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BUSINESS PROCESS MANAGEMENT AS AN IMPORTANT FACTOR FOR A SUCCESSFUL ERP SYSTEM IMPLEMENTATION

ABSTRACT

Enterprise resource planning (ERP) systems have become widely applied in all types of organizations today. Unfortunately, the success rate of ERP implementations is very low, which was cited in many researches and the majority of authors have reported up to 90% failure rate. Therefore, new studies are more than necessary to validate companies' contributions to the increase of the success rate of ERP implementation, which was the primary reason for our investigation. The main goal of this paper is to stress the impact of business process management and some other critical success factors on successful ERP implementations. Empirical investigation and a confirmatory approach using structural equation modeling (SEM) has been used. The research hypotheses that top management support, change management and business process management have a positive impact on successful ERP implementation were confirmed. These factors should be treated as very important in ERP systems implementation projects. The results also support the importance of top management perception: if they consider business process management as a basis of business change, this contributes to a strong and positive influence of successful ERP implementation.

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Keywords: *enterprise resource planning, critical success factors, business process management, business process reengineering, structural equation modeling.*

1. Introduction

Globalization and increasing competition on the market endanger the existence of each company, however enterprise resource planning (ERP) implementations represent one of the more popular responses to those threats (Taube and Gargeya, 2005). ERP systems have become imperative for companies in order to gain competitive advantages, such as cost reduction, integration of operations and departments, business processes improvements, increasing their effectiveness and competitiveness (Vlachos, 2006). However, ERP implementations require many financial resources, the projects are complex, lengthy, difficult, and their success rate is very low. Another disadvantage is the threat of losing competitive

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advantage that can lie in flexibly customized business processes that can be better for an organization as the “best practice” (Indihar Štemberger and Kovačič, 2008).

The purpose of this paper is to expose and analyze the influence of business process management (BPM) and some other critical success factors (CSF) on a successful ERP implementation in companies. The paper is structured as follows: the following section reviews the relevant literature on critical success factors of ERP system implementation, organization culture and change management, top management support, business processes, and business process management. In section 3 the research model is conceptualized and research hypotheses are presented. Section 4 provides a research method and the results of data analysis. Section 5 concludes with a summary of the main findings, discusses them from both theoretical and practical standpoints, and outlines directions for future research together with the limitations of the study.

2. Literature review, research hypotheses and model conceptualization

Companies and other organizations use ERP systems more and more extensively. ERP software accounts for more than half of the software licenses and maintenance revenues in Western Europe, growing twice the rate of the overall application software market. Many firms have implemented ERP systems in the past few years and ERP market continues to grow at a compounded annual growth rate of 11% through 2011 (AMR Research, 2007). ERP continues to be one of the largest, fastest-growing, and most influential players in the application software industry in the next decade (Yen et al., 2002).

It is very interesting why companies, especially large ones, invest enormous financial resources in ERP systems. The main reason lies in ERP systems that enable the implementation of best business practices. Potential benefits of implementing ERP systems include drastic declines in inventory, breakthrough reductions in working capital, abundant information about customers' wishes and needs, along with the ability to view and manage the extended enterprise of suppliers, alliances and customers as an integrated whole (Indihar Štemberger and Kovačič, 2008). Among the most important attributes of ERP systems are their abilities to automate and integrate an organization's business processes, share common data and practices across the entire enterprise and produce and access information in real-time environment (Nah et al., 2001). However, ERP solutions can help companies in business process reengineering, and from this point of view enable companies to become more competitive (Yen et al., 2002).

An enterprise resource planning system is a business management system that comprises integrated sets of comprehensive software that can be used, when successfully implemented, to manage and integrate all business processes and functions within an organization. They usually include a set of mature business applications and tools for financial and cost accounting, sales and distribution, management of materials, human resources, production planning and computer integrated manufacturing, supply chain, and customer information (Indihar Štemberger and Kovačič, 2008). Rao (2000) described an ERP system as a software solution to produce the right product on the right place, at the right time, and for the right price, containing the best industrial and management practice captured in those solutions, also agreed with Ekman and Revay (2004) and Kovačič and Bosilj-Vukšić (2005). Companies' existence and efficiency rely upon successful implementation and use of ERP systems (Markus et al., 2000), thus unsuccessful implementation could even lead to bankruptcy (Markus and Tanis, 2000).

Over the last decade, many companies have invested enormous amounts of financial resources in ERP systems, however many of them were unsuccessful (Parr and Shanks, 2000; Magnusson et al., 2004; Mauldin and Richtermeyer, 2004; Ward et al., 2005; Wognum et al., 2004; Umble et al., 2003; Zhang et al., 2003). Unsuccessful implementation could be observed from two aspects, completely or partly. Completely unsuccessful projects are considered to be those, in which companies resigned from realization before taking-up implementation or failed so miserably, that the company suffered significant long-term

financial damage, while partly unsuccessful implementations often result in tenuous adjustment processes (Taube and Gargeya, 2005). Analysts usually consider it a non-success if timelines and implementation costs are overrun a few times (over 200%), if goals remain unaccomplished (less than 50%) or implementation may result in incomplete installations of system modules, and consequently, in lower benefits than hoped for (Al-Mashari, 2003). Even with significant investments in time and resources, there is no guarantee of a successful outcome (Mabert et al., 2003) and underestimating the complexity of such projects is one of the main reasons for unsuccessful projects (Al-Mashari, 2003).

Foreign and domestic literature indicates these projects as highly risky with a relatively low success rate (Kovačič in Bosilj-Vukšić, 2005; Zhang et al., 2005) namely, Magnusson et al. (2004) 90%, Kovačič and Bosilj-Vukšić (2005) 89%-91%, Martin (1998) 90%, Umble&Umble (2002) 50%-75%, Zhang et al. (2003) 67%-90%, Sarkis and Sundarraj (2003) two-third failure rate. At this point it is interesting to overview the critical success factors of ERP implementation, and to consider how to decrease the failure rate. Extensive literature on ERP implementations presents it as very topical, but as information indicated a 90% failure rate, new investigations in this area are more than necessary. There are still plenty of new opportunities for further investigations, which could lead to some new discoveries and hence a possibility to contribute to or indirectly reduce the failure rate. An extensive amount of literature on ERP implementation also lacks unsuccessful projects in practice, which is not surprising at all, since companies are usually reluctant to expose unsuccessful projects in public, which also leads to a need and importance for further investigations of factors, which influences the success and failures in ERP implementations (Zhang et al., 2003). A very important factor when talking about ERP implementation is top management's perception of business process management (BPM), which has shown to be one of the crucial elements in ERP implementation, yet, there is a lack of literature about it.

A special emphasis has to be given on business process modeling, because the key to a successful choice, implementation and usage of an ERP system is fit of planned processes in an organization with processes implemented in the solution. This paper will not discuss this topic, however, we propose further reading (Indihar Štemberger and Kovačič, 2008; Kovačič, 2004).

2.1. Critical Success Factors of ERP system implementation

A first step is to examine critical success factors discussed as a few objects or goals, which have to be successful if we want to assure successful ERP implementation (Kovačič and Bosilj-Vukšić, 2005). Different critical success factors and different classifications by importance are cited in literature. Despite differences, an overview of literature on ERP implementation shows the existence of some ascendant critical success factors, which are cited by authors most frequently. Table I indicates the following critical success factors shown by their impact or importance from the most to the least important, however other authors cited in the table do not necessarily classify them by the same scale of importance. This is only one of many classifications, nevertheless, many other authors cited the same or similar critical success factors, which results in a similar situation shown in Table I, only the factor change management is often cited on the top of importance. Hence, on the basis of literature overview (Gargeya and Brady, 2005; Molla and Loukis, 2005; Skok and Legge, 2002; Jarrar et al., 2000; Zhang et al., 2003 and others) we classify top management support and change management as the most important critical success factors in ERP implementation. From this point of view, this paper will be limited only to these two critical success factors. Although these factors are quite often presented in literature, new empirical studies are more than welcome and necessary to validate companies' contributions to increase the success rate of ERP implementation. Furthermore, extensive literature presents business process reengineering (BPR) as one of the most important factors (Table 1). Jarrar et al. (2000) stressed out that BPR presents a critical factor in ERP implementation, however there

is still room for a detailed empirical analysis and therefore we also include it in our study, in a wider and newest notion, as business process management (BPM).

Table 1

Critical success factors in ERP implementation. Source: Adjusted and updated upon Sternad et al., 2007.

Top management support.	Al-Mashari et al., 2003; Al-Sehali, 2000; Akkermans and Van Helden, 2002; Esteves-Souza and Pastor-Collado, 2000; Gargeya and Brady, 2005; Gattiker, 2002; Gupta, 2000; Harrison, 2004; Holland and Light, 1999; Jarrar et al., 2000; Mabert et al., 2003; Magnusson et al., 2004; Parr and Shanks, 2000; Skok and Legge, 2002; Somers and Nelson, 2004; Somers and Nelson, 2001; Sternad et al., 2007; Umble et al., 2003; Yen et al., 2002; Zhang et al., 2003.
Clear goals and objectives.	Al-Mashari et al., 2003; Al-Sehali, 2000; Akkermans and Van Helden, 2002; Gargeya and Brady, 2005; Holland and Light, 1999; Mabert et al., 2003; Magnusson et al., 2004; Parr and Shanks, 2000; Reif, 2001; Somers and Nelson, 2004; Somers and Nelson, 2001; Sternad et al., 2007; Umble et al., 2003.
Project team organization and competence.	Akkermans and Van Helden, 2002; Esteves-Souza and Pastor-Collado, 2000; Gargeya and Brady, 2005; Jarrar et al., 2000; Mabert et al., 2003; Magnusson et al., 2004; Parr and Shanks, 2000; Reif, 2001; Skok and Legge, 2002; Somers and Nelson, 2004; Somers and Nelson, 2001; Sternad et al., 2007; Umble et al., 2003.
User training and education.	Al-Mashari et al., 2003; Al-Sehali, 2000; Akkermans and Van Helden, 2002; Gupta, 2000; Jarrar et al., 2000; Mabert et al., 2003; Magnusson et al., 2004; Skok and Legge, 2002; Somers and Nelson, 2004; Somers and Nelson, 2001; Sternad et al., 2007; Umble et al., 2003; Zhang et al., 2003.
Business Process Reengineering.	Al-Mashari et al., 2003; Akkermans and Van Helden, 2002; Esteves-Souza and Pastor-Collado, 2000; Gargeya and Brady, 2005; Gattiker, 2002; Harrison, 2004; Jarrar et al., 2000; Magnusson et al., 2004; Skok and Legge, 2002; Somers and Nelson, 2004; Somers and Nelson, 2001; Sternad et al., 2007; Zhang et al., 2003.
Change Management.	Aladwani, 2001; Al-Mashari et al., 2003; Al-Sehali, 2000; Akkermans and Van Helden, 2002; Esteves-Souza and Pastor-Collado, 2000; Gargeya and Brady, 2005; Holland and Light, 1999; Jarrar et al., 2000; Magnusson et al., 2004; Parr and Shanks, 2000; Skok and Legge, 2002; Somers and Nelson, 2004; Somers and Nelson, 2001; Sternad et al., 2007; Umble et al., 2003; Yen et al., 2002.
Communication.	Aladwani, 2001; Al-Mashari et al., 2003; Al-Sehali, 2000; Akkermans and Van Helden, 2002; Esteves-Souza and Pastor-Collado, 2000; Gargeya and Brady, 2005; Holland and Light, 1999; Mabert et al., 2003; Magnusson et al., 2004; Somers and Nelson, 2004; Somers and Nelson, 2001; Sternad et al., 2007; Yen et al., 2002.
User involvement and participation.	Aladwani, 2001; Al-Sehali, 2000; Esteves-Souza and Pastor-Collado, 2000; Gattiker, 2002; Magnusson et al., 2004; Skok and Legge, 2002; Somers and Nelson, 2004; Sternad et al., 2007; Yen et al., 2002; Zhang et al., 2003.
Legacy system management.	Al-Sehali, 2000; Akkermans and Van Helden, 2002; Gattiker, 2002; Reif, 2001; Somers and Nelson, 2004; Somers and Nelson, 2001; Sternad et al., 2007; Umble et al., 2003; Zhang et al., 2003.
Consulting services.	Al-Mashari et al., 2003; Al-Sehali, 2000; Akkermans and Van Helden, 2002; Harrison, 2004; Magnusson et al., 2004; Skok and Legge, 2002; Somers and Nelson, 2004; Somers and Nelson, 2001; Sternad et al., 2007.
Project Management.	Al-Mashari et al., 2003; Al-Sehali, 2000; Akkermans and Van Helden, 2002; Esteves-Souza and Pastor-Collado, 2000; Magnusson et al., 2004; Reif, 2001; Somers and Nelson, 2004; Somers and Nelson, 2001; Sternad et al., 2007; Umble et al., 2003; Yen et al., 2002; Zhang et al., 2003.
Sponsorship.	Akkermans and Van Helden, 2002; Esteves-Souza and Pastor-Collado, 2000; Parr and Shanks, 2000; Skok and Legge, 2002; Somers and Nelson, 2004; Somers and Nelson, 2001; Sternad et al., 2007.
System, technological.	Al-Sehali, 2000; Akkermans and Van Helden, 2002; Gargeya and Brady, 2005; Gattiker, 2002; Jarrar et al., 2000; Parr and Shanks, 2000; Somers and Nelson, 2004; Somers and Nelson, 2001; Sternad et al., 2007; Zhang et al., 2003.
Minimal customization	Esteves-Souza and Pastor-Collado, 2000; Gargeya and Brady, 2005; Mabert et al., 2003; Somers and Nelson, 2004; Somers and Nelson, 2001; Sternad et al., 2007.

2.2. Organization culture and change management

ERP implementation has a significant impact on company's culture and its organizational structure (Bosilj-Vukšić and Spremić, 2004). Successful implementation requires that people, processes, departments, and organizations change (Umble & Umble, 2002). We have already mentioned change management as one of the most important factors having influence on a successful ERP implementation as stressed out by many authors (Table I). Change management comprises human resource management as well as social changes, needed by top management when introducing new processes and structures in order to prepare people to accept changes and decrease their reluctance to change. Effective communication is an important factor when talking about changes and it is required through the whole business process and on all levels, although employees are not directly connected with business process management (Harmon, 2007). Business process reengineering also means power transmission to lower company levels resulting in adequate organizational culture and climate, where employees will feel more responsible and important. BPR also results in structure changes which reflect in new tasks and responsibilities; therefore it is vital to have a formal and clear description of all tasks and responsibilities driven by a new process (La Rock, 2003). From this standpoint, it is obvious that employees have an ability to complete all new tasks and hence to be flexible in order to have an ability to adapt to new changes in companies, and be prepared to learn, nevertheless teaching employees in companies is often underestimated, which is also agreed by Hammer and Champy (2003).

Change management in human resources includes activities such as training of employees affected by the business process change, developing new skills needed by the new processes, and establishing management systems to cultivate the required values. If these critical factors are not established within the project itself, its success could be jeopardized (Grover et al., 1995). Consequently, employees are less sensitive to possible destructive impacts from the environment, they develop a culture to become more resistant in a highly competitive business environment, however everybody on all levels needs to be educated (Bashein and Markus, 1994; Umble & Umble, 2002). Even if companies manage to form a favorable environment, including top management support, readiness to change and required technological competence, the project would certainly lead to a failure if the vital employees lack eligible skills and knowledge about the new process, or if they are not educated properly and on time (Grover et al., 1995). However, this is still not a guarantee for success, because employees also have to be motivated, cooperative, prepared to educate, be aware of the roles and responsibilities within a BPR project, as well as be flexible and capable of performing different tasks. Similar conclusions were presented by Harmon (2007); are the performers physically, mentally and emotionally able to perform tasks, because in some cases an employee is not able to perform a specific task and therefore another employee who is capable needs to do it. Searching for the right employees with required skills and knowledge needed for business process reengineering is one of the main problems (Grover et al., 1995), which is also stated by Kovačić and Bosilj-Vukšić (2005), La Rock (2003).

Intellectual capital represents the most important factor of a business process (Milost, 2004). In the period of intellectual capital, the vital role of knowledge and the ability of employees will be a key to success, and the essential competitive advantage will be an organization's ability to learn more quickly than their competitors, as only an organization oriented towards learning can sustain more and more pressure as a consequence of rapid and unpredictable environmental changes. The features of human capital that are so crucial to an organization's performance are flexibility and creativity of individuals, their ability to develop skills over time and to respond to different contexts in a motivated way (Armstrong, 2006). However, abundant literature defines human capital as part of intellectual capital, indicates ability and flexibility as important excellence in a competitive environment, contemplates flexibility from different aspects, also as organization's abilities to respond to various demands from dynamic competitive environments (Schuler and Jackson, 1999).

On these bases and on the bases of examined literature we propose the first hypothesis (h1):

h1: If change management in a company comprises employees' learning ability and employees' flexibility, this makes a positive impact on successful enterprise resource planning.

2.3. Top management support

Top management support presents the crucial critical success factor in ERP implementation cited by many authors (see Table I). Successful ERP implementation completely depends upon strong and persistent top management involvement, because top management support has to be included in each step and in all company levels. Some companies hand over its ERP implementation responsibility to technical departments and therefore make a vital mistake resulting in an unsuccessful project (Harrison, 2004). It is therefore wrong and inadequate to think that the whole ERP implementation project should be driven by the IT department or its management, which was also stated by Guha et al. (1997).

Essentially, all IT literature stressed the importance of top management executives in the implementation, use, and success of IT in organizations and it should include both, involvement and participation (Byrd and Davidson, 2003). Lok et al. (2005) also emphasized top management incentives as an essential ingredient for a successful process change. Umble&Umble (2002) have come to the same conclusion, because IT department managers identified three main critical success factors causing a failure of all IT projects in companies, and one of them is the lack of top management support. From this standpoint we can conclude that only the involvement of an IT department in ERP implementation is not enough, yet the main initiative has to be taken from top management, because insufficient top management support leads to a failure of all IT projects and hence also to ERP implementation failure. In other words, information specialists and top management need to cooperate and establish a partnership, which is also agreed by Indihar-Štemberger and Kovačič (2006). A gap between information specialists and top management is still present in many companies. Nevertheless, the perception of the top management is imperative for a successful IS implementation and position of IT professionals. In the research presented by Weill and Ross (2005) only one third of all top managers are well acquainted with the activities of the IS department, while this percent reaches 60%-80% in successful companies.

Information projects are successful when the planned content, time, and cost parameters increase business performance. However, this is not achieved only by IS implementation but by radically rethinking the strategic orientation and organization's moves concerning management, human resources, knowledge, structure, and business processes. Unfortunately, the existing - in many cases uncontrolled and inadequate business processes - are implemented in practice. Instead, an opportunity for radical business renovation in terms of increasing effectiveness should be taken into consideration, which causes top management to neglect the business value of IT and therefore consider it as an expense. Managers, as the only proper contracting authority are usually not familiar with the impact of information technology on business performance, and they realize neither the possibilities nor opportunities driven by modern information technology (Indihar Štemberger and Kovačič, 2006). Managers' perception and activities within the information management area are mainly cost oriented, as they expect moves mostly in the way to gain efficiency and transparency in business process implementation. However, top management's course of thinking about the moves toward increasing business effectiveness is difficult or even unattainable. To assure business effectiveness it is necessary to shift management's perception of information management from information support in the business department or function to a strategic impact on business performance (Kovačič in Bosilj-Vukšić, 2005).

On these bases and on the bases of the examined literature we propose the second hypothesis (h2):

h2: If top management has sufficient knowledge of information management, and if it supports initiatives of information specialists, this is a clear indicator that the top management perceives business process management in a company, which yields a positive impact on successful implementation of enterprise resource planning.

2.4. Business processes

In order to survive in a highly competitive business environment companies are subject to continuous change of their business processes (Bosilj-Vukšić and Spremić, 2004). This section is divided in two parts, the first describing process owners, and the second one dealing with process identification and documentation.

2.4.1. Process owners

Companies do not reengineer processes - people do. An initiative to change a business process should come from the top, i.e. from the top management, so the transition of process ownership is very important and necessary. The employees, who work with new processes have to own them otherwise the project will tend to fail (Caron et al., 1994). Most companies lack process owners or they are defined to a minor extent, which is a consequence of a traditional organization of people and their thinking, which is not process oriented (Hammer and Champy, 2003).

Process owners have to be defined; organizations need to give them adequate power and include them in the project from the very beginning. A process owner is an individual with ultimate authority and responsibility over process operations, however, this person needs to be well acquainted with the process and occupy a relatively high position in the company, because this person presents the process throughout the company (Boyle, 1995). The task of a process owner is not to do business reengineering but to make it happen (Hammer in Champy, 2003). It is therefore not surprising that process owners should be the persons of trust and confidence with quite high reputation, respect, toleration and readiness to change. Al-Mashari and Zairi (1999) cited undetermined process owners as one of the factors leading to a failure of business process reengineering, while Grover et al. (1995) and Jackson (1997) emphasized the lack of process owners as a barrier in business process reengineering. Overcoming employee's resistance can be a critical factor for a successful ERP project, and top management has to provide leadership for all changes (Bosilj-Vukšić and Spremić, 2004). Furey (1993) exposes the involvement of process owners and their remuneration among other suggestions that managers should consider in BPR. Process owners are the ones who are the most threatened by a change, however, their input is invaluable and their incorporation in the company helps them contemplate the change from a positive point of view instead of thinking about their job positions being endangered. However, managers have to motivate them by rewards thus influencing their success.

Every employee can do his part of the job with excellence. If there is no person to supervise and manage the integrity of all activities, the excellence of this individual could quickly turn into a failure. A critical part of business process reengineering is to assign someone to own each critical business process (Harrington, 1991). Quite a few researches show that companies are aware of the importance to define process owners, because the companies, in which process owners have not been defined yet, intend to do it in the future (e.g. Zairi in Sinclair, 1995).

2.4.2. *Process identification and documentation*

Responsibilities of individual business processes are spread among the boundaries in the organization, therefore identification of the core business processes is a necessary step before reengineering. Just as companies have organization charts, they can have a process map with defined business processes to facilitate the understanding and sharing of the workflow in companies (Hammer and Champy, 2003). Efficient and effective process performance is primarily subject to understanding its structure and the process flow as a whole. However it is reasonable to identify only those activities as processes, which directly or indirectly contribute to end products as added value (Kovačić in Bosilj-Vukšić, 2005).

Processes have to be defined and understood. Each employee in the company, regardless of whether he is involved in production or provides a particular service uses a particular process that transforms a set of inputs into a specified set of outputs. Nevertheless, these processes are quite often invisible, because they have never been documented. Sometimes these processes are formally and completely documented, yet the processes are constantly refined and amended, hence the changes have to be documented as well. Some organizations have documented the procedures and processes in, while some of them mainly rely on employees' experience. Although this was sufficient in the past, it is not sufficient today as the understanding of the processes of today mostly requires a graphic presentation - a flowchart (Tenner in DeToro, 1997). Process maps graphically represent process activities, discipline our thinking, and they are a key element in business process improvement (Harmon, 2007).

Non-existent or inadequate documentation can be a reason for problems during business process reengineering, so one of the first tasks is to identify the existing business processes and see to it they are documented (Harrison, 2004). Guha and Kettinger (1993) paid attention to the importance to clearly understand the existing business processes before business process reengineering; therefore processes need to be documented first, which is also agreed by Donovan (2002) and Tenner, DeToro (1997). Likewise, it has been shown in practice that companies define their core and sub-processes before business process reengineering (e.g. Zairi in Sinclair, 1995). Inappropriately defined business processes can also be a reason for a failure of business process reengineering (Grover et al., 1995). Even too broad or too narrowly defined processes can lead to a failure of a business process reengineering project (Hall et al., 1993). Lok et al. 2005 stressed that reengineering causes legacy information system to be overhauled. Quite often business process reengineering incorporates legacy systems, however, due to continuous evolution companies are forced to migrate the existing legacy systems to a new environment in order to ensure new hardware and software, thus reducing the costs of software maintenance, enabling new features etc. From this standpoint, missing or incomplete documentation can jeopardize business process reengineering (Tilley, 1995). Since the goal is not to improve the existing business processes, but to redefine the processes anew, there is no need to analyze and document the existing processes in details. However, they should be defined to the extent that the processes are well understood, which represents a basis for a definition of completely new processes (Hammer in Champy, 2003).

On these bases and on the bases of the examined literature we propose the third hypothesis (h3):

h3: If business process management incorporates defined business processes, business process documentation, and defined business process owners, this is an indicator of the existence of management's perception of business process management in a company, which yields a positive impact on successful implementation of enterprise resource planning.

2.5. Business process management

The role and impact of business process management on successful ERP implementation has a crucial role. Jarrar et al. (2000) present a link between ERP and BPM based on a research in six companies. All six companies have agreed that business process reengineering presents a critical factor in ERP implementation. An ERP implementation project is not only an information technology project and is more than just a change in the way companies work. For a successful implementation of ERP, organizations must treat it like a change management project and focus on an integrated approach to business process management (BPM). On these bases and on the bases of the examined literature we propose the fourth hypothesis (h4):

h4: If top management treats business process management as a basis of a business change, this indicates the existence of management's perception of business process management in a company, which yields a strong and positive influence on successful implementation of an enterprise resource planning system.

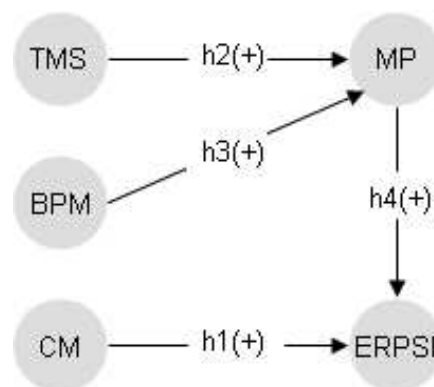
Considering top management support, change management and business process management as exceedingly wide topics, this paper will cover only a part of realization, captured in our conceptual model (Figure 2).

2.6. Model conceptualization

The main purpose of this paper is to test the four hypotheses based on literature overview presented in the previous subsections. In Figure 1 the conceptualized model along with the hypothesized relationships is shown. Construct notations are described in Table II.

Figure 1

Conceptual model and direction of impact between constructs



3. Research methods and data analysis

3.1. Research instrument

To test the hypothesized relationships, we employed the approach proposed by Diamantopoulos and Siguaw (2000) and tested the relationships between constructs by using structural equation modeling. We used LISREL 8.72 software.

3.1.1. Data collection and sample characteristics

Data were collected during December 2005 and February 2006. We invited a representative sample of 600 randomly selected Slovenian companies from different industries with more than 50 employees to take part in the research. In the case of a positive response a CIO answered a questionnaire that consisted of several areas in an interview. All companies that took part in the research could compare their state with an average state of all participants and an average state in their industry. In this way, 152 completed questionnaires were gathered, which represents a 25.3% response rate. The sample is an adequate representation of the population of Slovenian companies with more than 50 employees.

3.1.2. Operationalization of constructs

None of the constructs is easily observed since all of them are latent variables, so measuring is accomplished by measurable indicators known as manifest variables shown in Table 2.

Table 2**Item measures for constructs (five-point scale anchored by »strongly agree« and »strongly disagree«)**

Item measures for change management (CM)				
ELA	Employees	learning		ability
EADT	Employees adaptability on different task			
Item measures for top management support (TMS)				
MSITI	Management support	information	technology	initiatives
MITK	Management information technology knowledge			
Item measures for business process management (BPM)				
DeBPO	Defined	business	process	owners
DeBP	Defined	business		processes
DoBP	Documented business processes			
Item measure for management perception (MP)				
BPMBBC	Business process management as a basis of business change			
Item measures for enterprise resources planning successful implementation (ERPSI)				
ERPPBP	ERP implementation has a positive influence on business performance			
ERPER	ERP implementation	in line	with	expected results

3.1.3. Confirmatory analysis using structural equation modeling

The first step is identification of the model, which means the information provided by the empirical data is sufficient to allow for a unique solution to be derived for model parameters. The following formula determines if the model meets the minimum requirement for identification:

$t \leq s/2$, where t is the number of parameters to be estimated and s is the number of variances and covariances amongst the manifested (observed) variables, calculated as: $(p^1+q^2)*(p+q+1)$. For our model we have $t=24$, $p=7$ and $q=3$. Thus $s/2 = [(7+3) \cdot (7+3+1)]/2=55$.

Because the number of variances and covariances available exceeds the number of parameters to be estimated ($t=24$), this model is over identified, which we aim to.

The next step was the assessment of the model fit. This refers to the extent to which a hypothesized model is consistent with the data and involves three stages: the assessment of the model's 'global' (overall fit), the assessment of the measurement part of the model, and the assessment of the structural part of the model.

3.1.4. Overall fit assessment

The purpose of assessing a model's overall fit is to determine the degree, to which the model as a whole is consistent with the available empirical data. A wide range of goodness-of-fit indices have been developed that can be used as summary measures of a model's overall fit. Different authors tend to favor different indices, often leading to direct conflicts when recommending which indices should (or should not) be relied upon. Research evidence supports the need to use more than one index (Škrinjar et. al., 2008). Table 3 shows Diamantopoulos and Siguaw (2000) goodness-of-fit measures, their reference values, the values derived from our model and the overall fit of the model.

¹ p = the number of y-variables

² q = the number of x-variables

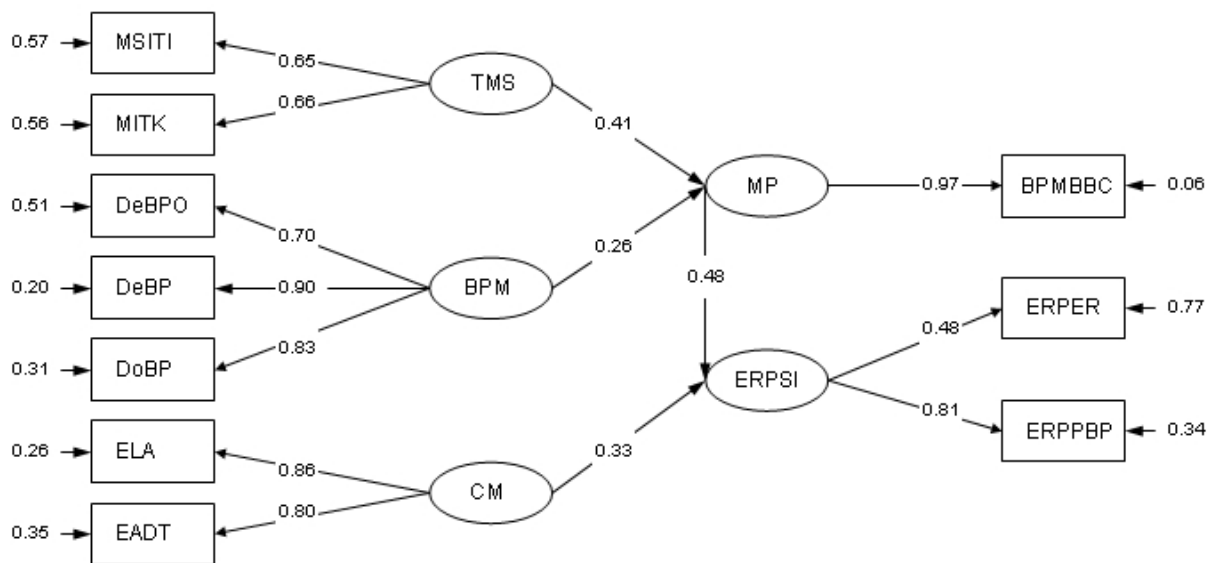
Table 3**Fit indices**

Fit indices	Model value	Reference value	Global model fit?
χ^2 (p value)	41,77 (0,046)	$p \geq 0,05$	Yes (Acceptable)
RMSEA	0,054	$< 0,100$	Yes
ECVI	0,65	$< \text{ECVI saturated model}$ $< \text{ECVI independence model}$	Yes Yes
AIC	93,91	$< \text{AIC saturated model}$ $< \text{AIC independence model}$	Yes Yes
CAIC	201,28	$< \text{CAIC saturated model}$ $< \text{CAIC independence model}$	Yes Yes
Standardized RMR	0,039	$< 0,05$	Yes
GFI	0,95	$\geq 0,90$	Yes
AGFI	0,90	$\geq 0,90$	Yes
PGFI	0,48	$\geq 0,50$	Yes (Acceptable)
NFI	0,95	$\geq 0,90$	Yes
NNFI	0,97	$\geq 0,90$	Yes
CFI	0,98	$\geq 0,90$	Yes

Comparative fit index (CFI – should exceed value of 0.90) and non-normed fit index (NNFI – should exceed value of 0.90) are used most often to assess model fit (Koufteros, 1999). Incremental fit indices (normed fit index – NFI, non-normed fit index – NNFI and comparative fit index – CFI) compare the χ^2 statistics of the researcher's model and a base model that assumes that all variables are uncorrelated (Škerlavaj et. al., 2007). NFI, NNFI are also called The Tucker and Lewis' index – TLI. In addition, we also used the following indices. The chi-square (χ^2) statistics is the traditional measure for the evaluation of the overall model fit and small χ^2 -values indicate a good fit. Root means square error of approximation (RMSEA) is the most wide spread measure of global fit and in our case represents a good model-fit. The expected cross-validation index (ECVI) focuses on overall error, discrepancy between population covariance matrix and the model fitted to the sample. Akaike's information criterion (AIC) and consistent version of AIC (CAIC) are known as information criteria used for a comparison of models. Smaller values represent a better fit of the hypothesized model. Standardized root mean square residual (Standardized RMR) is fit index calculated from standardized residuals (differences between elements of sample and implied covariance matrix). Goodness-of-fit index (GFI), adjusted goodness-of-fit (AGFI) and parsimony goodness-of-fit index (PGFI) are absolute fit indices. The first two directly assess, how well covariances based on parameter estimates reproduce sample covariances, while the latter take model complexity into account.

Figure 2

Path diagram of conceptualized model



An overall fit index does simply not exist. More than sufficient tests to reach an informed decision concerning the model's overall fit Diamantopoulos and Siguaw (2000) suggest the results of the chi-square test used in conjunction with the RMSEA, ECVI, standardized RMR, GFI and CFI indices. All indices described above lead to a conclusion of model's overall fit. In Figure 2 the path diagram of our model is presented.

3.1.5. Assessment of the measurement model

In this step we focus on the relationships between the latent variables and their indicators (observed variables). The aim is to determine the validity and reliability of the measure used to represent the construct of interest. Validity reflects the extent to which an indicator actually measures what it is supposed to measure. All indicator loadings should be significant (t-values should exceed 1.96 in absolute terms), which provides that construct validity is achieved. All t-values from Table 4 are larger than 1.96, meaning that the construct validity is achieved.

Table 4**Completely standardized loading estimates and t-values**

LAMBDA-X			
Latent variable	Observed variable	Completely standardized factor loading	t-value
ERPSI MP	BPMBBC	0.969	- ^a
	ERPER	0,479	- ^a
	ERPPBP	0,812	3.880
LAMBDA-Y			
TMS	MSITI	0.654	7,505
	MITK	0.661	7,590
	DeBPO	0.698	9,122
BPM	DeBP	0.896	12,780
	DoBP	0.832	11,509
CM	ELA	0.858	10,172
	EADT	0.803	9,535

^a Indicates a fixed parameter in the original solution

When reliability is an issue, we need to address it in two steps: reliability of individual indicators and construct (composite) reliability. The former is measured by using R^2 for every single individual indicator and presents a part of variance in an indicator explained by its latent variable (Dimovski et. al., 2006). In our case the least reliable is ERPER with the value 0.229, all other indicators are very reliable ranging from 0.428 to 0.940 shown in Table 5.

Table 5**Indicators with R^2 values**

Indicator	BPMBBC	ERPER	ERPPBP	MSITI	MITK	DeBPO	DeBP	DoBP	ELA	EADT
R^2	0.940	0.229	0.659	0.428	0.437	0.488	0.803	0.692	0.736	0.646

In addition to assessing the reliability for every single construct composite reliability can be calculated by using the following formula:

$$\rho_c = \frac{(\sum \lambda_i)^2}{(\sum \lambda_i)^2 + \sum \theta_i}$$

where λ is indicator loadings and θ variances of indicator errors (whether δ or ε) obtained from the completely standardized solution. The values greater than 0.6 are desirable by Diamantopoulos and Siguaw (2000). We can conclude that composite reliabilities shown in table 6 are adequate.

Table 6

Composite reliability

Latent variable	TMS	BPM	CM	MP	ERPSI
ρ_c	0.604	0.853	0.817	0.940	0.600

3.4.3. Assessments of the structural model

Evaluating the structural part of the model consists of three steps. First, we test the signs of the parameters representing the paths between the latent variables indicating whether the direction of the hypothesized relationships is as hypothesized. In our case, all four relationships are positive, which confirms that latent variables TMS and BPM have a positive influence on the latent variable MP, as the latent variable CM has a positive influence on the latent variable ERPSI, and as the latent variable MP has a positive influence on the latent variable ERPSI, as we hypothesized. In the second step we are interested in the magnitudes of the estimated parameters, which provide important information on the strength of the hypothesized relationships. At the very least, these parameters should be significant (as indicated by t-values in excess of $|1.96|$), (Diamantopoulos and Siguaw, 2000). In our case all four parameters are statistically significant. Third, we examine the squared multiple correlations (R^2) for the structural equations, which indicate the amount of variance in each endogenous latent variable that we manage to explain by the independent latent variables. For the hypotheses h2 and h3, R^2 is high (0.371) and for the hypotheses h1 and h4, R^2 is even higher (0.439) indicating a strong relationship.

Considering all these aspects, a confirmatory analysis has supported all four hypotheses.

4. Discussion and implications

The research has confirmed the impact of all three critical success factors included, the impact of top management support, change management and business process management on a successful ERP implementation. These factors that have been found as some of the most important CSFs in the previous research have a positive impact on a successful ERP implementation and should be treated as very important in ERP systems implementation projects. The results also support the importance of top management's perception, namely if they consider business process management as a basis of business change, this yields a strong and positive influence on a successful ERP implementation.

