key is this: Network marketing is all about leverage. You can leverage your time and increase the number of hours of work effort on which you can be paid by sponsoring other people and earning a small income on their efforts. This very basic concept is the cornerstone of network marketing.

For example, most successful people building a network marketing business do so in an organized method. They work a few dedicated hours each week, with each hour of effort serving as a building block for their long-term business growth. Then they sponsor other people and teach those people how to sell the company product and sponsor others who duplicate the process. By helping the people you personally sponsor to sponsor others, you duplicate yourself. As this process continues, you create compound growth that can lead to hundreds or even thousands of people coming into your business. You leverage your time by helping others be successful and earn an income from all their efforts.

With network marketing, there are no big capital requirements, no geographical limitations, no minimum quotas required and no special education or skills needed. Network marketing is a low-overhead, home-based business that can actually offer many of the tax advantages associated with owning your own business. Network marketing is a people-to-people business that can significantly expand your circle of friends. It's a business that enables you to travel and have fun as well as enjoy the lifestyle that extra income can provide. [Dean & Laura Vandruff's homepage, 2014]

Finally, it is possible to define main aspects of multilevel marketing:

1. MLM is "doomed by design" to recruit too many salespeople, who in turn will then attempt to recruit even more salespeople, ad infinitum.
2. For many, the real attraction of involvement in multi-level marketing is the thinly veiled pyramid con-scheme made quasi-legal by the presence of a product or service.
3. The ethical concessions necessary to be "successful" in many MLM companies are stark and difficult to deal with for most people.
4. Friends and family should be treated as such, and not as "marks" for exploitation.

## CONCLUSION

So, what is better for whom? Will top manager of well-known company sacrifice most of his time to pursuit his opportunities in multi-level marketing? If you want to run some franchising business, you will probably have to have some other business experiences and knowledge before you will be given an agreement. Moreover it won't cost you relatively less money, but you will probably need some serious amount of financial capital. But if you meet all these conditions you are on good way to earn fortune. And MLM? It is not definitely hopeless case. If you think you are communicative extrovert, rather materially oriented, then you can earn some big money, as well. And you will not need hundreds of thousands or millions to buy single license. The prices of MLM licenses fluctuate around several hundreds or thousands of CZK. But on the other side, the disadvantage is that the process of earning money is more than slow for most of individuals and that more people lose over time rather than win in MLM. This means that the great success you will be told about by MLM agents is more than rare in this kind of business. Thus, the main difference between franchising and MLM according to author is that franchising is rather for professionals with capital and MLM is for business beginners without capital. This all is sealed with one of the rules of business. The more you pay at the beginning the higher chance to succeed you got.

## References

CLIQUE, G. ET AL. *Economics and Management of Networks – Franchising, Strategic Alliances, and Cooperatives*. 1<sup>st</sup> ed. New York: Physica Verlag, 2007. 465 p. ISBN 978-3-7908-1757-7

SUGARS, B., J. *Successful Franchising*. 1<sup>st</sup> ed. New York: McGraw-Hill, 2006. 145 p. ISBN 0-07-146671-1

DEAN & LAURA VANDRUFF'S HOMEPAGE. What's Wrong With Multi-Level Marketing [cit. 2014-1-6]. Available from WWW: <<http://www.vandruff.com/mlm.html> >

**Ing. Marek Zábaj, Ph.D.**

Katedra ekonomie a managementu  
Vysoká škola obchodní a hotelová v Brně  
Bosonožská 9, 625 00 Brno  
e-mail: [zaboj@hotskolabrno.cz](mailto:zaboj@hotskolabrno.cz)

# Comparison of the Two Specific Distribution Systems - Franchising and Multilevel Marketing

**Marek Zábaj**

College of Business and Hotel in Brno, Bosonožská 9, 625 00 Brno

e-mail: [zaboj@hotskolabrno.cz](mailto:zaboj@hotskolabrno.cz)

**Abstract:**

The paper deal with possibilities of the specific forms of co-operation in the frame of distribution of consumer goods and services. The first one is more famous franchising which is based on contract providing license for franchisee to use trademark, know-how and other intangible assets and services from franchisor. The second one is multilevel marketing operating on basis of the personal selling and pyramidal hierarchy of the distributors under firm producing the given product or providing the given services. The main goal of the paper is then due to comparison of these two distribution methods to find common and different features and recommend their use.

**Key words:**

distribution, franchising, multilevel marketing, network, comparison

**JEL Classification:** M 31