The results of our study also have practical implications. Companies should treat BPM as a basis for a business change and therefore increase its usage, which yields a strong and positive influence on a successful ERP implementation. They need to take all of success factors examined in this study into consideration, they should be aware of them instead of omitting them, which also yields a positive influence on a successful ERP implementation. Organizations should not resign from an ERP implementation project too soon, because the results are usually shown after some time. If ERP projects do not meet the predefined time,

budget, and specification, they can still be successful, thus defining the project success, yet only time, budget, and specification are not appropriate (Zhang et al., 2005). Once again, even if ERP implementation per se is not the most efficient, its effectiveness on business performance can be greater. Companies usually start to believe that projects are good when a project shows results, therefore they increase activity and investment in this kind of projects (Lok et al., 2005).

However, this study also has some limitations. The research was based on the sample of 152 completed questionnaires, which represents a 25.3% response rate. Better validity and reliability could be obtained by a larger sample, which is the next step in this research. Although validity and reliability checks were performed on the measures, there is still room for improvement. Though, we have measured the management perception (MP) construct with one manifest variable (BPMBBC), and although this indicator was well defined, we suggest including more indicators, which represents the next challenge in this research. The next limitation is the sample taken only from one country, which is a common question in most studies, namely what results might be obtained from a “global sample”. Likewise, the CIO's' aspect is worth paying attention to, because other managers could answer the same questionnaire differently. To assure stronger evidence a longitudinal analysis should be performed.

Successful ERP implementation, represented with the ERPSI construct in SEM model, is measured by two measurable indicators. If we analyze them in more detail, we can conclude that the manifest variable (ERPER) measures ERP implementation efficiency, because we measured conformity results with the expected results, costs, and time schedule. The significance of this factor is nearly 0.5, which is not so high; however, from our standpoint, it is relatively high, because we have to consider that some of the companies quite often overvalue their results. The second manifest variable (ERPPBP) measures how successful the ERP implementation impact on effective business performance is, and the significance of this factor is high (0.8). From this point of view we can conclude that even the ERP implementation per se is not the most efficient (factor 0.5), its effectiveness on business performance can be greater (factor 0.8). However, positive results of ERP implementations are usually not seen immediately, but only after some time, of which the companies should have been aware before the ERP implementation was started.

Furthermore, this study is limited to a few critical success factors covered by the conceptual SEM model. Successful ERP implementations should include a number of other critical success factors, which are not included in this study and should not be omitted.

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MENADŽMENT POSLOVNIH PROCESA KAO VAŽAN FAKTOR USPJEŠNE PRIMJENE ERP SUSTAVA

SAŽETAK

ERP sustavi koriste se danas u svim vrstama organizacija. Na žalost, uspješnost provedbe ERP projekata vrlo je niska. Prema rezultatima nekih istraživanja čak 90% projekata završava neuspjehom. Zbog toga je potrebno provesti dodatna istraživanja kako bi se utvrdilo na koji način organizacija može utjecati na uspjeh implementacije ERP sustava, a to je i glavni razlog ovog istraživanja. Cilj članka je proučiti utjecaj menadžmenta poslovnih procesa i drugih kritičnih čimbenika uspjeha na uspješnost implementacije ERP sustava. Za dokazivanje utjecaja korišteno je empirijsko istraživanje i metoda modeliranja strukturnim linearnim jednadžbama (SEM). Rezultatima istraživanja potvrđene su hipoteze da potpora top-menadžmenta, menadžment promjena i menadžment poslovnih procesa imaju pozitivan utjecaj na uspješnu implementaciju ERP sustava.. Ovime je potvrđena važnost tih čimbenika u provedbi ERP projekata. Rezultati potvrđuju i važnost percepcije top-menadžmenta: spoznaja o važnosti menadžmenta poslovnih procesa za provedbu promjena snažno i pozitivno utječe na uspješnost implementacije ERP sustava.

JEL: M15

Ključne riječi: ERP sustav, ključni faktori uspjeha, menadžment poslovnih procesa, potpora vrhovnog menadžmenta, metoda modeliranja strukturnim linearnim jednadžbama (SEM).

CREDIT RISK, CREDIT AND ECONOMIC CYCLES IN CROATIAN BANKING

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this paper is to investigate the relationship between credit risk and credit cycle on the one hand and economic cycle on the other hand in Croatian banking and economy. Potential threats to correct credit risk management in banks and to stability of the financial system, which result from the influence of different factors, will be identified as well. At the theoretical level there is no agreement on these questions. However, the dependence of the economic cycle towards the credit cycle and risk has been clearly proved in numerous empirical studies. Such researches have not been done in Croatia. The results of our regression analysis have shown, among other things, that credits to enterprises have a greater influence on GDP than credits to households. Statistically, we have identified two credit booms and between them one credit bust. During the first credit bust, which was a result of a bank crisis, the rates of economic growth decreased drastically. Bank crisis was the consequence of poor credit risk management and supervisor's neglect. Everything shows that a new credit bust and a financial crisis could follow. Existing GDP growth rates, mostly based on the growth of consumption stimulated by credits, cannot be sustained. The limitation of deficit and the slowing down of economic activity might make the banks even more vulnerable to credit risk.

JEL: G21

Key words: credit, risk, cycle, banking, Croatia

1. Introduction

At the level of theoretical approach there is no agreement in regard to a possible connection between credit risk and credit cycle on the one hand and economic cycle on the other hand. According to the traditional theory of perfect market and rational selection, which is enriched with new findings of the rational anticipation school, money as well as various financing forms is neutral. Crises are explained as a consequence of accidental external shocks such as wars, natural disasters etc. Another approach has also been present for a longer period of time. That approach emphasizes greater or lesser financial instability which is considered inseparable from real economy. Recent numerous theoretical and especially empiric researches have brought to light certain situations in which credit agitates real economy. The credit influence on real economy is explained by different reasons including difficulties in credit and other risks management. To what extent those reasons are relevant in explaining the credit influence on the real flows in Croatian economy - is the question

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that will be answered in this paper. Before that, it is important to note some basic notions on these different approaches.

2. Theoretical Controversies and Experience

The traditional thesis on the neutrality of financial structure is best presented in the Modigliani - Miller theory (1958, p.261-297). According to these authors' propositions, enterprises are indifferent to financing from their own sources, financing through borrowing from banks or through issue of securities. They support their point of view by several assumptions. In the first place, neither research costs nor transaction costs that result from making contracts are generated by access to external financing. Secondly, there is no problem in enterprise control. Thirdly, there is no discriminative tax that would prefer one particular source of financing enterprises to others. Finally, economic entities share identical and perfect situation. Consequently, the way conditions that prevail in financial markets are seen leads to the conclusion that the selection of financing forms should not have any influence on real economy.

However, most assumptions of perfect market as well as the assumption of perfect substitutability of internal and external financing sources have become questionable. Thus, one peculiar theoretical analysis gives a very convincing proof that there is no agreement between desires for debt and desires for borrowing and lending (Gurley and Shaw, 1960). These authors have also subtly explained the connections existing between financial and real flows. Among other things their "Primary Issues - Income Ratio" (p. 97) represents the reciprocal value of Keynesian investment multiplier. They emphasize an essential role of financial intermediaries in the transformation of characteristics of financial assets towards maturity, risk and profitability. In their earlier papers there is the assumption of financial instability in which the behaviour of banks plays an essential role (Minsky, 1964, p.173-380). According to this interpretation there is an interdependence of financial (financing through market and bank credits) and economic fluctuations. Accordingly, these connections are components of endogenous cycle of boom and bust. The renewed theory of financial intermediation, which has given various evidences for banks' advantages in relation to other financing sources of enterprises, includes a study of relation between credit and economic cycle. The essential condition for credit channel functioning is found in the fact that there always are enterprises dependent on banks. This condition is fulfilled in countries where the financing of enterprises through financial markets is the biggest. In the USA for example, between 1970 and 1996, external financing sources of the non-financial corporations were realized through bank credit with about 40%, through credits from other financial institutions with about 15%, through bonds with about 36% and through issues of shares with only 9% (Smidt, 2001; According to Mishkin and Eakins, 2005, p.372). Among various new interpretations of the relation between credit and economic cycle, which emphasize the credit risk management, two of them are often quoted. The first one refers to credit rationing (Stiglitz and Weiss, 1981, p.393-410) and the second one to disaster myopia (Guttentag and Herring, 1986; Herring, 1999, p.63-79). The credit rationing is explained as a consequence of asymmetric information ex ante in the imperfect market. Banks do not have at their disposal any instruments to find out in advance which borrower will not perform its credit obligations. In this way banks are confronted with adverse selection. If they increased interest rate on credit, the best borrowers would refrain from borrowing. Banks could compensate a falling demand by extending credit supply to risky

companies. By changing the structure of credit portfolio in favour of claims towards riskier borrowers, together with higher moral hazard threat, the probability of borrower's non-payment would increase. The increased probability of non-payment would diminish the expected profitability of bank portfolio. Therefore banks should not increase their interest rates despite the fact that credit demand surpasses credit supply at the higher interest rate. In this case, it is said that there is credit rationing. If banks satisfied the credit demand (balance), the cost of capital would turn out to be higher than one noticed in the perfect credit market. So, the credit rationing as well as the increased cost of capital in balance must have an influence on global demand and consequently on consumption, investments and stocks.

In the disaster myopia approach bank managers know that there is a probability of loss realization. Nevertheless, they do not have at their disposal enough information in order to extrapolate that probability. In addition, they systematically tend to judge available information as something that supports superior thinking. During the growing phase of the cycle these subjective probabilities of loss can decrease. That dominant view stimulates banks to loosen the brakes seen in the activities of credit granting to a wider number of borrowers, estimated as very risky in the previous cycle, that is, they can more easily get a credit in the phase of expansion. Accordingly, the quality of credit portfolio can deteriorate and become riskier in the phase of cycle maturity. In the context of disaster myopia, the quality of banks assets deteriorates whether banks have consciously decided to accept a higher level of risk or not. The process continues until it comes to distrust regarding the solvency of a borrower. Then a credit crisis follows, which could be quite fierce. Banks start to behave in a different way and consequently support the formation of systematic risk. In fact, they reduce the credit supply drastically. They do that in an insufficiently selective way and consequently contribute to the growth of debtors difficulties. After dynamics of over-borrowing, the contraction of credits follows. Thus, the credit crisis threatens the real activity and intensifies the economic cycle.

There are some other explanations of bank credit channel functioning, including shocks resulted from monetary policy changes. According to certain interpretations the influences of monetary policy do not only end on liability side (deposits), but adjust bank credit supply as well. These modifications of pro-cyclical nature often have qualification of Credit crunch (Bernanke and Lown, 1992, p.205-239). Numerous empiric researches, also based on asymmetric information between a borrower and a lender, apart from bank market include other credit markets as well (Fazzari et.al., 1988, p.141-195; Gertler and Gilchrist, 1994, p.309-340; Bernanke et al., 1996, p. 1-15). They try to prove that external financing is more expensive than self-financing due to costs of agency, especially in the case of credit without collateral. That difference decreases with the growth of net wealth and increases proportionally with the growth of borrowing. Ill-fated shock which threatens the net wealth of borrowers increases the cost of external financing and restricts their access to external financing. That could inspire them to diminish the costs of equipment, personnel and production.

Finally, the facts from developed and emergent countries have clearly confirmed that markets of credits and assets functioned pro-cyclically and that they contributed to the frequency of bank crises (BIS, 1998, p.117-141; BIS, 2001, p.123-141). Credit cycles and assets prices are often simultaneous and they intensify each other. Rises in prices

of assets stimulate economic activity, and by inflating the value of guarantees they enable easier and cheaper access to financing for the private sector. The accelerated economic growth as well as the growth of credits incite a more intensive rise in price of assets. The interaction between credits and assets can be even stronger when the assets prices decrease and economic conditions become worse. The falling of guarantee value can cause losses to banks and can make them reduce credit supply substantially. The movement of real estate prices, especially real estate of enterprises, has played an important role in the most striking financial cycles. The rise in prices of shares principally goes with the increase of credits, although it is noticed that this connection is weaker in relation to one with real estate prices.

3. Credit and economic cycle: empirical testing

Since the dependence of economic cycle towards credit cycle and risk is theoretically well established and clearly proved in numerous market economies (Bernanke, B.S., 1983, p. 257-276; Bernanke, B.S. and Lown, C.S., 1992, p.205-239; Mishkin, F.S., 1999, p.3-20; Avouyi-Dovi, S. et al., 2006, p.1-9; Cottarelli at all, 2005, p.83-104) , it is logical to presume that it is possible in Croatian economy as well. There are several reasons for this assumption. First, due to a lack of developed self-financing and financing through the issuing of securities, enterprises turn to credit sources. Secondly, the economy is liberalized to a great extent in the country and toward abroad as well. Thirdly, structural reforms of the legal system and privatization have not been completed yet. Furthermore, there are some problems in economic policy managing. Finally, there is a lot of space for development of risk management skills in banks and other business companies. In such circumstances even the changes in the structure of bank credits could function in a pro-cyclic way. We presume that the credits to enterprises (generally bearing a greater risk) should have had more influence on economic activity and results than credits to households (generally bearing a smaller risk). This presumption will be examined statistically further in our work.

3.1. Credits to Enterprises and Industrial Production

In the observed period between January 1995 and July 2005 (monthly observations) we were analysing if there was any dependence of industrial production on credits given to enterprises and how strong it was. We took one-year-shift supposing that at least medium-term credits could not directly have an influence on production. The series of statistical data regarding industrial production are given in basis Indexes (January 2000 = 100). By means of software package SPSS we got the results of a single regression assessed by Least Squares method. The model as a whole and individual parameters turned out to be statistically significant. However, Durbin-Watson (DW) statistics shows that residuals are not mutually interdependent, in other words, DW statistics close to zero (0,059) shows that there is a problem of positive autocorrelation of residuals. In order to check which degree of correlation (first or other levels) of residuals it is, we tested the significance of autocorrelation (ACF) and partial autocorrelation coefficients (PACF) by means of Box-Ljung statistics. Since the ACF decreases and PACF disappears after the first time shift, we have concluded that residuals follow the AR(1) process, so we can describe them by model ARIMA (1,0,0). Therefore, the best thing is to include residuals into the initial model, so that two equations could be assessed simultaneously. In econometric analysis, the most

used method for assessing the parameters of equation systems is Two Stage Least Squares, because the use of Least Squares method would result in inconsistent assessment of parameters. After application of Two Stage Least Squares we have obtained the following system of equations¹:

$$y_t = 60.5447 + 0.0013 \cdot X_{t-12} + e_t$$

$$e_t = 0.9662 \cdot e_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t$$

The parameter next to the variable X_{t-12} shows that with the growth of credits given to enterprises (with one-year-shift) of 1 million HRK, we can expect the monthly growth of industrial production by about 0.13% in relation to January 2000 (base), supposing that other variables do not change. The model has been essentially improved after application of the Two Stage Least Squares method, not only because of the measures of representative quality but because of DW statistics which shows that there is no problem of autocorrelation.

3.2. Credits to Enterprises and GDP

We have been studying what kind of influence the credits given to enterprises have on GDP (quarterly observations). As in the period between the first quarter of 1997 and the first quarter of 2005 GDP has explicit seasonal character, we have calculated quarterly seasonal indexes, i.e. factors, seasonal adjusted values of GDP by means of multiplicative model of decomposition (non-parametric method). When the seasonal influence is removed, the increasing trend of seasonal adjusted GDP values can easily be noticed. It can be explained by the fact that due to seasonal influence GDP was 7.3% higher in the third quarter (July - September), while in the first quarter (January - March) it was 6.4% lower. Regardless of seasonal character of GDP, we have not formed it by means of ARIMA model, because it turned out that in this case there is no problem of autocorrelation since DW statistics is 2.18. Therefore we used the classic regression model to establish the dependence of seasonal adjusted GDP values. The following results were obtained:

Model Summary^b

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	,942 ^a	,887	,884	2438,06745	2,180

a. Predictors: (Constant), Loans to enterprises

b. Dependent Variable: Seas adj ser for GROS DOMESTIC PRODUCT market prices from SEASON, MOD_2 MUL EQU 4

¹ Since we could not use the Two Stage Least Squares method in the ARIMA model with SPSS, we used EViews. "You can adjust your TSLS estimates to account for serial correlation by adding AR terms to your equation specification. EViews will automatically transform the model to a nonlinear least squares problem, and estimate the model using instrumental variables" (Fair, 1984, p 210-214).

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	9798,903	2043,090		4,796	,000
	Loans to enterprises	,807	,052	,942	15,627	,000

a. Dependent Variable: Seas adj ser for GROSDOMESTICPRODUCTmarketprices from SEASON, MOD_2 MUL EQU 4

The model runs like this: $\hat{Y}_t = 9,798.903 + 0.807 \cdot X_t$. The parameter next to the independent variable shows that we can expect the growth of GDP for 0.807 units if there is no seasonal influence and if the credits to enterprises increase by 1 million HRK quarterly, supposing that other variables do not change.

3.3. Credits to Households and GDP

As in the previous case, we used the classic² regression model in order to establish the dependence of seasonal adjusted GDP towards total credits to households (in millions of HRK) since DW statistics (1.623) enters into the area where it is not possible to make a decision. The observed period runs from the first quarter of 1997 to the first quarter of 2005. The following results have been obtained:

Model Summary^b

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	,981 ^a	,962	,961	1408,48057	1,623

a. Predictors: (Constant), Loans to households

b. Dependent Variable: Seas adj ser for GROSDOMESTICPRODUCTmarketprices from SEASON, MOD_2 MUL EQU 4

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	28747,240	500,204		57,471	,000
	Loans to households	,392	,014	,981	28,171	,000

a. Dependent Variable: Seas adj ser for GROSDOMESTICPRODUCTmarketprices from SEASON, MOD_2 MUL EQU 4

The model runs like this: $\hat{Y}_t = 28,747.24 + 0.392 \cdot X_t$. The parameter next to the independent variable shows that we can expect the growth of GDP by 0.392 units if there is no seasonal influence and if total credits to households quarterly increase by 1 million HRK, with other variables unchanged.

² Linear univariate regression model.

3.4. Credits to Households and Trade Turnover

Since the resources for the purchase of flats (and houses) can be considered a long-term investment and not a consumption, we have left it out of the analysis. Therefore, our intention was to establish the existence of a relation between trade turnover and credits given to households (without housing credits). As the trade turnover showed a distinctive seasonal character in the period between July 1999 and July 2005, we calculated monthly seasonal Indexes, in other words seasonal adjusted values of time series as well as trend-cycle values. After ACF and PACF testing it turned out that the most adequate model would be the ARIMA model $(1,0,0) \times (1,0,0)_{12}$, together with fulfilled conditions of stationarity and invertibility. In fact, it is a question of a non-seasonal part of auto-regression process of the first rank AR(1) and a seasonal part of auto-regression process of the first rank AR(1)₁₂ with the period of 12 months. After the application of Two Stage Least Squares we obtained the following system of equations:

$$y_t = 3,733.639 + 0.0832 \cdot X_{t-12} + e_t$$
$$e_t = 0.7596 \cdot e_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t$$

The parameter by the variable X_{t-12} shows that on an average we can expect the increase of trade turnover of 83 million HRK if credits to households (without housing credits) increase by 1 billion HRK supposing that other variables do not change. All the parameters by given variables are statistically important as the empiric level of significance amounts to approximately 0.00%. DW statistics amounts to 2.44.

3.5. Credits to Enterprises and Trade Turnover

We used the same procedure as in the previous example to establish if there is any dependence of seasonal adjusted trade and credits given to enterprises (with one-year-shift) in the period between January 1998 and July 2005 (monthly observations). We have found that the relation between the mentioned variables exists, but only at the significance of 14.7%. Thus, by the application of Two Stage Least Squares we have obtained the following system of equations:

$$y_t = 1.923,088 + 0,1109 \cdot X_{t-12} + e_t$$
$$e_t = 0,947 \cdot e_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t$$

With the increase of credits given to enterprises (with one-year-shift) of one billion HRK we can expect the increase in the trade turnover on an average of 110 million HRK, supposing that other variables do not change. Regardless of this explanation, the credits given to households have a bigger influence on the realized trade turnover than credits given to enterprises since the relation between the trade turnover and credits to enterprises is significant at only 14.7%.

3.6. Key message

If we compare the results of regression analysis we can conclude that there is greater influence on GDP by credits to enterprises than by credits to households although the coefficient of determination is lower by 7.5% (0.887 in comparison to 0.962).

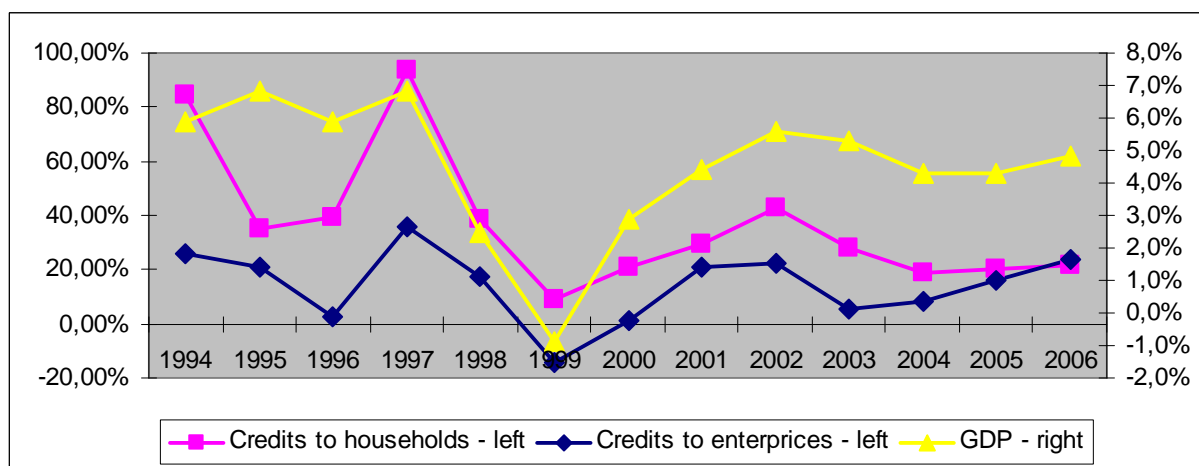
Namely, the parameters themselves show that the increase in units of credits to enterprises will increase the GDP (on an average by 0.807 units for each quarter) more than the same increase in units of credits to households (on an average by 0.392 units for each quarter). Nevertheless, we have not been able to assess the parameters of multiple regression in which we observe the dependence of GDP simultaneously on both - credits to households and credits to enterprises because the problem of multicollinearity would appear. In other words, both independent variables would be in strong (according to intensity) and positive (according to direction) correlation (+0.969). Therefore, we will trust the parameters of partial regressions which are statistically very important, because the empiric level of significance almost amounts to 0.00%. It is logical that the influence on the trade turnover is bigger by credit to households than by credits to enterprises. This means that the quality of GDP growth is not encouraging since it is based on faster increase in consumption.

4. Credit Risk, Boom and Bust

Despite the fact that the previous econometric analysis confirmed the existence of positive relation between the dynamics of bank credits and economic growth, it has not shown anything about the possible influence of credit risk factors on that growth and vice versa. However, different facts suggest that the presence of this factor should not be disputable. It is the question of intensity of influence it has on financial and economic stability and growth.

Figure 1.

Growth rates of credits and GDP



Source: CNB, Web page. Author's calculation.
 CNB, Bulletin no. 132, 2007. Author's calculation.

Figure 1. clearly discloses the existence of two characteristic periods in which a credit boom and more or less important positive rates of economic growth are recorded. The first period lasts till 1998 and the second one begins in the year 2000. Between the two there is a period of credit bust with simultaneous and drastic decrease of economic growth rate. As there were credit restrictions and economic recession at the time of bank crisis, one could get an impression that there was a strong connection

between neglects in the credit risk management and the fall of economic activity. However, the poor credit risk management could be only one of the factors of the bank crisis. In addition, it is understood that economic activity is not determined only by changes in the credit policy of banks. Generally speaking, influences of different financial and real factors of static and dynamic nature interwove here. Of course, it can also be applied to the period since 2000. At first sight the present condition of the banking system appears to be stable. It is partly the result of improved skills in the credit risk management. A credit expansion together with acceptable rates of economic growth can be seen as well. However, the situation in Croatian banking system is not so idyllic. There are some traces of its vulnerability. Some of them are permanently present, while some others have appeared recently. Therefore, it is necessary to remind of the circumstances when the first credit boom and bust happened.

4.1. Credit Risk, Bank Crisis and Recession

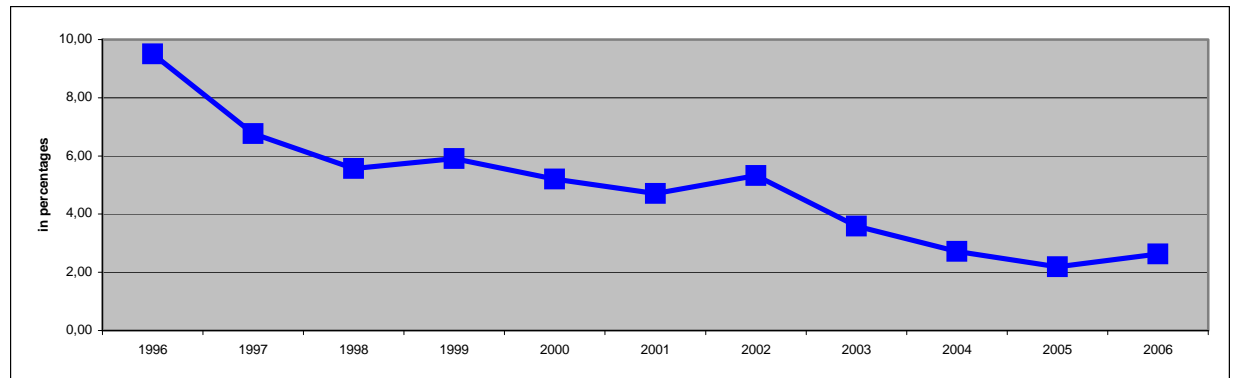
The manifestation of bank crisis in the market economies is always and basically the same. It is regularly preceded by credit expansion and increasing credit risk. According to some opinions the bank crisis usually follows if the credit expansion exceeds 5% of GDP (Demirgüç - Kunt and Detragiache, 1997, p.16-30; Cottarelli et al, 2005, p.83-104). Depending on the expanse and depth of the crisis, a stronger or a weaker fall of economic activity rate is recorded. Such was the scenario of the bank crisis and its consequences in Croatia. However, the credit boom and bank crisis in Croatia cannot be explained, or at least predominantly explained, by the consequence of influence of factors described in the item 2. The specific circumstances that preceded the first credit boom have to be taken into consideration.

Principally, the factors of liberalization, the suspension of quantitative credit limitations and administrative interest rate management, or the removal of barriers for entrance of new banks into the market - all create good conditions for credit expansion and development of disaster myopia. The liberalization of economy started before and continued after Croatia became independent. In addition, after the Government's first intervention regarding the solution of the problem of blocked savings in foreign exchange in 1991, the inherited bad bank claims were substituted by government bonds. Some state-owned banks were privatized under strange circumstances. Nevertheless, after adopting stabilisation and inflation reduction programme in 1993 it was found that balance and off-balance potential losses of large regional banks significantly surpassed regulated amounts of their own funds and reserves. Therefore some new interventions with government bonds followed. It was written about some quiet rehabilitations as well. But all of this gave poor results. One of the two biggest banks together with three big regional banks remained insolvent. They were main participants of a large demand in the interbank market, which induced the rise of interest rate above the level of 30%. This interest rate was substantially reduced (to approximately 9%) in the beginning of 1996 after takeover and additional capitalization of problematic big banks by the government. Till that period the banks' lending activity had been narrowed due to some other reasons including the state of war. However, besides the rehabilitation of major banks, some other conditions for the start of credit boom had been created before that. Thus, the Banks and Savings Institutions Law from 1993 anticipated low capital requirements and relatively easier conditions for bank founding. Interest rate formation was

liberalized as well. Those two reasons, together with some other, provoked a powerful entrance of new participants into the bank market. Between 1990 and 1997 the number of banks increased almost by 3 times (from 23 to 60). Banking business became the most attractive activity as big differences between lending interest rate and borrowing interest rate enabled high profits.

Figure 2.

The difference between lending and borrowing interest rate*



* Banks' lending interest rates on HRK credits indexed to foreign currency and on credits in Euros (total average)

Banks' borrowing interest rates on HRK deposits indexed to foreign currency and on foreign currency deposits (total average).

Source: CNB, Bulletin, no. 132, 2007.

Although the entrance of new banks had a certain influence on the size of the bank system and growth of credits, "the entrance itself was not the main factor of expansion of available credits" (Kraft and Jankov, 2005, p.110). On the rank-list of 15 biggest banks in 1997 there were 5 new banks that participated with only 10.6% in the total bank assets. According to these two authors the liberalization of interest rate, which was an important presumption for the development of market society, had a very strong effect. That policy enabled the development of banking activities based on the principle of profit maximization, in distinction from the earlier dictated political priorities. Banks' freedom in determining the amount of deposit rate made the growth of credit sources possible. The significant rise of deposit rate followed primarily because some new banks tried to achieve their fast growth in that way. Naturally, to some extent that affected the reallocation of deposits among banks themselves. However, interbank competition left its mark. Other banks followed fast-growing banks, so that it came to general rise of deposit rate and accordingly of lending interest rate. The interest rate spread on the Croatian bank market increased much more than one recorded in the majority of bank systems in West-European countries. In this way, in the circumstances of rigid monetary policy the growth of total banks sources occurred. The growth of total banks sources is caused by growing inflow of savings in the first place. The growth of savings is mainly explained as a result of more attractive deposit rewarding. That could attract especially the savings of Croatian returned emigrants. Deposits growth probably derived from tesaurization of money, savings earlier directed abroad and an increasing number of rich individuals or big depositors. Anyway, the growth of total banks sources gave an opportunity for the expansion and overheating in the credit market. The epilogue was the bank crisis.

The bank crisis started in the beginning of 1998 with the collapse of one fast-growing bank and reached its culmination by the end of the first quarter of the following year. During that period 16 banks, which participated with nearly 16.2 % in the total assets of the bank sector, were ruined. Due to that occurrence and to decreasing of credit activity of other banks a negative credit growth rate was recorded in 1999. The reasons for the bank crisis were directly connected to weaknesses in performing institutional reforms (legal system etc.) and to the privatization process which resulted in "tycoon empires". Ownership correlation of private banks to the corporate sector resulted in mutually connected lending. The lending thrived due to the weaknesses of banking regulations and the central bank's supervision. Loans to insiders are thought to have been the biggest part of problematic bank credits (Kraft and Jankov, 2005, p. 112). After all, weaknesses of the credit risk management in the phase of credit boom led to the bank crisis and credit bust.

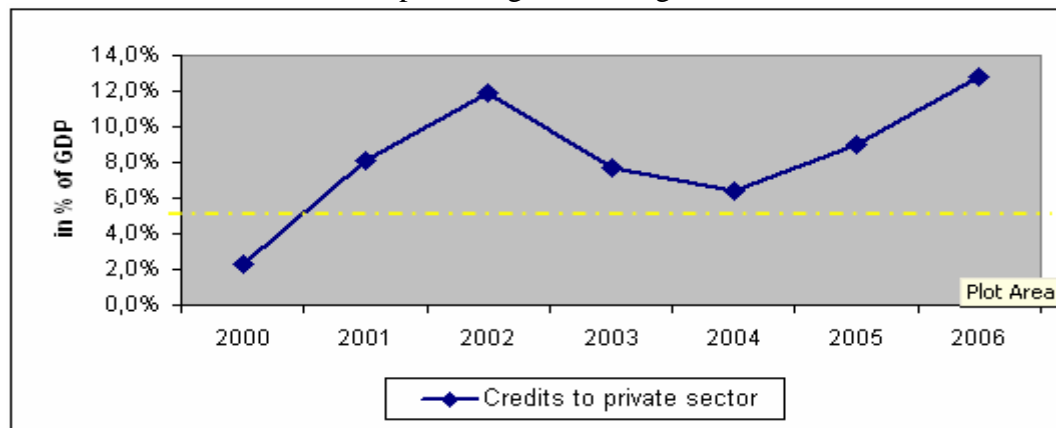
Finally, in spite of a statistically clearly proved relation between credit and economic cycles, it cannot provide a complete explanation. Some other factors, which have macroeconomic and microeconomic characteristics, influenced changes in the GDP rate of growth. Some of them, which are supposed to be the main factors, were present in the second credit boom as well.

4.2. Potential Dangers of Banking Distress

A new credit boom, which started in 2000, occurred in altered circumstances. After banks had been conveyed upon foreign proprietorship, they intensified activities in qualitative and quantitative sense (Haas and Lelyveld, 2006, p.1927–1952). Croatian banks improved their risks management and solvency ratios seem to be satisfactory. They are efficient in the technical sense as well. However, one thing is functioning here - it is a credit channel from growing inflow of foreign short-term capital that gives preference to final consumption. According to some statements banks might become vulnerable because of an excessive expansion of total credits to the private sector, a decrease of differences between lending and borrowing interest rate, and possible slowing down of economic activity (Mihaljek, 2004, p.93-119; Égert et al, 2006, p.29-30).

Figure 3

Credits to private sector
- in percentage according to GDP -



Source: CNB, Web page. Author's calculation and graphics.

The statement that a bank crisis develops in the circumstances of growth of credits to the private sector above 5% of GDP cannot be abandoned. As between 2000 and 2006 those rates were 2.3%, 8.1%, 11.9%, 7.7%, 6.4%, 9.0% and 12.8% a credit bust should have already begun. If it has not happened yet, it does not mean that it will not happen. Our opinion is that the growth of credits to private corporate sector should not be problematic if a good credit risk management is applied (Cebenoyan and Strahan, 2004, p. 19–43). What disturbs even more is an excessive growth of credits granted to the consumer sector in the conditions of poor domestic sources of saving.

In the growing bank competition, the decrease of differences between lending and borrowing interest rate under a certain limit could threaten the effectiveness of their business. On the other hand, Figure 2 shows that it has not happened yet. Finally, banks have really high profit, even at existing differences between these two rates.

Table 1.

Net margins
- in percentage -

	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005
Net interest margin	4.71	4.09	4.21	3.58	3.28	3.33	2.97	2.87
Net non-interest margin	1.76	2.14	1.94	0.96	1.40	1.16	1.30	1.21
Net business margin	6.47	6.23	6.15	4.54	4.68	4.49	4.27	4.08

Source: CNB, Annual report, different years. Author's calculation.

Although net business margin has a decreasing tendency, it is still considerably above the one realized in banks in Western Europe. Thus, in 2005 this margin came to 2.09 in Italy, 2.24 in Austria, 2.07 in Germany, 1.80 in France etc. (OECD.Stat Extract, author's calculation). In addition, in banks in some of these and some other countries net non-interest income represents a bigger part than net interest income. In the period

between 1998 and 2005 the percentage share of non-interest income in the total income of Croatian banks chronologically was: 27.1; 34.3; 31.6; 21.2; 29.9; 25.7 and 37.1 (CNB, Annual report, different years). That means that Croatian banks have big opportunities for developing off-balance activities, especially in the area of financial market operations (issue of securities for the corporate sector etc.). Rationalization can be also found within administrative costs.

It seems that banks might be the most vulnerable to a possible decrease of economic activity rate. The circumstances in which the existing rates of GDP growth occur are not very optimistic. Macroeconomic indicators disclose that to a great extent.

Table 2.

Crucial macroeconomic indicators

	'96	'97	'98	'99	'00	'01	'02	'03	'04	'05	'06
GDP - year-on-year rate of growth (in %, constant prices)	5,9	6,8	2,5	-0,9	2,9	4,4	5,6	5,3	4,3	4,3	4,8
Average year-on-year inflation rate	3,5	3,6	5,7	4,0	4,6	3,8	1,7	1,8	2,1	3,3	3,2
Current account balance (as % of GDP)	-4,8	-12,3	-6,8	-7,0	-2,4	-3,6	-8,5	-7,1	-5,1	-6,4	-7,8
Outstanding external debt (as % of GDP)	27,0	38,0	47,6	54,5	61,4	61,4	61,9	75,8	80,0	82,4	85,3
Imports of goods and services (as % of GDP)	48,0	56,8	49,1	49,3	52,3	54,6	56,4	57,9	56,5	55,9	57,3
Consolidated central government deficit (as % of GDP)	-	-	-	-7,1	-7,5	-6,8	-4,9	-6,2	-4,8	-4,0	-3,0

Source: CNB, Bulletin, no. 132, 2007.

Is the current economic growth sustainable or not - that is the question, because it is based on the consumption which depends on export (Zbašnik, 2005, p. 201-218). Besides the expansion of bank credits to households, the consumption is also backed by overrated exchange rate. That can be clearly proved through growing deficit of the balance of payments, fast-growing external debt and budget deficit. The relation between balance of payments deficit and GDP growth is more than obvious. The balance of payments deficit is mostly the result of commodity exchange deficit. Therefore, some national economists propose the depreciation (devaluation) of the national currency. On the other hand, more serious analyses give a range of arguments that are not in favour of that particular move. In general, a positive effect on the balance of payments, from the depreciation of exchange rate (increase of export and decrease of import), could be neutralized in different ways. Among other things, increase of inflation rate would follow, then decline of employment in non-export sectors and of national real income, increase in payment of the indexed internal debts and burden of external debt payment (Stručka, 2004, p.24). However, an efficient economic policy is not a simple task. The decrease of tax pressure and budget deficit is necessary but it cannot be done painlessly. Our country's external debt almost exceeds the limit of endurance, so that some cuts have to be done especially in public investments out of these sources. The final consumption will have to adapt itself to domestic production opportunities. Although the CNB has the right policy in limiting

banks' external debt, it is still not enough. Of course, it is necessary to create conditions for capacitating domestic production. It certainly cannot be done easily and quickly. Anyway, banks should act in that direction. Otherwise they themselves will become vulnerable. Efficient economic allocation of sources and fight against credit and other risks are their first and permanent tasks.

5. Conclusion

Credit markets are imperfect. There are asymmetric information, moral hazard, adverse selection, disaster myopia and some other phenomena that explain the procyclical nature of movements in credit markets, financial and economic instability. Between 1995 and 2006 there were two credit booms and between them one credit bust in the Croatian banking system. During the credit bust, which was a result of a bank crisis, the rates of economic growth decreased drastically partly showing negative values. As the bank crisis was the consequence of poor credit risk management and supervisor's neglect, there should be no doubt that there is a connection between credit risk and cycle on the one hand and economic cycles on the other. Everything shows that a new credit bust could follow and according to the IMF estimate even a financial crisis. Balance of payments deficit and commercial balance deficit, external debt and budget deficit have become intolerable. Existing GDP rates of growth, mostly based on the growth of consumption, cannot be sustained. Limitation of deficit and slowing down of economic activity could make the banks even more vulnerable. In such situation credit risk management becomes more complex.

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KREDITNI RIZIK, KREDITNI I EKONOMSKI CIKLUSI U HRVATSKOM BANKARSTVU

Sažetak

Cilj ovog rada je istražiti vezu između kreditnog rizika i kreditnog ciklusa s jedne strane, te ekonomskog ciklusa s druge strane u hrvatskom bankarstvu i ekonomiji. Također će se ustanoviti potencijalne prijetnje ispravnom upravljanju kreditnim rizikom u bankama i stabilnosti financijskog sustava koje proizlaze iz utjecaja različitih faktora. Ne teorijskoj razini oko tih pitanja nije postignuta suglasnost. Ipak, ovisnost ekonomskog ciklusa o kreditnom ciklusu i riziku je jasno potvrđena u mnogim empirijskim studijama. U Hrvatskoj takva istraživanja nisu provedena. Rezultati naše regresijske analize pokazali su, između ostalog, da poduzetnički krediti imaju jači utjecaj na BDP od kredita kućanstvima. Statistički smo uočili dvije kreditne ekspanzije među kojima je došlo do kreditnog kolapsa. Tijekom prvog kreditnog kolapsa, do kojeg je došlo radi bankarske krize, stope ekonomskog rasta su drastično pale. Bankarska kriza je bila posljedicom lošeg upravljanja kreditnim rizicima i nepažnje supervizora. Sve ukazuje na to da bi mogao uslijediti novi kreditni kolaps i nova financijska kriza. Nemoguće je održati postojeće stope rasta BDP-a koje se baziraju uglavnom na rastu potrošnje stimuliranom kreditima. Ograničenje deficita i usporavanje ekonomske aktivnosti bi banke moglo učiniti još osjetljivijim na kreditni rizik.

JEL: G21

Ključne riječi: kredit, rizik, ciklus, bankarstvo, Hrvatska

ANALIZA UČINAKA POREZNE KONKURENCIJE PRI OPOREZIVANJU DOBITI PODUZEĆA U EUROPSKOJ UNIJI

ANALYSIS OF TAX COMPETITION IMPACT ON CORPORATE TAXATION IN THE EUROPEAN UNION

ABSTRACT

The aim of this paper is identification of the effects tax competition has on corporate taxation in the process of the EU integration. The focus of the research is how to qualify all aspects related to tax competition process and to distinguish other factors that can be an obstacle for tax harmonization in the EU.

The basis of the analysis relates to economic aspects of tax competition and corporate taxation in the EU. It includes theoretical background, comparison of present differences in corporate taxation systems in the EU, advantages and disadvantages of models for preventing harmful tax competition, influence of tax competition on the EU enlargement and panel data analysis of economic and financial effects of tax competition in the EU member states.

JEL: E62

Key words: *tax competition, corporate income tax, effective tax rates, statutory tax rates, fiscal degradation, tax harmonization,*

1. UVOD

U uvjetima visoke međunarodne mobilnosti kapitala, vlade određenih zemlja mogu biti u iskušenju da kroz mehanizme smanjivanja poreznog opterećenja u sustavu oporezivanja dobiti poduzeća utječu na privlačenje izravnih stranih investicija i na taj način smanjuju porezne prihode zemalja iz kojih kapital odlazi te povećavaju vlastite. Međutim ovakav vid kompeticije u konačnici može polučiti negativne efekte za sve zemlje koje sudjeluju u njemu jer će kroz „utrku do dna“ ustvari doći do smanjenja blagostanja stanovnika svih zemalja.

Upravo iz ovog razloga EU već duži niz godina pokušava riješiti problem porezne konkurencije i to kroz mehanizme porezne koordinacije, odnosno harmonizacije. Iako je predloženo više različitih modela za suzbijanje štetne porezne konkurencije na razini Unije, niti jedan nije dobio ozbiljniju političku podršku, a jedan od razloga za to leži i u činjenici da dosada teza o štetnosti porezne konkurencije nije bila dokazana na adekvatan način.

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Među prvim zagovornicima porezne koordinacije bili su Musgrave i Musgrave (1969.), međutim njihova je znanstvena pozornost bila usmjerena prije svega na problematiku međunarodnog dvostrukog oporezivanja.

Djelomično rješenje ovog problema danas je pronađeno u primjeni OECD-ovog modela, a u sklopu EU-a taj se problem pokušao riješiti primjenom tzv. Smjernice o trgovačkim društvima majka-kćer.¹

S vremenom se problemu međunarodnog dvostrukog oporezivanja počelo posvećivati sve manje pažnje, a pozornost je bila usmjeravana na problem međunarodne mobilnosti kapitala i sposobnosti multinacionalnih kompanija da izbjegnu ili smanje porezno opterećenje, seljenjem poreznih osnovica iz zemalja s visokim poreznim opterećenjem u zemlje s niskim poreznim opterećenjem ili pak nepostojećim opterećenjem, kao što je primjerice slučaj u nekim poreznim oazama.

Ovakva je situacija dovela do povećanja međunarodne porezne konkurencije na način da se u većini zemlja primjenjuju takve fiskalne mjere koje su ispod optimalne razine. To je izazvalo razvijanje, već spominjane teze o „utrci do dna“. Stoga je cilj empirijske analize, koja će biti provedena u nastavku, dokazati postojanje odnosno nepostojanje porezne konkurencije u štetnom obliku na razini EU-a.

Svoju zabrinutost u svezi s postojanjem takvog oblika porezne konkurencije prvi je izrazio još Oates (1972.), a tradicionalni teorijski modeli porezne konkurencije razvijeni su u radovima Zdrova i Mieszkowskog (1986.) i Wilsona (1986.).

U svom su istraživačkom radu Zdrov i Mieszkowski predstavili model porezne konkurencije u najjednostavnijoj postavci opće ravnoteže. Njihovom zaslugom koncept porezne konkurencije zasniva se na upotrebi teorema o podcijenjenosti javnih dobara, odnosno lokalnih javnih dobara te se u njemu testiraju učinci mobilnosti kapitala na oporezivanje dobiti poduzeća na simplificiranom uzorku identičnih regija, pri čemu se pretpostavlja kako mobilnost kapitala dovodi do nižih poreznih stopa i suboptimalnog sniženja razine ponude javnih dobara.

Wilsonov je model s dvije zemlje, odnosno dvije jurisdikcije koje su identične u svemu osim radnoj snazi, pokazao kako pojedinci bolje prolaze u malim zemljama. Iz toga proizlazi da što je veći porez na kapital neka zemlja nametnula, to će imati jači efekt na njezinu potražnju za kapitalom i kamatne stope na međunarodnom tržištu kapitala, to jest to će biti manja elastičnost ponude kapitala.

Pritom treba voditi računa o tome da potražnja za kapitalom velike zemlje ima veći utjecaj na kamatne stope negoli ona male zemlje. Stoga će veće zemlje odrediti više stope poreza na kapital. Kako je k tome trošak kapitala niži u malim zemljama, više su investicije per capita i zato je visina nadnica veća.

Iz toga se može izvesti zaključak kako male zemlje imaju prednosti prilikom porezne konkurencije, ukoliko je razlika u veličini zemalja koje se natječu dovoljno velika, a javni se rashodi financiraju porezima na kapital.

Slične su teze razvijali i Gordon (1986.) i Razin and Sadka (1991.) predviđajući da će u uvjetima kada je kapital u potpunosti mobilan, uvijek radije bježati u male otvorene ekonomije koje ga neće moći oporezovati na odgovarajući način.

Haufler i Wooton (1999.) u svom radu iznose argumente koji potvrđuju suprotnu tezu, odnosno tvrde kako u slučaju nesavršene konkurencije i zbog transakcijskih troškova, upravo velike zemlje mogu imati prednosti od porezne konkurencije u kojoj se zemlje natječu za

¹ Vijeće EU-a donijelo je uz Kodeks o ponašanju pri oporezivanju poduzeća i nekoliko smjernica koje se bave problematikom oporezivanja dobiti poduzeća, a to su: Smjernica o fuziji, odnosno spajanjima, Smjernica o trgovačkim društvima majka-kćer te Smjernicu o zajedničkom oporezivanju kamata i autorskih naknada među povezanim kompanijama. Također je donesena i Konvencija o primjeni arbitražnog postupka u slučajevima dvostrukog oporezivanja.

direktne strane investicije jer će zbog transakcijskih troškova poduzeća preferirati lociranje na velikim tržištima.

To će utjecati na povećanje lokacijskih najamnina u velikim zemljama, što se pak može iskoristiti u sklopu porezne politike, tako da velike zemlje povećaju poreze ili smanje subvencije, a male zemlje to neće moći pratiti te će investicije ipak odlaziti u veće zemlje.

Sinn (1997.) je pak tvrdio kako porezna konkurencija neće dovesti do suboptimalne ponude javnih dobara ukoliko zemlje mogu više oporezovati manje mobilne proizvodne čimbenike, odnosno rad, ali će naravno zbog toga doći do neravnomjernije distribucije dohotka i smanjenja opće razine blagostanja, pogotovo u slučaju da i rad postane zbog takve situacije mobilniji.

Keen i Marchand (1997.) su u svom radu istaknuli kako fiskalna kompeticija može potaknuti zemlje da promjene fiskalne strukture na način koji će imati nepoželjne konsekvence prilikom distribucije dohotka, ali isto tako može utjecati na povećanje rashoda koji će pogodovati mobilnom kapitalu i to tako da od ulaganja u javnu infrastrukturu imaju koristi i potrošači koji nisu mobilni.

Brennan i Buchanan (1980.) su pak otvoreno zagovarali koncept fiskalne kompeticije jer su smatrali kako je upravo ona u uvjetima fiskalne decentralizacije dobar balast za aktivnosti političara, birokrata i ostalih interesnih skupina koje su usmjerene na ostvarivanje dodatnog dohotka, odnosno dobiti.

U većini radova koji se bave poreznom konkurencijom ipak se naglašava gubitak općeg blagostanja, a svi su prvenstveno fokusirani na učinke koje pritom generira mobilni kapital.

Neki su radovi usmjereni i na mobilnost radne snage i ističu kako porezna konkurencija u svijetu, u kojem su pojedinci itekako mobilni, pomaže lokalnim jurisdikcijama da ostvare efikasnu i prihvatljivu razinu javne potrošnje jer će stanovnici otkriti svoje preferencije seljenjem u one jurisdikcije koje nude najpovoljnije porezne pakete².

Nažalost uvjeti koji su potrebni da bi gore opisan Tiebuatov equilibrium (1956.) bio zadovoljen vrlo su restriktivni, jer najprije vlada mora biti u mogućnosti ubrati porez u obliku glavarine od svakog stanovnika jednak troškovima koji su potrebni da bi im se pružila odgovarajuća razina javnih dobara i usluga, a pritom efikasnost takvog modela neće biti osigurana u slučaju da se prilikom ponude javnih dobara koristi ekonomija obujma.

Također valja istaknuti kako su svi radovi koji se bave ovako postavljenom ravnotežom zaokupljeni poglavito problemom efikasnosti, zanemarujući pritom činjenicu da mobilnost čimbenika proizvodnje utječe na sposobnost zemlja da vrše redistribuciju dohodaka.

Na globalnoj sceni koja još uvijek obiluje kulturnim, ali i političkim barijerama prema većoj mobilnosti rada, teško je smatrati kako je koncept „voting with their feet“ zadovoljavajući model kojim bi se moglo opisati ponašanje birača, prilikom odabira porezne jurisdikcije koja im se čini privlačnija.

2. POSTOJANJE POREZNE KONKURENCIJE U EU

Dokazivanje postojanja, odnosno nepostojanja porezne konkurencije, vrlo je komplicirano i može se kazati kako su ograničenja s kojima se pritom susrećemo višestruka.

Samu poreznu konkurenciju prilikom oporezivanja dobiti poduzeća je teško definirati, ali većina postojećih definicija ide u smjeru da je tumači kao vid konkurencije koji će dovesti do suboptimalne razine oporezivanja i podcijenjenosti javnih dobara, što pak u konačnici dovodi do erozije države blagostanja.

² O ovom fenomenu govori i čuvena Tiebuatova hipoteza iz 1956. godine.

Pitanja koja se nameću prilikom dokazivanja ovog fenomena su sljedeća: kako je on utjecao, odnosno utječe li na promjene u poreznim strukturama suvremenih zemlja; bi li opće porezno opterećenje bilo više ukoliko bi porezni sustavi bili neutralni; bi li visina prihoda ubranih od poreza na dobit bila veća bez porezne konkurencije, bi li porezno opterećenje rada i potrošnje bilo niže i tome slično.

Kada analiziramo situaciju u EU-u tada možemo kazati kako je razina oporezivanja u odnosu na visinu poreznog opterećenja i ubranih prihoda u 2005. godini bila gotovo jednaka onoj prije deset godina, odnosno u 1995. godini, što samo po sebi ukazuje da teza o pojačanoj poreznoj konkurenciji baš i ne stoji.

Međutim, valja naglasiti kako je Europska unija sama po sebi područje koje karakterizira visoko porezno opterećenje, pritom misleći na generalno porezno opterećenje. Prema podacima za 2005. godinu udio poreza u BDP-u na razini Unije bio je 39.6%, što je za trinaest postotnih poena više nego li primjerice udio poreza u BDP-u SAD-a ili Japana. To naravno ne znači kako i sve pojedinačne zemlje članice EU-a imaju visoko porezno opterećenje, jer neke imaju udio poreza u BDP-u i znatno niži od 35%, dok neke poput Švedske imaju sudjelovanje poreza u BDP-u čak i veće od 50%.

Sustavi oporezivanja dobiti poduzeća „novih“ zemalja članica obično imaju manje porezno opterećenje od onih u „starim“ zemljama članicama, ili općenito govoreći udio direktnih poreza u ukupnim poreznim prihodima i BDP-u je u njima vidljivo niži nego li u starim. Nadalje, primjetan je trend postupnog smanjivanja poreznog opterećenja, ali se ne može kazati kako su „nove“ zemlje članice EU-a agresivnije u smanjivanju svojih poreznih stopa, čak štoviše neke od njih su čak i povećale porezno opterećenje prilikom oporezivanja direktnim porezima. Ovo je usporavanje uzrokovano djelomice zbog cikličkih kretanja, a djelomice zbog želje zemalja članica EU-a da smanje svoje deficite, što je svakako utjecalo na činjenicu da nije nastavljen trend smanjivanja poreznog opterećenja porezom na dobit.

Vrlo je zanimljivo kako su najveće promjene povezane uz izdašnost ubranih prihoda i poreznog opterećenja doživjele one zemlje članice koje su početno imale nisko porezno opterećenje, dok su one s visokim poreznim opterećenjem imale vrlo male promjene u svojim poreznim strukturama. To možemo povezati s činjenicom da je visoko porezno opterećenje uglavnom povezano uz zemlje članice EU-15, koje karakteriziraju tromi fiskalni sustavi, neskloni promjenama, zbog čega vrlo vjerojatno i nije došlo do drastičnijih smanjenja.

Od 2005. počeo je vrlo spori, ali ipak vidljiv rast udjela ukupnih poreznih prihoda u BDP-u zemalja članica EU-a, a očekuje se da će se to nastaviti i u sljedećim godinama, što također pokazuje kako porezna konkurencija nije doprinijela značajnijem smanjenju blagostanja na razini Unije, odnosno upućuje na zaključak o tome da se polako smiruje natjecanje u privlačenju investicija fiskalnim poticajima.

U zemljama članicama EU-a prihodi od poreza na dobit obično čine jednu petinu ukupnih poreznih prihoda, a porezi na potrošnju oko jedne trećine. Kao što je već naglašeno, postoje razlike u strukturi poreznih prihoda između „starih“ i „novih“ zemalja članica, pri čemu potonje karakterizira veći udio potrošnih poreza u ukupnim poreznim prihodima, dok prihodi od poreza na dobit imaju mali udio u njihovim ukupnim poreznim prihodima.

U razdoblju od 1995. do 2005. godine došlo je do promjena u sustavima oporezivanja dobiti poduzeća koja su se u nekim zemljama članicama odrazila kroz povećanje efektivnih poreznih stopa i poreznog opterećenja, a u drugima kao smanjenje efektivnih poreznih stopa i poreznog opterećenja.

Pritom je zamjetno, kao što je već rečeno, kako su u navedenom razdoblju manje promjene doživjeli sustavi oporezivanja dobiti poduzeća onih zemalja koja su imala početno veće porezno opterećenje, što znači uglavnom sustavi oporezivanja dobiti poduzeća „starih“ zemalja članica EU-a.

Dosadašnja ekonometrijska istraživanja³ pokazala su kako visoke efektivne porezne stope prilikom oporezivanja dobiti imaju negativan učinak na privlačenje većeg obujma izravnih stranih investicija, ali najčešće mjereni fiskalnih učinci nisu pokazali velik utjecaj na privlačenje izravnih stranih investicija i uglavnom je dokazano da neki drugi čimbenici kao što su primjerice dostupnost novih tehnologija, veličina tržišta ili obrazovna struktura radne snage imaju većeg upliva na donošenje investicijskih odluka.

Stoga se može zaključiti kako nije nedvojbeno dokazano postojanje porezne konkurencije koja vodi „utrci do dna“ u sustavima oporezivanja dobiti poduzeća ili pak konstantnom smanjivanju ukupno ubranih poreznih prihoda, ali se pokazalo kako porezna konkurencija ima određenog upliva na kreiranje nacionalnih poreznih politika.

3. EMPIRIJSKA ANALIZA UČINAKA POREZNE KONKURENCIJE NA MOBILNOST KAPITALA U EUROPSKOJ UNIJI

Ekonometrijski model obuhvaća pet različitih fiskalnih pokazatelja koji utječu na pojavu porezne konkurencije i predstavljaju nezavisne varijable modela, dok je porezna konkurencija zavisna varijabla, koja je predočena kroz odgovarajuću varijablu, zbog nemogućnosti precizne definicije samog pojma, kao i velikih ograničenja povezanih uz moguće utjecaje na nju, koji nisu mogli biti uzeti u obzir.

Samu poreznu konkurenciju prilikom oporezivanja dobiti poduzeća je teško definirati, ali za potrebe statističke analize definirana je kao takav vid konkurencije koji će dovesti do suboptimalne razine oporezivanja i podcijenjenosti javnih dobara, što je i u teoriji najčešće upotrebljavana definicija ovog pojma.

Budući da su nezavisne varijable vezane uz elemente oporezivanja i da je primarni cilj ovog istraživanja bio dokazivanje utjecaja sustava oporezivanja dobiti poduzeća u zemljama članicama EU-a na mobilnost kapitala unutar Unije i samo blagostanje zemalja članica definirano je kroz pokazatelj koji bi ga mogao odraziti na najadekvatniji način, a to je za potrebe ovog istraživanja udio ukupnih direktnih poreza u BDP-u.

Stoga je povećanje udjela ukupnih prihoda od direktnih poreza u BDP-u zemalja članica označeno kao povećanje blagostanja, a smanjenje udjela ove grupe poreza kao smanjenje blagostanja, što je doduše vrlo pojednostavljeno tumačenje blagostanja, ali uobičajen pristup u postupku modeliranja porezne konkurencije.

Ograničenja tako zamišljenog modela zasnivaju se na nemogućnosti mjerenja međunarodnih fiskalnih efekata prelijevanja koji se javljaju uvijek kada dođe do promjena u sustavima oporezivanja dobiti u nekoj zemlji članici EU-a. Naime, takve promjene uvijek utječu i na stupanj blagostanja u ostalim zemljama članica, a i šire⁴ i to kroz efekte realokacije kapitala, efekte štednje ili pak kroz intertemporalne učinke.

Poticaj za seljenje investicija iz jedne zemlje članice u drugu bit će povećanje poreznog opterećenja u sustavu oporezivanja dobiti poduzeća u domicilnoj zemlji ili pak kada neka od zemalja u okruženju smanji svoje porezno opterećenje. Pritom treba kazati da kompeticija usmjerena na privlačenje stranih investicija nije usmjerena samo na nove investicije, već i na realokaciju, odnosno seljenje direktnih stranih investicija iz jedne zemlje u drugu, a u sklopu Unije mnoga su multinacionalna poduzeća iskoristila prednosti poreznih

³ Vidi Leibfritz (1997.), Sørensen (1991.) i Hines (1999.).

⁴ Efekti prelijevanja imaju i veliki utjecaj na zemlje u okruženju.

olakšica u sustavima oporezivanja dobiti u zemljama članicama prilikom lociranja izravnih stranih investicija⁵.

Kada jednom dođe do izvoza kapitala iz jedne zemlje članice u drugu dolazi do prelijevanja kapitala. To se očituje kao povećanje poreznih prihoda prilikom oporezivanja dobiti u zemlji uvoznici kapitala i ima utjecaj na povećanje dohodaka te smanjenje nezaposlenosti u toj zemlji. Povećanje poreznog opterećenja u sustavu oporezivanja dobiti poduzeća u domicilnoj zemlji, koje dovodi do smanjenja ubranih poreznih prihoda može imati upliva i na smanjenu sklonost štednji u toj zemlji. Što također nije uzeto u obzir prilikom modeliranja porezne konkurencije za potrebe ovog istraživanja.

Model je obuhvatio sve zemlje članice EU-a, odnosno EU-27 i testirao hipotezu kako na razini same Unije ne postoji porezna konkurencija u takvom obliku koji bi se mogao smatrati štetnim za zemlje članice. Postojanje porezne konkurencije prema općoj postavci modela dokazuje smanjenje poreznih prihoda od poreza na dobit u ukupnim poreznim prihodima i smanjenje udjela direktnih poreza u ukupnim poreznim prihodima, zatim smanjenje socijalnih doprinosa, koje se očituje kao smanjenje njihovog udjela u ukupnim poreznim prihodima i povećanje poreznog opterećenja prilikom oporezivanja indirektnim porezima, koje se očituje kao povećanje poreznih prihoda od indirektnih poreza u ukupnim poreznim prihodima. Dakle, postojanje porezne konkurencije utvrdit će se ukoliko se dokaže da je došlo do smanjenja blagostanja promatranih zemalja.

Podaci obuhvaćaju razdoblje od 1995. do 2005. na godišnjoj razini. Izvor podataka za sve varijable je Eurostatova baza podataka.

Iz svega navedenog proizlazi:

$$PK = f(E, P, S, D, I) \quad (1)$$

Gdje je:

PK = udio ukupnih direktnih poreza u BDP-u

E = visina efektivnih poreznih stopa

P = udio poreza na dobit u ukupnim poreznim prihodima

S = udio socijalni doprinosa u ukupnim poreznim prihodima

D = udio direktnih poreza u ukupnim poreznim prihodima

I = udio indirektnih poreza u ukupnim poreznim prihodima

Iz ekonomskog modela izvodi se sljedeći ekonometrijski model koji je linearan u logaritmima:

$$pk = \beta_1 + \beta_2 e + \beta_3 p + \beta_4 s + \beta_5 d + \beta_6 i + \varepsilon \quad (2)$$

mala slova gore navedenih varijabli predstavljaju logaritmirane vrijednosti varijabli, dok parametri β_j predstavljaju elastičnost varijabli promjene visine efektivnih poreznih stopa prilikom oporezivanja dobiti, odnosno promjenu udjela poreza na dobit u ukupnim poreznim prihodima, zatim promjenu udjela socijalnih doprinosa u ukupnim poreznim prihodima, promjenu udjela direktnih poreza u ukupnim poreznim prihodima te promjenu udjela indirektnih poreza u ukupnim poreznim prihodima s obzirom na pk .

⁵ To se dešava stoga što neke zemlje poput npr. Belgije, Irske i Nizozemske nude olakšice za poduzeća ukoliko u njima lociraju svoje financijske centre, a nešto slično čine i Portugal i Luksemburg.

Metoda koja je korištena je panel analiza s fiksnim efektima. Ovaj postupak zahtijeva da se jednadžba (2) izmijeni na sljedeći način:

$$pk_{ct} = \beta_1 + \beta_2 e_{ct} + \beta_3 p_{ct} + \beta_4 s_{ct} + \beta_5 d_{ct} + \beta_6 i_{ct} + a_c + u_{ct} \quad (3)$$

Gdje indeks c označava zemlje, a t vrijeme, odnosno godine. a_c obuhvaća sve neprimijećene konstantne vremenske čimbenike koji utječu na u_{ct} , a_{c_i} se obično naziva fiksnim efektom. Nadalje u ovom primjeru može se odnositi na neprimijećene hetreogenosti, u ovom slučaju heterogenosti zemalja.

„Error term“, odnosno pogreška u jednadžbi, u_{ct} često se još naziva idiosinkratična pogreška ili „time varying error“, zato što predstavlja neprimijećene čimbenike koji se mijenjaju tijekom vremena i utječu na pk_{ct} . Uporabom fiksnih efekata za potrebe obrade podataka u panelu, ustvari elimineramo sve vremenski nepromjenjive varijable. Ova se vrsta procjene još naziva i „within estimation“ jer se koristi prilikom vremenske varijacije u zavisnoj i u nezavisnoj varijabli za svaku „cross-sectional“ opservaciju. U ovoj analizi nije bilo vremenski nepromjenjivih varijabli, odnosno vršila se obrada na svim ranije opisanim nezavisnim varijablama.

Prilikom dokazivanja ovog fenomena bilo je potrebno istražiti je li on utjecao, odnosno utječe li na promjene u poreznim strukturama suvremenih zemlja, odnosno bi li opće porezno opterećenje bilo više ukoliko bi porezni sustavi bili neutralni. Također je bilo potrebno istražiti i da li bi visina prihoda ubranih od poreza na dobit bila veća bez porezne konkurencije te bi li tada porezno opterećenje rada i potrošnje bilo niže.

Nezavisna varijabla visina efektivnih poreznih stopa predstavlja stvarno porezno opterećenje porezom na dobit, pri čemu se očekivalo da bi smanjenje efektivnih stopa trebalo utjecati na smanjenje udjela poreza na dobit u ukupnim poreznim prihodima, a smanjenje udjela poreza na dobit u ukupnim poreznim prihodima i smanjenje efektivnih poreznih stopa poreza na dobit, pokazatelji su postojanja porezne konkurencije.

Nezavisna varijabla, udio poreza na dobit u ukupnim poreznim prihodima, trebala bi prema očekivanjima utjecati na smanjenje udjela poreza na dobit u ukupnim poreznim prihodima, što bi trebalo rezultirati i razmjernim smanjivanjem udjela direktnih poreza u ukupnom poreznom opterećenju. Što znači da ako je smanjenje udjela direktnih poreza u ukupnim poreznim prihodima manje od smanjenja udjela poreza na dobit u ukupnim poreznim prihodima to pokazuje kako je porezno opterećenje prebačeno s poreza na dobit na neki drugi oblik direktnih poreza. U većini slučajeva to će biti porez na dohodak, odnosno time se dokazuje postojanje porezne konkurencije kroz proces fiskalne degradacije, odnosno prebacivanje poreznog opterećenja na manje mobilne izvore oporezivanja, a to je rad.

Nezavisna varijabla udio direktnih poreza u ukupnim poreznim prihodima očekivano će biti podjednaka udjelu indirektnih poreza u ukupnim poreznim prihodima. Ukoliko se pokaže da je veći udio direktnih to znači da je veće porezno opterećenje ovim porezima, dok je veći udio indirektnih poreza u ukupnim poreznim prihodima, pokazatelj većeg poreznog opterećenja potrošnje ili potrošne orijentacije prilikom oporezivanja. Potrošna orijentacija fiskalnih sustava može biti signal za postojanje porezne konkurencije, koja će vrlo vjerojatno rezultirati i pojavom fiskalne degradacije u smislu prebacivanja poreznog opterećenja s dobit i dohotka na potrošnju.

Nezavisna varijabla udio socijalnih doprinosa u ukupnim poreznim prihodima očekivano će biti u korelaciji sa smanjenjem udjela poreza na dobit u ukupnim poreznim prihodima. Ukoliko smanjenje udjela poreza na dobit dovede do smanjenja udjela socijalnih doprinosa u ukupnim poreznim prihodima to ukazuje na postojanje porezne konkurencije, i to njezinog štetnog vida koji rezultira pojavom fiskalne degradacije.

Tablica 1**Rezultati**

Zavisna varijabla pk	es	uip	udp	up	sd	R ²
1995-2005 N=297	0,035 (0,006)	0,066 (0,078)	0,492 (0,077)	0,014 (0,028)	0,094 (0,076)	0,89

Napomena: Brojčani iznosi u zagradama predstavljaju vrijednosti standardnih pogrešaka. R^2 interpretira se na način da su se koristili fiksni efekti kao iznos vremenske varijacije u pk_{ct} , što se interpretira kao veličina vremenske varijacije u zavisnoj varijabli pk koja je objašnjena vremenskom varijacijom nezavisnih varijabli. Serijska korelacija AR(1) je pronađena koristeći se Wooldridge (2002.) testom za autokorelaciju u panel podacima, zbog čega je korišten i model autoregresivnih fiksnih efekata. Ovaj model dopušta uporabu neujednačenog panela s nejednako raspoređenim opažanjima (vidi Baltagi, Wu, 1999.; i Im, Pesaran, Shin, 2003.), što je karakteristika korištenog panela, a postupak korigiranja AR (1) provodi se korištenjem Cochrane-Orcutt transformacije.

Iz tablice je razvidno kako su jedine signifikantne varijable udp i es, odnosno udio direktnih poreza u ukupnim poreznim prihodima i visina efektivnih poreznih stopa prilikom oporezivanja dobiti. Ili drugim riječima, one imaju pozitivan utjecaj na poreznu konkurenciju, tj. ako dođe do povećanja jedne ili druge varijable povećat će se i stupanj blagostanja. Za ostale nezavisne varijable sd, uip i up, odnosno udio socijalnih doprinosa u ukupnim poreznim prihodima, udio indirektnih poreza u ukupnim poreznim prihodima te udio poreza na dobit u ukupnim poreznim prihodima nije dokazan utjecaj na zavisnu varijablu.

Rezultati provedene panel analize potvrđuju, na uzorku svih dvadeset i sedam zemalja članica EU-a, postavljenju tezu kako na razini same Unije ne postoji porezna konkurencija u takvom obliku koji bi se mogao smatrati štetnim za zemlje članice. Također je dokazano kako na uzorku svih zemalja članica EU-a ne postoji porezna konkurencija koja vodi „utrci do dna“ u sustavima oporezivanja dobiti poduzeća, odnosno konstantnom smanjivanju ukupno ubranih poreznih prihoda.

4. ZAKLJUČAK

Učinci koje pozitivne (koristi) i negativne (troškovi) eksternalije porezne konkurencije imaju na globalnoj razini su višestruki i međusobno usko povezani. Većina autora koja se bavila problemom porezne konkurencije smatra kako će njezini učinci dovesti pojedinačne zemlje u situaciju u kojoj će razina poreza i javnih rashoda biti ispod razine koja je optimalna za cjelokupnu ekonomiju.

Mobilnost kapitala i porezna konkurencija na globalnoj razini imala je određene pozitivne učinke na razvoj suvremenih poreznih sustava jer je utjecala na porezne reforme koje su dovele do proširivanja poreznih baza i do smanjivanja poreznih stopa, što se može smatrati učinkom pozitivnih eksternalija porezne konkurencije, međutim, njezini negativni efekti također nisu zanemarivi, naime stvorena je klima u kojoj se zbog povećane porezne konkurencije, primjenjuju porezne mjere koje se mogu smatrati nelojalnima, odnosno štetnima i usmjerenima isključivo na privlačenje kapitala. Ovakav vid porezne konkurencije može dovesti do poremećaja u trgovini i investicijskim odlukama, što će pak dovesti do smanjivanja neto učinka oporezivanja u nekim nacionalnim poreznim sustavima, kao i do kršenja načela pravednosti u oporezivanju, što se može smatrati učinkom negativnih

eksternalija porezne konkurencije na globalnoj razini. Ukoliko se ovakav trend nastavi odluke o lociranju investicija mogle bi se donositi isključivo motivirane poreznim razlozima, a ne stvarnim ekonomskim pokazateljima.

Privlačenje kapitala ne ovisi naravno samo i isključivo o fiskalnim razlozima, i nije posljedica samo fiskalne kompeticije, već uvelike ovisi i o drugim faktorima. Pitanje je da li zaista multinacionalne kompanije preferiraju investirati u zemlje s niskom razinom javne potrošnje i niskim poreznim opterećenjem. Dosadašnja empirijska istraživanja pokazala su da ne postoji čvrsta korelacija između javne potrošnje, oporezivanja i mobilnosti kapitala.

Optimalno oporezivanje sustava poduzeća unutar EU-a koje bi pospješilo daljnje integracijske procese i utjecalo na povećanje blagostanja svih zemalja članica svojevrsna je utopija koja još dugo vremena neće biti ostvariva, iako je izvjesno da će se rješavati parcijalnom harmonizacijom sustava oporezivanja dobiti poduzeća. Dosadašnji uspjesi na polju harmonizacija sustava oporezivanja poduzeća nisu bili veliki jer nije dogovoren zajednički oblik oporezivanja dobiti, odnosno harmonizirani su samo pojedini segmenti sustava oporezivanja poduzeća. Štoviše, nije donesena ni jedna smjernica kojom bi se na razini EU-a harmonizirala porezna stopa, porezna osnovica, porezna oslobođenja ili bilo koji drugi bitni elementi oporezivanja.

Privlačenje izravnih stranih investicija, odnosno konkurencija među sustavima oporezivanja dobiti u EU, usmjerena je na korištenje poreznih poticaja u obliku poreznih praznika, zatim konkurenciju investicijskim olakšicama u užem smislu, kao i na konkurenciju visinom nominalnih stopa poreza na dobit.

Teško je kazati koji će biti konačni efekti porezne kompeticije i kakav će ona utjecaj imati na rashodovnu stranu nacionalnih proračuna jer na investicijske odluke ne utječe samo visina poreznih stopa, već i institucionalno i zakonodavno okruženje neke zemlje, kao i iznos koji se troši na pružanje javnih usluga. Što se pak može odraziti kroz visoke troškove koje poduzeće može imati u trenutku relokacije svojeg poslovanja ili nekog njegovog dijela, zbog visokih poreznih troškova koji su povezani uz pružanje odgovarajuće infrastrukture.

Isto tako ostaje nejasno u kojem će se smjeru nastavljati politička integracija Europe u situaciji u kojoj se povećava regionalna, ali i globalna porezna konkurencija. Situacija se može razvijati i u smjeru nekontroliranog nastavka fiskalne konkurencije, ali i u smjeru da se razvije efikasni regulatorni okvir za nadzor kompeticije, kao i da se postigne čvrsti politički dogovor o harmonizaciji fiskalnih uvjeta u zemljama članicama te čak da se uspostavi nova Europska centralna vlada koja bi imala suvereno pravo nadzora i upravljanja proračunskim pravima.

Ekonometrijsko modeliranje specifičnosti procesa porezne konkurencije u Europskoj uniji pokazalo je da ne postoji porezna konkurencija u obliku koji bi se mogao smatrati štetnim, tj. nije potvrđena hipoteza da među zemljama članicama EU-a postoji štetna porezna konkurencija jer je dokazano kako samo nezavisne varijable udio direktnih poreza u ukupnim poreznim prihodima i visina efektivnih poreznih stopa prilikom oporezivanja dobiti imaju upliva na poreznu konkurenciju i to pozitivni utjecaj, odnosno ako dođe do povećanja jedne ili druge varijable povećat će se i stupanj blagostanja promatranih zemalja, dakle nije dokazano postojanje takvog vida porezne konkurencije koji će dovesti do smanjenja njihovog blagostanja.

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ANALIZA UČINAKA POREZNE KONKURENCIJE PRI OPOREZIVANJU DOBITI PODUZEĆA U EUROPSKOJ UNIJI

SAŽETAK

Temeljni cilj ovog rada jest određivanje utjecaja porezne konkurencije prilikom oporezivanja dobiti na proces ekonomske integracije u zemljama članicama Europske unije. Problem istraživanja očitovao se u prepoznavanju svih aspekata povezanih uz pojavu porezne konkurencije kao i na razlučivanju ostalih čimbenika koji predstavljaju prepreke za porezno usklađivanje u Europskoj uniji.

Osnovni segmenti analize ekonomskih aspekata porezne konkurencije pri oporezivanju dobiti poduzeća u EU odnosili su se na sistematizaciju i kritičku analizu dosadašnjih teorijskih dostignuća u određivanju čimbenika koji utječu na pojavu porezne konkurencije, komparaciju postojećih razlika u sustavima oporezivanja dobiti poduzeća u Europskoj uniji, određivanje prednosti i slabosti modela za sprječavanje štetne porezne konkurencije, analizu utjecaja porezne konkurencije na daljnje proširenje Europske unije te poredbenu raščlambu efektivnih ekonomskih i financijskih učinaka porezne konkurencije u zemljama članicama Europske unije.

JEL: E62

Ključne riječi: *porezna konkurencija, dobit poduzeća, efektivne porezne stope, zakonske porezne stope, fiskalna degradacija, porezna harmonizacija*

**MENADŽMENT KONFLIKTA: RAZMATRANJE TEORETSKE
PARADIGME I MAKROSTRATEŠKOG PRISTUPA**

**CONFLICT MANAGEMENT: CONTEMPLATION OF THEORIC
PARADIGM AND A MACROSTRATEGIC APPROACH**

ABSTRACT

Understanding organizational conflicts has made its way from a purely negative comprehension of conflicts as a serious threat to management that reduces its authority and reveals the management weaknesses, to a radical change in theoretical attitudes, conditioned by significant social, economic, cultural and communication changes in the society. Today, conflict is accepted as an unavoidable organizational phenomenon and it is considered that functional conflicts with its positive effects increase inventiveness, creativity and, finally, company competitiveness. Considering this role of conflict in organizational dynamics, it does not come as a surprise that Pondy's self-critical view points out that it is impossible to understand an organization as a cooperative system in which cooperation is occasionally interrupted by conflict processes, but it is more realistic to represent phases of cooperation episodes in a permanently conflicting environment, than the phases of conflict processes. However, despite the published self-criticism, Pondy's understanding of conflict processes, the development of which happens through several phases, still remains omnipresent in literature. Following Pondy's criticism, the most appropriate alternative seems to be M.A. Rahim's approach to conflict processes. He finds that conflict management directed toward individual conflict processes and mostly inter-personal or inter-group conflicts in a company, within the modern organizational dynamics, cannot be successful. The basis of a successful conflict process management is a macro-organizational strategy which: reduces affective conflicts within an organization to a minimum, stimulates and maintains a moderate quantity of cognitive conflicts as well as enables the selection and use of appropriate approaches to conflict management. Such strategy will contribute to organizational learning and the overall organizational effectiveness. Although Rahim points out the organizational learning as the key process for effective conflict management and organizational effectiveness, there are studies which assign some negative attributes to organizational learning. Therefore, as a recommendation for further research, it would be advisable to examine empirically the influence of organizational learning on conflict management, as well as the presented manner of conflict process management of A.M. Rahim.

JEL: M1, M10, M12

Key words: *conflict process, conflict management, macro-strategic approach, organizational learning.*

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Uvodni dio

Organizacijsko poslovanje odvija se u vrlo složenim i dinamičnim uvjetima u kojima je konflikt gotovo svakodnevna pojava. U organizaciji djeluje mnoštvo različitih pojedinaca čiji je rad organiziran u jedinice i grupe različitih veličina i funkcija. Osim toga, organizacija opstoji u okruženju koje poprima globalna obilježja i u kojem menadžer posebnu pozornost mora usmjeriti na utjecajno-interesne skupine (stakeholdere). U složenoj komunikacijskoj mreži i poslovanju u kojem su ciljevi i interesi pojedinaca i grupa često nekompatibilni ili međusobno suprotni, a poslovne aktivnosti međuzavisne, nemoguće je ne priznati konflikt kao bitan segment organizacijskog ponašanja i života uopće.

Danas se organizacijskim konfliktima pristupa kroz interakcijsku perspektivu koja sukob ne samo prihvaća, već i opravdava njegovo kontrolirano i umjereno stimuliranje u uvjetima stagnacije poduzeća i nedostatka kreativnih idejnih rješenja.¹ Interakcijski teoretičari smatraju da rijetka pojava konflikata poduzeće vodi u stagnaciju, grupna razmišljanja i grupne stavove te zanemarivanje potrebnih organizacijskih promjena, dok će umjerena količina konstruktivnih konflikata povećati inventivnost, kreativnost, a potom i konkurentnost poduzeća. Ova suvremena perspektiva ukazuje na moguće funkcionalno, pozitivno djelovanje konflikata koji kao takvi poboljšavaju sveukupan organizacijski potencijal.²

Sukladno tome raste i važnost razvijanja vještina i sposobnosti menadžera da se s konfliktima suočavaju, pozitivno ih usmjeravaju, odnosno njima vješto rukovode. Menadžeri bi konflikte trebali prihvaćati i «iskorištavati» kao izvore različitosti. Naime, nepostojanje konflikata značilo bi ili da težimo da svi žele isto, što je ponajprije nerealno, pa onda i neprihvatljivo, ili da nitko nema nekih osobnih htijenja, odnosno motiva koji ga pokreću na akciju, što je ponovno neprihvatljivo, ponajprije zato što ne bi dovodilo do napretka. Stoga konflikt možemo tumačiti kao boj između različitih htijenja (motivacija), a za izlazak iz konfliktne situacije potrebno je definirati zajedničko htijenje i zajednički cilj³ te pronaći put za njegovu realizaciju. U suprotnom, rješenje konflikta ili konfliktnu rezoluciju očekivat ćemo u obliku nadvladavanja jednog htijenja drugim, što vrlo rijetko može biti funkcionalno.

Cilj je ovog rada analitički istražiti poimanje konfliktnog procesa u organizacijama. U ovom radu konfliktu pristupamo kao dinamičnom i u organizaciji uvijek prisutnom procesu, sa zadaćom pronalaženja načina kako se prema njemu optimalno odnositi. Pritom smo krenuli od općeprihvaćenih teoretskih postavki kojima se definiraju pojmovi iz organizacije i menadžmenta, organizacijskih konflikata i prikazuju njihovi uzroci i mogući oblici te metode i stilovi njihova rješavanja⁴.

¹ Bahtijarević-Šiber, F. Zadaci menadžera u upravljanju konfliktima u poduzećima, Računovodstvo i financije, br. 5, Zagreb, 1993., str. 56. Robbins, S. P. Bitni elementi organizacijskog ponašanja, Treće izdanje, MATE, Zagreb, 1993., str. 174. Nikolić, V. Konflikti u organizaciji, magistarski rad, Ekonomski fakultet Zagreb, Zagreb, 2001., str. 29.

² Gordon, J. R. Organizational Behavior – a diagnostic approach, Prentice Hall, Inc., New Jersey, 1998., str. 279-281.; Greenberg, J. Managing behavior in Organizations, Second edition, Prentice-Hall Inc., 1996., U.S.A., str. 269.

³ Lipičnik, B. Ravnanje z ljudmi pri delu (human resources management), Gospodarski vestnik, Ljubljana, 1998., str. 265.

⁴ Primjerice: Sikavica, P., Novak, M. Poslovna organizacija, Informator, Zagreb, 1993., str. 625-649. Kraitner, R., Kinecki, A. Organizational Behavior, Irwin, U.S.A., 1992., str. 378.; Robbins, S. P. Organizational Behavior – concepts, controversies, applications, seventh edition, Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1995., str. 504-518. Nahavandi, A., Malekzadeh, A. R. Organizational Behavior – the person-organisation fit, Prentice Hall, New Jersey, 1998. str.

Kada se organizacijski konflikt razmatra kao proces, još uvijek je uobičajeno prisutan fazni konfliktni tijek koji je 1967. postavio Louis R. Pondy, s eventualnim osobnim autorskim nadopunama ili dodatnim pojašnjenjima. Međutim, zanimljivo je da je on svoje konfliktne modele i fazni tijek konfliktnog procesa dvadesetak godina kasnije u samokritičkom osvrtu javno osporio s težnjom da se promijene stavovi i razviju suvremenije interpretacije konfliktnih procesa u organizaciji.⁵ Unatoč tome veći je broj autora i dalje sklon tumačenju razvojnog ciklusa organizacijskih konfliktata modelima koji su postali klasici. Takvo je stremljenje posebno prisutno u udžbenicima gdje je Pondyjeva ili Thomasova podjela konfliktnog procesa na razvojne faze gotovo neizostavna.⁶ To i ne čudi s obzirom na to da je riječ o modelima koji su postali dominantne teoretske paradigme, ali začuđuje što još uvijek nije prisutan alternativni pristup konfliktnim procesima, jer kako Pondy kaže: brzina i učestalost pojave i razvoja konfliktata u suvremenom organizacijskom poslovanju ne dopuštaju fokusiranje na razvojne faze svakog pojedinog sukoba u organizaciji.

U smjeru Pondyjevog alternativnog savjeta, najprihvatljivijim se čini pristup A. M. Rahima koji predlaže menadžment organizacijskih konfliktata uporabom makroorganizacijske strategije i kreiranjem slike sveukupnih konfliktata u organizaciji, čime se pomiče fokus s pojedinačnih konfliktnih procesa.

Konfliktni proces

Mnogi su autori iz područja menadžmenta konfliktata prihvatili sukob kao dinamičan proces koji ne nastaje odjednom, traje određeno vrijeme i zato prolazi kroz nekoliko razvojnih faza. Iako autori nisu suglasni u imenovanju i broju faza kroz koje konflikt prolazi, Pondyjeva je model organizacijskih konfliktata navođen i prihvaćen u većoj mjeri zbog čega je dosegao status «dominantne paradigme».⁷

Pondyjevu podjelu konfliktnog procesa na razvojne faze, s minimalnim izmjenama, doradama ili pojašnjenjima, u svojim su razmatranjima organizacijskih konfliktnih procesa prihvatili

463.; Nikolić, V. Konflikti u organizaciji, magistarski rad, Ekonomski Fakultet Zagreb, Zagreb, 2001.; Bahtijarević-Šiber, F. Zadaci menadžera u upravljanju konfliktima u poduzećima, Računovodstvo i financije, br. 5, Zagreb, 1993.str. 55-65.; Novak, M. Uloga konfliktata u poslovanju i organizaciji poduzeća, Ekonomski pregled (5-6), Informator, Zagreb, 1993.str. 337-357.; Pondy, L. R. Organizational Conflict: Concepts and Models, Administrative Science Quarterly, Vol. 12, September 1967., str. 296-320.; Možina, S. Participativno rešavanje konfliktov v organizaciji, www.delavska-participacija.cdu/clanki/doc (ožujak, 2008.)

⁵ Pondy, L. R. Reflections on Organizational Conflict, Journal of Organizational Change Management, Vol. 2, 1989., str.94-99.

⁶ Primjerice: Robbins, S. P. Organizational Behavior-concepts, controversies, applications, seventh edition, Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1995., str. 507.; Sikavica, P., Novak, M. Poslovna organizacija, Informator, Zagreb, 1993., str. 639.; Dunham, R. B. Organizational Behavior, Irwin, Inc., U.S.A., 1984., str. 345.; Gordon, J. R. Organizational behavior- a diagnostic approach, Prentice Hall, Inc., New Jersey, 1998., str. 277.; Mc Shane, S. L., Von Glinow, M. A. Organizational Behavior, 3e, Mc Grow-Hill, Irwin, 2005., New York., str. 388.

⁷ Lewicki, R. J., Weiss, S. E., Lewin, D. Models of conflict, negotiation and third party intervention: A review and synthesis, Journal of Organizational Behavior, Vol. 13, 1992.,str. 212. i 242. «Pondy je izradio prvi teoretski model organizacijskih konfliktata u poduzećima i njegovi se radovi najčešće navode kad se raspravlja o konfliktnom procesu i njegovoj podjeli na faze (elemente)...» u: Novak, M. Uloga konfliktata u poslovanju i organizaciji poduzeća, Ekonomski pregled, 44 (5-6), Informator, Zagreb, 1993, str. 347.

mnogi autori.⁸ Sikavica, P. navodi Pondyjeve faze konfliktnog procesa kao one koje se uz Rahimove⁹ najčešće citiraju.

Louis R. Pondy smatrao je, u razdoblju kada je razvio koncepte i modele organizacijskih konflikata, da se konflikt može lakše i bolje razumjeti ako se razmatra kao dinamičan proces koji se razvija u sekvencama konfliktnih epizoda. Identificirao je pet faza kroz koje prolazi **konfliktna epizoda**.¹⁰

1. **Faza latentnog konflikta.** Konflikt je prikriven, iako već postoje uvjeti koji bi ga mogli prouzročiti. Pondy smatra da latentne konflikte uvjetuje natjecanje oko nedovoljnih sredstava, različiti ciljevi ili težnje za autonomijom. Istovremeno može biti prisutno više tipova latentnih konflikata.
2. **Faza percepcije konflikta** u kojoj jedna ili obje strane postaju svjesne latentnog sukoba. Izrečena su različita mišljenja, postalo je jasno da su ciljevi (ili vrijednosti) različiti te tada jedna (ili više osoba) postaje svjesna potencijalnog sukoba, što znači da je konflikt prešao u novu razvojnu fazu. Postoje različite situacije u percepciji konflikata. Na primjer, konflikt se ponekad percipira, iako ga realno nema u latentnom obliku (primjerice sudionici konflikta se nisu dovoljno dobro razumjeli što se rješava poboljšanjem kvalitete komuniciranja) ili je pak latentni konflikt prisutan, a sudionici odnosa ga nisu percipirali (što se objašnjava mehanizmima potiskivanja i fokusiranjem pažnje na samo neke organizacijske konflikte dok drugi ostaju nezamijećeni). Taj je mehanizam uočavanja samo nekih, a ne svih konflikata više vezan za organizacijsko ponašanje negoli za osobne vrijednosti. Budući da su organizacije suočene s velikim brojem organizacijskih konflikata, normalna je reakcija da je pažnja usmjerena na samo neke od njih s tendencijom da su to oni koji se mogu rješavati u kratkom roku i rutinskim metodama. Da bi se organizacije uspješno nosile s onim zahtjevnijim, nerutinskim konfliktima, često je potrebno osnivati posebne organizacijske jedinice koje će se njima baviti.
3. **Faza u kojoj se konflikt osjeća.** Radi se o „personalizaciji konflikta“. Jedna ili obje konfliktne strane, kao rezultat nerazumijevanja ili razilaženja mišljenja iz prethodne faze procesa, počinju osjećati tenzije, anksioznost i druge neugodne osjećaje.
4. **Faza manifestiranog konflikta.** U ovoj je fazi točno utvrđeno neprijateljsko ponašanje između sudionika konflikta. Konfliktno ponašanje može se manifestirati na razne načine, od potpune apatije do otvorene agresije koja je u okviru organizacijskih normi, pravila i procedura ipak rijetka. Ponašanje se može okarakterizirati konfliktnim isključivo ukoliko ga poneki ili svi sudionici konflikta takvim percipiraju. Uz to, onaj koji se ponaša konfliktno to mora činiti svjesno.
5. **Posljedična faza.** Faza u kojoj se vide rezultati očitog konflikta. U ovoj je fazi konflikt ili riješen ili nije otkriveno zadovoljavajuće rješenje pa se on ponovno vraća u fazu latentnog konflikta te započinje nova konfliktna epizoda.

⁸ Gordon, J. R. Organizational Behavior, a diagnostic approach, Prentice Hall, New Jersey, 1998., str.277.; Novak, M. Uloga konflikata u poslovanju i organizaciji poduzeća, Ekonomski pregled, 44 (5-6), Informator, Zagreb, 1993, str. 347.; Hodge, B. J., Anthony, W. P. Organization Theory, 3. izdanje, Boston, MA: Allyn & Bacon Inc, 1988., str. 563.

⁹ M. A. Rahimov fazni tijek sukoba odvija se kroz pet etapa: 1. Prethodni uvjeti, u obliku razlika među ljudima u poduzeću prema dobi, spolu, obrazovanju, karakteristikama ličnosti itd. 2. Promjene u ponašanju nakon što je sukob započeo, misli se na agresivnije ponašanje. 3. Formulacija strukture

stanje u kojem akteri sukoba zbog nepodnošljivih tenzija komuniciraju samo formalno (pismeno, službeno i sl.).

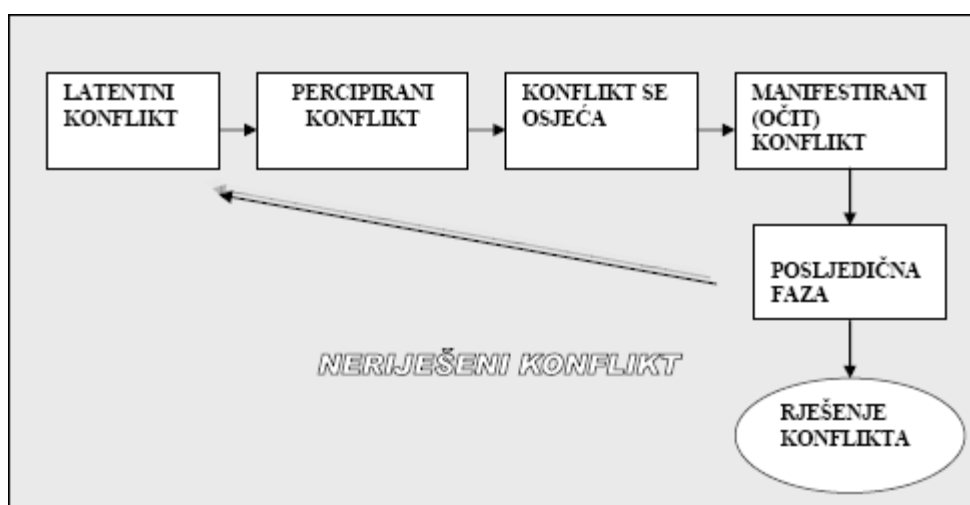
4. Proces odlučivanja o drukčijem načinu donošenja odluka npr. arbitriranjem.

5. Posljedična faza. Prema: Sikavica, P., Novak, M. Poslovna organizacija, treće izdanje, Informator, Zagreb, 1999., str.640.

¹⁰ Pondy, L. R. Organizational Conflict: Concepts and Models, Administrative Science Quarterly, Vol. 12, September 1967., str. 296-320.

Slika 1

Faze konfliktnog procesa, konfliktna epizoda (Pondy, L. R.)

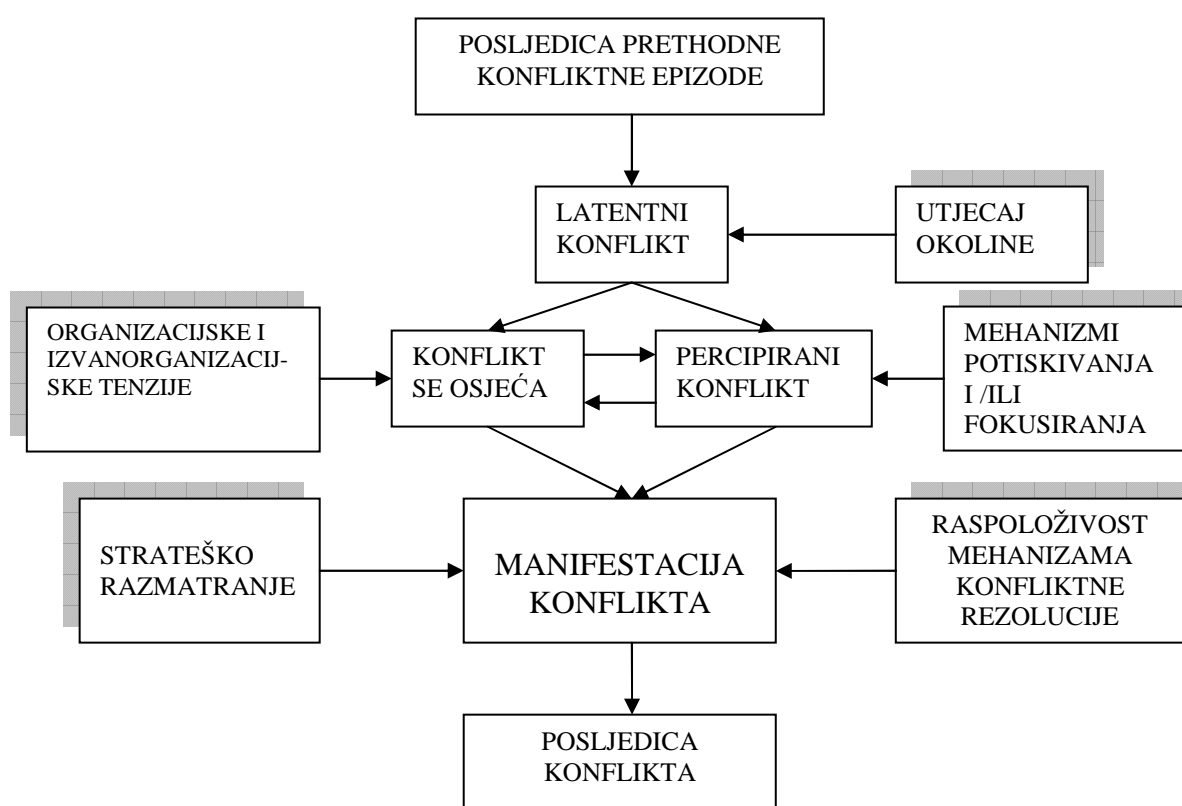


Izvor: Prilagođeno prema: Gordon, J. R. Organizational Behavior – a diagnostic approach, Prentice Hall, Inc., New Jersey, 1998., str. 278.

Ovih je pet faza konfliktnog procesa okvir za istraživanje strukture konfliktna epizode, a upravo zato što imaju strukturu konflikti se mogu dijagnosticirati i kontrolirati, kaže L. R. Pondy. Razvoj svake pojedine epizode ovisi o kombinaciji učinaka prijašnjih konflikata i uvjeta iz okoline (organizacija nije zatvoreni sustav, tako će primjerice okolina u kojoj organizacija može podmiriti nedostatke resursa zbog kojih izbijaju konflikti imati benevolentan učinak na konfliktu tijekom). To je prikazano na slici 2.

Slika 2

Dinamika konfliktne epizode (Pondy, L. R.)



Izvor: Pondy, L. R. Organizational Conflict: Concepts and Models, Administrative Science Quarterly, Vol. 12, September 1967., str. 306.

Keneth W. Thomas autor je modela faznog razvoja konflikata koji je u teoriji konfliktnog menadžmenta također vrlo često citiran.¹¹ On smatra da se konfliktni proces odvija kroz *fazu frustracije, fazu konceptualizacije, fazu ponašanja, fazu reakcije suprotne strane i posljedičnu fazu*. Proces koji se odvijaju u različitim fazama gotovo su isti kao i u Pondyjevom modelu (koji je autor imao potrebu nadograditi i usavršiti)¹². Osim različitog

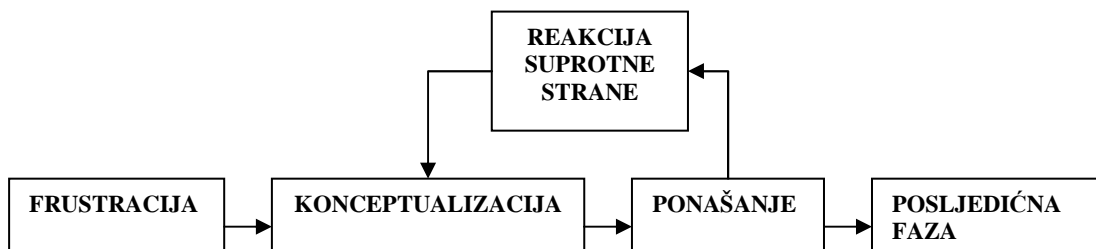
¹¹ Dunham, R. B. Organizational Behavior, Irwin, Inc., U.S.A., 1984., str. 345.; prema: Thomas, K. W. Conflict and conflict management, Handbook of industrial and organizational psychology, Chicago, 1976., str. 889.

¹² Lewicki, R. J., Weiss, S. E., Lewin, D. Models of conflict, negotiation and third party intervention: A review and synthesis, Journal of Organizational Behavior, Vol. 13, 1992., str. 212.

imenovanja faza, razvijeniji su ponuđeni mehanizmi i strategije rješavanja konflikata. Ono što je jedinstveno i ističe se u Thomasovom modelu jest dinamički *loop* konfliktnog procesa: sukobljene strane za vrijeme trajanja sukoba mijenjaju ponašanje i stilove rješavanja konflikata kao odgovor na strateški izbor i ponašanje suparnika.¹³ Ovaj se dinamički element može puno puta ponavljati do konačne rezolucije konflikta.

Slika 3

Faze konfliktnog procesa (Thomas, K.W.)



Izvor: Dunham, R. B. Organizational Behavior, Irwin, Inc., U.S.A., 1984., str. 346.; prilagođeno prema: Thomas, K. W. Conflict and conflict management, Handbook of industrial and organizational psychology, Chicago, 1976, str. 889.

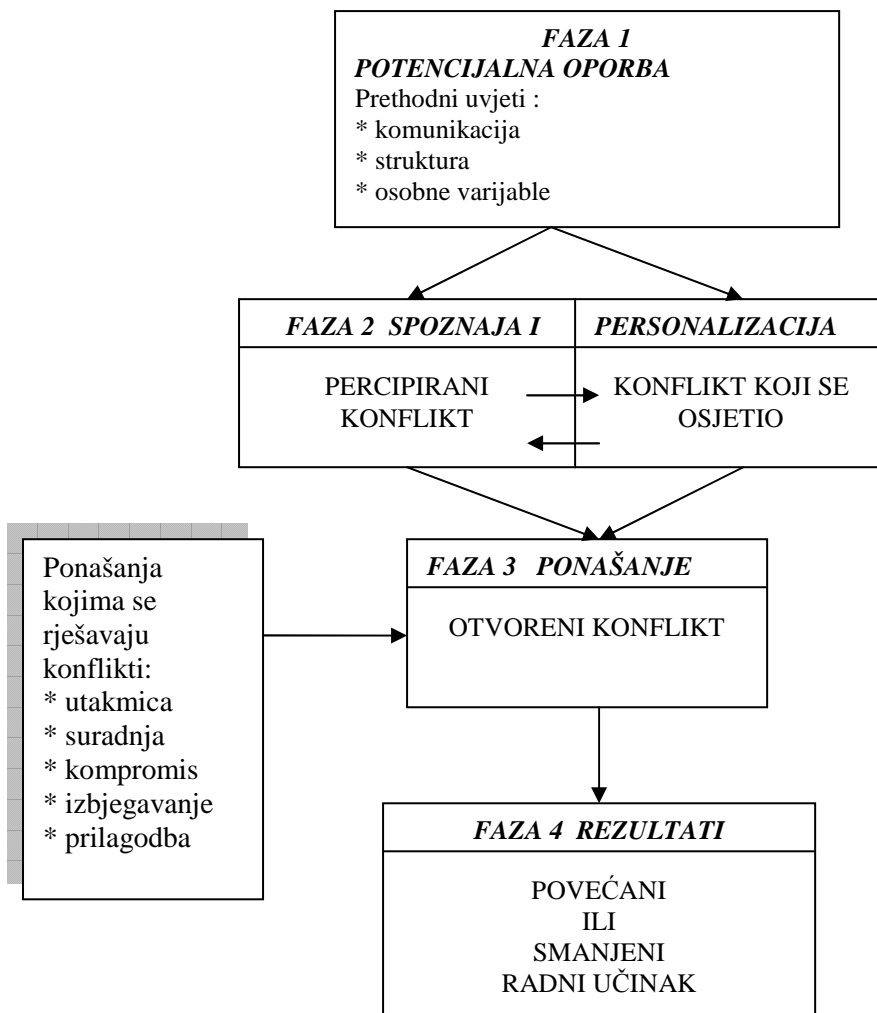
S. P. Robbins je u interpretaciji razvoja konflikta kroz nekoliko epizoda, čini se, sintetizirao Pondyjevu i Thomasovu faznu podjelu konfliktnog procesa uz, naravno, autorsko nadograđivanje i oplemenjivanje.¹⁴ Njegovo mišljenje o fazama konfliktnog procesa sintetizirano je na slici 4.

¹³ Misli se na segment slike 3. PONAŠANJE – REAKCIJA SUPROTNE STRANE – KONCEPTUALIZACIJA – PONAŠANJE.

¹⁴ Robbins, S. P. Organizational Behavior – concepts, controversies, applications, Seventh edition, Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1995., str. 508

Slika 4

Proces konflikta (Robbins, S. P.)



Izvor: Robbins, S. P. Bitni elementi organizacijskog ponašanja, 3. izdanje, MATE, Zagreb, 1993., 177. str.

Teoretičari raznih znanstvenih područja proučavaju dinamiku i sustavni razvoj organizacijskog konflikta s težnjom da unaprijede postojeće znanstvene zaključke te nadopune postojeću teoriju ili je usavrše dodatnim, inventivnijim pojašnjenjima.¹⁵

Ipak, očito je da se Pondyjeva i Thomasova razgradnja konfliktnog procesa na faze (etape) najviše citiraju ili su osnova za nova autorska promišljanja i nadogradnju.¹⁶ Stoga se možemo suglasiti da je osnova promatranja konfliktnog procesa koji prolazi kroz nekoliko razvojnih faza postavljena u ranim Pondyjevim i Thomasovim modelima. U njima sukob započinje pojavom uzroka i uvjeta, razvija se do manifestirane eskalacije, a u posljednjoj razvojnoj fazi traži se prikladno rješenje da bi se potom očitovale posljedice konflikata. Pritom je većina autora suglasna u tome da se, zbog različitosti okružja u kojima se sukobi odvijaju i individualnih karakteristika sudionika, ne moraju pojaviti sve razvojne faze.

Samokritičan osvrt Louisa R. Pondyja

*„My 1967 conflict model was right for its time. It presented conflict as an aberration, as a breakdown in standard processes, as a temporary outbreak or outcropping in the otherwise smooth flow of a stable and cooperative set of relationships that made up an organization.“*¹⁷

Kao što je već naglašeno, otkad je 1967. Pondy objavio svoje viđenje organizacijskih konflikata, mnogi se autori kontinuirano pozivaju na njegov model organizacijskih konflikata i epizodni tijek konfliktnog procesa.

Godine 1992. objavljen je analitički pregled dostupnih teoretskih dostignuća iz područja organizacijskih konflikata.¹⁸ Autori razlučuju 44 dominantna modela konflikata i konfliktne rezolucije s namjerom poticanja novih istraživanja i rasprava. U citiranom radu ističu nekoliko značajnijih modela koji su općeprihvaćeni kao paradigme među kojima je i Pondyjeva model iz 1967., iako u praksi nikad nije bio testiran niti su postavljeni temelji (u obliku mjerljivih varijabli) za eventualna buduća istraživanja.¹⁹ To začuđuje i samog Louisa R. Pondyja što i objelodanjuje u samokritičnom osvrtu na vlastiti članak *Organizational Conflict: Concepts and Models*.²⁰ Štoviše, dvadesetak godina kasnije Pondy smatra svoj prijašnji pristup konfliktu posve pogrešnim te zaključuje da je prikaz konflikta, kao iznenadnog i benignog organizacijskog događaja koji se odvija kroz epizode s određenom

¹⁵ Morrill, C., Thomas, C. K. Organizational Conflict Management as Disputing Process; The Problem of Social Escalation, Human Communication Research, Vol. 18, No. 3, March 1992., str. 400-428. Autori sumiraju antropološka i etnografska istraživanja procesne i systemske prirode konflikata (prema Bergman & Volkema, 1989.; Kolb & Bartunek, 1992.; Morrill, 1989.; Black, 1984., 1990.) te navode tri faze konfliktnog procesa: 1. **Faza u kojoj se pojavljuju uzroci konflikta** te pojedinac (ili grupa) percipira povredu normi, pravila, standarda. 2. **Konflikt**, odnosno direktno ili indirektno sučeljavanje uzroka među pojedincima ili grupama. 3. **Sporenje** kao posljednja faza u kojoj sukobi postaju javni i zahtijevaju intervenciju treće strane.

¹⁶ Lewicki, R. J., Weiss, S. E., Lewin, D. Models of conflict, negotiation and third party intervention: A review and synthesis, Journal of Organizational Behavior, Vol. 13, 1992., str. 212-214.; Dunham, R. B. Organizational Behavior, Irwin, Inc., U.S.A., 1984., str. 346.

Novak, M. Uloga konflikata u poslovanju i organizaciji poduzeća, Ekonomski pregled, 44 (5-6), Informator, Zagreb, 1993, str. 347. Gordon, J. R. *Organizational Behavior, a diagnostic approach*, Prentice Hall, New Jersey, 1998.; Hodge, B. J., Anthony, W. P. Organization Theory, 3. izdanje, Boston, MA: Allyn & Bacon Inc, 1988., str. 563.; Sikavica, P., Novak, M. Poslovna organizacija, Treće izdanje, Informator, Zagreb, 1999., str.640.

¹⁷ Pondy, L. R. Reflections on Organizational Conflict, Journal of Organizational Change Management, Vol. 2, 1989., str. 94.

¹⁸ Lewicki, R. J., Weiss, S. E., Lewin, D.: Models of conflict, negotiation and third party intervention: A review and synthesis, Journal of Organizational Behavior, Vol. 13, 1992., str. 209.- 252.

¹⁹ Ibidem, str. 212.

²⁰ Pondy, L. R.: Organizational Conflict: Concept and Models, Administrative Science Quarterly, sep. 1967., Vol. 12, Issue 2, str. 296-320.

strukturu, bio previše primamljiv i utješan da bi se osporavao daljnjim znanstvenim istraživanjima.²¹

U Pondyjevom konfliktnom modelu iz 1967. organizacija je predstavljena kao *kooperativni sustav* s jasno definiranim ciljevima i svrhom postojanja, u kojem je suradnja povremeno narušena konfliktima. Konflikti su tada objašnjeni kao neizbježni procesi koji povremeno izviru iz različitih ciljeva, želje za autonomijom ili natjecanja za nedovoljnim resursima, a ukoliko se na vrijeme dijagnosticiraju i kontroliraju, mogu biti funkcionalni i pozitivni. Ono što Louis R. Pondy smatra fundamentalnom pogreškom jest prikaz organizacije kao *kooperativnog sustava* u kojem se povremeno događaju konflikti zbog čega se nikad ne postiže savršena harmonija međuljudskih odnosa. Ako se organizacija shvaća kao *kooperativni sustav* konflikt se u takvom sustavu nužno tumači kao nekakav defekt i ometanje suradnje, iako je prihvaćena njegova neizbježnost i moguća funkcionalnost. Od menadžera se u takvom kooperativnom sustavu zahtijevaju vještine praćenja faznog razvoja sukoba, dijagnosticiranja uzroka, određivanja aktera te kontroliranja konflikta da bi se spriječila eskalacija u agresivnija ponašanja. Menadžer je predstavljen kao "dirigent" što je prema autoru daleko od istine.

Nova, alternativna interpretacija za koju se L. R. Pondy odlučuje je organizacija u kojoj je suradnja povremena, a konflikti su stalno prisutna organizacijska pojava. Stoga bi realnije bilo prikazati model koji opisuje dinamiku epizode suradnje koja se povremeno pojavljuje u neprestano konfliktnom odnosu (ili odnosima).

Prema autorovom alternativnom modelu, konflikt se ne shvaća samo funkcionalnom već i krucijalnom organizacijskom pojavom.²² Zašto? Neki znanstvenici, a posebno se tu ističe Karl Weick²³, zastupaju tezu da organizacija funkcionira unutar suprotnosti: izlaganja riziku i izbjegavanja rizika; kreativnosti i efikasnosti. Kad konflikata ne bi bilo, jedan od ovih ekstrema postao bi dominantan. Konflikt igra ključnu ulogu u balansiranju suprotstavljenih tendencija i očuvanju raznolikosti koja je neminovna za organizacijsko postojanje i prilagodbu okolini.

Svrha kreiranja novog modela, koji je Pondy nazvao *konfliktnim sustavom*, nije u pružanju mjerljivih varijabli i mogućnosti za praktična istraživanja, već usmjeravanje pažnje na prethodno neprepoznate fenomene i promjenu mišljenja o procesu organizacijskih konflikata.

Kako danas upravljati konfliktnim procesima?

Iz sadašnje perspektive, prema kojoj su konflikti učestali i važni segmenti organizacijskog ponašanja, Pondyjevo je prvotno razmatranje konfliktnog procesa doista zastarjelo, ali ne i fundamentalno pogrešno, već predstavlja vrlo kvalitetnu osnovu za suvremena znanstvena proučavanja koja bi se trebala uzdići iznad postavljenih temelja. Menadžment organizacijskih konflikata usmjeren na pojedinačne konfliktne tijekove i

²¹ Pondy, L. R.: Reflections on Organizational Conflict, Journal of Organizational Change Management, Vol. 2, 1989., str. 96.

²² Pondy suprotstavljenu refleksiju naziva alternativnim modelom pa se nameće pitanje je li ispravno mišljenje i interpretaciju, nešto što nije mjerljivo i istraženo, nazivati modelom? Alternativni model jedino u smislu suprotstavljanja konfliktnom modelu iz 1967., kada ga je također samoinicijativno prozvao modelom i to je bilo općeprihvaćeno. Premda autor u članku kaže da bi alternativni model trebalo detaljnije doraditi i razviti te da mu nije cilj postaviti teoretski model koji je moguće istražiti, već je njegova svrha skretanja pažnje na prethodno neprepoznate fenomene i procese te promijeni način razmišljanja.

²³ Pondy, L. R. Reflections on Organizational Conflict, Journal of Organizational Change Management, Vol. 2, 1989., str. 97.

uglavnom interpersonalne ili intergrupne konflikte u poduzeću, u okvirima suvremene organizacijske dinamike, ne može biti uspješan.

Alternativa takvom *conflict managementu* je holistička, makroperspektiva koju predlaže M. A. Rahim²⁴ te zaključuje: «Ono što je suvremenim organizacijama potrebno je menadžment konflikta, a ne konfliktna rezolucija. Menadžment konflikta ne sugerira redukciju, eliminiranje i vremensko ograničavanje konflikata, već podrazumijeva kreiranje makroorganizacijske strategije koje će svesti na minimum negativne učinke konflikata i ojačati njihove konstruktivne funkcije te tako pridonijeti organizacijskom učenju i organizacijskoj uspješnosti.» Stoga je prema istoimenom autoru srž uspješnog upravljanja konfliktnim procesima makroorganizacijska strategija koja:

a) Svodi na minimum afektivne konflikte u organizaciji. Afektivni konflikti pojavljuju se zbog različitih i oprečnih osjećaja u komunikaciji.²⁵ Takve međusobne nekompatibilnosti rezultiraju tenzijama, ljutnjom, neprijateljskim raspoloženjem, nepovjerenjem, frustracijom, osjećajem ugroženosti i strahom. Ove će negativne emocije ometati kognitivne funkcije, obradu i razmjenu složenih informacija. Kad je unutar grupe prisutan afektivni konflikt, članovi će ulagati velike količine svoje potencijalno radne energije u pokušaje ignoriranja ili rješavanja sukoba, što ih svakako odvlači od obavljanja poslovnih obaveza i umanjuje grupne performance.

b) Potiče i održava umjerenu količinu kognitivnih konflikata. Kognitivne konflikte uzrokuje neslaganje članova grupe o određenom sadržaju poslovnog zadatka koji zajedno izvršavaju (razlike u gledištima, idejama, mišljenjima), što je vrlo često izvor kreativnih različitosti koje su poduzećima prijeko potrebne. Ukoliko je riječ o složenim poslovnim zadacima i problemima koji se ne rješavaju rutinski, smatra se da kognitivni konflikt može poboljšati individualne i grupne performance jer umjerena količina konfliktnih rasprava može bitno doprinijeti grupnoj kreativnosti i razumijevanju različitih stavova. Prijeđe li se granica optimalne razine konflikata, česte rasprave i manjak konsenzusa usporavat će aktivnosti te otežavati poslovnu produktivnost. S druge strane, radi li se o poslovnim zadacima koji se obavljaju rutinski, tu ne postoji optimalna količina konflikata jer će svaki umanjiti efikasnost procesiranja informacija.

c) Omogućuje izbor i uporabu odgovarajućih pristupa upravljanja konfliktima. Postoji nekoliko temeljnih orijentacija, odnosno načina upravljanja organizacijskim konfliktima koje se analiziraju i diferenciraju na temelju odnosa dimenzija kooperativnosti i asertivnosti: *kompeticija, suradnja, kompromis, izbjegavanje i prilagođavanje*.²⁶ Navedeni su načini upravljanja konfliktima u menadžmentu općeprihvaćeni i spominju se u gotovo cjelokupnoj literaturi koja tretira konflikte.²⁷ Nužno je da se svi zaposleni, unutar koncepcije

²⁴ Rahim, M. A. Toward a theory of managing organizational conflict, *The International Journal of Conflict Management*, Vol. 13, No. 3, 2002., p. 206-235.

²⁵ Bahtijarević-Šiber, F., Sikavica, P. i dr. *Leksikon menadžmenta*, Masmedia, Zagreb, 2001., str.14.

²⁶ Robbins, S. P. *Organizational Behavior – concepts, controversies, applications*, seventh edition, Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1995., str. 511., a prema: Thomas, K. *Conflict and Negotiation Processes in Organizations* in M. D. Dunette ed., *Handbook of Industrial and organizational Psychology*, New York, 1992., p. 668.

²⁷ Vidi npr.: Robbins, S. P. *Organizational Behavior-concepts, models, controversies, applications*, seventh edition, Prentice Hall, Inc., 1995., str. 511.; Gordon, J. R. *Organizational Behavior-a diagnostic approach*, Prentice Hall, Inc., New Jersey, 1998., str. 281.; Bahtijarević-Šiber, F. *Zadaci menadžera u upravljanju konfliktima u poduzećima*, *Računovodstvo i financije*, br. 5, Zagreb, str. 62.; Sikavica, P., Novak, M. *Poslovna organizacija*, Informator, Zagreb, 1993., str. 647.

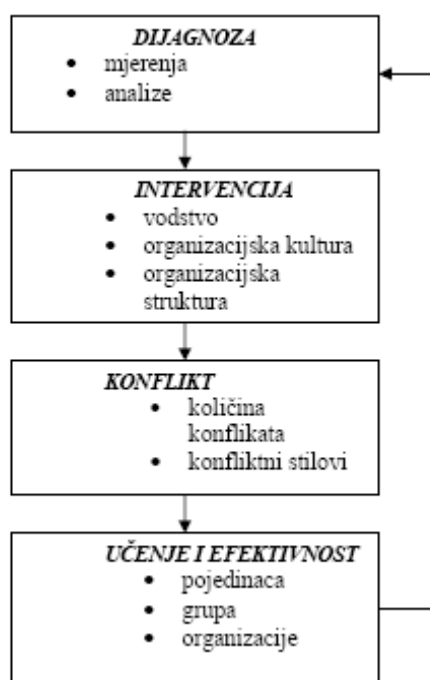
Neki ih autori nazivaju pristupima i strategijama upravljanja konfliktima (primjerice: Sikavica, P., Novak, M. *Poslovna organizacija*, Informator, Zagreb, 1993., str. 647.; Bahtijarević-Šiber, F. *Zadaci menadžera u upravljanju konfliktima u poduzećima*, *Računovodstvo i financije*, br. 5, Zagreb, str. 62.; Dunham, R. B. *Organizational Behavior*, Irwin, Inc., 1984., U.S.A., 347.str.), ali primjetno je da ih većina autora naziva stilovima ili načinima rješavanja konflikata što smatramo prihvatljivijim. Primjerice Rahim M. A. koristi termin „*Styles of Handling Conflicts*“ (Rahim, M. A. Toward a theory of managing organizational conflict, str. 28., str.

- organizacije

organizacijskog učenja i učenja kroz poslovna iskustva (engl. *learning at work* ili *on-the-job-experience*) kontinuirano educiraju da bi mogli samostalno i u različitim situacijama rješavati interpersonalne konflikte na najefikasniji način. Pojedinci mogu uspješno rješavati konflikte ukoliko su upoznati s učincima različitih stilova rješavanja sukoba, te umiju odabrati stil upravljanja konfliktom koji će u konkretnoj situaciji biti najučinkovitiji.²⁸ Robbins i Hunsaker smatraju da će pojedinci uspješno upravljati sukobom nakon što su, prije svega, odredili za njih karakterističan i uobičajen stil upravljanja sukobom te procijenili koliko ih sputava ili pridonosi rješavanju konkretnog sukoba. Potom je važno razlučiti važne od nevažnih sukoba, evaluirati suprotstavljenu stranu, odrediti uzrok sukoba i u konačnici odabrati najbolju opciju, odnosno način rješavanja.²⁹

Proces upravljanja organizacijskim konfliktima koji zadovoljava kriterije makro organizacijskog pristupa prikazuje slika 5.

Slika 5
PROCES UPRAVLJANJA KONFLIKTOM



Izvor: Rahim, M. A. *Toward a theory of managing organizational conflict*, The International Journal of Conflict Management, Vol. 13, No. 3, 2002., str. 222.

Dijagnoza - Prvi korak u procesu upravljanja konfliktima je dijagnoza uzroka i učinaka svih vrsta konflikata u organizaciji. Opsežno dijagnosticiranje omogućuju *mjerjenja*:

221.); Robbins S. P. naziva ih „Conflict-Handling Intentions“ (Robbins, S. P. *Organizational Behavior-concepts, models, controversies, applications*, seventh edition, Prentice Hall, Inc., 1995., str. 511.) Gordon, J. R. kaže da su to „interpersonal techniques“, „styles to deal with conflict“ ili „at least five behaviors for dealing with conflict“ (Gordon, J. R. *Organizational Behavior-a diagnostic approach*, Prentice Hall, Inc., New Jersey, 1998., str. 281.)

²⁸ Robbins, S. P., Hunsaker, P. L. *Training in Interpersonal Skills – TIPS for Managing People at Work*, 4th edition, Upper Saddle River, NJ, Pearson Education, Inc., str. 320.

²⁹ Ibidem, str. 318-321.

a) količine afektivnih i kognitivnih konflikata u organizaciji (utvrđivanje je li njihovo pojavljivanje nedovoljno, umjereno ili prečesto);

b) podataka o strategijama kojima članovi organizacije rješavaju interpersonalne, intragrupne i intergrupne konflikte (misli se na pet popularnih mogućih stilova postupanja u konfliktnoj situaciji - kompeticija, suradnja, kompromis, izbjegavanje ili prilagođavanje);

c) traženje uzroka za a) i b) te

d) stupnja individualnog, grupnog i organizacijskog učenja i uspješnosti.³⁰

Analizom dobivenih rezultata menadžeri, kojima je preokupacija menadžment konflikta, i eventualno angažirani vanjski stručni suradnici doći će do zaključka o tome je li potrebna bilo kakva intervencija u organizaciji.

Za razliku od Pondyjevog prvotnog pristupa konfliktu, gdje se on restrukturira na razvojne etape i na taj način dijagnosticira i kontrolira, ovdje je pažnja usmjerena na cjelokupnu konfliktnu masu, na ukupnu pojavnost konflikata u organizaciji, što je dovoljno za procjenu je li potrebna intervencija menadžera. Ovakav pogled na organizacijske konflikte vrlo je sličan sekundarnom Pondyjevom mišljenju da je bolje prikazivati strukturu "epizoda suradnje" u organizaciji jer su konflikti uobičajene i svakodnevne organizacijske pojave te je nemoguće pratiti njihove pojedinačne epizode.

Intervencija - Ukoliko se utvrdi da je u organizaciji prisutna prevelika količina afektivnih konflikata, nedovoljno ili previše kognitivnih konflikata, te da pojedinci nisu dovoljno uspješni u rješavanju konflikata, potrebna je intervencija.

Prema Rahimu su dva moguća tipa intervencije:

1. Procesni pristup usmjeren je na promjenu količine afektivnih i kognitivnih konflikata u poduzeću i edukaciju članova organizacije o pravilnom izboru načina rješavanja konflikata u različitim situacijama. Procesni pristup često podrazumijeva promjenu vodstva i organizacijske kulture. Karakteristike vodstva koje je prikladno za ovakvu intervenciju, prema Rahimu, pronalaze se u pojmu *transformacijsko vodstvo*. Transformacijsko vodstvo inovativno je, inspirativno i usmjereno na provođenje organizacijskih promjena, organizacijski napredak i razvoj.³¹ Sposobno je motivirati zaposlene da prepoznaju vlastite sposobnosti i poboljšaju individualne performanse. U jednom je istraživanju identificirano šest načela ponašanja transformacijskog vodstva³²: sposobnost oblikovanja jasne i privlačne vizije, služenje kao primjer i model podređenima, poticanje na prihvaćanje grupnih ciljeva, veća očekivanja od zaposlenih (težnja za povećanjem individualnih i grupnih performansi), pružanje individualne podrške te sposobnost intelektualne stimulacije (poticanje na kreativno, kritičko i inovativno razmišljanje i rješavanje problema). Autentičnog transformacijskog vođu karakteriziraju visoki moralni i etički standardi koje nastoji prenijeti u obrasce ponašanja podređenih. Srž njegovog vođenja drugima je

³⁰ Za mjerenja afektivnih i kognitivnih konflikata na interpersonalnoj, intragrupnoj i intergrupnoj razini može se koristiti instrument razvijen kod Jehna (Jehn, K.A. Enhancing effectiveness: An investigation of advantages and disadvantages of value-based intragroup conflict., International Journal of Conflict Management, 5, 223-238.).

Rahim Organizational Conflict Inventory-II (ROCI-II) može se upotrijebiti za mjerenja upotrebe različitih stilova upravljanja organizacijskim konfliktima (Rahim, M. A. A measure of styles of handling interpersonal conflict, Academy of Management Journal, 26, str. 368-376.)

³¹ Prema: Tucker, B. A., Russel, R. F. The Influence of Transformational Leader, Journal of Leadership and Organizational Studies, Vol. 10, No. 4, 2004.

³² Masood, S. A., Dani, S. S., Burns, D. N., Backhouse, C. J. Transformational leadership and organizational culture: the situational strength perspective, IMechE, Vol. 220, 2006., str. 942. Prema: Podsakoff, P. i dr. Transformational leaders behaviours and their effects on followers' trust in leader, satisfaction and organizational citizenship behaviours, Leadership Q, 1, 1990.

modeliranje strateške vizije i inspiriranje zaposlenih da teže njenom ostvarenju.³³ Organizacijska kultura koja će konfliktima omogućiti da budu funkcionalan segment organizacijske dinamike podržava : eksperimentiranje, poduzimanje rizika, otvorenost, različitost mišljenja te raspodjelu informacija i znanja na svim organizacijskim razinama. Pojedinci se tada potiču na preuzimanje odgovornosti za svoje pogreške i limite, a prakticira se, simbolički rečeno, učenje uz *mrkvu*, a ne *štap*. Takvim pristupom pogreške se ne sankcioniraju dokle god doprinose učenju i iskustvu, a prepoznaju se i nagrađuju individualni doprinosi, pozitivna ponašanja i dobro obavljene aktivnosti.

- 2. Strukturalni pristup** odnosi se na poboljšanja u organizacijskoj strukturi koja će omogućiti uspješniju provedbu organizacijskog učenja, veću fleksibilnost i kvalitetniju prilagodbu okruženju. Ovaj je pristup usmjeren na umanjivanje razloga za pojavu afektivnih konflikata te održavanje umjerene razine kognitivnih konflikata prilikom obavljanja poslovnih zadataka (koji nisu rutinski). Strukturalni pristup koji opisuje Rahim podudara se s pojmom engl. *learning structure*³⁴ odnosno kreiranjem fleksibilne organizacijske strukture koja je temelj za permanentno učenje i usavršavanje pojedinaca.

Učenje i efektivnost - Kad Rahim navodi kriterije koje uspješan menadžment konflikata mora zadovoljiti, na prvom je mjestu kriterij organizacijskog učenja i učinkovitosti.³⁵ Prema autoru, menadžment konflikata uspješan je tek ukoliko rezultira organizacijskim učenjem jer se očekuje da će ono omogućiti dugoročnu organizacijsku efektivnost.³⁶ S tim ciljem, proces upravljanja konfliktima treba biti dizajniran tako da ohrabruje kritičko i inovativno razmišljanje prilikom dijagnosticiranja problema kao i prilikom intervencije.³⁷ Zaposlenima u organizaciji mora se omogućiti učenje različitih stilova upravljanja interpersonalnim konfliktima da bi ih oni samostalno i efektivno primjenjivali u raznolikim konfliktnim

³³ Prema: Bahtijarević - Šiber, F., Sikavica, P. i dr. Leksikon menadžmenta, Masmedija, Zagreb, 2001., str. 600.

³⁴ U takvoj je organizacijskoj strukturi rad organiziran u timove (preferira se organska organizacija) koje čine specijalizirani pojedinci. Ujedno su svi educirani za obavljanje poslovnih zadataka svojih timskih kolega te su, u slučaju potrebe, sposobni zamijeniti jedan drugoga. Članovi tima kontinuirano uče i od potrošača, što im omogućuje prilagodbu njihovim potrebama i željama. Timovi raspolažu sa značajnim autoritetom u odlučivanju što ovu strukturu čini izrazito fleksibilnom. Prema: Örtenblad, A. The learning organization, towards an integrated model, The Learning Organization, Vol. 11, No.2, 2004., str. 134.

³⁵ Rahim, M. A. Toward a theory of managing organizational conflict, The International Journal of Conflict Management, Vol. 13, No. 3, 2002., str. 209.

³⁶ Organizacijsko učenje (Izv.Organizational learning, OL) tumači se na tri različita načina. Znanstvenici koji su priklonjeni tradicionalnom „starom“ pristupu organizacijskom učenju smatraju da su pojedinci agenti organizacije koji uče i potom znanje koje posjeduju transferiraju u organizacijsku memoriju. Organizacijska je memorija, zapravo, skup rutina, pravila i procedura, organizacijske kulture i dokumentacije. Tako znanje postoji u pojedincima, ali i izvan njih. Sljedeći stupanj tumačenja OL-a: pojedinci su entiteti koji uče, a transfer znanja moguć je jedino među pojedincima, nema organizacijske memorije niti ikakvog oblika pohrane znanja. Stvara se organizacijska klima koja olakšava i omogućuje pojedincima da se individualno usavršavaju i uče, a menadžer je više coach, a manje direktor. Pojedinci su se poistovijetili s organizacijskom vizijom i osjećaju pripadnost organizacijskoj cjelini što ih usmjerava u stjecanju znanja. „Novo“ teorijsko tumačenje OL-a: Znanje je promjenjivo i nikako ne može biti pohranjeno unutar organizacijske memorije. To kao pojam ne postoji. Znanje je ipak unutar pojedinaca, ali pojedinci su dio kolektiva koji se unapređuje njihovim individualnim učenjem. Ako uče pojedinci koji čine organizaciju, uči i organizacija koja tako postaje entitet učenja. Znanje je situacijski proces - u svakoj novoj situaciji informacija ima novi značaj. Prema: Örtenblad, A. Organizational learning and learning organization, The Learning Organization, Volume 8, 3, 2001., str. 12.

Pod organizacijskim učenjem autorice se priklanjaju tumačenju da su pojedinci ti koji uče i posjeduju znanje te kroz razne organizacijske „mehanizme“ i načine uporabe stečenog znanja unaprijeđuju organizaciju. Tako se organizacija mijenja, odnosno uči.

³⁷ Rahim, M. A. Toward a theory of managing organizational conflict, str. 209.

situacijama. U kontekstu upravljanja organizacijskim konfliktima posebno je važan *double-loop*³⁸ tip organizacijskog učenja jer podrazumijeva kognitivne i bihevioralne promjene, odnosno primjenu novih saznanja koja će omogućiti prihvaćanje novih načina razmišljanja, ponašanja i rješavanja problema. S druge strane, uspješno upravljanje konfliktima na makro-organizacijskoj razini poboljšat će proces organizacijskog učenja i učinkovitosti, što će povoljno utjecati na procese dijagnosticiranja i interveniranja u novim konfliktnim situacijama (kružni tijek prikazan je na slici 5). Čini se da je ovaj procesni tijek permanentan upravo zato što stjecanje individualnog, a time i organizacijskog znanja, nikad ne prestaje.

Iako je organizacijsko učenje proces uz koji se uglavnom vežu pozitivne konotacije, autori kritičnih studija pripisuju mu i negativne atribute.³⁹ Ističu da je koncept organizacijskog učenja ponekad vrlo zahtjevan, što može loše utjecati na privatni život pojedinaca i obavljanje ostalih životnih uloga, na to da se neki pojedinci ne osjećaju ugodno u fleksibilnim organizacijskim strukturama u kojima se traži viša razina njihove participacije, te na prevelik utjecaj menadžmenta na proces učenja jer su menadžeri ti koji usmjeravaju pojedince na sadržaje koje trebaju usvajati i sl.⁴⁰

Zaključak

Unatoč neizbježnosti i korisnosti, konflikti se još uvijek interpretiraju kao izvanredni događaji koji se na površini odnosa očituju u obliku negativnih emocija i različitih manifestacija te posljedica koje ostavljaju. Kad se konflikt manifestirao, tu su stilovi i strategije menadžmenta za pronalaženje rješenja sukoba, a ako se ne postigne prikladno rješenje, konflikt tinja i prijeteći u latentnom obliku do nove konfliktno epizode. U samokritičnom osvrtu Luis R. Pondy, autor koji se smatra klasikom konfliktne teorije, iznosi mišljenje da je takav pristup konfliktima u suvremenoj organizacijskoj dinamici neprimjeren.

Priklonivši se takvoj tezi, u smjeru Pondyjevog savjeta, tražimo suvremeniji pristup neizbježnoj *konfliktnoj masi* koja je prisutna u organizacijskom funkcioniranju. Najprihvatljivijim se čini *makrostrateški pristup* menadžmenta konflikta koji ne teži rezoluciji konflikata, već iskorištavanju njihovih pozitivnih učinaka. Takav pristup podrazumijeva: redukciju afektivnih konflikata, održavanje umjerene razine kognitivnih konflikata u području rješavanja poslovnih zadataka koji nisu rutinskog karaktera te osposobljavanje zaposlenih za primjenu i prilagodbu različitih načina upravljanja konfliktima u različitim situacijama. U procesu upravljanja konfliktima važno je oblikovanje učeće organizacije unutar koje će zaposleni biti spremni za primjenu novih saznanja koja će omogućiti prihvaćanje novih načina razmišljanja, ponašanja i rješavanja problema.

S obzirom na to da se i u konceptu organizacijskog učenja naziru mogući uzroci nastajanja konflikata, nameće se potreba za znanstvenim istraživanjima koja bi egzaktno utvrdila utjecaj organizacijskog učenja na uspješnost menadžmenta konflikta i tako empirijski ocijenila Rahimov predstavljeni proces upravljanja konfliktima.

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³⁸ Ibidem, str. 212.; Örtenblad, A. The learning organization, towards an integrated model, The Learning Organization, Vol. 11, No.2, 2004. pp. 129-144, str. 134.

³⁹ Ibidem, str. 87-100.

⁴⁰ Primjerice, Stephens (1994.) zaključuje da pojedinci ponekad postaju previše zaokupljeni učenjem na poslu jer osjećaju da su im u suprotnom ugrožena radna mjesta. Coopey (1995., 1996.) tvrdi da se od zaposlenih očekuje preuzimanje veće razine odgovornosti za probleme tvrtke (veći osjećaj pripadanja organizacijskoj zajednici), što može ugroziti obiteljsko funkcioniranje i sl. Vidi: Örtenblad, A.: Organizational learning: a radical perspective, op.cit., str. 95)

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MENADŽMENT KONFLIKTA: RAZMATRANJE TEORETSKE PARADIGME I MAKROSTRATEŠKOG PRISTUPA

SAŽETAK

Razumijevanje organizacijskih konflikata prošlo je put od isključivo negativnog poimanja sukoba kao ozbiljne prijetnje menadžmentu, koja umanjuje njegov autoritet i otkriva menadžerske slabosti, do radikalne promjene teoretskih stavova, uvjetovane velikim socijalnim, ekonomskim, kulturološkim i komunikacijskim promjenama u društvu. Sukob se danas prihvaća kao neizbježna organizacijska pojava te se smatra da funkcionalni konflikti sa svojim pozitivnim učincima povećavaju inventivnost, kreativnost i u konačnici konkurentnost poduzeća. S obzirom na takvu ulogu sukoba u organizacijskoj dinamici, ne čudi Pondyjeva samokritičan osvrt u kojem ističe da je nemoguće organizaciju shvaćati kao kooperativan sustav u kojem je suradnja povremeno prekinuta konfliktnim procesima, već je realnije prikazivati faze epizoda suradnje u permanentno konfliktnom okruženju negoli faze konfliktnog procesa. Unatoč objavljenoj samokritici, Pondyjevo je poimanje konfliktnih procesa, čiji se razvoj odvija kroz nekoliko razvojnih faza, i dalje općeprisutno u literaturi.

U smjeru Pondyjeve kritike najprikladnijom alternativom čini se pristup konfliktnim procesima M. A. Rahima. On smatra da menadžment konflikata usmjeren na pojedinačne konfliktne tijekove i uglavnom interpersonalne ili intergrupne konflikte u poduzeću, u okvirima suvremene organizacijske dinamike, ne može biti uspješan. Osnova je uspješnog upravljanja konfliktnim procesima makroorganizacijska strategija uz koju se svode na minimum afektivni konflikti u organizaciji, potiče i održava umjerena količina kognitivnih konflikata te omogućuje izbor i uporaba odgovarajućih pristupa menadžmentu konflikta. Takva će strategija doprinijeti organizacijskom učenju i cjelokupnoj organizacijskoj uspješnosti. Iako Rahim ističe organizacijsko učenje kao ključan proces za efikasan menadžment konflikta i organizacijsku uspješnost, postoje kritične studije koje organizacijskom učenju pripisuju i neke negativne attribute. Stoga bi bilo uputno empirijski istražiti utjecaj organizacijskog učenja na menadžment konflikta, a potom također i predstavljeni način menadžmenta konfliktnim procesima A. M. Rahima, te je ovo preporuka za daljnja istraživanja.

JEL: M1, M10, M12

Ključne riječi: *konfliktni proces, menadžment konflikta, makrostrateški pristup, organizacijsko učenje.*

ULOGA POSLOVNOG PREGOVARANJA U STJECANJU KONKURENTSKE PREDNOSTI

ROLE OF BUSINESS NEGOTIATION IN GAINING COMPETITIVE ADVANTAGE

ABSTRACT

This paper is based on the premise that integrating different perspectives on achieving competitive advantage provides a more realistic view as far as the practical aspects of strategic management are concerned. A conclusion can be derived from this premise that business negotiation skills constitute an extremely important source of competitive advantage in today's business environment. Empirical research conducted for the purposes of this paper has shown that Croatian companies understand that business negotiation skills constitute an important source of competitive advantage. Research results also point out to the fact that this understanding or awareness has not been sufficiently operationalized. In conclusion to this paper we propose a model which Croatian companies could follow in order to enhance business negotiation skills to the point where it becomes a source of competitive advantage.

JEL: M29

Key words: business negotiation, competitive advantage, stakeholders, Croatia.

1. UVOD

Komponente superiorne izvedbe u suvremenim uvjetima poslovanja jesu operacijska djelotvornost poduzeća - kao standard tržišnog natjecanja i strategija – kao pretpostavka dugoročnog opstanka poduzeća, s obzirom da se temelji na identificiranju izvora razlikovne odnosno konkurentske prednosti te na izgradnji i održavanju konkurentske prednosti. U literaturi je moguće pronaći više teorija o konkurentnosti i održivoj konkurentske prednosti, no ovaj se rad temelji na premisi da integriranje različitih pogleda na konkurentsku strategiju omogućuje realnije sagledavanje praktičnih problema strategijskog menadžmenta.

Opći cilj rada bio je spoznati i istaknuti ulogu koju sposobnost poslovnog pregovara ima u stjecanju konkurentske prednosti, temeljem integriranja različitih teorija o konkurentnosti i (održivoj) konkurentske prednosti. S obzirom na nedostatak znanstvenih radova utemeljenih na empirijskom istraživanju o hrvatskoj poslovnoj praksi vezanoj uz pregovaranje, autori su postavili i specifičan cilj rada – spoznati ulogu koja se pridaje poslovnom pregovaranju kao izvoru konkurentske prednosti u hrvatskim poduzećima.

Za realizaciju općeg cilja provedeno je sekundarno istraživanje, dok je za realizaciju specifičnog cilja provedeno primarno istraživanje, metodom ispitivanja na temelju anketnog

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upitnika. Rezultati istraživanja trebali bi pridonijeti teoriji konkurentnosti – definiranjem integriranog modela stjecanja konkurentske prednosti i ukazivanjem na sposobnost poslovnog pregovaranja kao značajnog izvora konkurentske prednosti u suvremenim uvjetima poslovanja, te hrvatskoj poslovnoj praksi – definiranjem modela djelovanja hrvatskih poduzeća poradi uzdizanja sposobnosti poslovnog pregovaranja na razinu izvora konkurentske prednosti.

Uža tematika rada razrađena je u tri dijela (od drugog do četvrtog poglavlja). U drugom se poglavlju prezentiraju teorije o izvorima konkurentske prednosti i definira integrirani model stjecanja konkurentske prednosti. Slijedi poglavlje u kojem se obrazlažu teorijske postavke poslovnog pregovaranja – definicija, proces, čimbenici uspjeha, dimenzije i strategije. Treće poglavlje usmjereno je na prezentaciju cilja, metodologije i rezultata provedenog empirijskog istraživanja o ulozi poslovnog pregovaranja u stjecanju konkurentske prednosti hrvatskih poduzeća. U zaključnom dijelu rada prezentiraju se najznačajnije misli u sintetiziranom obliku te se predlaže model djelovanja hrvatskih poduzeća poradi uzdizanja sposobnosti poslovnog pregovaranja na razinu izvora konkurentske prednosti.

2. IZVORI KONKURENTSKE PREDNOSTI: TEORIJSKE POSTAVKE

Već dva i pol desetljeća menadžeri poslovnih subjekata suočeni su s drugačijim pravilima tržišnog natjecanja od dotadašnjih, uzrokovanih brzim i nepredvidivim promjenama u okruženju. Nova su pravila tržišnog natjecanja nametnula potrebu za: 1) većom fleksibilnošću poduzeća, tj. sposobnošću promptnog reagiranja na brze i nepredvidljive, prije svega, tržišne i tehnološke promjene; 2) kontinuiranim uspoređivanjem poduzeća s najboljim u svojoj industriji (tzv. benchmarking) zbog postizanja najbolje poslovne prakse; 3) agresivnim «outsourcingom» poslovnih aktivnosti koje poduzećima nisu ključne radi postizanja veće efikasnosti; 4) njegovanjem nekoliko ključnih sposobnosti u poduzećima koja ih čine uspješnijima u odnosu na njihove suparnike.

U nastojanju da budu konkurentnija, tj. bolja od svojih tržišnih suparnika, mnoga su se poduzeća koncentrirala na postizanje veće operacijske djelotvornosti,¹ izgubivši iz vida drugu značajnu komponentu superiornog ostvarenja – strategiju (Porter, 1996.). Operacijska djelotvornost poduzeća je potrebna jer u suvremenim uvjetima poslovanja predstavlja standard tržišnog natjecanja. Međutim, ona nije činitelj razlikovanja među suparnicima. Strategija je ta koja stvara pretpostavke dugoročnog opstanka poduzeća s obzirom da se temelji na identificiranju izvora razlikovne odnosno konkurentske prednosti te na izgradnji i održavanju konkurentske prednosti.

Poduzeće ima konkurentsku prednost ukoliko kupcima isporučuje veću vrijednost od industrijskih suparnika. Konkurentska prednost postoji ako su ispunjena tri sljedeća uvjeta:

1) kupci opažaju konstantnu razliku u važnim obilježjima između proizvoda/usluge poduzeća i proizvoda/usluge konkurenata; 2) razlika u važnim obilježjima između proizvoda/usluge poduzeća i proizvoda/usluge konkurenata izravna je posljedica jaza sposobnosti između poduzeća i njegovih suparnika, 3) razlika u važnim obilježjima između proizvoda/usluge poduzeća i proizvoda/usluge konkurenata te jaza sposobnosti između

¹ Operacijska djelotvornost podrazumijeva obavljanje poslovnih aktivnosti bolje, odnosno brže ili s manje inputa ili grešaka od suparnika. Njome je moguće postići određenu konkurentsku prednost, no ta konkurentska prednost nije dugoročno održiva s obzirom da je suparnici mogu lako neutralizirati imitiranjem. Naime, suvremena poduzeća brzo imitiraju nove programe, tehnike i pomagala za postizanje veće operacijske djelotvornosti. Primjeri općeprihvaćenih programa, tehnika i pomagala za postizanje veće operacijske djelotvornosti poduzeća su: cjelovito upravljanje kvalitetom (TQM), *time-based competition*, *benchmarking*, reinženjering poslovnih procesa, *downsizing*, *lean management*, učeća organizacija i dr.

poduzeća i njegovih suparnika mogu se očekivati i u budućnosti. Poduzeće koje ima konkurentsku prednost ostvaruje natprosječne poslovne rezultate i sposobno je nadzirati svoju sudbinu (Tipurić, 1999.), pa se stoga može zaključiti da je posjedovanje konkurentске prednosti osnova razlikovanja uspješnih od neuspješnih poduzeća.

Iako je u literaturi moguće pronaći više teorija o konkurentnosti i (održivoj) konkurentskoj prednosti, najznačajnijima se smatraju sljedeće: *škola pozicioniranja, resursna teorija, teorija transakcijskog troška i odnosima usmjerene škole*.² Sukladno sugestijama Mintzberga et al. (1998.) te Elfringa i Volberda (2004.), ovaj se rad temelji na premisi da integriranje različitih pogleda na konkurentsku strategiju pruža mogućnost realnijeg sagledavanja praktičnih problema strategijskog menadžmenta.

2.1. Škola pozicioniranja

Izdavanjem Porterove knjige *Konkurentska strategija* (engl. *Competitive Strategy*) (1980), škola pozicioniranja je postala veoma utjecajnom kod menadžera i znanstvenika. Usprkos upućenim kritikama (Mintzberg et al., 1998.) i donekle smanjenoj popularnosti, ideje škole pozicioniranja čine se još uvijek znatno prihvaćenima u poduzećima i znanstvenoj literaturi. Prema školi pozicioniranja, koja potječe iz škole industrijske organizacije i njenog struktura-upravljanje-ostvarenje modela (Bain, 1959.), konkurentsku je prednost moguće postići prilagodbom strategije vanjskom okruženju i usklađivanjem strategije sa strukturnim snagama industrije.

Porter (1985.) navodi pet strukturnih snaga koje je potrebno razmotriti pri odabiru strategije i pozicije u određenoj industriji, i to: 1) prijetnje ulaska novih konkurenata, 2) prijetnje zamjenskih proizvoda, 3) pregovaračku moć kupaca, 4) pregovaračku moć dobavljača, 5) jačinu industrijskog suparništva. Dakle, strategija slijedi strukturu industrije. Ova škola pristupa razvoju strategije «izvana prema unutra» (Connor, 2003.). Prema Porteru (1985.) postoje dvije vrste konkurentске prednosti – niski troškovi i diferencijacija, koje u kombinaciji s tržišnim područjem koje se želi usluživati (šire i uže), generiraju sljedeće tri konkurentске strategije: 1) strategiju troškovnog vodstva, 2) strategiju diferencijacije i 3) strategiju fokusiranja (slika 1).

Slika 1

Porterove generičke konkurentске strategije (1985.)

		Konkurentska prednost	
		Niski troškovi	Diferencijacija
Konkurentsko područje	Široko	1. Vodstvo u troškovima	2. Diferencijacija
	Usko	3a. Fokusirano troškovno vodstvo	3b. Fokusirana diferencijacija

Kao temeljni instrument dijagnosticiranja konkurentске prednosti i pronalaženja načina za njezino poboljšanje Porter (1985.) navodi lanac vrijednosti (engl. *Value Chain*). Njime se poduzeće dizagregira u strateški važne aktivnosti s ciljem razumijevanja ponašanja troškova i mogućih izvora diferencijacije. Poduzeće postiže konkurentsku prednost izvedbom strateški značajnih aktivnosti jeftinije ili bolje od njegovih suparnika. Generički se

² Detaljnije o različitim teorijama strategijskog menadžmenta vidjeti u Mintzberg et al. (1998.) i Elfring i Volberda (2004.).

lanac vrijednosti sastoji od osnovnih i pratećih aktivnosti uključenih u stvaranje vrijednosti te od ostvarene marže. Osnovne su aktivnosti: 1) unutarnja logistika – primitak, uskladištenje, rukovanje i distribucija proizvodnih inputa; 2) operacije – aktivnosti kojima se inputi transformiraju u gotov proizvod (npr. proizvodnja, pakiranje, održavanje, testiranje i dr.); 3) vanjska logistika – prikupljanje, skladištenje, naručivanje i fizička distribucija proizvoda do kupaca; 4) marketing i prodaja – promocija, prodajna snaga, izbor kanala distribucije, politika cijena i dr.; 5) usluge – aktivnosti kojima se održava i povećava vrijednost proizvoda (npr. instaliranje, popravci, obuka, rezervni dijelovi, prilagodba proizvoda i dr.). Prateće aktivnosti uključuju: 1) nabavljanje inputa potrebnih za proizvodnju outputa; 2) razvoj tehnologije; 3) upravljanje ljudskim potencijalima; 4) infrastrukturne aktivnosti - menadžment, planiranje, financije, računovodstvo, opći i pravni poslovi, upravljanje kvalitetom i dr.

2.2. Resursna teorija

Resursna teorija se razvila iz Penroseova djela (1959.) naslovljenog *Teorija rasta poduzeća* (engl. *The Theory of the Growth of the Firm*). Njezinu je teoriju kasnije redefinirao i nazvao resursnom teorijom (engl. *resource-based view of the firm*) Wernerfelt (1984.). Teorija je doživjela renesansu kada su Prahalad i Hamel (1990.) objavili članak o ključnim kompetencijama poduzeća. Ova je teorija općenito usmjerena k atributima poduzeća koje suparnici ne mogu uopće imati ili ih ne mogu lako priskrbiti ili imitirati. Prema resursnoj teoriji konkurentska prednost se može objasniti posjedovanjem *vrijednih resursa* – resursa koji su vrijedni, oskudni, nesavršeno imitirajući i nezamjenjivi (Barney, 1991., 1997.). Resursna teorija pristupa razvoju strategije »iznutra prema vani» (Connor, 2003.).

Resurse poduzeća moguće je grupirati na više načina. Jedan od njih je onaj koji resurse dijeli na resurse ovisne o ljudima («vještine»), poput «znati kako» (know-howa) i sposobnosti učenja, i resurse neovisne o ljudima («imovinu»), kao npr. ugovori i baze podataka (Hall, 1993.). Resurse je također moguće grupirati na fizičke resurse, ljudske resurse i organizacijske resurse (Barney, 1991.). Sljedeća mogućnost podjele resursa je podjela na fizičku, intelektualnu i kulturnu imovinu, koja može voditi ka kompetencijama koje mogu predstavljati izvor održive konkurentske prednosti (Hafeez et al., 2002.).

Nematerijalni resurse se smatraju izuzetno važnim izvorima konkurentske prednosti zbog njihove neopipljivosti, što ih čini teško prenosivim drugim skupinama ljudi ili u druge kontekste (Szulanski, 1996.). Takve je resurse moguće podijeliti na: 1) intelektualna vlasnička prava, 2) poslovne tajne, 3) ugovore i licence, 4) baze podataka, 5) informacije iz javne domene, 6) osobne i organizacijske veze, 7) know-how zaposlenika, 8) reputaciju proizvoda i poduzeća, i 9) organizacijsku kulturu, poput sposobnosti reagiranja na izazove i svladavanje promjena (Hall, 1993.). Temeljna premisa ove teorije je da nije moguće pribaviti održivu konkurentsku prednost na otvorenom tržištu. Takve prednosti potrebno je pronaći u oskudnim, nesavršeno imitirajućim resursima koje poduzeće već kontrolira (Dierckx, Cool, 1989.).

2.3. Teorija transakcijskog troška

Teorija transakcijskog troška, koju je osmislio Coase (1937.) i kasnije redefinirao Williamson (1975.) u svojoj knjizi *Tržišta i hijerarhije* (Markets and Hierarchies), može se koristiti kao instrument donošenja poslovne odluke «proizvesti ili nabaviti» (engl. make-or-buy) ili za analiziranje upravljačke strukture odnosa kupac - dobavljač. Prema ovoj teoriji, izbor upravljačke strukture, odnosno pravila, tehnika i organizacijskih oblika potrebnih za kontrolu aktivnosti i transakcija, treba biti vođen stupnjem nesigurnosti (teškoća predviđanja svih situacija koje se mogu dogoditi tijekom transakcije), posebnošću imovine (stupanj potpune prilagodbe proizvoda u transakciji) i učestalošću transakcije (Williamson, 1975., 1981.).

Kada je imovina specifična, nesigurnost niska a transakcije relativno česte, tada bi transakcijama trebala upravljati tržišta, te bi se tu trebali razviti dugoročni odnosi s dobavljačima. Nasuprot tome, niska posebnost imovine i nesigurnost vode ka transakcijskim poteškoćama i hijerarhijskom upravljanju. Između ovih ekstrema nalazi se posredničko upravljanje, kao npr. bilateralni odnosi i kooperacijske alijanse. Može se reći da je temeljna pretpostavka ove teorije ta da će poduzeća odabrati način upravljanja s obzirom na djelotvornost u pogledu rezultirajućih troškova i oportunističkog rizika.

2.4. Odnosima usmjerene škole

Osamdesetih godina prošlog stoljeća pojavila se koncepcija marketinga odnosa (engl. relationship marketing) (npr. Berry, 1983.; Grönroos, 1994.; Liljander, Strandvik, 1995.) s pretpostavkom da samo ona poduzeća koja izgrade jake, bliske i pozitivne odnose sa svojim kupcima imaju potencijal za razvoj održive konkurentske prednosti (Rowe, Barnes, 1998.). Ova je teorija povezana s istraživanjima iz područja marketinške orijentacije (npr. Jaworski, Kohli, 1993.; Narver, Slater, 1990.), gdje je uloga marketinga u poboljšanju rezultata poslovanja poduzeća u središtu pozornosti, te posebno s literaturom iz područja upravljanja uslugama (npr. Berry, 1995.; Grönroos, 2000.). Čini se općeprihvaćenim i također empirijski potvrđenim da poduzeća usredotočena na stvaranje vrijednosti za kupce i zadovoljavanje njihovih potreba imaju veću vjerojatnost da će preživjeti od onih poduzeća usredotočenih samo na prodaju proizvoda/usluga visoke kvalitete i niskih troškova (Boulding et al., 2005.; Rust et al., 2002.).

Sve veći broj istraživača (npr. Dyer, Singh, 1998; Lorenzoni, Lipparini, 1999) se u posljednje vrijeme usredotočuje na odnosnu rentu (engl. relational rent) i način na koji konkurentska prednost može proizići iz vanjskih odnosa, poput onih s dobavljačima, upravljanih neformalnim mehanizmima, kao što je npr. povjerenje. Ovo viđenje odnosa, koje ima mnogo sličnosti sa mrežnim pristupom (npr. Håkansson, 1982.), naglašava koristi odnosnog ili partnerskog menadžmenta u odnosima između kupaca i dobavljača, usredotočujući se na aspekte poput uzajamnosti, osvojiti-osvojiti (engl. win-win), povjerenja, dijeljenja informacija te dijeljenja koristi i rizika.

Odnosna renta se definira kao «natprosječan zajednički generiran profit u razmjenskom odnosu kojeg ne može ostvariti izolirano poduzeće već ga se može generirati samo pomoću zajedničkog, njima svojstvenog doprinosa posebno povezanih partnera» (Dyer, Singh, 1998.). Dugoročni tržišni odnosi nisu sposobni generirati odnosne rente jer kod njih nema ničeg posebnog (idiosinkratičnog) te kao takvi nisu rijetki i teško imitirajući. Prema Dyeru i Singhu postoje četiri izvora odnosne rente, i to: 1) interorganizacijska specifična imovina; 2) interorganizacijske rutine dijeljenja znanja; 3) pribavljanje komplementarnih resursa; 4) učinkovito upravljanje. Prema ovoj teoriji, samopodupiranje jamstava (npr. povjerenje ili novčane kazne) je prihvatljivije od jamstva treće strana (npr. pravni ugovori), i

neformalna samopodupirujuća jamstva (npr. povjerenje) su prihvatljivija od formalnih samopodupirujućih jamstava (npr. financijske kazne) jer vode k nižim graničnim troškovima i otežanom imitiranju.

2.5. Poslovno pregovaranje i konkurentska prednost

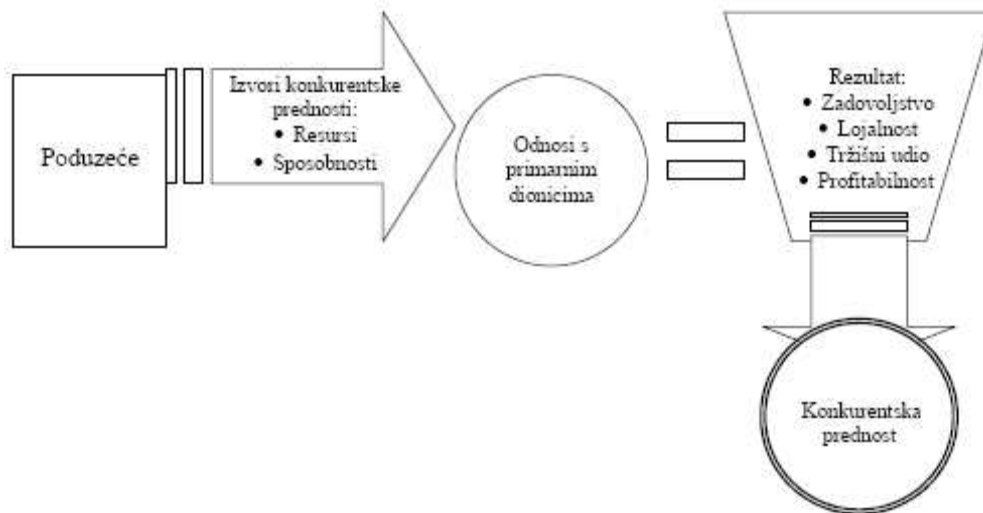
Prema *školi pozicioniranja*, poduzeća trebaju koristiti i razvijati vlastite resurse i sposobnosti poradi postizanja pozicijskih prednosti poput diferencijacije i troškovnog vodstva. *Resursna teorija* nastoji objasniti kako je takve prednosti moguće postići usredotočenjem poduzeća na vlastite resurse i kompetencije, poput intelektualnog vlasničkog prava i poslovnih tajni, inovativne sposobnosti, spretnosti i razvijenih odnosa s kupcima.

Iz perspektive *škole odnosa*, sposobnost nuđenja kupcima rješenja njihovih stvarnih problema i odgovornost spram njihovih potreba može biti jedan od temelja za postizanje diferencijacijske prednosti i način za njegovanje veza s kupcima. Teorija odnosa sugerira da su odnosi s dobavljačima utemeljeni na povjerenju sredstvo ostvarivanja odnosne rente, koja inače ne bi bila moguća. Ova renta može omogućiti poduzećima koja kupuju postizanje konkurentske prednosti, i to osobito diferencijacijskih prednosti. Konačno, *teorija transakcijskog troška* sugerira uspostavu transakcijskih odnosa s dobavljačem kada je stupanj nesigurnosti realizacije transakcije nizak, a njezin obujam velik. Integracija ili partnerski odnos s dobavljačem se preporuča kada je stupanj nesigurnosti transakcije visok, a njezin obujam nizak.

Na temelju analize osnovnih postavki ovih teorija, može se zaključiti da poduzeća mogu poboljšati svoju konkurentnost, te čak postići konkurentsku prednost, ulaganjem vlastitih resursa i sposobnosti u izgradnju i održavanje specifičnih dugoročnih odnosa s primarnim dionicima (engl. stakeholders), i to naročito kupcima i dobavljačima, ali i posrednicima i zaposlenicima (shema 1). Stupanjem u odnos s dionicima poduzeće je suočeno s potrebom pregovaranja o njihovim interesima, koji mogu biti različiti, a nerijetko i suprotstavljeni onima poduzeća. Specifičnost i dugoročnost odnosa poduzeća i njegovih dionika ovisi, dakle, o sposobnosti pregovaranja predstavnika poduzeća s njegovim dionicima i u tom procesu pronalaženja obostrano korisnih rješenja. Može se stoga zaključiti da je pregovaranje poslovna sposobnost koja utjecanjem na kvalitetu odnosa poduzeća s njegovim primarnim dionicima značajno utječe na rezultate njegova poslovanja, te da kao takva predstavlja izvor konkurentske prednosti.

Slika 2

Integrirani pristup stjecanju konkurentske prednosti



Izvor: Izrada autora.

3. TEORIJSKI ASPEKT POSLOVNOG PREGOVARANJA

3.1. Poslovno pregovaranje - definicija, proces i čimbenici uspješnosti

Pregovaranje se smatra jednom od najstarijih ljudskih aktivnosti, koju ljudi i danas, gotovo svakodnevno, prakticiraju u privatnom i poslovnom životu prilikom interakcije s drugima. Ono je esencijalno za svakoga tko zbog ostvarenja ciljeva mora stupiti u interakciju s drugim ljudima. Stoga se u suvremeno doba pregovaranje smatra univerzalnim procesom, primjenjivim u mnoštvu različitih životnih situacija.

Sa znanstvenim proučavanjem pregovaranja započelo se šezdesetih godina prošlog stoljeća. Od tada pa sve do danas pregovaranje je u središtu pozornosti teoretičara različitih područja i usmjerenja te se proučavaju njegovi mnogostruki aspekti: sociološki, bihevioristički, komunikacijski, etički, pravni, kulturni, ekonomski i dr. (Tomašević Lišanin, 2004.). U tom je smislu u literaturi moguće naići na mnoštvo definicija pregovora, od onih univerzalnih pa sve do onih koje naglašavaju neki njegov aspekt (tablica 1). S aspekta stjecanja konkurentske prednosti, pregovaranje je moguće razumijevati kao sposobnost ili vještinu upravljanja odnosima s dionicima poduzeća na način da se suprotstavljenim interesima pronalaze obostrano zadovoljavajuća korisna rješenja, što u konačnici treba rezultirati specifičnim dugoročnim odnosima poduzeća s njegovim primarnim dionicima (kupcima, dobavljačima, posrednicima i zaposlenicima).

Tablica 1

Neke definicije pregovora

- Pregovaranje je studija ponašanja ljudi i studija tehnologije rješavanje problema.
- Pregovaranje je proces koji koristimo da bi zadovoljili potrebe u situaciji kada netko drugi kontrolira ono što mi želimo.
- Pregovaranje je davanje - uzimanje uz pristanak.
- Pregovaranje je proces komuniciranja – u stilu korak naprijed, korak nazad – s ciljem dosizanja zajedničke odluke.
- Pregovaranje je zajedničko, naizmjenično i brzo donošenje međuo odluka u procesu koji vodi sporazumu.
- Pregovaranje je komunikacijski proces kojim se rješava konflikt interesa dviju razumnih pregovaračkih strana
- Pregovaranje je dobrovoljno dogovorena razmjena između ljudi koji žele nešto jedan od drugoga.

Izvor: Izrada autora.

Još je 1973. godine Mintzberg identificirao pregovaranje jednim od osnovnih zadataka menadžera. Bazerman i Neale (1992.) navode da su s povećanjem nepredvidivosti i brzine promjena poslovna pregovaranja postala češća u odnosu na prethodne godine, te složenija i ključnija za poslovni uspjeh. Carter et al. (2000.) su proveli istraživanje s ciljem identificiranja ključnih područja interesa menadžera za naredno desetogodišnje razdoblje, kao i s ciljem identificiranja najznačajnijih trendova u tim područjima. Među identificiranih 18 ključnih područja, dva se tiču pregovaranja, i to: 1) natjecanje i pregovaranje pri javnoj nabavi te 2) strategija pregovaranja.

Strateški pristup poslovnom pregovaranju podrazumijeva njegovo sagledavanje kao procesa sastavljenog od sljedećih pet uzastopnih i međuovisnih faza:³

1. Uspostavljanje i održavanje unutarnje harmonizacije postupaka i podržavajućih procesa. Na razini poduzeća je nužno utvrditi i obznaniti opće korake i smjernice pri vođenju pregovora, kako bi se pregovaračke timove zaštitilo od nejasnih i zbunjujućih poruka, koje mogu rezultirati pogrešnim ponašanjem pregovarača. Potrebno je u poduzeću obznaniti tko je ovlašten za koju vrstu odluka i u kojoj mjeri, koje su faze procesa temeljem kojeg se donose ključne odluke i dr.
2. Davanje naputaka i nedvosmislenih smjernica. Za svake pregovore potrebno je odabrati osobu ili formirati tim koji će pregovarati. Odabranoj osobi ili pregovaračkom timu potrebno je obznaniti: ključne interese koje je potrebno ostvariti, kriterije temeljem kojih trebaju vrednovati moguća rješenja, signalna stanja koja upućuju na to kada treba izaći iz pregovora, najbolje alternative pretpostavljenom sporazumu, minimalni prihvatljiv ishod kojeg je potrebno postići i sl.
3. Konkretna priprema. Ovakve pripreme uključuju: a) organizaciju prethodnih sastanaka članova pregovaračkog tima i drugih utjecajnih osoba sa svrhom utvrđivanja osnovnih pravila procesa i definiranja odluka o upravljanju predvidivim elementima pregovaračkog procesa; b) obučavanje i informiranje članova tima uporabom: suvremenih softverskih i hardverskih rješenja, intraneta, vlastitih baza podataka, analitičkih sredstava za bolje razumijevanje druge strane i procjenu njezina pregovaračkog konteksta, sredstava planiranja za generiranje kreativnih rješenja i izbora između različitih opcija, te drugih alata.
4. Vođenje pregovora. Uobičajeni tijek aktivnosti kod pregovora između prisutnih strana je sljedeći: susret pregovarača, otvaranje pregovora, početna faza pregovaranja, sužavanje razlika, pogađanje, verificiranje i završetak pregovora. Pregovarači mogu za trajanja

³ Prema Weiss, J. (2004.) *Winning Negotiations That Preserve Relationships*, Boston: Harvard Business School Press; citirano u: Tomašević Lišanin (2004.).

pregovora imati uza se različite vodiče i priručnike o pregovaranju poradi njihova konzultiranja, a s ciljem poboljšanja načina vođenja pregovora.

5. Revizija odnosno propitivanje okončanih pregovora i učenje temeljem dobivenih spoznaja. Po okončanju pregovora potrebno je napraviti analizu ishoda, identificirati čimbenike koji su pridonijeli njihovoj učinkovitosti ili su ih ugrožavali, zabilježiti vlastita zapažanja o ponašanju druge strane i dr. U te je svrhe moguće razviti standardne obrasce, baze podataka i druge alate zbog njihove uporabe u pripremama za buduće pregovore dotičnog i drugih pregovarački timovi u poduzeću.

Poslovne pregovore ocjenjuje se uspješnima ako rezultiraju (Tudor, 1992.):

1. Kvalitetnim sporazumom. Sporazum treba «prepoznati» i uvažiti sav sadržaj situacije, te optimalno prekriti interese obaju partnera. Drugim riječima, kvalitetnim se sporazumom smatra onaj koji osigurava: a) najšira moguća rješenja; b) neplanirana i neočekivana rješenja u interesu obje strane; c) optimum operativnih i dugoročnih rješenja; d) pouzdanost provedbe.
2. Racionalnim utroškom vremena, energije i sredstava.
3. Dobrim međuljudskim odnosima.

Na uspješnost poslovnih pregovora utječu brojni čimbenici. U tablici 2. prezentira se njih 24 razvrstanih prema stupnju značaja za uspješnost pregovora. Zaključuje se da su urođene i stečene osobine pregovarača važne ili dosta važne za uspjeh poslovnih pregovora, no presudnima se smatraju: 1) znanje o pregovaranoj materiji i pregovaranju općenito, te 2) rad na pripremi i planiranju pregovora.

Tablica 2**Čimbenici uspješnosti poslovnih pregovora**

Redni broj	Stupanj značaja čimbenika	Čimbenik uspjeha
1.	skoro nevažno	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• korištenje agresije, prijetnje, nadmoći;• dobar izgled i smisao zabavljača;
2.	malo važno	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• povjerenje u ljude i osobna korektnost;• spremnost na suradnju i kompromis;• razumijevanje jezika gesti, šutnje, znakova (neverbalni govor);
3.	dosta važno	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• hijerarhijski položaj pregovarača;• upornost i borbenost;
4.	važno	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• vještina debatiranja;• otvorenost za tuđa mišljenja i prijedloge;• pregovaračko iskustvo;• sposobnost vođenja i rada u grupi;• uvažavanje tuđih emocija;
5.	posebno važno	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• samokontrola;• vještina uočavanja, analize i rješavanja problema;• sposobnost donošenja pravih odluka;• strpljivost i postupnost;• sposobnost uvjeravanja i nagovaranja;• kompletnost osobe pregovarača;• opća inteligencija;
6.	presudno važno	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• sposobnost slušanja;• sposobnost govorništva;• sposobnost brzog razmišljanja u uvjetima pritiska i nesigurnosti;
7.	dragocjeno	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• stručno znanje o pregovaranoj materiji;• izučavanje i priprema za buduće pregovore.

Izvor: Tudor, G., (1992). Kompletan pregovarač – umijeće poslovnog pregovaranja, Zagreb: MEP Consult, str. 68 – 70.

3.2. Dimenzije poslovnog pregovaranja

Prethodno je utvrđeno da su izučavanje i priprema za buduće pregovore čimbenici koji najznačajnije utječu na uspješnost pregovora. Nužno je stoga provesti analizu temeljnih dimenzija pregovora jer ona omogućuje pregovaračima orijentiranje u određenim poslovnim pregovorima. U tablici 3. se navodi 12 dimenzija poslovnih pregovora kao i njihovi polovi.

Tablica 3

Orijentacijski model u poslovnom pregovaranju

Dimenzija pregovora	Polovi	
	Distributivni	Integrativni
Osnovni koncept. (pristup)	Distributivni	Integrativni
Najznačajniji ishod	Cilj	Odnos
Kriterij izbora pregovarača	Sposobnosti	Status
Aspiracije pregovarača	Individualist	Kolektivist
Interni način donošenja odluka	Neovisno	Konsenzusom
Vremenska usmjerenost	Monokroničnost	Polikroničnost
Sklonost riskiranju	Protivljenje riskiranju	Toleriranje rizika
Povjerenje	Nije stranama značajno	Značajno je stranama
Briga o protokolu	Formaliziranost	Neformalnost
Stil komuniciranja	S malim kontekstom	S velikim kontekstom
Priroda uvjeravanja	Činjenično induktivan	Afektivan
Oblik sporazuma	Eksplícitan	Implicitan

Izvor: Metcalf, L., Bird, A., Peterson, M., Shankarmahesh, M., Lituchy, T., (2007.) Cultural Influences in Negotiations: A Four Country Comparative Analysis, *International Journal of Cross Cultural Management*, 7(2): 150.

S obzirom na ograničenje koje postoji u svezi obujma rada, u nastavku se ukratko objašnjavaju samo četiri od dvanaest dimenzija pregovora, i to:

- Osnovni koncept – odnosi se na pristup svake pregovaračke strane pregovorima. Sukladno radu Waltona i McKersiea (1965.) navedena su dva krajnje moguća pristupa pregovorima: distributivan i integrativan. Premisa distributivnog pristupa je da jedna pregovaračka strana dobiva na račun druge, tj. da jedna strana može dobiti samo ako druga izgubi - veličina kolača je fiksna. Pretpostavka na kojoj se temelji integrativni pristup je da pregovaračke strane pridaju različitu vrijednost stavkama o kojima se pregovara te da svaka strana može izvršiti učinkovit ustupak drugoj strani kod stavke koja joj je manje značajna kako bi dobila kod one značajnije - veličina kolača nije fiksna (Bazerman, Neale, 1992). Distributivni pristup uključuje i suradnju, da bi se kolač povećao, i nadmetanje, da bi se kolač podijelio između dviju strana. (Adair, Brett, 2004.).
- Najznačajniji ishod – odnosi se na vrstu rezultata kojoj su pregovarači usmjereni. Sukladno radu Pinkleya (1990), kao dva krajnja pola ove dimenzije pregovora navedeni su cilj i odnos. Pregovarači usmjereni k cilju očekuju da će pregovori rezultirati ostvarenjem postavljenog cilja i stavljaju naglasak na izmjenu informacija u svezi pojedinih alternativa. Pregovaračima usmjerenim k odnosu značajno je očuvanje odnosa koji postoji između dviju strana. Značajan dio vremena procesa pregovaranja troši se na upoznavanje druge strane i na uspostavu odnosa između članova pregovaračkih timova (Simintiras, Thomas, 1998.).
- Povjerenje – to je vjerovanje jedne strane da će se druga strana pridržavati postignutog sporazuma. Nekim pregovaračima povjerenje u drugu stranu nije bitno jer postoji potpisani ugovor i zakonske kazne u slučaju nepoštivanja njegovih odredbi. S druge strane, postoje pregovarači koji vjeruju da će druga strana izvršiti preuzete obveze jer joj je stalo do očuvanja odnosa onakvim kakav je dosad bio.
- Oblik sporazuma – ova se dimenzija pregovora odnosi na oblik sporazuma kojeg pregovaračke strane preferiraju: formalan pisani ugovor ili neformalan usmeni sporazum. Formalni pisani ugovori definiraju željene aktivnosti druge strane, stupanj suradnje i međusobne prilagodbe obiju strana, te novčane kazne koje će jedna strana platiti drugoj zbog neuspjele provedbe dogovorene aktivnosti. Neformalni sporazumi često uzimaju u

obzir povijesni i sociološki kontekst odnosa pregovaračkih snaga i smatraju provedbu dogovorenog rezultatom obostranog interesa pregovaračkih strana (Frankel et al., 1996.).

S aspekta integriranog pristupa stjecanju konkurentske prednosti (slika 2), smatra se da bi poslovne pregovore trebale odlikovati sljedeće karakteristike: 1) integrativni pristup, 2) usmjerenost pregovarača na odnos kao ishod pregovora i 3) povjerenje u drugu pregovaračku stranu.

3.3. Strategije poslovnog pregovaranja

Za razliku od spontanog, nesvjesnog pregovaranja, postoji i organizirano, svjesno pregovaranje koje se odvija prema unaprijed određenoj tehnologiji. Procesne funkcije koje karakteriziraju organizirano pregovaranje su: plan, priprema, promišljena rasprava, korekcija te stalno usmjerenje k cilju. Glavno obilježje organiziranog pregovaranja je postojanje i vodeća uloga strategije pregovaranja (Tudor, 1992.).

Strategija pregovaranja je «svedominirajući plan i odabrani način kako doći do glavnog pregovaračkog cilja. Imati strategiju pregovaranja znači postaviti ciljeve, definirati pretpostavke i odabrati najvažnija sredstva kako pobijediti» (Tudor, 1992.). Tablica 4 prikazuje osnovne strategije poslovnog pregovaranja. Analizom temeljnih odrednica navedenih strategija uočava se da samo principijelno pregovaranje stavlja u fokus interese obiju pregovaračkih strana, te bi njega trebalo primjenjivati ukoliko se sposobnost pregovaranja namjerava koristiti kao izvor konkurentske prednosti. Naime, ostali načini pregovaranja ne polaze od tako široke fronte ciljeva, niti sredstava, pa ih se stoga i naziva strategijama reduciranog pregovaranja.

Tablica 4.

Strategije poslovnog pregovaranja

Strategija	Temeljne odrednice
Principijelno pregovaranje	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Kvalitetan sporazum s obostranim pokrićem potreba • Racionalan utrošak vremena, energije i sredstava • Dobri međuljudski odnosi • Najšira od mogućih rješenja • Neplanirana i neočekivana obostrana rješenja • Operativna rješenja i dugoročni poslovni odnosi (optimum) • Pouzdanost provedbe rješenja
Tvrdo pregovaranje	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Sporazum jednostrane koristi
Meko pregovaranje	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Sporazum bilo koje vrijednosti • Dobri međuljudski odnosi • Dugoročni poslovni odnosi
Pozicijsko pregovaranje	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Sporazum jednostrane koristi • Jednostrana gotova rješenja
Fiktivno pregovaranja	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Sporazum koji se neće postići • Sporazum koji se neće provesti

Izvor: Tudor, G., (1992.) Kompletan pregovarač – umijeće poslovnog pregovaranja, Zagreb: MEP Consult, str. 20 – 21.

4. ISTRAŽIVANJE ULOGE POSLOVNOG PREGOVARANJA U STJECANJU KONKURENTSKE PREDNOSTI HRVATSKIH PODUZEĆA

4.1. Ciljevi i metodologija istraživanja

U literaturi je moguće pronaći tek nekoliko izdanja domaćih autora o temi poslovnog pregovaranja. Međutim, znanstvenih radova o poslovnom pregovaranju u Republici Hrvatskoj temeljenih na empirijskom istraživanju gotovo da i nema. Rad Tomašević, Lišanin (2004.) sadrži indikativna viđenja ove poslovne prakse, utemeljena na autoričinom poznavanju tematike te na konverzaciji i priopćenjima ljudi iz poslovnog sektora. Slijedom navedenog, autori su ovoga rada proveli istraživanje s ciljem spoznaje uloge koju se poslovnim pregovaranju pridaje kao izvoru konkurentske prednosti u hrvatskim poduzećima.

Istraživanje je provedeno metodom ispitivanja temeljem anketnog upitnika, u razdoblju od 1. srpnja do 2. rujna 2007. godine na. Anketni upitnik je sadržavao 23 pitanja zatvorenog tipa i bio je namijenjen menadžmentu poduzeća. Distribuiran je elektroničkom poštom primjenom softvera «e-mail questionnaire v.4.0.», specijaliziranog za provođenje istraživanja putem elektroničke pošte. Istraživanjem je obuhvaćeno 100 nasumično odabranih poduzeća iz registra poslovnih subjekata s cijelog područja Republike Hrvatske i različitih djelatnosti (tablica 5). Istraživanje je ograničeno veličinom uzorka⁴, njegovom zemljopisnom strukturom⁵ i strukturom veličine poduzeća⁶.

Tablica 5

Struktura poduzeća u Republici Hrvatskoj po djelatnostima 2006. godine (n=78.509) i uzorka (n=100)

(u %)

Djelatnost	Udio poduzeća u Republici Hrvatskoj ¹	Udio poduzeća u uzorku ²
A - Poljoprivreda, lov, šumarstvo	2,12	6,00
B - Ribarstvo	0,30	
C - Rudarstvo i vađenje	0,29	
D - Prerađivačka industrija	13,68	4,00
E - Opskrba električnom energijom, vodom i plinom	0,24	
F - Građevinarstvo	10,36	14,00
G - Trgovina na veliko i malo	34,87	28,00
H - Hoteli i restorani	4,86	12,00
I - Prijevoz, skladištenje i veze	5,56	4,00
J - Financijsko poslovanje	0,94	5,00
K - Poslovanje nekretninama, iznajmljivanje	21,90	8,00
L - Javna uprava i obrana; obvezno soc. osiguranje	0,02	
M - Obrazovanje	0,93	3,00
N - Zdravstvena zaštita i socijalna skrb	1,03	3,00
O - Ostale društvene, socijalne i osobne uslužne djel.	2,89	13,00
P - Privatna kućanstva sa zaposlenim osobljem	0,00	
Ukupno	100,00	100,00

Izvor:

⁴ Uzorkom je obuhvaćeno 0,13% poduzeća u Republici Hrvatskoj.

⁵ Autorima nije poznata regionalna struktura uzorka jer su poduzeća uzorkovana neovisno o njihovom sjedištu, stoga i nije poznato podudara li zemljopisna struktura uzorka s onom na razini nacionalnog gospodarstva.

⁶ U strukturi registriranih poslovnih subjekata u Republici Hrvatskoj 2006. godine bilo je 97,55% malih poduzeća, 1,89% srednje velikih poduzeća i 0,56% velikih poduzeća. U uzorku je pak bilo zastupljeno 90,00% malih poduzeća, 10,00% srednje velikih poduzeća i 0,00% velikih poduzeća.

¹ Izračun autora na temelju podataka iz SLJH-2007 (2007.) Zagreb: RH – Državni zavod za statistiku.

² Vlastito istraživanje autora.

4.2. Analiza i interpretacija rezultata istraživanja

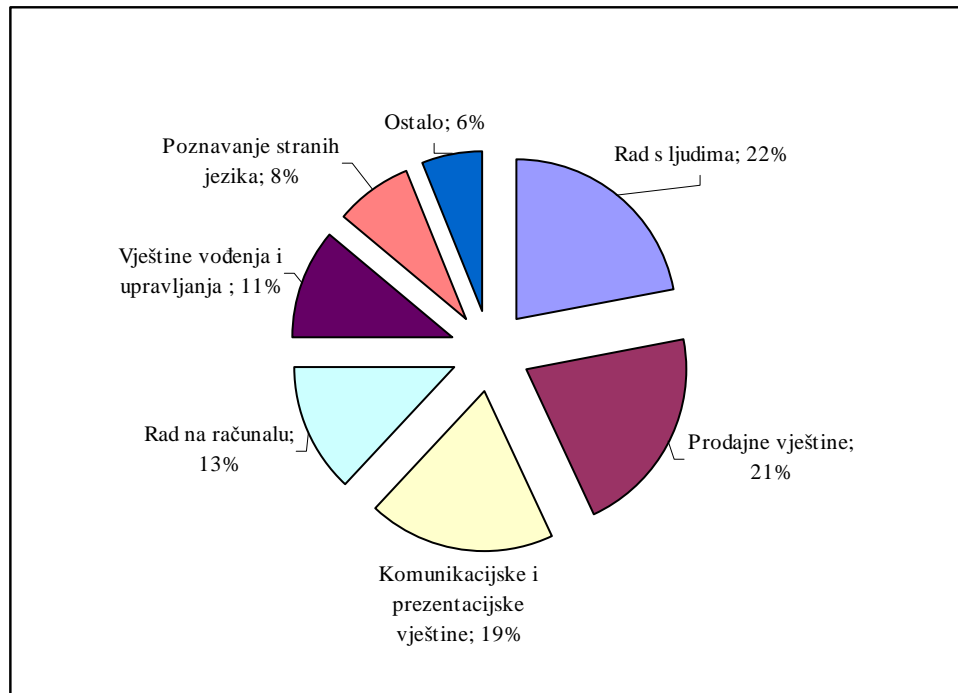
Hrvatska poduzeća svoju ponudu pretežno pozicioniraju temeljem strategije diferencijacije (76%), odnosno rjeđe temeljem strategije troškovnog vodstva (24%). Ovaj je rezultat u suprotnosti s onim dobivenim empirijskim istraživanjem konkurentske sposobnosti hrvatskih poduzeća kojeg su Tipurić i Galetić proveli početkom 1998. godine (Tipurić, 1999.). Navedenim je istraživanjem ustanovljeno da se samo dvije petine hrvatskih poduzeća tržišno pozicionira primjenom strategije diferencijacije. Navedeni autori takav rezultat obrazlažu teškom situacijom u hrvatskom gospodarstvu. Dobiveni rezultat ovim istraživanjem smatra se realnim s obzirom da je od spomenutog istraživanja proteklo deset godina te da su se makroekonomski uvjeti u Republici Hrvatskoj od tada poboljšali i da je u strukturi uzorka ovog istraživanja bilo 90% neindustrijskih poduzeća za koje je u prethodno navedenom istraživanju ustanovljeno da su uglavnom diferencijatori ili tomu teže u izgradnji svoje konkurentske prednosti.

Postavlja se pitanje u kojoj je mjeri u hrvatskim poduzećima prisutna svijest o potrebi ulaganja u osposobljavanje ljudskih resursa i uvjete njihova rada za uspješnije pregovaranje s dobavljačima, posrednicima i kupcima, ali i za postizanje većeg zadovoljstva zaposlenih vlastitim poslom.

Nešto više od polovice ispitanika smatra da su im svi zaposlenici osposobljeni za rad na svome radnom mjestu. Na upit o najpotrebnijim područjima profesionalne edukacije njihovih zaposlenika, ispitanici su se opredijelili za odgovor na način kako to iskazuju podaci u grafikonu 1. Iz rezultata istraživanja je vidljivo da u gotovo 2/3 hrvatskih poduzeća postoji svijest o potrebi educiranja zaposlenih upravo iz onih području kojima se pospješuje sposobnost poslovnog pregovaranja (edukacija o radu s ljudima, o prodajnim vještinama, o komunikacijskim i prezentacijskim vještinama). Usprkos tome, samo 40% poslodavaca redovito ulaže u doškolovanje svojih zaposlenika, a 15% ih to uopće ne čini jer smatraju da priroda posla to ne zahtijeva. Indikativan može biti i podatak o udjelu zaposlenih koji posjeduju svoje računalo, te koliko se njih služi Internetom i e-poštom. U 60% ispitanih poduzeća većina zaposlenika ima svoje računalo, pri čemu se 95% onih koji posjeduju računalo služi Internetom i e-poštom.

Grafikon 1

Potrebna područja profesionalne edukacije zaposlenih u hrvatskim poduzećima

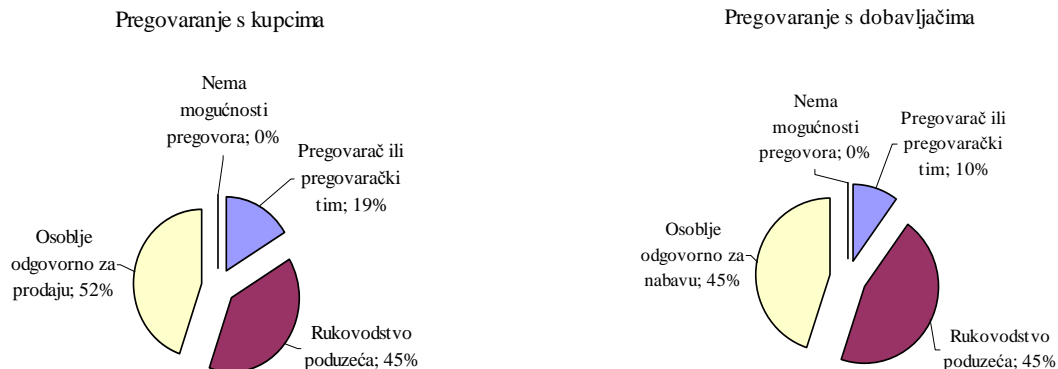


Izvor: Izrada autora.

Iz podataka navedenih u grafikonu 2. vidljiv je način na koji se u hrvatskim poduzećima organiziraju pregovori s kupcima i dobavljačima. Uočava se da pregovore s kupcima i dobavljačima uglavnom obavlja rukovodstvo poduzeća ili odgovorne osobe, dok se pregovarači ili pregovarački timovi rjeđe angažiraju za vođenje pregovora. Pregovarače ili pregovaračke timove angažiraju uglavnom poduzeća koja uspješno djeluju na domaćem i inozemnom tržištu pri ugovaranju velikih poslova. S obzirom na utvrđenu veliku odgovornost rukovodstva i djelatnika poduzeća odgovornih za prodaju/nabavu u ostvarivanju rezultata pri poslovnim pregovaranju, jako je bitno da posjeduju sva potrebna znanja iz područja pregovaranja kako ni u jednom trenutku ne bi sebe ili poduzeće koje predstavljaju doveli u nezavidan položaj.

Grafikon 2

Organizacija vođenja pregovora s kupcima i dobavljačima u hrvatskim poduzećima



čini povremeno. Poduzeća koja redovito provode istraživanje tržišta imaju odjel koji vrši istraživanja, dok ona koja povremeno provode takva istraživanja najčešće angažiraju specijaliziranu agenciju. Među istraživanjima tržišta koja provode hrvatska poduzeća najzastupljenija su ona usmjerena upravo području prodaje (34%), u okviru kojeg se i događa proces poslovnog pregovaranja s kupcima. Slijede po zastupljenosti istraživanja tržišta poradi razvoja proizvoda ili usluga (28%), istraživanja zbog provedbe segmentacije tržišta (20%) i istraživanja radi upravljanja politikom promocije (18%).

Istraživanjem je ustanovljen problem izgradnje i očuvanja dugoročnih odnosa hrvatskih poduzeća s njihovim dobavljačima. Premda je 52% ispitanika izjavilo da u velikoj mjeri ovisi o dobavljačima, ustanovljeno je da samo 15% anketiranih nikada ne mijenja dobavljače, dok ih 45% mijenja dobavljače povremeno ili često. Kao razloge povremenog ili čestog mijenjanja dobavljača ispitanici su izdvojili sljedeće: mogućnost izbora (34%), nepovoljne uvjete nabave (27%), slabu kvalitetu proizvoda/usluga (20%), učestalo kašnjenje isporuke (14%) i ostalo (5%).

5. ZAKLJUČAK

Autori su u teorijskom dijelu rada primjenom integriranog pristupa teorijama konkurentnosti ustanovili da je pregovaranje poslovna sposobnost koja utjecanjem na kvalitetu odnosa s primarnim dionicima (kupci, dobavljači, posrednici, zaposlenici) poduzeća značajno utječe na rezultate njegova poslovanja i kao takva predstavlja izvor konkurentske prednosti. U prilog tome govori i činjenica da se među 18 identificiranih ključnih područja interesa suvremenih menadžera nalaze dva koja se tiču pregovaranja, i to: 1) natjecanje i pregovaranje pri javnoj nabavi te 2) strategija pregovaranja.

Za uspješnost poslovnih pregovora od presudne su važnosti sljedeći čimbenici: 1) znanje o pregovaranju materiji i pregovaranju općenito i 2) rad na pripremi i planiranju pregovora. Stoga strateški pristup poslovnom pregovaranju podrazumijeva njegovo sagledavanje kao procesa sastavljenog od pet uzastopnih i međuovisnih faza i to: 1) uspostavljanje i održavanje unutarnje harmonizacije postupaka i podržavajućih procesa; 2) davanje naputaka i nedvosmislenih smjernica; 3) konkretne pripreme; 4) vođenje pregovora, 5) revizija odnosno propitivanje upravo okončanih pregovora te učenje temeljem dobivenih spoznaja.

S aspekta integriranog pristupa stjecanju konkurentske prednosti autori smatraju da bi poslovne pregovore trebale odlikovati sljedeće karakteristike: 1) integrativni (kolaborativni) pristup, 2) usmjerenost pregovarača na odnos kao ishod pregovora i 3) povjerenje u drugu pregovaračku stranu. U tom se smislu principijelno pregovaranje smatra jedinom prihvatljivom strategijom organiziranog poslovnog pregovaranja.

S ciljem spoznaje uloge koju se poslovnom pregovaranju pridaje kao izvoru konkurentske prednosti u hrvatskim poduzećima autori su proveli empirijsko istraživanje. Ustanovljeno je da se kod značajnog broja hrvatskih poduzeća (2/3) sposobnost poslovnog pregovaranja smatra značajnim izvorom konkurentske prednosti. Usprkos tome, samo 40% poduzeća redovito ulaže u razvijanje te sposobnosti kod svojih zaposlenika. Pregovore s kupcima i dobavljačima - dvjema od četiri skupine primarnih dionika, uglavnom obavlja rukovodstvo poduzeća ili odgovorne osobe, dok se pregovarači ili pregovarački timovi rjeđe angažiraju za vođenje pregovora. U strukturi istraživanja tržišta koja provode hrvatska poduzeća (provodi ih povremeno ili redovito 80% poduzeća) najzastupljenija su ona usmjerena k spoznaji sposobnosti pregovaranja vlastitog osoblja s kupcima (34%). Usprkos činjenici da 52% hrvatskih poduzeća u velikoj mjeri ovisi o svojim dobavljačima, samo 15% njih ne mijenja svoje dobavljače.

Autori zaključuju da u hrvatskim poduzećima uglavnom postoji svijest o tome da sposobnost poslovnog pregovaranja predstavlja izvor konkurentske prednosti. Međutim, ne može se reći da je ta svijest operacionalizirana. U tom je smislu potrebno djelovanje hrvatskih poduzeća na sljedećim trima razinama sustava poslovnog pregovaranja:⁷ 1) razini pojedinca – radi razvoja profesionalnosti zaposlenih u poslovnom pregovaranju; 2) organizacijskoj razini – poradi prerastanja sposobnosti poslovnog pregovaranja u izvor konkurentske prednosti, i 3) interorganizacijskoj razini – zbog razvoja kulture poslovnog pregovaranja u okruženju i ostvarenja višestruko korisne razmjene.

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⁷ Utemeljeno na ideji: Tomašević Lišanin (2004).

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ULOGA POSLOVNOG PREGOVARANJA U STJECANJU KONKURENTSKE PREDNOSTI

SAŽETAK

Rad se temelji na premisi da se integriranjem različitih pogleda na stjecanje konkurentske prednosti omogućuje realnije sagledavanje praktičnih problema strategijskog menadžmenta. Iz navedene je premise proizašao zaključak o sposobnosti poslovnog pregovaranja kao izuzetno značajnog izvora konkurentske prednosti u suvremenim uvjetima poslovanja. Provedenim empirijskim

istraživanjem ustanovljeno je da je u hrvatskim poduzećima uvelike prisutna svijesti o tome da sposobnost poslovnog pregovaranja predstavlja značajan izvor konkurentske prednosti. Istraživanje je također ukazalo na to da ta svijest nije dostatno operacionalizirana. U zaključku se rada predlaže model djelovanja hrvatskih poduzeća poradi uzdizanja sposobnosti poslovnog pregovaranja na razinu izvora konkurentske prednosti.

JEL: M29

Ključne riječi: poslovno pregovaranje, konkurentska prednost, dionici, Republika Hrvatska.

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Review
Pregledni rad

DEVELOPMENT AND PERSPECTIVES OF INTERNAL AUDITING IN THE IMPROVEMENT OF BUSINESS QUALITY OF ENTERPRISES – EMPIRICAL RESEARCH IN CROATIA

ABSTRACT

This paper is the result of empirical research among the 180 biggest Croatian companies measured in terms of total revenues. The survey was addressed to the managers of internal auditing departments but also the managers who supervise the business activities within the company. The empirical research was conducted from February till March 2007. In that period 43 companies answered to the survey which makes the rate of return of 24%. The aim of this empirical research was to investigate the current position and the presence of internal auditing in Croatian companies, to investigate the instruments of measurement, the business quality among the internal auditors in Croatia and to investigate the contribution that internal auditors make in improving the business quality among the most successful companies in Croatia.

JEL: M42

Key words: internal auditing, added value auditing, business quality, Croatia

1. INTRODUCTION

Long-term higher or lower success rate, as a feature of a company's competitive capacity, is the consequence of the company's business operations and behavior in current and future environment. Knowledge of the characteristics of the immediate as well as the broad environment, along with internal analysis of the company itself, are prerequisites for identifying opportunities and threats in the environment, and actual strengths and weaknesses of the company. Results of such an analysis make a starting point for adequate positioning of the company in its environment and creating its sustainable competitive advantages. In order to find and maintain such a position of the company in relation to its environment, management efforts need to be directed towards the quality of management process, particularly on the strategic level. This implies clear company goals, clear direction of its actions leading towards the achievement of stated goals, and commitment to their successful implementation. All of this is a result in new circumstances where internal auditors must change their approach to work- from the old, conservative, inspective and passive approach in auditing to a new, proactive customer-focused orientation. Internal auditing must

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directed its potential towards the future, giving advice about the anticipated future risks in the particular business area. One of the main tasks of internal auditing becomes advisory services to the management about the possibility of risks management, first of all in the sense of forming and monitoring the adequate internal control systems as an instrument of risk management. In this way internal auditing becomes an important participant in the process of corporate governance.

2. RECENT TRENDS IN INTERNAL AUDITING DEVELOPMENT

Internal auditing is an «independent function of assessment in the organization which examines and assesses their activities as well as a service to the organization. The aim of internal auditing is to help the organization especially the management and the board in carrying out assigned responsibilities. Internal auditing provide for the board analysis, assessments, recommendations, advises and information which refers to the activities of organization. The aim of internal auditing includes promotion of internal control systems at reasonable cost» (Spencer, 1997, p. 5).

The definition of internal auditing refers to their basic features:

- internal auditors are employed by companies whose business is the scope of audit work,
- internal auditing is an independent function of examination, judgment and assessment without any restriction on the internal auditing judgment,
- all business activities are in the scope of internal auditing,
- internal auditing is organized as an advisory service to the management and the organization so it has an advisory function in the company.

The recent trends in organization and management of the company emphasize flexibility, decentralization, information, communications, democratic management style, team work without highlighted hierarchy, innovation and knowledge. These recent trends changed the demands of internal auditing. Under this influence, an international group of specialists (GTF- Guidance Task Force) that work under the Institute of Internal Auditors (IIA) gives the new definition of internal auditing for the 21st century: “Internal auditing is independent, objective assurance and consulting activity designed to add value and improve organization's operations. It helps an organization accomplish its objectives by bringing a systematic, disciplined approach to evaluate and improve the effectiveness of risk management, control, and governance processes.”(Krogstad, 2000., p. 25). In this definition are included the latest expectations that internal auditing must fulfill. However, this is not an easy task; hence this is a complex process of complying the professional scope of internal auditors with new conditions and circumstances that eliminate previous frames in which internal auditing has acted.

Internal auditors in future will be respected and trustworthy professionals within the company. This can be accomplished only by making internal auditor's work at a high level of objectivity, independency and competence. Only internal auditors can, as internal consultants and partners, give assurance and advise the management in the risk management, design and implementation of adequate internal control system. Internal auditors must ensure a good relationship with the management based on whether the management of the company will treat internal auditors as professionals which have an advisory role in the accomplishment of established objectives of the company. In that context, the internal auditing department should define a strategy which will define the purpose, authority's responsibilities and priorities of internal auditing department. Therefore, internal

auditors must be experts in the business operations of the company and their internal control systems. Because of that, in the future period, internal auditors should maintain their technical competence through continuing education. For a successful internal auditing performance within the company, the internal auditing department should have employees who are qualified in disciplines such as accounting and finance, analysis, informatics, organization and management, and human resources management. Simultaneously with the growth and development of the companies, expert knowledge of internal auditors must be supplemented and upgraded.

Recently, the efforts of the companies' management are directed towards the improvement of the quality of the management process, in the sense of higher consciousness and responsibilities in the accomplishment of established goals and objectives, an efficient use of resources, improvement in the quality and ecological consciousness, ethical behavior and responsibilities, thus revising the new internal auditing approach. This means that internal auditors must change their position in the company, from an old passive, inspective and conservative approach toward a new proactive, customer-focused orientation. In other words, it means a complete new approach where the internal auditing report is not a final and the only product the internal auditing department can provide and offer to the management of the company. On the contrary, internal auditing must focus their potential towards the future, giving advice about the anticipated future business risks in the particular area. The expectations from internal auditing are, in the first place, generating information needed for identification, understanding and assessment of potential risks. This expectation from internal auditors is particularly felt in the world. Risk assessment, more than ever, is becoming a key activity of an internal auditor implemented in the entire process of internal audit. Besides a risk-based audit process, the internal auditors have a permanent task of maintaining and upgrading internal control systems as an instrument of risk management. In that sense the internal auditor has the responsibility to identify deviations and problems in the system and follow up to ascertain that appropriate action is taken on reported audit findings.

When we talk about the recent trends in the internal auditing development, we can assume that the activity of internal auditors will follow two directions. Internal auditors will in the future act "retrospectively", assessing the effects of past events and mistakes that were made so to avoid them in future. In recent terms, the preventive act of internal auditing is much more important. Preventive action of internal auditing is directed towards the anticipation of future risks and implemented internal controls by which these undesired events will be avoided. The scope of the internal auditor's examination becomes the entire business of the company oriented toward the future. The business trends expected to have the most impact on internal roles, responsibilities, risk management, corporate governance between now and 2012 are technology, new regulations, risk management, corporate governance, and ethics and compliance (PricewaterhouseCoopers, (b) 2007.). In these circumstances, the audit report is not only the communication instrument where the internal auditor is presenting the audit results, with recommendations for potential improvements and corrective action that needs to be taken. In the future, the audit report will include analysis of business risks, the suggestion for their reduction and elimination, and the assessment of existing internal control systems.

3. THE RESULTS OF EMPIRICAL RESEARCH

3.1. Definition Of Aims, Sample, And The Methods Of Research

The empirical research into the role of internal auditing in the improvement of business quality was conducted on the sample of the 180 biggest companies in the Republic of Croatia measured in terms of total revenues in 2005. The survey was addressed to the managers of internal auditing department but also the managers who supervise the business activities within the company. The questionnaire surveys were sent to the respondents by post and email. The empirical research was conducted from February till March 2007. In that period 43 companies answered to the survey which makes the rate of return of 24% satisfactory. This study of the function and the role of internal auditing in the measurement of business quality was conducted with the following three objectives: 1) to investigate the current position and the presence of the internal auditing function in Croatian companies, 2) to investigate the instruments of measurement of business quality among the internal auditors in Croatia, 3) to investigate the contribution of internal auditing in the improvement of business quality among the most successful Croatian companies.

In the first part of questionnaire the basic information about the company were gathered. In that sense important information are the main business of the company, the legal form of the company, the size of the company according to the Accounting Act and the number of employees. The companies that responded to the questionnaire belong to different industries (table 1). According to the legal forms of a company of the 43 companies that answered the survey 60% (26) are organized as a corporation (shareholding company), 33% (14) are organized as limited liability companies while 7% (3) are «other» legal forms of organization (table 2).

Table 1

Main business of organization

	Main business of organization	Number of respondents	Percentage
1.	Agriculture and fisheries,	2	4.7%
2.	Mining	1	2.3%
3.	Processing industry	6	14.0%
4.	Gas production, energy and water	4	9.3%
5.	Building	3	7.0%
6.	Retail and Wholesale	5	11.6%
7.	Transportation, warehousing and communications	5	11.6%
8.	Financial services	4	9.3%
9.	Other social and personal services	2	4.7%
10.	Other	11	25.6%
	Total	43	100.0%

Table 2

Legal form of a company		
Legal form of a company	Number of respondents	Percentage
Shareholding company	26	60%
Limited liability company	14	33%
Other	3	7%
Total	43	100%

Table 3. shows that according to the Accounting Act¹ 86% of surveyed companies are large while 14% are medium sized companies. One of very important determinants besides the size of a company is the number of employees (table 4.).

Table 3

The size of companies according to the Accounting Act		
The size of companies according to the Accounting act	Number of respondents	Percentage
Medium	6	14%
Large	37	86%
Total	43	100%

Table 4

Respondents by the number of employees		
Respondents by the number of employees	Number of respondents	Percentage
From 1 to 1.000 employees	22	52 %
From 1.000 to 2.000 employees	10	24%
From 3.000 to 10.000 employees	6	14%
From 10.000 to 15.000 employees	4	10%%
Total	42	100,00%

The most of the companies have their headquarters in Zagreb (69,8%), which was expected if we take into account that the sample was based on the biggest companies in Croatia measured in terms of total revenues. Furthermore, it is important to take

¹ The survey was conducted from February till March 2007 when the Accounting Act (NN. 146/2005) came into effect. According to Article 17 (NN. 146/2005) the entities differ by the size of total assets, total revenues and average number of employees during the business year of small, medium and large enterprises. The small entities are those who do not exceed two out of the three following criteria: total assets 27 million kunas, total revenues 54 million kunas, 50 employees; The middle entities are those who exceed two out of three criteria for small entities but they never exceed two out of the following three criteria: total assets 108 million kunas, total revenues 216 million kunas, 250 employees. Entities are classified as big if they exceed two out of the three following criteria: total assets 108 million kunas, total revenues 216 million kunas, 250 employees. However, the New Accounting Act was passed on 5th October 2007 and came in effect from 1st January 2008. New Accounting Act has different criteria of classification in compliance with the European Union regulations. According to Article 3 (NN. 109/07) the entities also differ by the size of total assets, total revenues and average number of employees during the business year on small, medium and large enterprises. Small entities are those who do not exceed two out of the following three criteria: total assets 32.5 million kunas, total revenues 65 million kunas, the average number of employees during the business year 50. Middle entities are those who exceed two out of three criteria for small entities but do not exceed two out of the three following criteria: total assets 130 million kunas, total revenues 260 million kunas, average number of employees during the business year 250.

into account that 70% of the surveyed companies have organized internal auditing departments while 30% of the surveyed companies do not have organized internal auditing departments within the company.

3.2. Function Of Internal Auditing

Internal auditing is a major form of supervision of business activities². In compliance with those statements respondents were presented with different forms of business activities and the respondents could choose more than one answer (table 5).

Table 5

Respondents according to the forms of surveillance over business activities in company

The forms of surveillance on business activities within the company:	Number of respondents	Percentage
Internal Auditing	29	23.2%
Controlling	22	17.6%
Management	28	22.4%
External Auditing	34	27.2%
Government Auditing	9	7.2%
Others	3	2.4%
Total	125	100%

Independence is one of the most important assumptions for the quality and the aims oriented internal auditing process. In that sense it is important to review the opinions of internal auditors about their independence. Besides internal auditors the survey included persons who work in the surveillance of the business activities within the company (for example, finance and accountant managers). According to the results of empirical research 56% (24 respondents) of internal auditors and people who are included in surveillance of business activities thinks that they are independent

² They are different forms of surveillance and in that context we can talk about state, political, economic, regulatory, tax surveillance. There can be different objectives of surveillance depending on their domain. However, generally the aim of surveillance is to examine and comply to socio-economic-political system with established criteria (rules, regulation, rules standards) (Vitezić, 1998). Besides internal auditing, business surveillance can be implemented over many ways and forms and across different functions within the company. Some authors differentiate three basic forms of internal surveillance: internal control, internal auditing and controlling (Vitezić, 1998, Tusek, Zager, 2007, p. 266.) The responsibility for development and implementation is on management. In modern theory and practice control is the basic function management on all levels and the key factor of a successful company (Tusek, Zager, 2007. p. 269.). On the other hand external auditing has a responsibility to give reasonable assurance that the financial statements are presenting a true and fair financial position and success of the company. If internal auditing is well organized in a company this could have a positive contribution on external auditor's work. However, external auditors must consider the fact that internal auditing is not completely independent since it is connected to the management. Institutions and companies in public sectors are the subject of government audit which audits all government financial activities. The scope of state audit includes financial and performance audit. In other words, audit determines whether the financial statements of the audited companies are stating a real and objective financial position, assessing whether all budget resources are spent in accordance with planned and approved resources in an efficient and effective way and if all laws and regulations are consistently applied.

in their work, 30% (13) of them cannot assess, while 9% thinks that they are not independent in their work. Some (5%) of the respondents did not answer this question (table 6).

Table 6

Opinions of internal auditors about their independence

The opinions of internal auditors about their independence:	Number of respondents	Percentage
Yes	24	56%
No	4	9%
Cannot assess	13	30%
No answer	2	5%
Total	43	100%

The opinion of internal auditors about their independence is a matter of their subjective assessment and because of that it is also important to review the internal audit organizational structures. Namely, the adequate organization position in the organization structure of the company is the key assumption for establishing an effective and independent internal audit function for better achievement of internal audit's goals.

Table 7

Internal Audit Organizational Structure

	Organization position of internal auditing within the organization	Number of respondents	Percentage
a)	organized within the department of finance, accounting and other departments	4	13%
b)	organized as the independent department having the same rank as other departments	8	27%
c)	organized as the advisory body of the management board and the supervisory board	16	53%
d)	organized as the department directly responsible to the Audit Committee which is the advisory body of the supervisory board	2	7%
	Total	30	100%

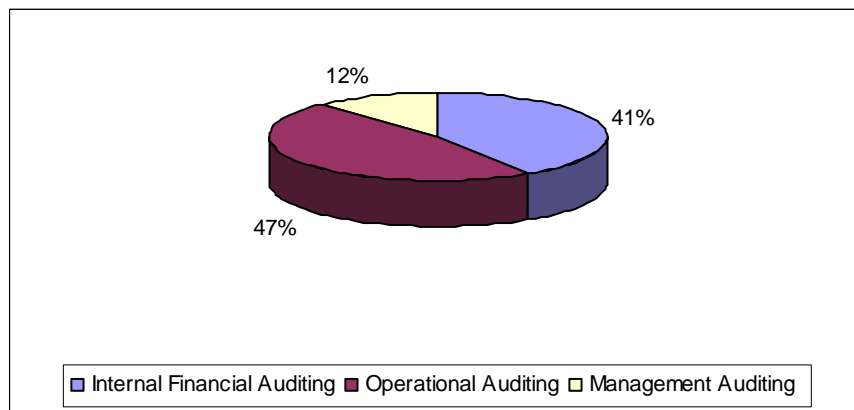
According to the results of empirical research it can be concluded that internal auditing in Croatian companies is in most cases organized as the department within the accounting, finance or some other department (table 7.). In this kind of organization structures it is difficult to ensure internal auditing independency. In other words, in most of the cases the internal auditing function is still under the management's influence and that is the reason why it is so difficult for internal auditors to be independent. It is often the case that the management of the company is determining the scope and the objects of internal audit projects. The results of empirical research in the world show that over the last five years, the reporting level of the internal audit function have risen steadily. In a 2002 survey conducted by the

Institute of Internal Auditors, only 55% of the internal audit respondents said they reports functionally to their audit committee. However, a survey conducted in 2007 by PricewaterhouseCoopers described their functional and administrative reporting relationships as follows: 89% of Fortune 500 respondents report functionally to the audit committee or board of directors. By comparison, 86% of total respondents report functionally to the audit committee or board. Furthermore, 28% of Fortune 500 respondents report administratively to the CEO or president, as do 31% of total respondents³. According to the same source fifty percent of Fortune 500 respondents report administratively to the CFO or the office of CFO, as do 47% of respondents overall.

Furthermore, the results of empirical research show that internal auditors in Croatia spend about 41% of their working hours on internal financial auditing, 47% on operational auditing while only 12% of the internal auditors' working time is dedicated to management auditing (figure 1). Therefore, in internal financial auditing internal auditors are responsible for evaluating whether their results of accounting process are fairly presented and whether they are in compliance with the laws and regulations. In operational auditing the internal auditors determine the effectiveness and efficiency of any part of the organization while in management auditing internal auditors are responsible for advisory services to the management and involvement of internal auditors to strategic management and strategic decision making process.

Figure 1

The role of internal auditing in the companies in Croatia



³ State of internal audit profession study: Pressures build for continual focus on risk, PricewaterhouseCoopers, 2007. The 2007 State of the Profession survey for internal auditing was conducted in the fourth quarter of 2006 and includes responses from 717 audit managers. 80% of the respondents are either chief audit executives or internal audit directors/managers. Fifty-nine percent are companies with \$1 billion or more in revenue. The purpose of the survey was to capture a snapshot of internal audit profession, share insights and observations of PwC experts about the major issues, trends, and changes reshaping internal auditing today.

A survey conducted by Ernst & Young⁴ indicates that the number of companies where Internal Audit maintains the primary burden of testing internal control over financial reporting is relatively high (Ernst & Young, (a) 2007. p. 2.). The results of a similar research show the degree to which the levels of assessment confidence among internal auditors vary by area of focus. In areas of finance, compliance and operation – sectors that might be characterized as traditional areas of focus for internal audit – respondents expressed high degrees of confidence, but they were less confident when dealing with risk assessments in the areas of technology, fraud and strategic or business risks (PricewaterhouseCoopers,(a) 2007,). This shows that, on the global scene, there are still many challenges facing the internal auditing profession. Although it not unusual that internal auditors spend most of their time on conducting internal financial and operational auditing (as the surveys of Ernst& Young and PricewaterhouseCoopers has shown), internal auditors in Croatia dedicate much less time on assessing strategic and business risks. In larger companies risk assessment and coverage activities need to be clearly defined, coordinated, and aligned with the company's strategic objectives (Ernst & Young, (a) 2007.). In that sense it is important to highlight that the management of Croatian companies has still not accepted the importance of internal auditing in the corporate governance and overall enterprise risk management.

3.3. The Role of Internal Auditing in The Improvement of The Business Quality in The Company

The second part of the questionnaire was focused on the role of the internal auditor in the improvement of the business quality of the company. The internal auditing landscape, recently dominated by financial reporting compliance-related efforts, is now being challenged by pressures on resources and growing demands to help improve overall business performance (Ernst & Young, 2007, p. 2.). In that sense, a very important question is the value that internal auditors can bring to the company and thus enhance the competitiveness of the company while protecting and enhancing share value. Also, senior management views audits as an excellent source of information to help them understand and assess the relative performance both of the business and of the functional units within the organization (PricewaterhouseCoopers (a), 2007, p. 36.). According to the results of empirical research in Croatia 91% (39 respondents) of internal auditors and people who do the surveillance of business activities within the company thinks that internal auditing gives a significant or medium contribution to the improvement of business quality (table 8.) In other words, the result of empirical research in Croatian companies shows that internal auditing adds value to the business.

⁴ Global Internal Audit Survey – A current state analysis with insights into future trends and leading practices- The survey was conducted by Ernst&Young where respondents were Internal Audit executives representing 138 predominately public companies with membership in the *Global Business Week 1000*, and *Standard&Poor Global 1200* from 24 countries. Most of the participants were large multinational functions with revenues of US\$ 4 billion.

Table 8**The contribution of internal auditing to the improvement of business quality**

The contribution of internal auditing to the improvement of business quality	Number of respondents	Percentage
Contribution is significant	17	40%
Medium contribution	22	51%
Little contribution	2	5%
Other/non response	2	5%
Total	43	100%

Also, one of the aims of this empirical research was to investigate the role of internal auditing in assessing the business quality that can be measured by financial and non-financial ratios. In the world of business it is usually said that what cannot be measured cannot be done. In other words business quality is something that must be measured in order to control and to assess the achievement of the company. As the results of this research show the internal auditors in Croatia spend a significant part of their working time on the auditing of accounting-information systems. With this in mind, it is logical to assume that for the auditor's assessment of business quality the financial ratios will be the most significant (table 9.). However, the scope and authority of internal auditing is also including the operational and management auditing and because of that internal auditors also need non-financial ratios.

Table 9**The instruments of measurement of business quality used by internal auditors**

Measurement of business quality	Number of respondents	Percentage
Financial ratios	11	26%
Non-financial ratios	7	16%
Financial and Non-financial ratios	23	53%
Others	2	5%
Total	43	100,00%

Regarding the importance of financial and non-financial ratios in the internal auditor's assessment of business quality 86% (37) of respondents thinks that financial and non-financial ratios are equally important, while 14% (6) respondents thinks that financial ratios are more important. The direction of the company towards financial, rather than operational and management aims shows that none of the respondents assessed non-financial ratios as the most important in the assessment of business quality (table 10).

Table 10**The role and the importance of financial and non-financial ratios in the auditor's assessment of business quality**

The role and the importance of financial and non-financial ratios in the auditor's assessment of business quality	Number of respondents	Percentage
Financial ratios are more important	6	14%
Non-financial ratios are more important	0	0%
Financial and non-financial ratios are equally important	37	86%
Total	43	100%

As it was mentioned earlier, the aim of this empirical research was to investigate whether the financial ratios are the most important in internal auditor's assessment of business quality. The results of empirical research show that what is very important for internal auditors are the financial ratios such as net income, cash flow ratios, liquidity ratios, total sales (total revenues) and the ratios that show decreasing total costs (table 11). Namely, those financial ratios have a medium of more than 3 on the scale, which means that over 50% of respondents graded this ratio with 4 or 5, while 50% of respondents graded those ratios with 1, 2 or 3 (respondents in the survey graded each financial ratio with grades from 1 to 5. Thus grade 1 means – this financial ratio is not important, 3- important, 5- very important in assessing the quality of business). Internal auditors in Croatia use less such financial ratios as earnings per share (EPS), return on equity (ROE), return on assets (ROA), economic value added (EVA), dividends payout ratio and increasing the market value of shares (table 11 and 12).

Table 11**Wilcoxon on Signed Rank Test: Financial ratios**

Interval			Confidence		
	N	N*	Estimated Median	Achieved Confidence	Lower
Upper					
Net income	42	1	4.00	95.0	3.50
4.50					
Cash flow	40	3	4.000	95.0	4.00
4.50					
Liquidity	40	3	4.000	95.0	4.00
4.50					
Earnings per Share (EPS)	36	7	2.50	95.0	2.00
3.00					
Return on assets (ROA)	40	3	3.50	95.0	2.50
4.00					
Return on equity (ROE)	41	2	3.00	95.0	2.50
4.00					
Return on sales (ROS)	40	3	4.000	95.0	3.50
4.00					
Decreasing total costs	41	2	4.000	95.0	3.50
4.00					

Economic Value Added (EVA) 3.50	39	4	2.50	95.0	2.00
Dividends payout 3.50	37	6	2.50	95.0	2.00
Increasing market value of shares 3.00	37	6	2.50	95.0	1.50

Table 12

Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test: Financial ratios

Test of median = 3.000 versus median > 3.000					
Estimated			N	Wilcoxon	P
	N	N*	for Test		
Median					
Net income 4.000	42	1	32	427.5	0.001
Cash flow 4.000	40	3	32	496.0	0.000
Liquidity 4.000	40	3	36	602.5	0.000
Earnings Per Share (EPS) 2.500	36	7	31	141.5	0.982
Return on assets 3.500	40	3	29	221.0	0.474
Return on equity (ROE) 3.000	41	2	32	259.5	0.537
Return on sales (ROS) 4.000	40	3	23	253.0	0.000
Decreasing total costs 4.000	41	2	29	389.0	0.000
Economic Value Added EVA 2.500	39	4	35	216.5	0.948
Dividends payout 2.500	37	6	33	199.0	0.929
Increasing market value of shares 2.500	37	6	31	122.0	0.993

3.4. The Role of Internal Auditing in The Strategic Management Process

This empirical research among other objectives had the task to identify what is the role and meaning of internal auditing in the strategic management process among the companies in Croatia. «Today, more than ever, the fortunes of the company can be tied to internal audit. In fact, a properly structured internal audit function can bring tremendous value to an organization, impacting not just regulatory compliance but also operational excellence. Intelligently utilized, internal audit can help manage risk, prioritize goals and activities, eliminate complexity and redundancy, streamline operations, and drive down costs, which, in turn, can enhance competitiveness while protecting and enhancing share value» (Deloitte, 2006.).

The results of empirical research show some problems that internal auditors in Croatia have. Some problems come from the fact that the management of Croatian companies does not recognize the value that internal audit function can bring to the organization impacting not just regulatory compliance but also operational excellence. According to the results of empirical research, 49% (21 respondents) answered that internal auditors do not participate in preparing the decisions for strategic management, while 21% (9 respondents) think that internal audit function has little importance in determining the aims, objectives and strategy of the company (table 13.).

Table 13**The contribution internal auditors make to strategic management**

The contribution that internal auditors make to strategic management	Number of respondents	Percentage
High	7	16%
Low	9	21%
Internal auditing doesn't participate in preparing strategic management decision	21	49%
Other/non response	6	14%
Total	43	100%

A very important question to consider while examining the contribution of internal auditors to strategic management is the competence and education of internal auditors in assessing and examining strategic objectives and the strategy of the company. People are still the foremost challenge for Internal Audit function around the globe: recruiting, retooling, developing and retaining the right skills (Ernst & Young, (a) 2007. p.2). The results of empirical research in Croatia show that 14% (6 respondents) of internal auditors think they are competent enough for examination and assessment of defined strategic aims and objectives, 12% (5 respondents) think that they are not competent enough for this task and the most respondents find themselves mostly competent for these tasks (table 14.).

Table 14**Competence of internal auditors to include in the strategic management process**

Competence of internal auditor to include in strategic decision- making process	Number of respondents	Percentage
Yes	6	14%
No	5	12%
Mostly	29	67%
Other	3	7%
Total	43	100%

The “war for talent” continues to be the greatest challenge for many internal functions (Ernst & Young, (a) 2007.)⁵. A good internal audit practice requires: a sound knowledge of audit standards and methodologies, a certain level of specialization while keeping a general view on things and relevant soft skills like management, communicational skills, presentation and negotiation capabilities (ECIIA, 2006. p.

⁵ The empirical research shows that competitive compensation is only one of the many factors that impact efforts to develop and sustain high-performing organizations. Other factors – such as training, mentoring, career opportunities, and new challenging assignments- are equally important and, collectively, may be more important than compensation.

26.). To ensure these skills there is need for a good recruitment process, appropriate training activities, adequate certification and – most important- a sufficient level of experience gathered by audit practice (ECIIA, 2006. p. 26.).

4. CONCLUSION

Internal auditing as a profession is constantly changing, which is best seen in the authority, responsibility, the field of work and the position that internal auditors have in the company. In that sense, internal auditing developed from financial auditing, where the object of auditing were only accounting records and information, towards operational auditing where all the business activities are the subject of surveillance. Modern internal auditing encompasses the role of internal auditing in the process of corporate governance directed towards the achievement of company goals and objectives, risk management process and the most of all active participation in the process of corporate governance. Considering the field of work, responsibility and position of internal auditing within the company, its contribution to increasing the business quality is inevitable.

The results of empirical research have shown that the development degree of internal auditing in the companies in Croatia does not correspond to the development degree of internal auditing in the modern market economies. The fact is that management auditing is still only a minor part represented in the projects of internal auditors in Croatia. In that sense it is important to point out the importance of continuous education, not only for internal auditors, but also for the management of companies in Croatia in order to increase the level of awareness and action towards the specific forms of surveillance of business activities.

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RAZVOJ I PERSPEKTIVE INTERNE REVIZIJE U POBOLJŠANJU POSLOVNE KVALITETE PODUZEĆA – EMPIRIJSKO ISTRAŽIVANJE U HRVATSKOJ

SAŽETAK

Ovaj rad je rezultat empirijskog istraživanja provedenog među 180 najvećih Hrvatskih tvrtki sa stajališta ukupne dobiti. Istraživanje je bilo namijenjeno voditeljima internih revizorskih odjela ali i menadžerima koji nadgledaju poslovanje unutar tvrtke. Istraživanje je provedeno u periodu od veljače do ožujka 2007. U tom su periodu na upitnik odgovorile 43 tvrtke što znači da je stopa povratne informacije 24%. Cilj ovog empirijskog istraživanja bio je istražiti trenutnu poziciju i prisustvo interne revizije u hrvatskim tvrtkama te istražiti instrumente mjerenja, kvalitetu poslovanja među internim revizorima u Hrvatskoj i ispitati doprinos kojeg interni revizori daju u poboljšanju kvalitete poslovanja najuspješnijih tvrtki u Hrvatskoj.

JEL: M42

Ključne riječi: *interna revizija, revizija dodane vrijednosti, kvaliteta poslovanja, Hrvatska*

THE PROGRAM OF A POSSIBLE REFORM OF THE INTERNATIONAL MONETARY FUND (IMF)

ABSTRACT

In the last decade of the 20th century and at the beginning of the 21st century, global economy has been exposed to the increased instabilities and global financial disequilibria, which outgrew in some of the countries in the region in global financial and economic crises. However, because of the huge misfortunes of the IMF in solving the financial crises and in fostering the development of the developing countries, there is great need for a radical reform of the IMF as well as the international financial system. Our goal in this paper is to highlight the role and significance of the IMF. It is possible to define the process of the reform of this institution and because of that we would like to show an agenda for the reform of the IMF by specifying the main directives of the reform draft. Therefore we shall divide this paper in two parts. In the first part of the paper, we shall discuss the importance of a possible reform of the Fund, which helps IMF to accomplish its goal and additionally suggest the directives for possible reform of the IMF. The second part of the paper shall discuss individually each directive of possible reform of the IMF which, in humble opinion of many economists, needs to reform its methodology of work and adopt new mechanisms, which should help manage the international monetary system effectively and later, provide a strong base for its (global financial system) development in the future.

JEL: E42, F33, F34

Keywords: International Monetary Fund (IMF), reform, quotas system, voting system, transparency, crisis prevention and crisis resolution.

1. Preface: The importance of a possible reform of the IMF - general analysis

Recently, many current problems have increased an interest in the global financial system to solve global economic instabilities caused by inadequate functioning and activities of the IMF. Namely, it is unquestionable that the IMF is going through a crisis and that it is facing an insecure future. In other words, as the IMF is incapable to actively react to a number of international economic problems, especially those in the developing countries, it is evident that the IMF itself is going through a deep crisis. This crisis could last much longer than expected, unless the IMF's possible reform is not considered more seriously. Regardless of the IMF's important contributions (since its foundation in 1945) to the global economy, its

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researches and tracking of the most important economic changes and financial crises over the last three decades, the IMF's role is now questionable. New borrowings provided by the IMF are negligible, its role of the political consultant to the Union countries is fairly reduced and its supervision of reinforcing the stability of the global financial system has become pretty uncertain. However, the efforts to let in reforms in the IMF and to find its new place in the global economy and global financial system have finally been initiated and carried out intensively over the last two years. The last attempt of a reform started out as an implementation of the Medium term strategy (MTS) in April 2006. The strategy was suggested by Rodrigo de Rato, then general manager, and it was confirmed and accepted by the IMF and by the financial board International Monetary and Financial Committee (IMFC). Nevertheless, there are still many things that have to be done, and not only with regard to the MTS, but also outside of the borders of this document. Likewise, any progress in the reform will command a full obligation and the dedication of the new general manager of the IMF (Dominique Strauss Kahn). Namely, the present general manager of the Fund Dominique Strauss Kahn is of the opinion that the reforms of the international financial institutions have to move forward as quickly as possible. One of the greatest challenges for Strauss Kahn will be closing a mutual agreement (between the member countries of the IMF) on the reforms on voting quotes, that is, regulating the voting system of the Fund to reinforce the influence of the currently insufficiently publicized economies in development.

Generally, the task facing the IMF is extremely difficult. The reforms of this international financial institution are necessary, because some economists would rather repeal the IMF's role alluding to its unsuccessful activities in times of financial crises over the last few decades, which, on the other hand, enables them to increase the moral hazard and activities reinforcing the volatility of international movement of speculative capital. All this creates an atmosphere of a possible crisis. Because of that some developing economies often become victims of the unstable capital flows. Despite responsible home political leaderships and the IMF, the Fund actually realizes that those countries need financial support to get over these "imported" crises. However, other people consider that the main reason for reforms of the IMF is that it demands and sets some complex conditions to debtor countries (mainly to underdeveloped, poor or developing countries). Regardless of that, according to them, the IMF does not have an adequate fan of funds or grants that would help those countries in possible crises. Furthermore, a third party insists that the IMF should insist on redefining its role and show more variety and interest in its own stabilization programs. Others, on the other hand, consider that it would be better for the IMF to stay out of financial activities and to keep as further as possible from the structural reforms, banks, privatization processes and liberalization and instead to keep focused on the social aspect and civil society like unemployment programs, the poor, economic growth and development rates, the protection of the free international capital movement and the free market. It would help the Fund to consolidate with the activities that traditionally belong to the World's Bank front. In that way, functioning complementary, both organizations would contribute to the better functioning of the global economic order. With regard to that, we have seen that in the last few years a lot of "intellectual ammunition" has been spent: a lot of work and efforts when advocating different options about the future function of the IMF. A wide range of ideas has been presented, from the one that the IMF should function as the "global world government" and serve to the global village, to the extreme narrowing of its mandate focusing solely to the most underdeveloped countries and the biggest debtors where private capital flows do not function and where the biggest chances of crises emergencies are. There were even suggestions to close down the Fund completely and to create a new institution with new missions, rules and models of functioning. There are too many radical attitudes claiming that the IMF cannot be reformed

because it has ceased to work for the benefit of citizens a long time ago and because it stopped saving countries with accumulated economic problems. One of the key preoccupations in the future will certainly be the adjustment of the IMF to the new conditions in the functioning of the world's economy. So far, the IMF has supervised the economic and financial state of individual countries and it intervened in countries that were going through different crises. However, a repeatedly stressed role of the private capital flows in the world has slowly "used up" IMF's mandate. Therefore, instead of being neutral and waiting for crises to happen, the IMF has decided that it wants to have a more active role in keeping balance in the complex and mutually dependent global economy. With regard to that, in 2008, it has been planned to reach an agreement on the changes within the IMF that have to be acceptable, above all, to the most influential countries in the G-7 group, which has the majority of the voting rights inside of the IMF. Additionally, there are increasingly loud demands from the group of the underdeveloped countries and developing countries. Changes within the balance of forces in the world economy have still not been reflected in the administrating structure of the IMF, so that the new economic giants, China and India, demand a more significant role, which would simultaneously lead to the decrease of the influence of some others and which makes the conclusion of an agreement even more difficult. The suggestion made by the strongest countries is to widen the supervision of the global world economy with a goal to achieve international monetary stability. Multilateral consultations are the key to this new approach, a change of quotes and voting rights on a one time basis that should reflect changes in economic strength of some regions and countries and the development of the new instruments and financial discounts to the countries exposed to external shocks. The following months of 2008 are surely to bring forward a very intense discussion about the future work of the IMF. The key questions that are going to be made in almost all future debates are: "What will the future of the IMF be like and is there at all a place for this institution in the new architecture of global finances? How to make the IMF more effective or how to direct all its member countries to practice macroeconomic politics that secure global stability and prosperity, or even more important, how to make them ready to prevent those financial crises with joined forces? Will the Fund be able to change anything in creating balance and order? Can the IMF be imagined in the future at all?" In any case, most of the member countries think that the IMF will continue to exist and that it will preserve its strong credibility and that it is a politically much more adequate and much more acceptable strategy to "redecorate" this institution into a more effective organization which will direct its work to a just promotion of the economic growth and development in all countries equally. However, the IMF will still hold the position of "primus inter pares" (the first among the equal) in the hierarchy of the international financial institutions. But, we are convinced that this position will not solve bigger questions that affect the role of the IMF in the world in which the globalization of the financial institutions has increased the vulnerability of all countries. All in all, the article sets the following scientific hypothesis: due to the increased instabilities and financial crises, the IMF has to reform its way of work and introduce new mechanisms of acting in order to administer the stability of the global financial system more efficiently and by that secure the foundations of the further world economic development and global prosperity.

2. The adequate definition of the IMF's role in the global economy and in the global financial system

The Fund has invested much effort to overcome different problems that have affected global economy and global financial system over the last few decades. That implies the oil crises

(1970s), a rush increase of the debtor crisis (1980s), the integration of economies in transition in Eastern Europe and the former Soviet Union, then Mexican, Asian, Russian crisis and the crisis in Latin America in the mid 1990s, as well as the crisis at the beginning of this decade (Argentina 2001/02, Turkey 2002, credit crisis in the USA, 2007). The Fund's role was of great importance in each of the mentioned events that has with time clearly defined its function in preventing the appearance and spreading of crises. However, as the time passed the IMF's role in these activities started to fade and lose its meaning. Due to that, critics and a few of the Fund's supporters have offered many new ways and suggestions that state this institution should spread its activities far beyond its authorizations. Critics warn about the constant IMF's non cooperativeness and the authority in working with the member countries. Namely, it all comes down to that when these countries come to the state of collapse and crisis, the IMF takes responsibility for the situation behind the closed doors, writes an action and strategic plan for a country that at that moment has no chance to reject or change that plan. In any case, this list should, according to the critics, include the spread of supervising activities, especially when it comes to areas where there is much insecurity and a lack of professionalism, as well as the increase of supervision in countries with a low national income and in developing countries, the introduction of new financial programs in the member countries and possession of certain financial means and discounts that can be used if help is needed by other countries as well. However, the institution is still criticized for not working at all or for not working well enough with regard to some tasks that should be done or maybe it is only confused by what is happening in its immediate surroundings or it is irritated by a countless number of suggestions on reforms and directions on its restructuring! Likewise, the main danger to global economy that has appeared recently is the lack of influence on politics of much bigger industrial countries and insufficient connection and coordination of the developing countries in the global financial system. Regardless of clear defining of certain tasks from the MTS, a better way of administering and defining IMF's role is needed to generally improve the stability of the global economy and financial system. Why? Namely, some people still doubt the Fund's efficiency in that context; critics still stubbornly think that the Fund is guilty of the lack of preciseness in giving advice to the developing countries regarding the choice of currency courses and adequate economic policies, including even those countries that largely contribute to the creation of the global inequalities. Regardless of the creation of new sectors and the reorganization of many sectors in the Fund, a lack of cooperation with other organizations is still noticeable within the institution. All of this results in a lack of attention to problems, insufficient synergy of the whole sector's work, but also new tasks of their sectors. This has, with time, prevented and shackled the best mobilization and integration of the staff that has dealt with key questions within the Fund. Despite much criticism, it has taken a number of important steps to improve the organization and skills of its own staff. Thus, many analysts continue to give high grades to the Fund when it comes to its familiarity with the institution tasks in the financial sector. The questions are really more concerned with the right timing, intensity and efficiency in giving advice, the speed of changes in the development of the global financial market, the necessary experience and the ability to give one real political administering of the certain Fund members, technical assistance, expedience in giving financial discounts etc. Changes in some of these areas can come really quickly, but they do not demand the will or support of all memberships at all, only sincerity, originality and more technical assistance and advice in all member countries, including those most developed. However, many consider that the role of the IMF should not be transferred to the future and only as supervising and giving advice directed to individual economic and financial development, as well as development throughout the regions and the whole global financial system, but they think that the Fund should always be ready to give certain financial services and facilities to the member countries in deep crises. Therefore, a

reply to certain tasks in the previously mentioned context, before any further judging of the adequate size of the Fund's financial means and further increase of the participation without any further complication.

3. The reform of IMF's administration: changes in quote structures and voting system

The administration and the structure of the Fund have always represented a stumbling rock in the international economic relationships. Namely, we think that this paragraph most strongly shows the differences between the developed industrial countries and developing countries. It is a fact that the basic principle of equality is not clearly seen and that the highly developed countries have all the decisions on their hands. According to many critics, and according to a number of non governmental organizations as well, the IMF strictly acts in interest of the USA that has a large influence that goes hand in hand with the large number of votes. For example, when there is a formal voting concerning changes of the Funds' Statute (Article of Agreement), using financial means for special needs, the USA has the power to veto, even when it comes to questions that demand a simple votes majority, this country is simply the strongest. With time, a two voice mechanism set to administer the Fund's operations (basic and quota votes) has become unequal. While the quota votes were based on a contribution of every country and on the basis of that on their development and economic power, the basic votes were allotted to all countries by the principle of equality among states. The current structure of administering the IMF was likewise criticized for lack of transparency set during the foundation of Bretton Woods institutions. This formula has been designed to become familiar with a series of political goals with regard to their practice. As such, it was set as and it stayed highly complex, ambitious and inadequate. The IMF stalled again and showed inadequacy in the work of the international institutions. The votes were divided in such a manner that each member got 250 basic votes and each country also gets one additional vote for each 100 000 SDR. Along with that, the size of the invested funds is determined according to the size of the total annual product and annual country's export. Because of that, there is a need to reform the quota formula, since developing countries have only 30% of votes, while the USA has 18%. As for changing the structures of quotes and the voting system of the Fund, there is no significant improvement. Only the results of the negotiations on the annual Funds' meetings can be highlighted where ad hoc quota increased its possibilities in China, Korea, Mexico and Turkey. Namely, at the meeting held on the 22nd April 2006, the IMFC showed the need for fundamental reforms of quotes and votes in the Fund. They called the general managers to work with the IMFC and the directing board to develop concrete suggestions with the goal to improve the dividing of quotas and voting power in order to be able to reflect changes in weight of roles of countries in the world economy and to secure for the underdeveloped countries to be able to vote when IMF is about to make certain decisions. Precisely on the 31st of August 2006, the directing board has reached an agreement about an advanced program of quota reforms and votes and suggested that the board of governors accepts Resolution on Quota and Voice Reform securing a two year's plan for these reforms to be implemented. The resolution secured an initial round of ad hoc quotas of increase for four countries, namely, China, Korea, Mexico and Turkey were insufficiently represented as well as the set of fundamental reforms that should be finished by the end of 2008. As the result of the current process regarding the reform of the voting system and quotas, China's voting rights increased by 0,72%, that is from 2,94% to 3,66%. The other three countries (South Korea, Mexico and Turkey) had to settle down for lower and less significant increases. Likewise, it is important to notice that these countries are still quoted low in the IMF's voting system. Likewise, Mexico has a thrice bigger portion in the world's BDP and double more

population than Belgium, and it has a significantly lower quote than that country. The seven biggest Asian countries excluding Japan in comparison to the seven EU countries (Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Finland, Netherlands, Sweden and Switzerland) have seven times bigger portion in the world's BDP and fairly more capacious commerce, but still lower aggregate quotes in IMF. These are only some of the examples of the weakness of the system in determining quotes. It is not surprising that such process of determining quotes does not win any respect among those who created it. Determining the quotes in the Fund is too subjective today, sensitive to different political pressures, under coherent, and if we went into a deeper analysis, we would additionally discover other irregular and rough malfunctions. We showed that the role of ad hoc increase in quotes will play a role in improving the distribution of quotes in order to reflect important changes in the weight and roles of the countries in the world's economy.

IMFC has agreed on the package of reforms directed to the modification of votes and quotes within the frames of the institution and that will finish by the end of 2008. Starting with the initial increments of quotes for China, Korea, Mexico and Turkey, when implemented this package of reforms will make a significant progress in realigning the portions of quotes with relative positions of the members in the world economy, equally important in the realization of participation and votes of countries with low incomes in the IMF as it has been shown in the resolution. However, all there is left for now is for the developed countries to have a more significant voting power and bigger rights to veto when it comes to making decisions, and there is still a certain degree of discord when it comes to the voting structure of the member countries in the international monetary system (developed countries, including G7 countries participate in decisions making with 60,79 %, while the countries in development only have 39,23%).

There is still a minority (led by the USA) that rigidly upholds a thesis that there is no need for a further (general or ad hoc) increase of the source of the funds of the IMF and that the Fund as a unity is currently more than liquid. This is an orthodox rhetoric that serves more to preserve the strong primacy of the USA in the IMF and it does not really concern itself with the wellbeing of the IMF itself. However, there are more reasons why the current quotes should be increased instead of holding the status quo. Over the last fifty years the quotes have been constantly increasing (every five years). However, this trend of increasing quotes has been decreasing with time (1), crises of the 1990s showed the vulnerability of the IMF when it comes to solving the successive crises that result directly from the insufficient quantity of available liquid funds. It is a fact that the liquid quotient in the second half of the 90ies fell under 100% for the first time and it found itself in serious liquid difficulties that strongly limited its capability of giving loans (2), if the current state is stable and satisfactory that the crises will not appear in the future. The possibility of an occurrence of new crises exists undoubtedly which is why a stubborn insistence on the status quo simply can not be understood. The suggestion to rebalance the quoting system of the IMF is pretty infertile. It is an idea of the opponents to increase the existing quotes, according to which a total size of the IMF's quotes would stay on the same level as it is today and within it there would be a transfer of the portion of quotes of the countries whose portions are overestimated to countries whose portions are underestimated. In any case, the suggested rebalance of the existing quoting system is still far beyond a satisfactory solution of the problem (3). However, it is becoming clearer that determining the quotes of the IMF is mostly a political issue. That means that the quotes calculated through the formulas are only a standing point, while the final quote of a member country is formed in the process of negotiation between the IMF and a member country, which is pretty non transparent. In practice, the current arrangement leaves

too much space for political maneuvering, within which political and economic interests of the most powerful countries form the values of quotas. Because of that, it will be difficult to represent such status quo as a true international institution. This constant injustice of the institution can decrease its credibility, decrease its legitimacy and the efficiency of its work. The real solutions are the fundamental reforms in determining the quotes. Although they will have to be simple, transparent, logical and coherent, and by the opinion of the majority, the determining of the quotes in the future should try to better reflect the real economic magnitudes of the individual country members. There is a growing number of those (including the IMF managers) who consider that it is necessary to give up various formulas of determining quotes and form a single formula on the basis of which the quotes of the member countries would result directly from the BDP of those countries. Only that way, we would get more precise, more transparent and more representative results. Is it really like that? The fact is that such an approach in calculating quote would decrease a pretty big number of mistakes in the financial system and the portions in the voting structure would increase for the developing countries.

4. Increasing transparency: introducing standards and codes of the IMF

After the Asian Crisis it has become clear that the prevention and better management of the financial crisis demands bigger transparency and flow of information related to the activities of the public sector, financial market and international financial institutions, especially and primarily of the IMF. It is also needed for the market of capital to reach a decision on investments and crediting for the governments, so that effective measures of regulations and supervisions of the financial institutions and activities can be implemented. Likewise, it is needed for the IMF to increase its supervision. The activities of the IMF were directed to setting standards and improving the quality of information about key macroeconomic variables and transparency of the activities of the public sector, including fiscal, monetary and financial politics. On the other hand, there has not been made enough progress when it comes to financial report of banks and other financial institutions and there is a large number of conceptual and structural problems. The problem of transparency is present within the IMF itself. New mechanisms are usually represented to the public in a form of a report. It is hard to achieve transparency, because governments consider that the information they receive from the Fund are confidential. A way to achieve transparency within the IMF is to form independent commissions, for example a UN commission that could revise an IMF report about an individual country and after that it can suggest a set of measures. Related to that, there is a code of good practice related to transparency. Namely, a Revised Codec was set for the financial transparency and it was approved by the Board of Directors on the 8th of May 2007 (Code of Good Practice on Financial Transparency Revised, April 2007). In that way the IMF brought the Codec of Good Practice and Transparency in Monetary and Financial Politics and Code of Good Practice in Fiscal Transparency, then OECD brought the Principle of the Good Cooperative Management. International Board for Accounting Standards (IASB) brought international accounting standards. International Federacy of Accountants (IFAC) brought international standard revisions, Basel Committee for Banking Supervision brought the basic principles of the efficient banking supervision. International Association of Insurance Supervisors (IAIS) brought the basic principles of insurance, etc.

5. The role of the IMF in the solving of the future international financial crises

Almost the biggest place in reforming the IMF has been left to the strengthening of the institution when it comes to management, prevention and resolving of the future international financial crises, as well as resolving debtors' crisis in developing countries. In any case, the consequences of the Argentinean crises for its neighboring countries in 2002 showed the need for the improvement of the IMF structure. Following the Mexican crisis in 1994 and Asian crisis in 1997, a preliminary program related to the IMF's role in dealing with and resolving the crisis was created. By now, the focus of the reform is to reduce the risk of the future crisis. However, some measures are still being tested and the future ones are seen as a base to redesign the politics of the IMF. Developing Early Warning System of the Fund based on the strengthened supervision of the Fund and discovering more information to the markets. This newest mechanism of the IMF represents a true novelty unlike the standard or traditional ways of crediting of the IMF. It implies crediting with a country's interest rate which is above average. These countries usually lead healthy politics and do the crediting with an appropriate but limited terms that a country can meet. The improving of the international supervision by the Bank for International Agreements and of the IMF is needed in order to strengthen the financial market. The Program for Taxing the Financial Sector (FSAP), administered by the IMF and the World Bank, significantly increased. The main goal of the FSAP is to help the developing countries to highlight their bouncing in undesirable development including an over bordering reflection. These three groups of initiatives work on the prevention of crises.

As for the ways of dealing with the crises, the IMF uses different approaches. On the one hand, it gives the support to the countries suddenly struck by a crisis of liquidity by acting through several credit arrangements. On the other hand, the IMF gives a long-term political advice, technological support and extensive financial support to the poorest countries in the deepest crises. Between these two cases, there are some countries that require the Fund's attention from time to time. Some of them continually need aid that is insurance through the IMF's existing funds. The IMF holds these funds under control, adjusts them according to the needs and sees them as a kind of World Credit Union. The IMF and the World Bank need to facilitate financing of the operations by decreasing debts of the debtor countries, by giving them funds so that they can decrease their debts. The IMF should become not only significant but the key figure in the future processes of prevention and administering of the international financial crises. According to current interpretations of highly appreciated economists, the crises in the global economy will still continue to exist for a certain period of time, regardless of its quality, flow of information, transparency and efficiency of its financial structure. Generally, the instability of the financial system sustains the problems that are mainly insoluble. Because of that, it is especially important to learn how to set actions in managing a crisis. One of the offered ways to act is a radical International Bankruptcy Regime. It is radical, but it could achieve a clear restructuring of debts on the condition to control the International Bankruptcy Court or to be under the surveillance of an international financial institution (in our case, the IMF). Namely, in home financial systems, the possibility of a debtor's bankruptcy leads to more self-disciplined loan givers and decreases their appetites to take up a risk. Another action with the goal to manage the crisis is the so called Sovereign Debt Reduction Mechanism (SDRM). The goal of SDRM is to facilitate a systematic, predictable and speeded reconstruction of the sovereign debts in cases when a debtor is a member of the IMF. If regularly designed and implemented, this mechanism should increase the efficiency of the international capital market and should result in the better global allocation of the capital.

CONCLUSION

Analyzing the structure of the global economy, not minding some recent progresses related to reducing risks of financial crises, reforms in this field are still necessary. The improved initiatives for the prevention of crises should be adjusted to the developing countries and developed industrial countries alike. The discussion on reforming the IMF remains on the level of theory and policy of the most powerful international financial institutions. It is considered that the major factors that limit its retaliation are still asymmetric political and economic interests of industrial countries and the developing countries. However, the world needs an efficient IMF and its efficiency will be secured in order to introduce and put into practice all of the reforms mentioned. We would like to solicit for further suggestions for the reform of the IMF which should make this institution more efficient and transparent: simple formula for calculating the quota system, which will be based on the BDP of the countries and payment of these quotas should be based on the «hard currency», entering the system of dual plurality which should respect the sovereignty principle of countries and the hierarchy of the country's power, and to give more voting power to the developing countries. However, the biggest problem is the role and the power of the USA. Namely, the USA assume that this reform of the IMF is nonsensical. As long as the USA is the most powerful country in the world, the reform of the IMF will not be taken seriously. On the other hand, if the USA loses its power, the IMF will stop existing, or will become a new institution with different goals. Maybe it is no so bad for the world and global economy.

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PROGRAM MOGUĆE REFORME MEĐUNARODNOG MONETARNOG FONDA

SAŽETAK

U posljednjem desetljeću XX-og i početkom XXI-og stoljeća, globalna ekonomija bila je izložena pojačanim nestabilnostima i financijskim neravnotežama, što je prouzrokovalo da u većini zemalja i regiona nastanu ekonomske, odnosno financijske krize. Zbog velikih neuspjeha MMF-a u obavljanju svojih regularnih aktivnosti, generalizirala se potreba za kompletnom reformom ove međunarodne financijske institucije, a samim time i globalnog financijskog sustava. Stoga, cilj ovog rada je ukazati na značaj i ulogu Fonda u financijskom sustavu i globalnoj ekonomiji, uopće. Također, u radu smo utvrdili i definisali program procesa reforme ove institucije, te ćemo u tom kontekstu predstaviti najznačajnije smjernice tog preliminarnog drafta. Rad smo podijeli u dva dijela: prvi dio koji ukratko obrazlaže ključne razloge za reformu MMF-a, a drugi dio se odnosi na konkretne odrednice koje bi trebale biti uvrštene u potencijalni program reforme. Po uvriježenom mišljenju većine ekonomista, Fondu su potrebni novi instrumenti i metodologija rada, što bi mu u konačnici pomoglo da efikasnije upravlja globalnim financijskim sustavom i osigura čvrstu osnovu za njegovo dalje funkcioniranje i razvoj.

JEL: E42, F33, F34

Ključne riječi: Međunarodni monetarni fond (MMF), reforma, sustav kvota, glasački sustav, transparentnost, prevencija globalnih financijskih kriza.

COOPERATION AND COMPETITION AMONG CENTERS FOR ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT (CEDs)

ABSTRACT

An increasing number of Centers for Economic Development is emerging in different countries of European Union. Their main goal is to stimulate Economic Cross border Cooperation. The consequences of this raising number of CEDs are little understood: does the agglomeration stimulate cooperation, or does it lead to a competition between CEDs? We use a game simulation as a research method as it offers a successful way of performing policy research. The main finding of the 'CED game' is that with agglomeration, the willingness to cooperate decreases. Furthermore we discuss the potential advantages and disadvantages of such game simulation as a tool for policy research. This article suggests that game simulations can be an interesting tool for policy research, but since this method also has its disadvantages a combination of various research methods will contribute to better results.

JEL: H11

Key words: game theory, competition, cooperation

Introduction

An increasing number of CEDs is emerging in Europe. It has become clear that strong trends of agglomeration are present in the CED sector. The consequences of this agglomeration of CEDs are not well understood: does it simulate cooperation, or does it lead to a competition between CEDs? Several authors argue that an increased competition of funding turn local organizations into organizations that operate strategically and opportunistically to secure funding (Cooley & Ron, 2002). According to them CEDs will spend more time and effort to obtain funding, instead of promoting transnational economic cooperation. This is what we attempt to assess in this paper: does this agglomeration of CEDs promote cooperation and benefit the companies and consequently the European Union, or does it lead to opportunistic behavior?

We use a game simulation research method to answer this question with respect to the EU. We use this method as it provides a new and innovative way of doing policy research. There is little experience with surveys and questionnaires as a tool for evaluation. Yet, little experience exists with game simulations in that field. The aim of this paper is to provide an answer to the above mentioned research question, but also to assess the advantages and disadvantages of game simulation as an instrument for policy research.

In this article, we first explain what collective action theories argue with respect to cooperation between EU CEDs, in particular the relation between agglomeration and cooperation. Moreover we explain the usage of a game simulation as a research method to test these theories, and how did it perform in practice. We continue by presenting the results. The main finding of the 'CED cooperation game' is that with agglomeration, the willingness to cooperate decreases. Based on this research, we conclude by discussing the

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potential advantages and disadvantages of game simulation as a tool for policy research.

Theoretical framework

This theoretical framework is based on the basics of collective action theory and its predictions on the relation between agglomeration and cooperation. Collective action theory makes certain predictions about when cooperation is likely to occur. Olson (1965) argues that ‘the larger the group, the less it will further its common interests’ (pp.36; Piciotti in Clague; 1997; Ultee et al; 2003). Authors argue that suboptimization of collective goods is larger in bigger groups as the noticeability of contributions and the individual benefits become limited. In addition, with many actors, costs to reach and enforce a contract for collective action become prohibitively high (Olson, pp. 46). With rising agglomeration the group size increases, hence decreasing the level of cooperation. Alternatively, Wade (1988) argues that another factor is co-determining outcomes in cooperation, namely: that even without selective incentives, cooperation can emerge if the collective benefits are high enough (pp.207). We assume that collective benefits are low in low-density areas of CEDs, as there are no shared learning possibilities and no shared marketing opportunities. Wade argues that in these circumstances little cooperation is taking place. We assume that with rising agglomeration collective benefits increase, as there are more possibilities to complement each other’s activities, for instance when one CED focuses on infrastructure and another on education in the same community. After a certain point possibilities to cooperate decrease, since CEDs become competitors for funding and target groups. In sum, Wade’s theory would suggest an initial increase in cooperation with rising agglomeration that levels off and even decreases after a certain level of agglomeration.

Olson argued that market groups differ fundamentally from non-market groups in their attitudes. The firm in an industry wants to prevent new entrants from coming into the market and wants as many as possible of those firms already in the industry to leave it. The firms in a given market are competitors. For non-market groups the opposite is true. Usually the larger the group to share the benefits and the costs with, the better. An increase in the size of the group does not bring competition to anyone, but may lead to lower costs for those already in the group. The large lobby networks of CEDs in e.g. Brussels are an example of this. The larger their network, the more influence they have when lobbying policy makers and politicians. The main difference is that in a market environment, the supply is fixed and in a non-market environment, the supply is not fixed (ibid; 37). We predict that in our case study a non-market environment changes in a market environment when the supply becomes fixed, that is when the CED market is saturated to the degree that new donors are hard to come by.

This research identifies three levels of cooperation:

1. cooperation with selective benefits for CEDs, but not necessarily for the target group;
2. cooperation with some selective benefits for CEDs and some for the target group;
3. cooperation without selective benefits for CEDs but for the target group;

The first level of cooperation refers to activities related to joint fundraising of CEDs. These activities relax the supply constraint, but do not necessarily increase the effectiveness of their work. This type of cooperation does provide selective incentives, but does not necessarily benefit the target group. Examples of these joint marketing and fundraising efforts are a joint fundraising website or a joint fundraising proposal-writing workshop. Both Olson and Wade would predict that this type of cooperation takes places in intermediate groups.

The second level of cooperation refers to activities such as joint training centers for staff and a mutual quality control system. These types of activities stimulate the quality of the

work of the individual organizations and through this increases the quality of the overall product. There are some selective benefits, but most of the benefits accrue to the common good. E.g. organizations that train individuals lose them to other organizations, and the rising quality of the organizations rises the tide for all boats, not just for the own organization. This kind of cooperation is hence the maximum kind of cooperation that Olson predicts in small intermediate groups. As agglomeration rises, and thus group size, Olson predicts that due to decreasing selective benefits, this cooperation will diminish, and finally only the cooperation with selective benefits only will persist (level 1).

The third level of cooperation (no selective benefits and collective benefits only) refers to activities such as coordination of regional and thematic priorities. These types of activities are good for the target group as overlap between the organizations is reduced and resources are more equitably spread. Brett (1999) argues that this cooperation is difficult to obtain as 'they are independent agencies, which defend their autonomy jealously and compete for funds and contracts. This makes coordinated action difficult, producing duplicated services in some areas and nothing in others. The social network that develops within the CED community does help, but the results are likely to be partial and imperfect, since they depend on personal contacts and preferences and are constrained by inter-agency rivalries.' Wade argues that cooperation can occur in such cases, if the collective benefits are high enough. Olson argues that this kind of cooperation will not take place as there CEDs do not individually benefit from it.

This research attempts to discover whether Olson's prediction (increasing agglomeration leads to decreased cooperation) or Wade's prediction (increasing agglomeration leads initially to increased cooperation but after a certain point it leads to decreased cooperation) holds in the case of development CEDs in the EU.

Methodology

This research employs game simulation as the principal research method. Gaming simulation provides an interesting experimental environment for studying strategic behavior in complex systems because (a) it enables monitoring and measurement of strategic behavior as it occurs; (b) participants can report the various patterns of strategic behavior conducted or experienced during the game without repercussions (c) debriefings facilitate discussions on similarities with and lessons for real life with the participants (Kuit et al, 2005). Other research shows that stakeholders actually enjoy participating in games, and that game simulations can provide insights to both researchers and participants alike (Meijer et al, 2005).

The CED cooperation game is a repeated interaction game that stretches five years (rounds) and was played 8 times with 37 participants. Two or three teams (consisting of four to six players) played against each other during the same evening, and from the start I made clear that two prizes could be won. The team that succeeded in getting most joint projects for the community would win one prize and the CED that succeeded in ending with most money could as well win a prize. These two prizes represent the dilemma CEDs face in their everyday lives; do they cooperate and achieve more for the communities, or do they prefer to secure their own financial situation? Participants were asked to represent their own organization and act accordingly. The value of all joint projects combined is always 25% more than the amount of tokens in the game, to ensure that negotiation is inevitable. If CEDs overfund a certain project (that is, spend more than 2 tokens more than needed for the project), they will lose five of their tokens; the project will nevertheless be executed. If CEDs underfund a certain project (spend less than on the project than the amount that is needed to have it executed), they will lose half of their money and the project will not be executed. Cooperation is thus essential. CEDs can discuss how much money they will invest and can suggestively place publicly the number of tokens they are willing to invest on the various project cards, but need to note down their actual decisions without sharing them with others. Only projects in which more than

one CED participates are executed.

In the three rounds the three levels of cooperation are tested. In the first round CEDs, the first level of cooperation is tested, followed in the second round by the second type etcetera. In the first round CEDs need to invest their money in projects that are related to cooperation that have selective benefits, but no effect for the target population. They can spend their money (they receive 20 tokens at the start of the game) on various projects that the board indicates. They can spend their tokens on projects such as shared fundraising trips and a joint workshop on proposal writing, or invest in their own fundraising projects. CEDs receive a higher return when they invest in joint fundraising projects (rate of return 1;2) as opposed to individual projects (1;1). All participants have this information. As projects need at least two donors, cooperation is necessary. There is a risk to investing in joint projects as tokens can be lost due to over- and underfunding. In both cases, the players are punished for their lack of cooperation. At the end of the first round, the game leader sums all the amounts that CEDs wrote down, and shares with the participants which projects are executed and which are not. The game leaders round off the first round by taking the tokens from or distributing them to the participants, depending on overfunding and underfunding of projects.

In the second round of the game, the second type of cooperation is tested. In this round, there are both selective benefits and benefits for the target group. CEDs can invest their tokens in joint projects that are beneficial for both themselves and the public good, such as joint assessment missions, joint training centers (rates of return 1;1,5). CEDs can also choose to invest in individual projects.

In the third round CEDs need to show whether they can coordinate their activities (third level cooperation). In this round there are no selective benefits, but there are benefits for the target population to be achieved. There are two types of projects, joint projects and individual projects.

The overall game ends with handing over the prizes to the team that has cooperated best, and to the individual CED that ends with most tokens.

Based on a survey of participants prior to their participation in the game simulation I constructed an agglomeration index. The agglomeration index consists of two (equally weighted) components: thematic agglomeration and geographic agglomeration and is different for every organization, as every organization is active on a different set of districts, has head offices in different locations, works on different themes and with different intervention strategies. The highest possible score on the agglomeration index is 2. A higher score indicates that the concerned CED is active on themes and in districts in which many other CEDs are present. We used this information to compose various teams that differed significantly in their average agglomeration. For every team, we calculated a 'team agglomeration index' that consists of the product of the average CED agglomeration index and the number of players in the team.

Various control variables that could affect the cooperation behavior of the CEDs were included when analyzing the results. Firstly, individual level controls were included, as individuals can influence game simulations (Hofstede, 2005). Therefore, control variables were included for the position of the participant in the organization, his/her nationality, and his/her sex. Secondly, CEDs are often assumed more outward looking, and more likely to cooperate when they are more mature. Therefore, the age of the CED is included as one of the control variables. Thirdly, as the debriefing made clear that game leaders affected in some recorded instances the course of the game simulation, a control variable was included for the three different game leaders.

Formal debriefings after the two trial game simulations resulted in significant changes in the design of the game. Consequently, the trial games are not included in the results section. An informal debriefing took place after the official games in which participants were invited to share their thoughts on the game simulation, and hint at how there might be a difference between the actual and the game situation. After this debriefing, the three

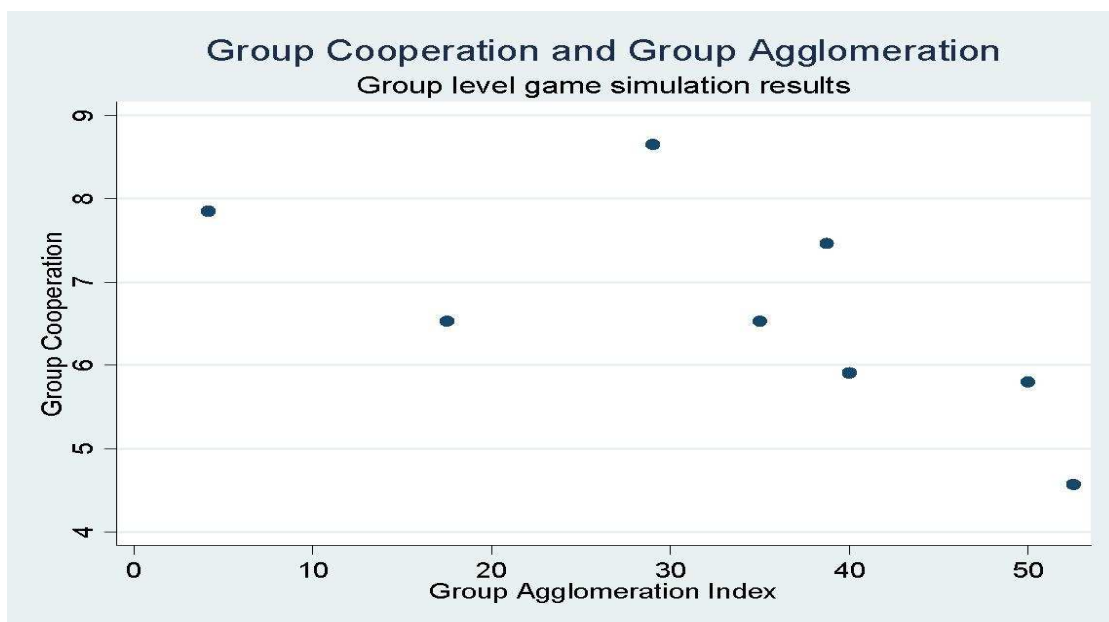
game-leaders had a formal debriefing in which special events during the games were discussed.

Results

We analyze the results at two levels; at the level of the different teams and at the level of the CED. This paper pays more attention to the CED level results, as the number of observations is 37 (N= 8 for the teams). In graph 1 the 'group agglomeration index' is scattered against the group 'cooperation index'. We derive the 'cooperation index' by dividing the value of all joint projects that contributed to community development by the number of players in the team.

Graph 1

Cooperation results of game simulation at the group level



Graph 1 (Olson, 1967) shows that more agglomerated teams, teams that worked more on the same theme and or district and/or had more players, scored lower on cooperation. They succeeded less in funding joint projects that benefited the community. This graph suggests that the downward sloping line of Olson theory resembles more the outcomes of the game simulation, than Wade's inverted U-shape. This paper uses an analysis at the individual level to test whether these results hold when scrutinized in a more systematic way.

The dependent variables in the regressions are the individual propensities to cooperate in the three different rounds. We calculate this propensity by dividing the tokens invested in joint projects by the total tokens a player has. To recap, in the first round shared fundraising, type 1 cooperation, was the aim. This shifted to shared quality improvement, type 2 cooperation, in the second round and to coordination, type 3 cooperation, in the third round. I use a linear regression to test the relation between agglomeration and cooperation. Two different functional form specifications exist, what we call the Olson specification and the Wade specification. In the Olson specification, the individual agglomeration index enters the model, in the Wade specification also a squared function of the agglomeration index is included to test non-linear agglomeration effects (the supposed inverted U-shape).

The results of the regression indicate that in the Olson specification there is a significant (at the 1% level) negative relation between agglomeration and cooperation in two of the rounds of the game, namely round 2 (quality improvement) and round 3 (coordination).

These round specific results are consistent with the predictions of Olson who noted that when supply is fixed (as is the case in round 2 and round 3), and there is increased agglomeration, non-market intermediate groups will display market behavior. In round 1 the supply is not fixed: the round provides possibilities to relax the supply constraint. The absence of a relation between agglomeration and cooperation was predicted by Olson. The Olson specification explains the results of the game simulation better than Wade's. The agglomeration indicators have the predicted signs in the Wade specifications, but they both lack significance. This suggests that the results of the game simulation are not in line with the Wade's inverted U-shape relationship between agglomeration and cooperation.

The individual level controls are consistent, but not significant. The importance of the game leader becomes apparent by the dummies for the different game leaders. The CEDs that were in a game supervised by game leader 2 were significantly more prone to cooperate in two of the three rounds. In three of the four Wade regressions, the game leader is the only significant variable that can explain the propensity to cooperate. Still, despite this the agglomeration results remains significant in the Olson specification. The goodness of fit of the overall Olson model is about 34%, ranging from 26% in round 1 to 34% in round 2 and 3.

Discussion

The methodology

How valid are the game simulation results? To look at validity there are two central elements, internal validity and external validity. In the discussion we will focus on external validity. To enhance external validity this paper involved both experts and practitioners in the design of the game. However, discussions with stakeholders and experts after the game simulation showed that there were some doubts about the external validity of the game. One of the game leaders put it as follows: 'To what extent does the game measure whether participants are just good in playing games instead of measuring whether they truly cooperate in real life?' One other game leader concurred 'The results of the game simulation show that international staff cooperates more successfully than local staff in the game. Is this true in reality as well, or does it just reflect that the game was conceived by international staff and that the game designers and those international participants operate with similar mindsets and speak the same language?' Yet, we aligned the incentives that CEDs face in the game as much as possible with incentives in the real world. This implied incentives that stimulate and discourage cooperation that stimulate and discourage strategic behavior. The dilemmas in the game simulation and the real life situation are alike. External validity is, however, not only assessed by whether stakeholders agree that the design resembles the real world, but whether outcomes in the game resemble real life outcomes (assuming that there are effective tools to assess those). We therefore highlight some interesting convergences and divergences between the results of the game simulation and the actual CED situation.

A first similarity relates to activities for which CEDs were more likely to cooperate. The network of CEDs in the EU focuses on cooperating on marketing and fundraising (level 1 cooperation) and not on quality control (level 2 cooperation) and coordination (level 3 cooperation). This corresponds to the game simulation results, which showed the highest propensity to cooperate (>85%) in round 1 (the fundraising year). A second similarity is that international staff, who cooperated more successfully in the game simulation, also cooperated more in real life, measured for instance by the number of hours international CEDs work with other CEDs. A last similarity is the strategic behavior of some of the CEDs. Some of the players go at great lengths to secure funding for their own organization, including promising to work on other topics than they were actually interested in and renege on those promises at the moment funding is confirmed.

Despite these similarities, there are also some differences between the outcomes of the

game simulation and results of the survey. CEDs claimed that they cooperate most with organizations that work on the same themes and districts, whereas the game simulation showed that there was a significant negative effect of agglomeration on cooperation (thus indicating that CEDs cooperated actually more with CEDs working on different themes and districts). Another difference is the absence of a correlation between the organizations that are engaged in shared fundraising in real life and the propensity to engage in shared fundraising in the game simulation. How can we explain this? Was the game simulation or the survey biased, or both? There are certain reasons to assume that the outcomes of the game simulation overestimate the extent of cooperation between CEDs. In real life, there are more information asymmetries and higher transaction costs. E.g. in the actual situation, some organizations have better access to information and there is a cost to negotiations due to transport costs. However, in the game simulation, CEDs are sitting at the same table and all have the same information. In addition, in the game simulation we fixed the number of potential CEDs in one game at a maximum of six, whilst this is not the case in the real life situation. Yet, also the responses to the survey can be biased. This holds particularly in this case as an international student affiliated to a foreign CED executed the interviews, which lead to socially desirable answers in some instances.

Conclusion

Let us return to the question in the introduction on the potential of game simulation as a tool for policy research. In social sciences, all methodologies have their flaws and biases. By combining various methods, triangulation, the risk of bias decreases. This article suggests that game simulations can be interesting additional gear in the toolbox of social scientists, but that the behavior of the game leader can have a significant impact on the course of the game. The article suggests that including dummy variables can be a potential way of solving biases that occur because of deviating behavior of game leaders. This article concludes that game simulation can be interesting instrument for policy research, as questionnaires and surveys are prone to lead to social desirable responses in relations of dependency.

The research question

The second aim of this paper was to gain insight in our research question on the relation between the agglomeration of CEDs and cooperation between them. Should European governments be satisfied with this increased agglomeration of CEDs? Does it lead to increased cooperation between them? The findings of the CED cooperation game suggest that increasing agglomeration of CEDs reduces cooperation between them. Olson's prediction on the negative effects of agglomeration on cooperation is dominant. The only domain in which CEDs keep on cooperating, even when the CED market is saturated, is fundraising. Cooperation that benefits their own organization keeps on existing, and cooperation that does not have any benefits for the organizations decreases. The findings suggest that some negative consequences to the agglomeration of CEDs merit attention of practitioners, policy makers and academics.

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SURADNJA I KONKURENCIJA MEĐU CENTRIMA ZA EKONOMSKI RAZVOJ (CED)

SAŽETAK

Sve veći broj Centara za ekonomski razvoj pojavljuje se u raznim zemljama Europske Unije. Njihov je glavni cilj poticanje transgranične gospodarske suradnje. Posljedice ovog povećanog broja takvih centara nisu posve jasne: potiče li aglomeracija suradnju ili dovodi do konkurencije među centrima? Kao istraživačku metodu koristimo simulaciju igre jer nudi uspješan način za istraživanje politike. Glavni nalaz «CED igre» je da aglomeracija dovodi do pada volje za suradnjom. Nadalje, raspravlja se o potencijalnim prednostima i manama takve simulacije kao alata za istraživanje politike. Ovaj rad sugerira da ovakve simulacije mogu biti interesantan alat za istraživanje politike no, kako i ova metoda ima svoje mane, kombinacija različitih metoda istraživanja će pridonijeti kvalitetnijim rezultatima.

JEL: H11

Ključne riječi: teorija igre, konkurencija, suradnja